NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES IN THE CONTEXT OF ASYMMETRICAL POLITICAL RELATIONSHIPS WHEN PLANNING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR ADULTS

by

Sheng-yun Yang

(Under the Direction of Ronald M. Cervero)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the negotiation strategies that adult educators used to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The following research questions guided the study: First, in what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table? And second, what negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders? A qualitative study was conducted; ten women and two men ranging in age from the 30s to the 60s were interviewed by using an in-depth and semi-structured format and the critical incident technique. The 12 participants were from nine different organizations distributed over five different geographic locations in Georgia, including Athens, Atlanta, Covington, Gwinnett, and Kennesaw. Data analysis was based on grounded theory and revealed the following two findings. First, organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility were major themes influencing the participants—program planners—so that they felt that they did not have enough power at the planning table. Second, a total of six strategies were identified under two main themes—exercising power and ceding power—when an asymmetrical political relationship occurred in the planning process. The strategies for exercising power include

building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow, and the strategies for ceding power include going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table. Five conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. First, asymmetrical political relationships result from an array of complex interacting factors—organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. Second, the major conflicts in the planning process result from differences between organizations' adult education ideology. Third, relationships play a key role in negotiation. Fourth, making strategic decisions about exercising or ceding power is central to negotiation in asymmetrical political situations. Fifth and finally, win-win theory is the most strategic stance when negotiating in asymmetrical political situations in terms of the following three negotiation theories—game theory, win-win theory, and fairness theory.

INDEX WORDS: Adult education, Program planning, Negotiation, Asymmetrical political relationships, Grounded theory, Critical incident technique, Qualitative study, Game theory, Win-Win theory, Fairness theory

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SHENG-YUN YANG

B.A., National Defense University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, 1989

M. S., National Kaohsiung Normal University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan, 2005

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SHENG-YUN YANG

Major Professor: Ronald M. Cervero

Committee: Laura L. Bierema
Melissa Freeman
Lorilee R. Sandmann

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2011

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Educational programs for adults play a role in helping organizations solve practical problems or helping individuals engage in lifelong development. Program planning is a social activity in which educational program planners and stakeholders discuss and negotiate personal and organizational interests to produce and deliver educational programs for adults. A planning table is a program planning activity in which planning decisions are made by a group of people, including program planners and related stakeholders. According to Cervero and Wilson (2006), the planning table can be either a physical one where people meet to make decisions or a metaphorical one where people make decisions with others on the telephone, in hallways, or privately in offices. In program planning practice, adult educators, also playing the role of program planners, are marginalized (Bierema, 2010; Cervero & Wilson, 2006; Chapman, 1990; Clark, 1956a, 1956b, 1958; Donaldson & Edelson, 2000; Glowacki-Dudka & Helvie-Mason, 2004; Merriam & Brocket, 1997; Sheared, 2006; Sheared & Sissel, 2001) or have relatively little formal power compared with administrators elsewhere in the organization (Cervero & Wilson, 2006; Goody & Kozoll, 1995; Gordon, 1987; Knox, 1991; Szilagyi & Wallace, 1983; White & Belt,1980). Under these circumstances, adult educators will be more likely to face a situation in which they feel powerless or less powerful compared with other stakeholders in the planning process. In terms of negotiation, if one party demonstrates an overwhelming power over the other party, the situation as an asymmetrical negotiation will be described, meaning that the power between the two parties is unbalanced. For example, if an adult educator's planning interests run counter to those of his/her boss or the funder, this type of negotiation can be

described as asymmetrical because of the asymmetrical power relationship between the boss or the funder and the adult educator. In program planning, negotiating interests are central to planning (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). Potential areas of conflict regarding negotiating interests in program planning include program purposes, necessity of implementation, learning about subjects, learners' needs, audience, content, format, learning activities, instructors, schedule, location, logistics, funding, cost, and so forth. This study aimed to gain better understanding of power differences at the planning table and to explore negotiation strategies that adult educators use in the planning process in organizations. All participants recruited for the study were working in higher education when the data were collected. Each participant was asked to share a critical incident regarding a specific situation in which he/she planned an educational program and faced an asymmetrical power relationship at the planning table. The planning contexts that the participants shared in the study included continuing professional education, continuing education, higher education, and community education. Organizations involved in the study included continuing education centers in universities, a nonprofit organization, professional associations, a research institute, university systems, and a county government.

Background of the Study

Adult educators plan educational programs for adults to help organizations solve practical problems or improve the quality of service in terms of achieving the organizational goals. For program planners, applying planning principles to create an educational program is very important. However, the organizational and social contexts cannot be ignored, although they are often seen as noise that impedes application of the principles (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a). In organizational settings, educational programs demand one critical element—financial support. Without it, educational programs cannot be implemented, even if the CEO of the organization

knows the importance of matching educational programs to the learning needs of employees and organizational objectives. In addition, without financial support, adult educators will lose their role in the organization. To improve adult educators' social status in the organization, adult educators strive to get funding approved in order to play a role in the organization. Therefore, the question concerns who has the right to approve the funding. Generally speaking, the answer is "leadership." What is leadership? Cervero and Wilson (2006) answer that "leadership is better understood as a relational social process" (p. 188). Donaldson and Edelson (2000) point out that "the effective use of power is an essential ingredient in leadership" (p. 200). Thus, it is important for adult educators to know how to construct a good relationship with leaders if they are to finance their programs. On the other hand, once the funding is approved, how do adult educators convey their messages on needs-assessment, objectives, and instructional design with other stakeholders who probably will be in the leadership group in the organization? Do they follow the ideas of leaders or insist on their opinion even if it runs counter to the leaders' ideas? The asymmetrical political relationship at the planning table is shaped by the negotiation between adult educators and other powerful stakeholders.

How do adult educators compare with other units in organizations? White and Belt (1980) state that "most adult education administrators have relatively little formal power compared with administrators elsewhere in the organization" (p. 230). Gordon (1987) indicates that adult education units are the first to be cut when the parent organization faces a financial crisis. In this situation, Chapman (1990) indicates that "most adult educators can convincingly state that their unit maintains a marginal status within their parent organization" (p. 1). The word "marginality" was first used by Clark (1956a, 1956b, 1958) to describe the characteristics of adult education organizations. Clark asserts that adult education agencies are marginal because of their relative

position and status within an administrative structure. In addition, Donaldson and Edelson (2000) argue that "the field's understanding of marginality has been primarily informed by functionalist thinking" (p. 202). Functionalist thinking refers to educational programs that are not integrally related to the core or central tasks of the parent organization. Further, Cervero and Wilson (2006) point out that "an awareness of marginality is useful for understanding not only planners' marginalized self-perception but also their actual location as 'low' on organizational hierarchies of responsibility and authority" (p. 191). Moreover, Cervero and Wilson (2006) also interpret this marginality as "being peripheral to and dependent upon organizations with other primary goals" (p. 189), and they add that "most adult educators have a visceral sense of such second- or third-class organizational citizenship" (p. 189). Additionally, Bierema (2010) states that "you may be an adult educator, but not part of the group of faculty who controls the education, or the editors who decide what gets published in the journals, or the leaders of associations that determine policy" (p. 140). These statements indicate that adult educators are not considered to be integrally important to the overall success and performance of the organization (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1983).

Under these marginal circumstances, adult educators need to acquire resources to create an educational program by attending the planning meeting. Therefore, communicating with other stakeholders to get their understanding and support is a major task for adult educators. In doing so, understanding the context of program planning is essential. According to Caffarella (2002), the context in program planning is defined as the human, the organization, and the wider environment. Imagine a couple of stakeholders (or maybe more) working at a table to produce an educational program for adults. They exchange ideas and discuss possibilities related to the program. Sometimes they are satisfied with the outcomes of the discussion. Sometimes one may

complain about the program because his/her interests are not accepted. Program planning is complex because it involves stakeholders who attend planning meetings as well as others who may not have a voice at the planning table. Indeed, program planning is closely related to the structure of power because adult education happens in a social location that is defined by a particular social vision in relation to the wider systems of social, economic, and cultural relations of power (Cervero & Wilson, 2001). Moreover, the culture, organization, and their associated structural and historical dimensions influence and shape program planning in relation to power (Ryu, 2008). In fact, the socio-political and socio-cultural nature of program planning influences the process and makes planners anticipate how people think, how they interpret information, how they respond to one another, and how they understand stakeholders and the wider environment.

The context of program planning helps us understand more about creating an educational program, but it does not explain what adult educators actually do at the planning table. Cervero and Wilson (2006) indicate that people undertake many forms of practical action at the planning table where they confer, discuss, and argue in making judgments about what to do to produce the important features of the educational program. They add that the overall concept describing these interactions is *negotiation*, not because there is always conflict involved but rather because all human interactions are, in part, political. In addition, Cervero and Wilson (2006) state that "decision making about the features of the educational program is a form of problem solving" (p. 95). In this view, Zartman (2008) contends that negotiation is a search for a formula and views it as a more positive and creative attitude to the resolution of conflict. Therefore, on the one hand, planners exercise power to represent their own and others' interests in shaping educational and political outcomes. On the other hand, planners negotiate their interests with other stakeholders when conflicts occur among them at the planning table. Thus, negotiation is not only a chance

for adult educators to reshape the political relationships with other stakeholders, but also a way to make better decisions to suggest actions for people who are working together with incongruent goals.

The scope of negotiation ranges from one-on-one to complex multiparty interactions. Thompson (2005) indicates that there are five factors which make negotiation more important and more complicated: "the dynamic nature of business, interdependence, competition, the information age, and globalization" (p. 3). Further, most literature focuses on strategies, not theories. Nevertheless, theory can provide the basis for explaining why a strategy can work in a certain context. Three major negotiation theories, *game theory*, *win-win theory*, and *fairness theory* can be applied in the context of program planning and will be discussed in chapter two. In addition, most of the negotiation literature is embedded in the fields of business, management, law, diplomacy, labor relations, and conflict resolution. Very little is related to program planning. Moreover, very little literature addresses negotiation in asymmetrical situations. Although Cervero and Wilson (1994a) mentioned that "most often, planners must negotiate between conflicting interests in an arena where the power relationships are asymmetrical and complex" (p. xii), they clarify that not all relationships of power that planners face are relationships of domination. Even in asymmetrical power relationships, there is always some form of negotiation in performing the activity at hand.

Statement of the Problem

In the practice of program planning, political activity cannot be avoided at the uneven table between adult educators and more powerful stakeholders. In the context of organizations, fulfilling goals is the primary purpose of the organization. Educational programs play an auxiliary role in facilitating the organization to achieve their goals. In addition, organizations are

really “informal, relational, processual social constructions, produced through human discourses in localized contexts where power plays a central role” (Donaldson & Edelson, 2000, p. 197). The power-engendered relationships “produce and govern organizational activity and interaction” (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 188). Therefore, in the process of program planning adult educators not only communicate messages related to meanings and purposes of the program to stakeholders, but also develop organizational relationships with the leadership group to improve their power to make their messages heard.

Comparing adult educators with other units in the organization, Cervero and Wilson (2006), Clark (1956a, 1956b, 1958), Donaldson and Edelson (2000), and White and Belt (1980) all believe that adult education agencies are marginal because both their relative position and status within an administrative structure are low on organizational hierarchies of responsibility and authority. Therefore, financial problems or resource allocation will easily undermine or interfere with the programs that adult educators start or continue. Thus, the program planner playing the role of adult educator will be more likely than other stakeholders to face asymmetrical power relations during his or her career. When this asymmetrical situation happens, the challenges are that the voices of the marginalized stakeholders are heard infrequently, and the outcome of the discussions or the outcome of the program may not be fair to those who are affected by the program. The problem will be more likely to be solved if adult educators implement certain negotiation strategies chosen to develop their power through the process of program planning.

Based on this conspicuous problem, some scholars (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Mosley, 2005; Yang, Cervero, Valentine, & Benson, 1998; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have conducted studies related to exploring adult education practitioners’ power and influence styles and their relationships to organizational political contexts. Most of these studies attempted to

develop instruments to measure power and influence behaviors in organizations. These studies include a profile of organizational influence strategies (Kipnis et al., 1980), an influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss (Yukl & Tracey, 1992), an influence tactics scale (Yang et al., 1998), and negotiation of sociopolitical issues in medical education program planning (Mosley, 2005). Very few studies have focused on exploring negotiation strategies and the types of power which made these asymmetrical relationships happen between adult educators and other stakeholders. Further, there are no studies exploring negotiation strategies based on negotiation theories in terms of asymmetrical power relations that adult educators may often encounter in the process of program planning.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the negotiation strategies that adult educators used to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table?
2. What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?

Significance of the Study

This study aimed to make a contribution extending theoretical knowledge of program planning theory and practical applications of negotiation. This study included both theoretical and practical aspects making it significant. Those theoretical and practical aspects are addressed below.

Significance of Theoretical Contribution

First, this study attempted to extend the knowledge of Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b, 2006) theory of program planning practice. Cervero and Wilson develop a conceptual scheme that delineated four different ways that power relations and associated interests can structure situations in which planners must work. The theory suggests that the counteracting strategy is considered the best way for planners to deal with situations in which they are engaged in asymmetrical power relations and also have competing interests with other, more powerful, stakeholders. In these situations, planning seems to serve the interests of those who have the most power rooted in planning contexts. Although Cervero and Wilson suggest the counteracting strategy, we need more details about how to counteract power because counteracting power is more difficult to do than other strategies in their theory (satisficing, networking, and bargaining). Second, most negotiation literature addresses the fields of business, management, law, diplomacy, labor relations, conflict resolution, and so forth. There is much less scholarly writing related to negotiation in the field of program planning. In addition, most negotiation theories and strategies are derived from the literature of those fields, other than that of the program planning field, and very few focus on asymmetrical negotiation. This study intended to explore negotiation strategies and theories from the perspective of program planners and the situation of asymmetrical power relations to address the gap in theoretical knowledge.

Significance of Practical Contribution

In the practice of program planning, what adult educators have learned about program planning models and theories does not yet provide an adequate foundation for practice because the mode of technical rationality lacks the crucial ethical, political, and structural dimensions that make sense of planners' actions in a contest of interests and power. Therefore, the challenge of

linking agency and structure and integrating planning and practical human action with social settings has to be met in practice. Thus, the practical contribution of this study was to provide program planners with clearer knowledge of negotiation strategies that result in more even-handed inclusion of all interests in the practice of program planning. Although it was rare that one study directly impacted practice, there might be some information from this study that effectively was translated into practice. At least, according to the study, the translation of asymmetrical power relations in the context of program planning helped us make sense of the planning practice in which political activities in organizations were carried out by people to acquire, enhance, and obtain preferred outcomes by using power and other resources in situations where there were uncertainties or disagreements (Pfeffer, 1981).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to explore the negotiation strategies that adult educators use to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table?
2. What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?

With regard to this purpose, this review of the literature focuses on three relevant areas. First, power and politics in adult education are addressed because political activities cannot be avoided in the process of program planning. Second, negotiation theories, suggested strategies, and relevant studies are addressed, compared, and analyzed to obtain basic knowledge about strategies and tactics of negotiation in order to help the researcher conduct this research and make sense of the findings. Third, negotiation in the context of program planning and relevant studies are described to combine negotiation strategies, program planning, and adult education to shape the whole picture of this study.

Power and Politics in Adult Education

Concepts of power and politics have appeared in almost every setting from ancient times to the present and have existed as long as there has been human interaction in social activities. These two concepts are discussed in the field of social science and especially in organizational

settings. Educational program planning is an activity related to the social science, and in terms of organizational settings, both planning within the organization and across organizations are included. Program planning is a complex activity in which power and politics cannot be ignored. In addition, exploring the status of adult educators is conducive to understanding the power differences between adult educators and other stakeholders. Moreover, it is important for adult educators to think clearly regarding adult education administration, for adult education administration plays the role of a platform on which adult educators need to negotiate their interests with other stakeholders, and in most cases, potential conflicts will occur during the administrative decision making process.

Power and Organizational Politics

Scholars have proposed numerous theories to explain the concept of power. Fairholm (1993) identified six power theories are addressed as follows: power in political theory, power in social theory, power in organizational theory, exchange theory, alignment theory, and contingency theory. Power in political theory implies that the power elite is made up mostly of political, military, economic, and community leaders who occupy strategic positions in the social system of the community at every level in American (Mills, 1957). Hunter (1959, 1963) believed that top leaders came from not only the military, economic, and political elites but also labor, recreation, professional, and financial domains. Power in social theory indicates that power deals with concepts like authority, force, control, and conflict as significant elements of social relations and as mechanisms both to describe and predict situational alternatives (Wrong, 1979, cited in Fairholm, 1993) and that a power theory is shaped by the ideas of motivation, self-esteem, competence, control, causation, powerlessness, stimulus response, and locus of control (Fairholm, 1993). Power use in organizational theory, according to Bacharach and Lawler (1986), implies

that power is part of the background of the organization, is exercised in specific functions (such as communication, decision making, and planning), and is critical to the functioning of the organization and to the fulfillment of the democratic traditions of human cultural life. Exchange theory proposes that an organization can be described as a marketplace for the exchange of goods and services, information, and labor and that this marketplace is a political (or power) arena within which participants engage in power use to make real their own desires in terms of achieving both organizational and individual goals (Fairholm, 1993). With regard to alignment theory, Culbert and McDonough (1980) indicated a power-use problem suggesting that people aligned their personal goals and values with those of the organization. Fairholm (1993) believed that organizational culture, customs, and traditions play a major role in the process of alignment. Contingency theory implies that "people who control critical contingencies are better positioned to use power to achieve their aims than others who do not control critical contingencies" (Fairholm, 1993, p. 165).

Given that power plays a very important role in society and influences people' lives significantly and that most of the time power seems to serve the interests of the people with authority to achieve their goals, some theories critical of the power have evolved, too. Such theories addressed here include critical management studies, tempered radicalism, and small wins. The term *critical management studies* (CMS) was first used by Alvesson and Willmott (1992) in their edited book *Critical Management Studies* which brought critical theory and poststructuralist writings together. According to Fournier and Grey (2000), CMS includes three interrelated core propositions: de-naturalization, anti-performativity, and reflexivity. Grey and Willmott (2005) define these three terms as follows. De-naturalization refers to what is crucial to any oppositional politics. Natural means the often unjust way of the world: men dominate women, whites

dominate blacks, and capital dominates labor, and CMS questions these kinds of assertions and thereby de-naturalizes them. Anti-performativity, which is perhaps a special case of de-naturalization, denies that social relations should be thought of as exclusively instrumental—in terms of maximizing output from a given input. Reflexivity refers to the capacity to recognize that accounts of organizations and management are mediated by those researchers who produce these accounts. According to Taskin and Willmott (2008), a great deal of CMS analysis is concerned with showing that forms of knowledge appear to be well founded and reinforce asymmetrical relations of power and that such forms of knowledge serve to prop up practices that are potentially vulnerable to challenge and transformation. In addition, they add that CMS identifies and questions taken-for-granted assumptions in management research and challenges the orthodox view that regards management as a technical activity and organization as a neutral instrument for achieving shared goals. The term *tempered radicalism* refers to a process in which tempered radicals experience tensions between the status quo and alternatives, which can fuel organizational transformation (Meyerson & Scully, 1995). According to Meyerson and Scully's explanation, tempered radicals are individuals who identify with and are committed to a cause, community, or ideology that is fundamentally different from the dominant culture of their organization. Meyerson and Scully further explain that tempered means that individuals are angered by the incongruities between their own values and beliefs and those they see enacted in their organizations in terms of social justice and that individuals can be called radicals because they challenge the status quo, both through their intentional acts and also just by being who they are, people who do not fit perfectly. Meyerson and Scully use this term to encourage minority professionals—women of all colors, men of color, gay men, and lesbians—to challenge and transform the dominant culture of the organization. The term *small wins* was first proposed in

Peters's (1977) dissertation. Weick (1984) applies this term to certain types of social problems by working directly on their construction and indirectly on their resolution and to stabilize arousal at moderate intensities where its contribution to performance of complex tasks is most beneficial to remedy the problems. He further explains that a small win is a concrete, complete, implemented outcome of moderate importance, and one small win may seem unimportant, but a series of small wins is considered significant because it reveals a pattern that may attract allies, deter opponents, produce visible results, and lower resistance to subsequent proposals. Some scholars (e.g., Foster-Fishman, Fitzgerald, Brandell, Nowell, Chavis, & Van Egeren, 2006; Lott & Webster, 2006; Meyerson & Scully, 1995) consider small wins to be a strategy that helps less powerful individuals, communities, and resident leaders build their capacity to influence the decisions and policies that impact their lives, interrupts oppression, and sustains justice.

With regard to definition of power, Pfeffer (1987) defines power by stating that "most definitions of power include an element indicating that power is the capability of one social actor to overcome resistance in achieving a desired objective or result" (p. 310). According to Fairholm (1993), power is simply the individual capacity to achieve one's own goals in interrelationships with others, even in the face of their opposition. Cook, Hunsaker, and Coffey (1997) affirm that "power is the ability to alter circumstances so that another person does what the power holder wants done" (p. 427). Cook et al. explain that power arises from three non-mutually exclusive primary sources—organization position (formal authority, control of rewards, and control of resources), personal behavior (expertise, referent respect, and reciprocal alliance), and situational forces (coercion, information access, and association access). Position power is a typical power base coming from the organizational hierarchy, such as the power of supervisors over subordinates and bosses over employees. However, managers need to realize that position

power is relative because most of the time the manager's performance depends on the creative action or expertise of subordinates (Cook et al., 1997). With regard to personal behavior, those who have power may not want to use power over others. Two types of power needs are addressed by Cook et al. (1997): (a) personalized power needs—people exercise power to dominate others and keep them weak and dependent, (b) socialized power needs—people exercise power for the benefit of others and of the organization. Cook et al. conclude that a person with a high need for socialized power is more likely to achieve visible managerial success than a person without a power need or with a personalized power need and that women have a higher need for socialized power than do men. Situational forces can explain why someone or some department has more power than others or other departments in some cases within organizations.

However, based on the model of the three power sources from Cook et al., power relations remain unexplainable in some cases. For example, power differences among individuals and departments with different professional expertise may exist. Thus, Cook et al. add seven situational factors that determine power relationships within organizations. I think only five of these seven factors are worthy of consideration: (a) specialization and task importance—power is in part based on the importance of role within the organization (e.g. in a software firm—programming; for a manufacturer—engineering), (b) perceptions of competence—people who perform well at organizationally critical tasks establish power for themselves, (c) dependence of others—a person's degree of power is a function of other people's dependence on him or her to satisfy their needs, (d) organizational culture—organizations differ in their predispositions to use power to influence behavior, (e) resource scarcity—shortages, cutbacks, and general conditions of scarcity stimulate power tactics. If power is so legitimated, it will be denoted as authority

which is maintained not only by the resources or sanctions that produce the power, but also by the social pressures and social norms that sanction the power distribution (Pfeffer, 1987). Although power may be tricky to define, it is not difficult to recognize: “the ability of those who possess power to bring about the outcomes they desire” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977, p. 3).

According to Pfeffer (1987), organizational politics involves activities taken within organizations to acquire, develop, and use power and other resources to obtain one’s preferred outcomes in a situation in which there is uncertainty about choices. Mayes and Allen (1977) define organizational politics as “management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through nonsanctioned influence means” (p. 675). Therefore, politics is more likely to appear in ambiguous conditions within organizations. These conditions include unclear goals, uncertain rewards, a high degree of interdependence and competition, a lack of communication, and overlapping resources. Contrary to political behavior, administrative behavior is consensus behavior (Frost, Mitchell, & Nord, 1982), which implies that administrative behavior is based on legitimacy. People can resist political action and behavior by using administrative behavior if they can recognize the intent of others and if it is possible to use administrative power. In a similar manner, Cook et al. (1997) indicate that there is less incentive to use political power to influence decisions when power is concentrated toward the top of an organization. Cook et al. also introduce ten political tactics to help people accumulate power: maintain alliances with powerful people, avoid alienation, use information as currency, withdraw from petty disputes, avoid decisive engagement (referring an adversary’s proposal to a committee to delay it and gain a wider bargaining arena), avoid preliminary disclosure of preferences (supporting others’ intentions when they are in accordance with your intentions in an uncertain situation instead of taking the lead yourself), make a quick but

successful showing in the beginning, collect IOUs (I owe you: extending favors or support to another is like making a deposit in a savings account), exploit possible negative outcomes (using bad news for desired change), divide and rule (when a group is divided, get yourself co-opted onto a group against your adversary).

These ten political tactics mentioned above allow a stakeholder to use in order to accumulate his/her power and avoid losing power. When they obtain enough power using these tactics, they may try to exercise this power over others as needed. This kind of power is considered political power because it does not come from a legal administrative power source. "Political capacity" (Cook et al., 1997, p. 445) implies a person's capacity for political action. What political action can be used depends on how much power a person possesses. The more power a person possesses, the more choices he/she will have. Four forms of political manipulation (actions) are addressed by Cook et al.: (a) persuasion—try emotion and logic to influence the way others perceive the situation, (b) inducement—offer some form of reward in exchange for compliance, (c) obligation—draw on feelings of owing something, and (d) coercion—obtain compliance by creating fear.

Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, and Mayes (1980) explore the positive and negative impacts of the use of organizational politics. Positive impacts include helping the organization reach its goals and coping with survival and organizational health concerns, coordinating staff and units, developing esprit de corps, and decision making. Negative impacts include inappropriate use of scarce resources, causing divisiveness, creating tension, allowing less qualified people to advance, reducing communication flow, damaging the image of the organization, and sullying the reputation of the organization. Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, and Mayes (1979) assessed personal skills and traits common to politically active people in

organizations. They concluded that effective political actors are articulate, sensitive, competent, popular, extroverted, self-confident, highly intelligent and logical, ambitious, and socially adept. Those effective political actors energetically seek their desired results.

The Role of Adult Educators

Adult educators may feel powerless in some situations regardless of the fact that adult education is the main purpose of the organization that they are a part of. This powerlessness makes these adult educators struggle when negotiating at the planning table. In this section, I look at the role of adult educators based on the nature of adult education and adult educators' power relationships among other individuals and different departments within and across organizations to identify where the marginality of adult educators comes from.

Adult educators. To define *adult educator*, Houle (1970) uses the form of the pyramid to describe three hierarchical population levels related to adult education. At the base of the pyramid are volunteers who lead groups or tutor other adults in a wide range of content areas. At the middle level of the pyramid are the hundreds of thousands of part-time workers who are paid on an hourly basis for their work. Finally, at the top and narrowest point of the pyramid are the full-time adult educators, including program administrators, professors of adult education, training directors, and staff of the Cooperative Extension Service (CES, a program funded at federal, state, and local levels with offices in most counties of each state). The base and middle levels of this population are considered educators of adults. However, those at the pyramid's apex are considered adult educators because they are well prepared for an adult education career and identify themselves as adult educators. According to Griffith (1989), the distinction between adult educators and educators of adults is the following: educators of adults have focused goals that typically address pressing problems in a single sector of the field of adult education and have

mainly practical concerns but less grandiose ambitions, whereas adult educators have broad aspirations for the entire field, a high regard for professionalism, specialized academic preparation for their work, and a concern for the coordination of the field. Therefore, the adult educators I discuss here are at the top level of Houle's pyramid (1970) because an adult educator needs to possess those capabilities to plan a "good" educational program in order to excel as a program planner in the field of adult education.

Adult education. According to Bryson (1936), "adult education is an intervention into the ordinary business of life—an intervention whose immediate goal is change, in knowledge or in competence" (p. 24). Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) state more specifically that "adult education is a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills" (p. 9). Based on work by Blackburn (1988), Cervero (1988), Forest (1989), Houle (1980), and Merriam and Brockett (1997), I identify eight types of adult education: adult literacy education (focusing on adults whose basic skills are at the fourth-grade level or below), adult secondary education (focusing on adults whose skills are above the eighth-grade level but who have not graduated from high school and who could obtain a GED diploma by passing the examination), ESL (programs are for adults who are not native speakers of English), continuing education (noncredit learning, e.g. cooperative extension service, offering information and educational programs to adult learners on topics such as home making, agriculture, youth, the environment, public policy, and so forth), continuing nontraditional education (referring to the variety of ways in which adults can receive credit toward a degree in higher education, e.g. evening adult schools), community education (referring to any formal or informal action-oriented or problem-solving education taking place in the community), human

resource development (HRD, referring to the training, education, and development of employees in the workplace), and continuing professional education (the engagement in lifelong study that enables every professional to carry out his or her duties in a manner consistent with the highest possible standards of character and competence).

Marginality. According to Clark (1958) and Donaldson and Edelson (2000), adult and continuing education units are said to be marginal to their parent organizations due to diffuse purposes, their service orientation, lack of funding, and the tenuous connection of learners to the provider organization. Clark's (1956a, 1956b, 1958) assertion about the marginality of adult education is based on the system of education in the United States because "in contrast to elementary, high school, and junior college education, the adult program is a separate, peripheral activity, and its clientele is completely outside the compulsory attendance age groups" (Clark, 1956a, p. 58). Clark (1956a) notes six symptoms to illustrate this marginality: (a) adult education does not have a district status, and adult classes must be attached to the basic legal units for finance and administration; (b) adult education acts as a secondary responsibility of administrators working with other programs; (c) the adult school has no physical roots with which to protect itself against retrenchment, for it can more readily be discontinued due to the absence of separate plant facilities and other fixed capital; (d) the pressure of economy-minded interest groups upon the adult school is especially severe; (e) the necessity of having to sell the program to the public and especially to other educators creates the strong marginality of adult administrators; and (f) the budgetary support of adult education has been derivative and often unanticipated. These six symptoms can explain well why adult educators feel marginalized when they work in most of the eight areas of adult education mentioned in the previous section. In addition, Bierema (2010) adds that there are two types of marginalization: social marginalization

and institutional marginalization. Social marginalization is based on not being in the center group due to sociological factors or positionalities such as gender, race, class and so forth. Institutional marginalization is how the structure of organizations and delivery systems of adult education often function to disadvantage it. Sheared (2006) raises the idea of center appearing that "those in the center have access to and control over who gets into the academy; who remains there; and who gets promoted as well as how and when" (p. 185). The concept of center, often viewed as being heterosexual and Euro-American males, contrasts the margin of others representing a number of races, languages, and physical differences (size, vision, or disability) (Sheared, 2006).

Professionals in the field of adult education lack credentials illustrating the specific capabilities acquired in that particular field. According to Imel, Brockett, and James (2000), "adult education programs are often marginalized within the academic institutions and often within the very colleges and departments in which they exist" (p. 634). Glowacki-Dudka and Helvie-Mason (2004) indicate that "the perception of marginal status stems from the lack of specific credentials for entrance to the field and from the ambiguous definition of adult education" (p. 10). This situation occurs because the core graduate studies in adult education include not only the topics of training in program planning and teaching adults (Knowles, 1988), but also issues of race, gender, and class, which certainly fit into the adult education curriculum (Glowacki-Dudka & Helvie-Mason, 2004). Therefore, the answer to the question about what the credentials in adult education should be remains ambiguous and depends on the availability of courses in graduate programs (Glowacki-Dudka & Helvie-Mason, 2004). Every professional has his or her own credentials that illustrate the specific capabilities acquired in that particular field. So, what is the major capability of adult educators? If you ask different adult educators this

question, you will probably hear different answers. Merriam and Brockett (1997) note that "defining adult education is akin to the proverbial elephant being described by five blind men: it depends on where you are standing and how you experience the phenomenon" (p. 3). The expertise or capability of adult educators remains ambiguous, although adult education has become a legitimate field of study with many graduate programs, thousands of graduates, and hundreds of books and articles being published for both academicians and practitioners (Griffith, 1989). Adult educators with a Ph.D. must be good scholars with research capability; however, it is impossible for everyone who has a doctoral degree in adult education to teach and conduct research at the graduate level in universities because of limited positions and personal interests. Moreover, according to Glowacki-Dudka and Helvie-Mason (2004), the concept of lifelong learning pushed adult education into the limelight in 1980s, but "lifelong learning as a guiding principle became a debased currency" (Collins, 1991, p. 7). This situation made adult education much broader than it was; consequently, other disciplines took it up to forward their own agendas (Glowacki-Dudka & Helvie-Mason, 2004). It is critical for adult educators to possess expertise related to assigned areas when they plan programs or teach adults in a certain profession or discipline. Therefore, some "adult educators" coming up from areas other than adult education actually plan programs and teach adults in several professions or disciplines. Under these circumstances, the position of adult educators becomes weaker and practitioners become more marginalized.

Another situation makes adult educators marginalized due to ambiguous purposes of adult education. According to Beder (1989), the basic purposes of adult education include the following: to facilitate change in a dynamic society, to support and maintain a good social order, to promote productivity, and to enhance personal growth. However, according to the example

stated by Glowacki-Dudka and Helvie-Mason (2004), “adult education programs in the workplace will mainstream the goals of productivity and support of the social order but may marginalize goals for personal growth and social change” (p. 9). This dilemma may easily confuse both adult educators and scholars other than those in the field of adult education due to the ambiguous goals of adult education. In addition, most top management in organizations takes for granted that training and educational programs are the path to help organizations achieve the goals of productivity and to support the social order. Thus, most of the time, the goals of the organization are more important than personal growth in terms of the view of the organization. This personal growth means that adult education improves not only personal capabilities but also an individual’s vision, thinking, values, and maturity. This personal growth may make employees change their behavior in the workplace regardless of their capabilities. Once adult educators insist on reaching the goals for personal growth and social change through educational programs, this approach will often challenge the idea of the organizational management. Additionally, companies or top management do not expect to see the personal growth of their employees because sometimes personal growth is seen as an obstacle to the success of the company. Thus, Kuchinke (1999) points out that leaders in human resource development consider their field parallel to adult education, but adult education and human resource development leaders often use skill sets with different guiding philosophies. Kuchinke (1999) argues that human resource development emphasizes on three approaches: personal skills, organizational production, and problem solving in the organization, but adult education focuses more on personal growth and social change. In addition, in many cases, adult educators cannot recognize the discrepancy between human resource development and adult education due to the ambiguous goals of adult education. Because of this controversy and the ambiguous goals of

adult education, many adult educators consider themselves adult educators who work on educational programs per se without looking into power and politics within and across organizations and who keep themselves away from politics and the center of power due to their fear of dealing with power struggles. Thus, the marginality of adult educators can become more significant because of organizational regulations and culture. Therefore, Cervero and Wilson (2001) remind all adult educators of the role of power in practice by stating that "every adult educator is a social activist, regardless of his or her particular vision of society" (p. 13).

Adult Education Administration

According to Cervero and Wilson (2006), "planners exercise power to represent interests as they work their messages at the planning table to create support for their programs" (p. 192). Thus, the reason that we discuss adult education administration is that because it is the arena in which adult educators negotiate their interests with other stakeholders. For adult educators, having a clear picture about adult education administration is conducive to negotiating at the planning table by identifying critical issues in which potential conflicts may exist. In addition, through adult education administration, adult educators can convey their messages, communicate with other stakeholders, construct relationships, exhibit their potential capabilities, prepare and consolidate strong arguments, and win the trust from top management in order to change their marginal situation. Moreover, administrative behavior is based on legitimacy. In some situations, adult educators may be able to resist political actions exercised by other stakeholders by fully understanding administrative knowledge and recognizing the intent of others. According to Galbraith, Sisco, and Guglielmino (1997), "administrative functions are those necessary elements and underpinnings that the administrator engages in to make the agency and program offerings successful" (p. 6). Additionally, Courtenay (1990) notes that there are nine most comprehensive

functions thought necessary in all organizations: developing and communicating the philosophy and mission, setting goals and objectives, planning, organizing and structuring, leadership, staffing, budgeting, marketing, and evaluation. Courtenay also stresses that these functions "must be in place and operative whether the organization delivers adult basic education or continuing higher education" (p. 63). Of course, different interests from different perspectives may occur in these functions. In addition, it is very difficult to say whose interests are right or wrong. However, "adult educators should accept their responsibility to be something more than program technicians" (Cotton, 1964, p. 86). Therefore, the adult education administration that we discuss here includes not only administrative functions but also critical reflection upon planners' and stakeholders' interests and actions. In the following, I discuss administrative functions by dividing the nine functions into seven categories because a couple of functions are very similar to one another.

Developing and communicating the philosophy and mission. There is no doubt that the philosophy and mission of adult educators, organizations, the community, and the relevant stakeholders must influence the educational program and play a key role in the process of planning. According to Galbraith et al. (1997), this philosophy provides an understanding of values, concepts, and fundamental beliefs. The mission is the purpose of the program guided by a stated philosophy. Therefore, the philosophy is the most key factor in administrative functions because it provides the direction that the program follows. The following scenario can help illustrate the importance of the philosophy of planning that adult educators have to negotiate at the planning table in the beginning of administrative work for adult education.

The following statements are a scenario that addresses a story created to illustrate the importance of the planning philosophy in terms of continuing professional education for district

attorneys. According to a recent newspaper report, a couple of district attorneys in state X are prosecuted due to a corrupt case in which they are involved. An adult educator is hired by the association of district attorneys to help plan an educational program for their mandatory continuing professional education. The adult educator needs to work with a couple of representatives of the association. At the planning table, the adult educator contends that ethics education needs to be stressed in the program due to the recent corruption case. However, one of the representatives of the association asserts that this case is an isolated one, that most district attorneys possess a moral sense and do not need ethics education, and that the emphasis should be on immigration law because of the increasing numbers of illegal immigrants in state X. Another representative adds that according to the survey of all district attorneys in the state, ninety percent of attorneys are interested in learning updated laws of intellectual property due to the increase in cases related to unauthorized use of intellectual property. The adult educator faces a severe challenge from the two representatives. Needs assessment is a very important issue here. What planning philosophy should be adopted? According to Cervero and Wilson (1994a), "educators must always have an interest in emancipation that is guided by the values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring" (p. 21). This concern for social and political emancipation informs the critical viewpoint (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a) that adult educators need to assert at the planning table. With regard to this planning case, adult educators need to care about the citizens who are living in state X and worry about the fairness of the judicial system there. According to Apple (1992), an ethical commitment to substantively democratic planning means that all people who are affected by an educational program should be involved in the deliberation of what is important. Thus, it seems that all residents in state X will be affected by the continuing professional educational program. In addition, all residents in state

X may be concerned about justice if they were asked about the program. This scenario explains the importance of a planning philosophy, and adult educators should strive at the planning table to approach the values of equity, sharing, personal dignity, security, freedom, and caring by challenging the hegemony of existing relationships of power through the administrative process of negotiation.

Setting goals and objectives. This step involves translating needs into program objectives. Assessing needs and interests is a key component in the construction of feasible goals for the program. Adult educators need to be open-minded in order to explore all possible needs. Those needs and interests come from different channels including individuals, the organization, the community, and the affected public. Knowles (1980) suggests six methods to determine these needs: interviews, questionnaires, tests, group problem analysis, records and reports studies, and job analysis and performance review. Additionally, studying documents and observation in the workplace can also help adult educators recognize needs. In order to obtain precise information for assessing needs, adult educators should construct positive relationships with the following key persons: community leaders, public workers (those who are working in public places such as mail carriers, cashiers at supermarkets, employees in government agencies, small business owners, and so forth), teachers (those who work in private, public, and different levels of education), newspaper editors, and so forth (Knowles, 1980). These key people can help adult educators gain information that allows them to understand practical needs and to avoid misinterpreting data from other sources. In addition, it is necessary to conduct market investigation. How many similar programs exist in the market or organization? For example, with regard to the scenario I mentioned in the previous section, if the Department of Justice has given an order to implement ethics educational programs for district attorneys on an annual basis,

it is not necessary for adult educators to insist on implementing a similar program. Finally, the operational objectives and educational objectives need to be addressed clearly in this stage. According to Knowles (1980), operational objectives "identify the things that will be done to improve the quality of the institutional resources for meeting the educational needs" (p. 124), and educational objectives "define the kinds of behavioral outcomes that participants are to be invited to seek in specific areas of content" (p. 125).

Planning, organizing, and structuring. This stage includes three major themes: developing a timeline, determining the content of the program, and selecting the format of learning. As for the first theme, according to Galbraith et al. (1997), the development of a timeline identifies when each component will be completed and who is responsible for each part. A timeline is a very important tool in the process of planning because it ensures that all tasks will be accomplished by all parties through the careful management of time. Second, determining the content of the program means considering the potential audience, what will be offered, where the program should take place, and the best date and time for the program. Galbraith et al. (1997) indicate that the determination of program content should emphasize the recognition of decisions and actions that relate to the program as a whole. Among these concerns, program location is often a heated topic. In addition, the location is usually highly dependent on the budget and finance. A convenient and comfortable learning environment probably enhances learning outcomes. A location different from the learners' work place may create a positive mood for learning by giving workers a refreshing change of atmosphere. Third, selecting the learning formats involves considering how the program will be offered. According to Knowles (1980), the learning formats include action projects (engaging in some sort of social action by accomplishing a project), workshops (the development of individual competencies in a defined

area of concern largely through a variety of small groups), clubs, organized groups, conferences and conventions, courses, and trips and tours. Regarding these learning formats, an important issue is who will be considered the best choice to lead the learning event regardless of the speaker, lecturer, or facilitator.

Leadership. Adult educators play the role of adult administrators when they plan educational programs for adults. However, not all administrators are leaders. Nevertheless, most adult educators may plan programs with others such as team members. Usually, adult educators are team leaders for planning programs. The team members can help planners (adult educators) prepare materials, collect information, reserve hotels, arrange meals, search for resources, organize logistics, and so forth in order for planners to address strong arguments and provide valuable information at the planning table. Knox (1991) states that "effective administrators are leaders who achieve results with and through other people" (p. 222). Kotter (1990) suggests three key points to being an effective administrator: establishing direction (developing a vision), aligning people (communicating the direction with those who cooperate to achieve the vision), and motivating and inspiring (keeping people moving in the right direction). Galbraith et al. (1997) remark that "administrators who exemplify leadership in this manner are providing coherence to the program development process and lending support to the development of a learning organization" (p. 9).

Staffing. According to Galbraith et al. (1997), "staff are needed to perform four essential functions: administration, planning and implementing programs, teaching, and support" (p. 75). Therefore, the word *staff* here includes instructors, planners, coordinators, administrators, support personnel, tutors, secretaries, and so forth. How to select and develop all personnel in the field of adult education is the main topic of staffing.

With regard to selection, according to Collins (2001), “if we get the right people on the bus, the right people in the right seats, and the wrong people off the bus, then we’ll figure out how to take it someplace great” (p. 41). This thought indicates that the selection begins with “who,” rather than “what.” In addition, according to Hellriegel, Jackson, and Slocum (2008), the hiring process includes two phases: recruitment and selection. Recruitment is the process of searching inside and outside the organization. A job posting is the first step in the process. This first step includes the content of the posting and the methods of posting. Good content includes the definition, requirements, knowledge, skills, experience, qualifications, characteristics, responsibilities, and benefits of the job. Good posting methods include using web sites, email, newspapers, and bulletin boards. As for selection, Hellriegel et al. (2008) suggest that the four most common sources of information for making selection decisions are resumes, reference checks, interviews, and tests. In discussing these four sources, Hellriegel et al. (2008) indicate that reference checking often reveals that applicants have lied about their background, and employers often are reluctant to provide performance evaluations of former employees. Moreover, Tsai, Chen, and Chiu (2005) hold that an experienced applicant who knows how to manage the interview process may be able to create a favorable impression even if she is not well-qualified for the job.

Regarding development of staff, I conclude with four types of development as follows: (a) Basic skills training: depending on the characteristics and needs of the organization and the position (Hellriegel et al., 2008); (b) attendance at conferences: including opportunities to network with others, to learn about new practices, to share innovative ideas, to present ideas, to share experience in a conference session, and to validate the professional purpose (Galbraith et al., 1997); (c) in-service activities: developing a schedule of diverse offerings to meet the ever-

changing professional needs or working cooperatively with related agencies on an agreement (Galbraith et al., 1997); (d) career development: improving an employee's competencies in preparation for future jobs (Hellriegel et al., 2008); (e) mentoring and coaching: according to Hellriegel et al. (2008), mentoring means that an established employee guides the development of a less experienced worker, and coaching means that an expert observes the employee in her job over a period of weeks or months and provides continuous feedback and guidance on how to improve.

Budgeting and financing. Budgeting is an indispensable element to an educational program. The budgeting systems are different among programs and depend on the parent organizations. There are three budget approaches mentioned by scholars in the field of adult education. The first approach is traditional budgeting. According to Galbraith et al. (1997), this type of budgeting is synonymous with line item budgeting in which income and expenditure categories are assigned to a single line on a page; however, recently, this type of budgeting has given way to its contemporary counterpart, incremental budgeting. Matkin (1985) adds that "incremental budgeting has the advantage of focusing management's attention on the important changes occurring in an organization" (p. 11). However, the drawback of this approach is that traditional budgeting may cause failure due to the time and effort required to justify the value of the program and the entire budget annually (Matkin, 1985). The second approach is program budgeting. According to Steiner (1965), program budgeting "emphasizes an integral planning and budgeting process that brings together all of the resources to be applied to a specific program mission, whether it is functional or end-product oriented" (p. 47). Galbraith et al. (1997), Holmberg-Wright (1982), and Strother and Klus (1982) believe that this budgeting method is useful in adult, community, and continuing education because it coordinates between planning

and budgeting and aligns the goals of the organization and the program. The third approach is management by objectives (MBO). According to Dahl (1980), MBO is a procedure whereby budgets and goals are established and periodically reviewed together. However, the drawback of this approach is that MBO tends to make administrators state modest, easily achieved objectives (Dahl, 1980). Although program budgeting seems the best approach among these three approaches, the final decision is made by the parent organization according to the policy and the culture of the organization.

Holmberg-Wright (1982) identifies four budgetary phases that work especially well in adult and continuing education. These four phases are as follows: (a) establishing financial goals (based on projected revenue and anticipated costs over a specific period of time), (b) formulating plans (assembling and calculating all of the individual budgets including fees, enrollments, expenses, and revenues as a whole budget), (c) preparing the budget document (communicating with all parties involved to collect budget statements listing all estimated income and costs of programming), and (d) evaluation (evaluating the progress and the extent to which goals for the organizations are being met). Besides these four phases in the program, adult administrators need to augment the financial base. According to Caffarella (1994), there are six income sources: (a) organization subsidy (searching for support for salaries, materials, equipment, travel, office supplies, and printing from the parent organization), (b) participant fees (charged to attendees), (c) auxiliary enterprises and sales (selling materials, publications, and services to other organizations and individuals), (d) grants and contracts from private or nonprofit foundations and organizations, (e) government funding (searching for federal, state, and local governmental funds), and (f) profit from the educational unit (the profit produced from the operation of the program used for future programs).

Marketing. According to Beder (1986), marketing is "a methodology for attracting learners, a methodology that guides program development, promotion, pricing, distribution and market research" (p. 3). Adult education is volunteer education. Adult educators need to sell programs by marketing those programs. How do adult educators market their programs to the public? According to Knowles (1980), the well-tested methods of marketing involve four phases: defining the clientele, planning the campaign, preparing and distributing materials, and evaluating results.

Defining the clientele. This phase identifies the particular groups that may be interested in the program, and the program is designed to appeal to them. In the section on setting goals and objectives mentioned above, market investigation must be done in order to obtain basic information about the targeted market. Therefore, it will be helpful if the basic information shows the age, sex, marital status, living style, related organizations (such as companies, associations, professional people, or special groups), educational background, economic status, and interests of the potential participants. A good marketing plan should consider how the promotional information can reach and impress every potential participant.

Planning the campaign. This phase includes four steps. The first step is building the promotion budget. It is an important issue to determine how much money should be spent on marketing. According to Knowles (1980), this cost can be a certain percentage of the total budget or a certain amount of money for each student who is enrolled for the program. The percentages and amounts vary widely because of the different types of organizations and programs. The second step concerns planning the schedule for employing different media. Nowadays, there are six types of marketing media usually being used: newspapers, posters, television, radio, web sites, email, and direct-mail. Knowles (1980) believes that printed

materials are effective in most cases. A well-rounded campaign applies not only as many media as possible but also the right schedules for using relevant media. Knowles (1980) suggests that it is reasonable to start the campaign with advance promotion about six weeks before the opening and that the intensity of the campaign should raise gradually to a climax about two weeks before opening. Integrating the program with a theme is the third step in this phase. In addition, Knowles suggests that thinking of a theme, slogan, title, or symbol which can be tied in with advertisements and printed materials can be very effective in marketing. Finally, the last step is seeking expert advice. Knowles notes that a promotion campaign should be done by a group, and this group should include skillful and experienced advertising representatives and public-relation experts.

Preparing and distributing materials. This phase deals with many decisions involving advisement display in media and choices of media. The purpose of this phase is not only to make the message heard but also to connect messages from different medium sources in order to impress potential participants. Working on public-relations is the important preparation here to help collect the mailing list (including name, address, phone number, and e-mail address), place posters and distribute flyers in different spots and activities, seeking support by visiting leaders of the community and organizations, and conduct occasional promotions in different organizations, special activities, and conferences. Other strategies include offering a discount within a limited period of time to evoke the curiosity of potential participants and forming an organized telephone campaign to increase interactions with potential customers by giving reminders and invitations.

Evaluating results. Adult administrators may be reluctant or forget to evaluate their marketing efforts when they have high enrollment. They often evaluate their marketing efforts when they have a poor enrollment. However, sometimes it is too late to evaluate the

effectiveness of marketing when adult administrators wait until the need for an evaluation plan is obvious. Knowles (1980) reminds that "adult education workers should evaluate the results of their promotion efforts periodically, and should constantly seek to improve their promotional skills" (p. 189). Based on Knowles (1980), I have identified two methods to evaluate a promotion campaigns. The first method is keying advertisement—giving each advertisement a key to differentiate promotion methods. For example, adult administrators can use different types of contact information as a key to identify what promotion effort influences participants' decision to register. This contact information can be different contact names, phone numbers, e-mail addresses, and so forth. Calculating the enrollment numbers based on each category will allow administrators to develop effective promotion strategies. The second method involves asking participants at the time of registration where they first heard about the program and where the major influence came from. It seems that the first method is more effective than the second because the promotion strategy can be adjusted during the promotion period. In addition, the results from the second method must be obtained when the promotion activities end. Especially, in most cases, the way people obtain information is changing because of advancing technologies. Thus, a good promotion strategy appropriate for this year may not mean be good for the next year. However, it is much easier for adult administrators to apply the second method of collecting evaluation data than it is to apply the first one.

Evaluation. Administrators evaluate programs for different reasons depending on their focus. They may focus on determining the extent to which stated objectives are being attained (Tyler, 1949), identifying a discrepancy between performance and standards which have been set (Popham, 1969), and gathering information for decision making to improve the quality of the program (Cronbach, 1963). Stufflebeam (1975) notes that evaluation must take into account four

elements of the program: goals, design, process, and product. Kirkpatrick (1976) identifies four types of evaluation: (a) reaction evaluation (how participants feel about the program); (b) learning evaluation (what knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values have been acquired by the participants); (c) behavior evaluation (what changes in actual performance have been produced); and (d) results evaluation (the tangible results of the program in terms of reduced cost, improved quality, increased productivity, lowered accident rates, and so forth). According to Owen (2007), objects for evaluation include policies, programs, products, and individuals. Kempfer (1955) believes that objectives of a program are the only legitimate basis for evaluation. Thus, it seems reasonable that the evaluation plan should reflect on the philosophy, mission, and objectives of the program in the whole administrative process.

Based on Galbraith et al. (1997) and Knowles (1980), I conclude that a good evaluation plan should include five elements. The first element involves deciding when to evaluate the program; formative or summative? The formative evaluation implies an ongoing process of gathering data or information about the object of the evaluation. The summative evaluation implies gathering data after or near the end of a program or activity. The second element is to form an evaluation team. Normally, the evaluation team should include participants, leaders, instructors, the program director and staff, the directing committee, outside experts, supervisory and management personnel, and community representatives. However, depending on the extent of evaluation and the type and the size of the program, the number of team members may range widely. The third element is to formulate evaluative questions. This element includes two approaches: curriculum-related or management-related. The curriculum-approach includes individual learning activities, group of learning activities, needs and interest assessment processes, instructional materials, staffing, resources, and comparative effectiveness of different

instructional approaches, and the management-related approach includes management systems, internal communications, records management, budget management, staff development programs, recruitment and retention of students, recruitment and retention of staff, and marketing and promotion. The fourth element is data collection and analysis. There are three types of philosophy regarding data collection and analysis: quantitative procedures, qualitative procedures, and both. The quantitative procedures include questionnaires, surveys, tests, and performance checklists, behavior checklists, self-rating scales, Delphi technique, and product checking. The second type is the qualitative procedures which include interviews, a representative council, open-ended comments, observations, records analysis, interaction analysis, logs, and case studies. The third type is to have both quantitative and qualitative methods mixed to obtain the most accurate data and analysis. What type of method is better to use depends on the time, budget, and needs of the program. The fifth element is to use the evaluation results by modifying plans, operation, and the program. Through this element, the adult administrators will be able to gain valuable insights on the strengths and weaknesses of the program as well as possible implications for investigation to improve their program in the future.

Summary

In order to gain a better understanding of power and politics in adult education, the first section of this chapter discusses power and organization politics, the role of adult educators, and adult education administration. Understanding power and organizational politics helps us realize where power comes from and how organizational politics functions to create the power which can be applied when negotiating. Analyzing the role of adult educators helps us see why adult educators often feel marginalized in the organization. Adult education administration plays the role of an arena in which adult educators negotiate their planning philosophy and mission,

objective setting, organizing and structuring, staffing, budgeting, marketing, and evaluation to bring educational programs into existence, for adult educators may encounter potential conflicts embedded in critical issues in the process of adult education administration. The whole notion on power and politics in adult education helps create a context in which adult educators deal with adult education administrative work in the organization, and power and organizational politics often play a role in the marginalization of adult educators at the planning table. Thus, the formation of the asymmetrical power relationships between adult educators and other, more powerful, stakeholders calls for the need of negotiation which is discussed in the following section.

Negotiation Theories and Relevant Suggested Strategies

Negotiation occurs in most human interactions. The scope of negotiation ranges from one-on-one to complex multiparty interactions. Thompson (2005) indicates that there are five factors, "the dynamic nature of business, interdependence, competition, the information age, and globalization" (p. 3), that have caused negotiations to increase in importance and complexity. Most negotiation literature addresses the fields of business, law, diplomacy, labor relations, and conflict resolution. There is much less scholarly writing that is related to program planning. Further, most literature focuses on strategies rather than theories. However, theory can lead to explanations of why strategy can work in several contexts. In reviewing the literature of negotiation, I identify three primary negotiation theories (game theory, win-win theory, and fairness theory) and eleven major strategies that are suggested by these three theories in the following discussion.

Game Theory

Traditional applications of game theory are applied to find equilibria with mathematics in games, in which competitions are held and an individual's success depends on the choices of others. Nash's (1950, 1951, 1953) equilibrium concept is most notable for developing the best strategies for making choices by using complex mathematical formulas. According to Aumann (1987), game theory is an umbrella or '"unified field" theory for the rational side of social science, where "social" is interpreted broadly, to include human as well as non-human players. In addition, according to Nash (1950), game theory is also called zero-sum theory, for a participant's gain or loss is exactly balanced by the losses or gains of the other participant(s). Therefore, slicing a cake describes the game theory in that taking a larger piece reduces the amount of cake available for others. In this way, game theory refers to conflict, competition, and scarcity. Under some circumstances, there can be combat, hostile relations, and power struggles. Raiffa (1982) notes that this theory can help negotiators maximize their substantive outcomes under a diverse set of situations. The following four strategies are considered major tools to help negotiators bargain with other negotiators in the game theory.

Assess the BATNA (Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement) and improve it. The acronym BATNA coined by Fisher and Ury (1981) identifies the point at which a negotiator is prepared to walk away from the negotiation table. Thompson (2005) interprets that "in practice, it means that negotiators should be willing to accept any set of terms that is superior to their BATNA and reject outcomes that are worse than their BATNA" (p. 15). For example, in Pete's planning story (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a), Pete would like to keep the Vice President Brad from the planning table because he is hostile to Pete, if President Jones insists on bringing the Vice President Brad to the table, Pete will need to figure out his BATNA before he meets with Jones.

His BATNA could be asking to transfer to another department, quitting his job to accept an offer from another company, finding a friend close to Brad, or talking to Brad to find his real interests. Although BATNAs involve some uncertainty, it is not an excuse for a negotiator to fail to assess her BATNA. In addition, "the better your BATNA, the greater your power" (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 1983, p. 106). Thompson (2005) urges negotiators to spend a considerable amount of time attempting to improve their BATNA before entering a negotiation meeting.

Determine the reservation point. This strategy is used by negotiators to decide when agreement could be reached. Taking the seller-buyer relationship for example, Raiffa (1982) notes that the final settlement of a negotiation will fall somewhere above the seller's reservation point and below the buyer's reservation point. The difference between seller's reservation point and buyer's reservation point is a zone known as "the bargaining zone" or the "cake" as described game theory above. This bargaining zone can be positive or negative. If seller's reservation point is higher than buyer's reservation point, the bargaining zone is negative and the final settlement cannot be reached unless the seller or buyer revises their reservation point to make a concession. Negotiators decide whether they need to negotiate by identifying the bargaining zone as positive or negative. They do not need to waste their time negotiating in a situation of a negative bargaining zone. In addition, the reservation point may be related to uncertainties and not be easily found. Negotiators must research their reservation point accurately as much as possible. An error in reservation point calculation will probably result in failure. Every seller would like to set a higher reservation point and every buyer would like to set a lower reservation point; however, one will lose in negotiation if the reservation point is not close enough to the real point.

Make the first offer. The question of who should make an offer first has always created controversies. This question was caused heated debate in the past. Galinsky and Mussweiler's (2001) study indicates that whichever party –buyer of seller—makes the first offer obtains a better final outcome in that the first offer acts as an anchor point. However, the prerequisite for making an effective first offer is that negotiators be well prepared. If this preparation is absent, it may be wise to allow an opponent to make the first offer. The rationale for this strategy is that first offers are usually expected to fall within the positive bargaining zone. As negotiators think about making the first offer, they should plan a project that includes the first offer and the reservation point. Thompson (2005) suggests that the first offer falling within the positive bargaining zone can serve as a powerful anchor point in negotiation. In addition, it protects negotiators from falling prey to a similar anchoring effect when they hear the opponent's offer.

Use a rationale to support offers. Langer, Blank, and Chanowitz (1978) examine how often people were successful in negotiating permission to cut in line at a photocopy machine. According to their study, those who did not provide a rationale were the least successful (60%); those who presented a logical rationale were the most successful (94%). Presenting a rationale that explains the reason why the offer is reasonable can dramatically affect the course of negotiation. For example, you are interested in a used laptop computer being sold for $200. If you want the seller to lower the price to $150, you will be more likely to get this laptop for $150 if you explain why that amount is reasonable instead of just offering it without an explanation. This will make your offer more powerful. The more rational the explanation, the higher the possibility of success.

Win-Win Theory

The idea of win-win problem solving was discussed by Fisher and Ury (1981). This theory is designed to maximize outcomes for both parties and maintain positive relationships. Albrecht and Albrecht (1993) use another term "added value negotiating" to describe the power of win-win negotiating. Albrecht and Albrecht (1993) also explain this approach as one moving negotiators toward empathy and away from antipathy. Put simply, win-win theory is expanding the "cake" as described in the analogy above. However, the cake may not be enlarged in all situations. Negotiators need to examine the possibility for win-win negotiation by asking themselves this question—*Does the negotiation contain more than one issue?*

Thompson (2005) notes that single-issue negotiations are not win-win, for whatever one party gains, the other party loses. Lax and Sebenius (1986) indicate that the probability that negotiators will have identical preferences across all issues is small and that conflicts may exist because of differences in preferences and beliefs that negotiators possess. Profitable tradeoff could create joint gain for each party. Thus, negotiators should identify additional issues embedded in the context. In so doing, the win-win negotiation setting can be improved. The following four major strategies are suggested by this win-win theory.

Build trust and share information. Bazerman and Neale (1992) suggest that negotiators should build a trusting relationship and share information to increase the probability of reaching a win-win outcome. However, a trusting relationship and information sharing do not include the information about their BATNAs. Instead, negotiators' position, underlying interests, preferences, some key facts, and priorities across the negotiation issues should be included. To do so, Jandt and Gillette (1985) recommend establishing an atmosphere in which people will feel free to raise appropriate objections. Information can enhance negotiators' interests or positions,

and is a powerful tool per se. Forester (1989) identifies five ways to form a source of power for planners to negotiate: technician (analyze the data and problems), incrementalist (respond to organizational needs), liberal-advocate (information coming from social practice), structuralist (structure the society), and progressive (information from different sources of demography, geography, and culture). Information exchange should be direct, honest, and transparent because it often results in a reciprocal reaction. "The reciprocity obligation is so powerful that negotiators occasionally utilize it as a bargaining tactic" (Goldman & Rojot, 2003, p. 230).

Setting an agenda is a negotiation strategy and an extremely good example to demonstrate how to build trust in asymmetrical power relations between the less powerful negotiator and the other more powerful stakeholder. Some negotiators may wonder whether the order of topics going to be discussed matters. Should they put the key issue as a top priority? Is the agenda important to them? Reardon (2004) points out that most people know the importance of agendas in negotiation; far fewer know how to develop them strategically. Many novice negotiators consider agendas a waste of time, or a deterrent to getting to the heart of the issue. In the process of negotiation, the key issue may be highly debated; especially where there are asymmetrical power relations. "Many experts suggest beginning an agenda with secondary or even nearly irrelevant issues that are likely to result in early agreement (and thereby establish a positive problem-solving context). This approach often creates and atmosphere of success and cooperation" (Reardon, 2004, p. 100). It seems that it is not a good idea to address sensitive topics in the beginning of negotiations, although some negotiators prefer to raise such subjects as soon as possible. If the less powerful negotiator set an agenda of less controversial topics prior to consideration of the key issues, they may have a greater chance to collaborate with the more powerful stakeholder, and this choice may make it possible for both sides to work well on the key

issues later on. These easy topics are the items the less powerful negotiator can easily concede because of their relative lower priority. In this process, the less powerful negotiator is constructing a positive emotional context designed to achieve positive and cooperative outcomes. In addition, even though the more powerful stakeholder have different opinions about a key issue, it is very probable to listen to the whole story as stated by the less powerful negotiator, and the more powerful stakeholder may be persuaded by the less powerful negotiator in the positive climate of negotiation.

At the beginning of a meeting, the less powerful negotiator can create a friendly atmosphere with the more powerful stakeholder, and both of them can work collaboratively on more difficult issues later. The less powerful negotiator still needs to take steps to ensure a positive climate and to maintain the desired mood. Otherwise, the negotiator could fail to maintain the good atmosphere she has orchestrated. The less powerful negotiator should set a couple of issues at the beginning of a meeting and then make sure the outcomes of negotiating these secondary issues will not have any strong negative effect on the planners' real interests. Setting one issue in the initial stages of negotiation may not be sufficient to create harmony between the less powerful negotiator and more powerful stakeholder. The key to this strategy is that the less powerful negotiator needs to identify some issues that are important to the more powerful stakeholder and that are of less concern to her. Negotiators are encouraged to explore the interests of other more powerful stakeholders. "The important implication here is that power is always reciprocal" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, p. 122). The reciprocal principle means that you can lose something that is not so important to you at first, but then later you may gain something back which is of importance to you. However, it is important to take into account time spent on implementing this strategy to make sure that there is enough time to discuss their "real interests." Another concern

is that the less powerful negotiator may have already established an undisclosed agenda that reflects their desire to negotiate issues in a specific order. However, the more powerful stakeholder would like others to follow his/her agenda during the negotiation. When this circumstance is apparent, the less powerful negotiator may need to "ask diagnostic questions" to achieve early collaboration with the more powerful stakeholder.

Ask diagnostic questions. Why are the diagnostic questions important to increase the likelihood of win-win agreements? Thompson (2005) considers that two reasons make these questions important. First, such questions help negotiators discover value. Second, diagnostic questions do not tempt the other party to be untruthful or to misrepresent his or her positions. Of course, these diagnostic questions cannot be involved in opponents' BATNAs or reservation points because such questions may lead to exaggerations or prevarications. When posing diagnostic questions, a careful and alert negotiator may discover useful information or other indications of fact that may aid in the process. In addition, asking questions can increase interactions between two parties and enhance the understanding from each other. However, constructive responses are also very important because these responses come from negotiators' experiences and knowledge base. In order to pose effective diagnostic questions, the negotiator should seek to develop expertise in a given area of negotiation.

Make package deals. Thompson (2005) suggests that negotiators should not negotiate issues singly for the following three reasons. First, negotiating each issue separately does not allow negotiators to make trade-offs between issues. Negotiators need to be able to compare and contrast issues in order to trade them off by capitalizing on different strengths of preference. Second, if the bargaining zone is narrow or negative, reaching a mutually profitable outcome by trade-offs is necessary and important. Otherwise, impasse is more likely to occur. Third, single-

issue offers lure negotiators into compromise agreements which are usually not the best approach in win-win negotiations. In addition, linking the issues is also an important tactic in this strategy. Constructing the connection between the issue identified and an issue originally negotiated is important. Schoonmaker (1989) suggests that negotiators should "establish and maintain linkages between issues" (p. 104). When the negotiator raises another issue, the opponent may question the relationship between the different issues. The more rational the connection, the more likelihood of achieving a win-win agreement.

Make multiple offers simultaneously. Bazerman and Neale (1992) suggest the strategy of multiple simultaneous offers can be effective even with the most uncooperative of negotiators. According to Thompson (2005), the strategy involves presenting the other party with at least two proposals at the same time. In addition, these proposals must meet two conditions: multiple-issue offers and those of equal value to one presenting. Making multiple offers is often seen as being more flexible by the other side. Thus, win-win approach can be led more easily by applying this strategy. Medvec and Galinsky (2005) suggest a strategy of Multiple Equivalent Simultaneous Offers or MESOs which means presenting more than one offer at a time to increase the other side's satisfaction as well as the odds that an agreement will be implemented. Their study has shown that negotiators who use MESOs achieve better outcomes than those who make a single packaged offer without sacrificing relationships or losing credibility.

Fairness Theory

Carrell and Heavrin (2008) note that "fairness underlies negotiations because negotiating is a voluntary endeavor, and unless the parties anticipate a 'fair shot' they are not likely to engage in the negotiations" (p. 198). Carrell and Heavrin also address four fairness principles

(proportionality, reciprocity, impartiality, and the requirement that all parties be heard) and four fairness norms (equality, equity, need, and maintaining the status quo).

According to Carrell and Heavrin (2008), *proportionality* means that a fair agreement takes the parties' circumstances into account. That is, circumstances surrounding the investment of the parties in making the pie can dictate a totally different but nonetheless fair split. Different contributions or responsibilities can be considered as the parties' circumstances to cause the pie to be split other than 50-50. *Reciprocity* means that concessions from one party can generate comparable concessions from the other party, and that cycle triggers cooperation. *Impartiality* means that an agreement may not be considered fair even though all involving parties agree with the agreement. There must be some adjustments related to balancing of the different interests in the final bargain to make the agreement considered fair. *Be heard* means that people tend to judge a negotiation as fair when they have had an opportunity to voice their point of view and have it considered by the other party.

As for four fairness norms, I am taking Deutsch's (1985) annual salary increases as an illustration. A dean has to assign annual salary increases among members of her faculty by using the four basic distributive values: (a) equality—giving each faculty member an equal share of the total money available for increases; (b) need—giving each a salary increase that is related to the professor's need for the money; (c) equity—giving each an increase that is related to the value of the faculty member to her university; (d) marketability—giving each an increase that is related to the salary the faculty member could get in a position elsewhere which is also considered a status quo. Each norm has its own rationality. None of them is always right in all situations. Schwinger (1980) suggests that different fairness rules apply in different situations. Mikula

(1980) indicates that goals involved in a negotiation situation often dictate which fairness rule is employed. The following two major strategies are suggested by this fairness theory.

Social comparison. Social comparison is a common fact in organizations and relationships regardless of which value is measured. Deutsch (1985) notes that this type of behavior reveals that people often care more about how their slice of the pie compares to other people than the size of the slice in an absolute sense. This strategy is useful for individuals and for communities, projects, and organizations. As Thompson (2005) suggests, there are three social comparison targets that may be distinguished: upward comparison, downward comparison, and comparison with similar others. Each comparison target is applied in a different context. Negotiators should explain why they make comparisons by applying four fairness norms when applying this strategy.

Procedural justice. Carrell and Heavrin (2008) and Thibaut and Walker (1975, 1978) consider that in addition to their slice of the pie, people are concerned with the way resources are distributed. That is, people not only care about the fairness of outcomes, but also evaluate the fairness of the procedures by which the outcomes are determined. The degree of the fairness of procedures will influence people's satisfaction and willingness to comply with outcomes. For example, when two brothers would like to share a piece of cake, it will be fair that the older brother divides it into two pieces and the younger brother gets the first choice. In addition, the role of divider can also be determined by the toss of a coin or other fair procedures. This strategy can help negotiators gain a fair basis rather than risk the hazards of free-for-all bargaining.

Comparison of Three Negotiation Theories

Although these three negotiation theories could be applied in different contexts, there remain similarities and differences among them. Further, each theory has its advantages and disadvantages. To make this comparison simple and clear, I divide each comparison into seven

aspects—number of issues, technique, general strategy, relationship of the parties, possible options, information sharing, and possibility of reaching an agreement.

Number of issues. Game theory can deal with several issues but only one at a time. Win-win theory requires dealing with more than one issue and putting all different issues into a package at the same time. The more issues that are present, the greater the chance an agreement can be reached. The fairness theory, like game theory, can deal with only one issue at a time, because it is almost impossible to achieve equal shares across the issues.

Technique. Game theory refers to a win-lose technique that implies that one party has gained something at the expense of the other party. Win-win theory seeks to integrate their interests to create positive outcomes for both parties that exceed those normally achieved through game theory. Fairness theory suggests that four fairness principles and four fairness norms seek substantive fairness in distribution of value and procedural fairness in the appropriateness of certain negotiation tactics. Three theories employ three different techniques in negotiation. Negotiators need to take into account the situation of negotiation to decide what choice is the best approach for them. In addition, it is good for negotiators to consider changing their techniques when their original choices do not work well.

General Strategy. Game theory seeks to maximize shares of a "fixed pie". Win-win theory tries to expand the pie by creating value and solving problems between two sides. Fairness theory calls for fair treatment to everyone regardless of religious, political, class, age, race, gender, and sexual orientation, or other irrational categories.

Relationship of the Parties. In most cases, game theory deals with one time relationships. Therefore, game theory causes more hostile attitudes than the other two theories in the process of negotiation. Win-win theory expects a continuing and long-term relationship with the other party.

Therefore, a friendly relationship can be expected when win-win theory is applied. Fairness theory can be applied in an undergoing friendly relationship, a long-term relationship, or a one-time relationship. It depends on situations. In some cases, fairness theory can be applied to family members or working partners in which relationships are considered friendly and long-term. Nevertheless, in some situations, fairness theory can be applied to counteract the other more powerful parties when they ignore principles of fairness in a one-time relationship. In addition, sometimes if two parties are haggling over the price of a used car, and they are reasonably close to an agreed upon price, it would not be surprising for them to settle by splitting the difference.

Possible options. Game theory suggests that negotiators should express one position for each issue. Win-win theory suggests that negotiators have many options that are created for maximum mutual gain. Fairness theory suggests substantive fairness in the distribution of value and (or) the procedural fairness in the appropriateness of certain negotiation tactics.

Information sharing. Game theory suggests keeping information hidden. Win-win theory suggests sharing information with other parties and explaining the rationale of other interests. In fairness theory, four fairness principles—proportionality, reciprocity, impartiality, and the requirement that all parties be heard, must be met when negotiators share information with other parties.

Possibility of reaching an agreement. In most cases, win-win theory creates the greatest possibility of reaching an agreement. This situation occurs because the win-win theory seeks any possibility of reaching an agreement. Negotiators work together to brainstorm most ideas so as to increase the likelihood of an agreement. Fairness theory can create the second greatest possibility to reach an agreement, for people often care more about how their slice of the pie compares to other people's share than the size of the slice in an absolute sense. In some cases 50-50 is not

enough in that people care if they "win" the case; however, in some cases people would like to accept an equal value to avoid conflicts and preserve relationships. Game theory is the least effective in reaching an agreement. This situation occurs because the bargaining zone is often negative or even though it is positive, an agreement may not be reached. In addition, in this one-time relationship, people do not trust each other, so the possibility of reaching an agreement is diminished. Thus, the possibility of reaching agreement using these three theories in descending order of likely success is win-win theory, fairness theory, and game theory.

Implications for Program Planning in Adult Education

Three negotiation theory—win-win theory, game theory, and fairness theory—were introduced, analyzed, and compared in previous sections. In this section, I am going to analyze the character of each negotiation theory in program planning practice to suggest the implications for program planning in adult education. These characters are addressed below.

The character of win-win theory. According to Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 1998, 2006), program planning theory posits that planning practice always has two types of outcomes—educational outcomes and social and political outcomes. These outcomes are achieved by reproducing or changing the social and political relationships that make planning possible. In addition, Cervero and Wilson (1994b) also note that planners' actions, while directed toward constructing educational programs, are also always reconstructing the power relations and interests of everyone involved or affected by the planning process.

Therefore, program planners should notice two aspects when they negotiate at the planning table: constructing an educational program and reconstructing the relationship among all stakeholders. These two aspects illuminate the power of win-win theory which I suggest is the best negotiation theory for program planning practice in adult education because the advantages

of win-win theory fit the context of program planning. These advantages include managing as many as issues which may occur through the process, integrating most different interests between parties, creating positive outcomes, and often constructing an educational program successfully. Additionally, most importantly, win-win approach tends to reconstruct a friendlier, continuing, and long-term relationship with all stakeholders in the planning process. Further, according to Cervero and Wilson (1994b), planners do not typically work in situations characterized by symmetrical power relations within which all interests are equally important and negotiation proceeds on a consensual basis. The most common situations program planners deal with are marked by asymmetrical power relations. The strategy of counteracting is a main strategy recommended by Cervero and Wilson's (1994b) program planning theory. From the advantages of win-win theory I mentioned above, the win-win approach can play a significant role in conducting the strategy of counteracting to improve program planning practice in which the asymmetrical power relations is often considered a main context.

The character of fairness theory. According to Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b), program planning theories must be able to illuminate the ethical questions that planners commonly face in their everyday practice. Cervero and Wilson (2006) also indicate that there are two sets of ethical commitments: who should benefit and who should be at the table. It seems that fairness theory can be the second most powerful negotiation theory to help planners deal with ethical questions. Four fairness principles and four fairness norms in fairness theory respond to these two sets of ethical commitments and other ethical concerns of program planning practice in which power and interests are embedded in a particular context. As noted above regarding the two strategies drawn from this theory—social comparison and procedural justice—may be able to provide some support in situations of asymmetrical power relations, too.

The character of game theory. Game theory plays the least important role in program planning theories and practice due to the following three reasons: (a) in most cases program planning deals with more than one issue; (b) issues embedded in program planning calling for negotiation usually imply that the bargaining zone is negative and indicate that the interests at the planning table do not intersect; and (c) most importantly, program planning emphasizes a continuing and long-term planning relationship. The three facts run counter to the principles of game theory. However, game theory can provide an evaluation of the result of win-win theory when it is applied to program planning. Carrel and Heavrin (2008) point out that "the win-win metaphor is not useful because it cannot be used without also using the win-lose metaphor" (p. 86). This situation occurs because in the process of negotiation the negotiators need to evaluate the deal by comparing what they will gain with what they will lose according to the view of the win-lose metaphor. The agreement can only be reached when both sides are satisfied with the results and consider that they "win." If one side feels that they lose, the agreement cannot be approached. Although the win-win metaphor is useful, this metaphor is still based on using the win-lose metaphor. Put simply, in program planning practice game theory provides basic tactics and rationality. It helps planners negotiate with other planners in unique situations with only one issue. It also helps planners evaluate the worthiness of programs related to multiple issues by comparing as needed.

Brief summary. It seems that these three negotiation theories all play the roles in program planning practice. I suggest that the win-win theory can be the most powerful theory in that it can solve most problems by reconstructing the friendly and continuing relationships with other stakeholders. In addition, fairness theory can be applied effectively in some situations; and especially when other stakeholders ignore ethical principles at the planning table, fairness theory

can be a powerful tool. Although game theory is not recommended in the final phase of negotiation, this theory can be a source to gather information, reveal interests for both sides, and present a strong argument in order to gain further preparedness for applying strategies in the decisive phase. Moreover, in some unique situations, planners have no choice but to apply game theory and relevant strategies to secure their goals at the planning table because they have difficulties in finding associated issues, and the strategies of fairness theory are not applicable. In this kind of situation, a solid rationale is considered as a good strategy of using game theory to persuade other stakeholders at the table.

Relevant Studies

Two relevant studies from the field of business are addressed here. Although both studies are quantitative studies, they provide me with valuable influence tactics by using questionnaires, factor analysis of questionnaires and other types of construct validation research, such as Q sorts by subject-matter experts, interrater agreement in the coding of critical incidents, analysis of content validity, and analysis of discriminant validity (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990). The researchers of both studies tested those tactics used by managers to influence their bosses (upward), co-workers (lateral), and subordinates (downward). These tactics are considered useful strategies in the context of program planning.

Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson's (1980) profile of organizational influence strategies. This quantitative study focused on the tactics used by respondents at work to influence their superiors, co-workers, and subordinates. These tactics were identified by administering a questionnaire answered by 754 employed respondents. The findings of the study include two parts. The first part of findings identified eight tactics: assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality,

sanctions, exchange, upward appeals, blocking, and coalitions. Table 1 indicates the detailed 51 items corresponding to each tactic.

Table 1

Kipnis et al's. (1980) Influence Tactics and Corresponding Items

Influence Tactics	Corresponding Items
Assertiveness	1. Kept checking up on him or her. 2. Simply ordered him or her to do what was asked. 3. Demanded that he or she do what I requested. 4. Bawled him or her out. 5. Set a time deadline for him or her to do what I asked. 6. Told him or her that the work must be done as ordered or he or she should propose a better way. 7. Became a nuisance (kept bugging him/her until he/she did what I wanted). 8. Repeatedly reminded him or her about what I wanted. 9. Expressed my anger verbally. 10. Had a showdown in which I confronted him or her face to face. 11. Pointed out that the rules required that he or she comply.
Ingratiation	12. Made him or her feel important ("only you have the brains, talent to do this"). 13. Acted very humbly to him or her while making my request. 14. Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what I wanted. 15. Made him or her feel good about me before making my request. 16. Inflated the importance of what I wanted him or her to do. 17. Praised him or her. 18. Sympathized with him/her about the added problems that my request has caused. 19. Waited until he or she appeared in a receptive mood before asking. 20. Showed my need for their help. 21. Asked in a polite way. 22. Pretended I was letting him or her decide to do what I wanted (act in a pseudo-democratic fashion).
Rationality	23. Wrote a detailed plan that justified my ideas. 24. Presented him or her with information in support of my point of view. 25. Explained the reasons for my request. 26. Used logic to convince him or her.

	27. Wrote a memo that described what I wanted.
	28. Offered to compromise over the issue (I gave in a little).
	29. Demonstrated my competence to him or her before making my request.
Sanctions	30. Gave no salary increase or prevented the person from getting a pay raise.
	31. Threatened his or her job security (e.g., hint of firing or getting him or her fired).
	32. Promised (or gave) a salary increase.
	33. Threatened to give him or her an unsatisfactory performance evaluation.
	34. Threatened him or her with loss of promotion.
Exchange	35. Offered an exchange (e.g., if you do this for me, I will do something for you).
	36. Reminded him or her of past favors that I did for them.
	37. Offered to make a personal sacrifice if he or she would do what I wanted (e.g., work late, work harder, do his/her share of the work, etc).
	38. Did personal favors for him or her.
	39. Offered to help if he/she would do what I wanted.
Upward appeal	40. Made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up my request.
	41. Obtained the informal support of higher-ups.
	42. Filed a report about the other person with higher-ups (e.g., my superior).
	43. Sent him or her to my superior.
Blocking	44. Threatened to notify an outside agency if he or she did not give in to my request.
	45. Threatened to stop working with him or her until he or she gave in.
	46. Engaged in a work slowdown until he or she did what I wanted.
	47. Ignored him or her and/or stopped being friendly.
	48. Distorted or lied about reasons he or she should do what I wanted.
Coalitions	49. Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request.
	50. Had him or her come to a formal conference at which I made my request.
	51. Obtained the support of my subordinates to back up my request.

Note. Adapted from “Intraorganizational Influence Tactics: Explorations in Getting One's Way” by D. Kipnis, S. M. Schmidt, & I. Wilkinson, 1980, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65*(4), p. 445-446.

The second part of findings identified the definite tactical category corresponded to five specific situations and three different kinds of objects. These five specific situations include receiving assistance in one's own job (seeking personal assistance from target persons), assigning work to a target, obtaining benefits from a target, improving target's performance, and initiating change (convincing target persons to accept new ideas). Three different kinds of objects include bosses, co-workers, and subordinates. Table 2 indicates the exercising influences and the corresponding tactics in terms of different targets.

Table 2

Kipnis et al's. (1980) Exercising Influences and the Corresponding Tactics

Exercising Influence/Target	Corresponding Tactics
Receive assistance in one's own job	
boss	Ingratiation
co-worker	Ingratiation
subordinate	Assertiveness
	Ingratiation
Assign work to a target	
boss	Assertiveness
co-worker	Assertiveness
subordinate	Assertiveness
Obtain benefits from a target	
boss	Exchange
	Ingratiation
co-worker	Exchange
	Blocking
	Ingratiation
subordinate	Assertiveness
	Coalitions
Improve target's performance	
boss	Assertiveness
	Blocking
	Rationality
co-worker	Assertiveness
	Exchange

	Coalitions
	Rationality
subordinate	Assertiveness
	Rationality
Initiate change	
boss	Rationality
	Coalition
	Ingratiation
	Exchange
co-worker	Rationality
	Coalitions
	Exchange
subordinate	Assertiveness
	Rationality

Note. Adapted from "Intraorganizational Influence Tactics: Explorations in Getting One's Way" by D. Kipnis, S. M. Schmidt, & I. Wilkinson, 1980, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65*(4), p. 450. Copyright 1980 by the American Psychological Association.

According to this table, assertiveness was the most frequent item to be used and especially in the situations in which the power difference existed and the people with more power needed a favor from the people with less power. This fact implied that the strategy of assertiveness was often used by people with more power. In addition, both ingratiation and rationality were second to assertiveness to influence others but were exercised differently. Ingratiation was more likely to be used by people with less power to ask favors from others with equal or more power. The frequency of using rationality was about the same among the three hierarchies. However, it seems that all three members of hierarchies, bosses, co-workers, and subordinates, liked to use ingratiation rather than rationality in situations related to requesting assistance, assigning a job, and gaining a benefit from others. In addition, this situation implied that rationality was not as good as ingratiation when influencing actions that had to do with personal interests in the workplace and when these personal interests were excluded from the administrative regulations. Moreover, the findings also indicated that respondents with higher job status used the tactic of

sanction more frequently when influencing their subordinates and seldom sought assistance from their superiors. Additionally, the size of the work unit also related to the use of tactics on subordinates. In large units, respondents used assertiveness, sanction, and upward appeal more frequently when influencing subordinates.

It seems that this study is a good reference for my study because program planners may play the role of boss, co-worker, or subordinate at the planning table. In addition, as I mentioned earlier in this chapter, adult educators have more opportunities to play the role of subordinate at the planning table to negotiate with other more powerful stakeholders because adult educators may be marginalized in most cases. If this asymmetrical situation does occur at the planning table, ingratiation may be a good strategy for adult educators to try.

Yukl and Tracey's (1992) influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. The focus of this quantitative study was to discover how managers use nine different influence tactics and to analyze the relationships between the target task commitments and the managers' effectiveness. The nine influence tactics included rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, consultation, ingratiation, exchange, personal appeal, coalition, legitimating, and pressure. The target task commitments included three directions: downward (the target is in a lower position), lateral (the target is in the same position), and upward (the target is in a higher position). The respondent managers of this study included 526 subordinates, 543 peers, and 128 superiors. Table 3 shows the definition of these nine influence tactics.

The results of this study indicated that effective ratings were correlated positively with a manager's use of rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, and consultation in all three directions (downward, lateral, and upward). Correlations for the remaining six tactics were negative or no significant in all three directions. In addition, regardless of direction, rational persuasion was the

Table 3
Yukl and Tracey's (1992) Influence Tactics

Tactic	Definition
Rational persuasion	The person uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade you that a proposal of request is viable and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives.
Inspirational appeal	The person makes a request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to your values, ideals, and aspirations or by increasing your confidence that you can do it.
Consultation	The person seeks your participation in planning a strategy, activity, or change for which your support and assistance are desired, or the person is willing to modify a proposal to deal with your concerns and suggestions.
Ingratiation	The person seeks to get you in a good mood or to think favorably of him or her before asking you to do something.
Exchange	The person offers an exchange of favors, indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time, or promises you a share of the benefits if you help accomplish a task.
Personal appeal	The person appeals to your feelings of loyalty and friendship toward him or her before asking you to do something.
Coalition	The person seeks the aid of others to persuade you to do something or uses the support of others as a reason for you to agree also.
Legitimating	The person seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request by claiming the authority or right to make it or by verifying that it is consistent with organizational, policies, rules, practices, or traditions.
Pressure	The person uses demands, threats, or persistent reminders to influence you to do what he or she wants.

Note. Adapted from "Consequences of Influence Tactics Used With Subordinates, Peers, and the Boss" by G. Yukl & J. B. Tracey, 1992, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(4), p. 526.

best tactic to increase effectiveness ratings at the level of the boss. The researchers assumed that the strong correlation between rational persuasion and effectiveness ratings at the level of the boss came from a close association between a manager's skillful use of rational persuasion and decent expertise. Although I use qualitative methods which are different from this quantitative study to conduct research, the nine influence tactics of this study and the three directions (downward, lateral, and upward) provide me with great resources and helpful benchmarking information that can be applied in the context of program planning.

Summary

In order to gain a better understanding of negotiation, I explored three negotiation theories (game theory, win-win theory, and fairness theory) in this section and suggested negotiation strategies as well as relevant studies. In terms of educational program planning, it seems that win-win theory is the best approach among the three theories because it not only solves most problems but also reconstructs friendly and continuing relationships with other stakeholders. Two relevant studies described tactics of influencing others and analyzed the effectiveness of those tactics. Among the tactics suggested by these two studies, rationality (rational persuasion) plays an important role in influencing others within both studies. This situation implies that game theory still plays a major role of negotiation because providing a rational support is the main strategy in game theory. The tactics of ingratiation, consultation, and coalition are based on win-win theory because these two strategies are used in order to build friendlier relationships to influence others. In addition, the tactic of exchange is close to making a package deal which is suggested by the win-win theory because this tactic of exchange is based on the principle of reciprocity. Moreover, the tactic of legitimacy is close to using the fairness theory because legitimacy emphasizes the individual’s right. The whole section helps us understand the

knowledge related to how people negotiate with each other and how they influence others by applying negotiation theories or using certain tactics to gain better results in terms of people's interests.

Negotiation in the Context of Program Planning

In order to explain how program planners negotiate their interests in the context of program planning, I discuss three main points in this section: a program planning theory, possible cultural aspects, and relevant studies. The program planning theory developed by Cervero and Wilson (1994b) well addresses most possible situations program planners encounter at the planning table. The possible cultural aspects discussed specify particular cultures embedded in the context of program planning. Two former relevant studies include Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson's (1998) power and influence tactics and Mosley's (2005) negotiation of sociopolitical issues in medical education program planning.

Cervero and Wilson's Program Planning Theory

When talking about negotiating power struggles between stakeholders and the planners who will be conducting the program, we need to be aware of Cervero and Wilson's (1994b, 2006) program planning theory. There are two parts in the theory. The first part mentions five central concepts (power, interests, negotiation, responsibility, and ethical commitments) that explain theoretical issues in program planning practice including who should benefit and who should be at the table. The second part addresses the theory that is used to negotiate power and interests in planning practice. Because I focus on how this theory works when negotiating at the table, the second part is of interest here. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) developed a conceptual scheme that delineated four different ways that power relations and associated interests can structure situations in which planners must work. The conceptual scheme is shown as Table 4.

Table 4

Cervero and Wilson's Political Boundedness of Nurturing a Substantively Democratic Planning Process

Relations Among Legitimate Interests	Type of Power Relations: Symmetrical	Type of Power Relations: Asymmetrical
Consensual	Cell 1 Individual Limits --- Strategy: Satisfice	Cell 2 Social Differentiation --- Strategy: Network
Conflictual	Cell 3 Pluralist Conflict --- Strategy: Bargain	Cell 4 Structural Legitimation --- Strategy: Counteract

Note. Cited from "The Politics of Responsibility: A Theory of Program Planning Practice for Adult Education," by R. M. Cervero and A. L. Wilson, 1994, *Adult Education Quarterly*, 45, 261. Copyright 1994 by the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education.

According to Table 4, planners will face four situations when they decide to conduct the program and must apply four strategies to deal with these four situations. To discuss negotiating power struggles between stakeholders and planners, it is necessary to know what is evident in the literature about these four strategies and how they deal with the four different situations. In the following, the four strategies, satisfice, network, bargain, and counteract are addressed, and a brief summary is provided.

Satisfice—cell 1. In this cell, planners face the symmetrical power relations and will have consensual legitimate interests with stakeholders. This implies that planners work in situations where everyone's interests are in harmony, and they have almost equal power. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) note that although the power relations in these situations are relatively

symmetrical and the people involved have similar interests, planners quickly reach individual limits about what can be done to plan the program responsibly. According to Forester (1989), the meaning of satisficing is that "expectations of success will have to be lowered from finding the optimal decision to reaching a satisfactory one" (p. 55). This indicates that the planning decision may not be the best for either planners or stakeholders. Both of them need to accept alternatives to satisfy their rational and maximum goals rather than demanding the best.

Network—cell 2. In this cell, planners will face asymmetrical power relations and consensual legitimate interests with stakeholders. In these situations, Cell 1's satisficing strategy is not good enough because unequally distributed power among relevant parties often makes their decisions beyond planners' individual limits in terms of program planning responsibility. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) explain networking as "knowing who has what information relevant to the program, who has a legitimate stake in the outcome, and how to involve them in the relevant parts of the planning" (p. 263). The following statements are an example of how networking works. In Hendricks's (1996) story about her nursing achievement program, she applied networking to establish symmetrical power relationships with other higher ranking colleagues. In her planning story, there were four positions: coordinator, academic counselor, science tutor, and nursing tutor. In addition, the order of coordinator, counselor, and tutor also described the hierarchy. Hendricks's role was that of a nursing tutor. In the beginning, she and the science tutor did not have an office but accomplished their work in an alcove and a file cabinet. She applied a networking strategy by forming an alliance with the science tutor to acquire a space. She suggested holding regular meetings with the academic counselor and the science tutor to reconcile the academic counselor's aloofness and the science tutor's resentment. Next, she networked with the coordinator who intervened on her behalf with the academic

counselor so that she could move into their new office to enhance accessibility to students. Finally, they had equal power to negotiate their personal interests based on their common interests.

Bargain—cell 3. In this cell, according to Cervero and Wilson (1994b), although the power relations in which the planner must act may be relatively symmetrical, different actors have competing interests and are willing to use their leverage to further their interests. Planners must use their position power in the overall strategy of bargaining among the competing interests. In Scott and Schmitt-Boshnick's (1996) planning story about Candora, which is a community-based education program, they "argue for incremental bargaining as the best strategy based on this research" (p. 78) in that they think Candora possessed equal power but conflicting interests with the funder. However, they eventually failed in negotiating with the stakeholder who was the funder for Candora's preemployment funding program. According to Cervero and Wilson's (1994b) theory, this situation should fall into the category of counteracting strategy (Cell 4) and the planners should have applied a counteracting strategy because the funder possessed more power than the planners in Candora's program and held conflicting interests with the planners. In the conclusion of Scott and Schmitt-Boshnick's (1996) story, they indeed recommended that "planners not fear the strategy of counteracting, for sometimes it is through conflict that our best learning occurs as a community" (p. 78). Under these circumstances, it seems that the planners misunderstood the situation which led to their failure in negotiating. Therefore, it is definitely a problem when planners mistake asymmetrical power relations for a symmetrical milieu in the context of program planning.

Counteract—cell 4. In this cell, planners are engaged in asymmetrical power relations and possess competing interests with stakeholders. In this situation, planning seems to serve the

interests of those who have the most power that is rooted in organizational and social structures. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) state that "the most common situations are marked by asymmetrical power relations that threaten, as well as offer opportunities, for democratic planning" (p. 260). The counteracting strategy is considered the best way for planners to deal with this kind of situation. The following example describes how planners use the counteracting strategy. In McDonald's (1996) planning story about planning CityGreen project, an environmental education program, McDonald negotiated with a stakeholder—Maynard's dean of agriculture—who is a charming middle-aged African American and has a reputation for being dominating and rarely has been challenged by his faculty, his colleagues, or the community. In addition, the dean also turned racism on its head and used it as a reason to exclude low-income, minority, and less educated communities from the decision-making process. McDonald tried to increase the power of the community representatives by networking with McKee, who was a strong financial supporter of the program, to reduce the power of the dean. She challenged the dean's power by asserting that the leadership of the dean needed to be shared to make the dean angry and threaten to stop the project. Finally, she believed that her planning was not a failure but included a mixture of advantages and disadvantages of outcomes. According to her story, it seems difficult to challenge power to counteract the more powerful stakeholders in the asymmetrical power relations because planners with less power probably face considerable pressures including fear of job loss, threats, group separation, hostility, frustration, and isolation.

The Possible Cultural Aspects of Negotiating in the Planning Process

Negotiating in program planning may be especially difficult due to several factors. Cervero and Wilson (1994a) consider that these factors are involved with ethically, politically, and structurally practical human action in the context. In addition, Cervero and Wilson (2001) also

assert that adult education happens in a social location that is defined by a particular social vision in relation to the wider systems of social, economic, and cultural relations of power. It is Ryu's (2008) opinion that the culture, organizations, and the associated structural and historical dimensions, influence and shape program planning with relation to power. In addition, the socio-political and socio-cultural nature of program planning should be considered in society. Moreover, according to Caffarella (2002), the context of program planning is defined as the human, the organization, and the wider environment. Additionally, the structural, political, and cultural factors of the organization as well as the general economic, political, cultural, and social climate of the wider environment affect decisions planners make about programs. Thus, Ryu (2008) concludes that culture, as one of the contextual variables, can be divided into two aspects: *societal culture* and *organizational culture,* both of which are embedded in the society and organization and influence program planning practices.

Smircich (1983) notes that societal culture, as an outside force or wider environment, influences the attitude and practices of people and organizations in various ways. In addition, Deal and Kennedy (1982) indicate that organizational culture, as an internal factor, is described as shared key values and beliefs that are seen as the personality of an organization. Therefore, although each organization possesses its own unique personality, societal culture will influence organizational culture. In Cervero and Wilson's (2001) discussion of culture, they do not distinguish between different levels of cultures and the role of cultures within the broad society and the single organization because organizational culture already reflects hierarchy, dominance, and power from both the organization and the social environment.

According to Ryu's (2008) explanation, in organizational contexts, power relations are often determined and exercised by the design of the organization, and power is structural and built into

the make-up of the organization. Power relations are also derived from society's cultural values and norms that often emerge and result in unstated and unconscious conditions. Thus, culture can help planners anticipate how people think, how they interpret information, how they respond to each other, and how they understand stakeholders and the wider environment. All of these will shape cultural aspects of negotiating in the planning process. Based on the literature of culture in the society and organizations mentioned above, seven possible cultural aspects are addressed as follows.

Hierarchy of age. In Ryu's (2008) study, the importance of age was illustrated by all of the planners, and it was widely believed that the older the person, the more powerful he or she is. In most cases, senior people possess more experience and knowledge than junior people. Their power is based on their opinions about the world, the programs, and the related stakeholders as well as their maturity. Jandt (2007) indicates that in Korea it is quite common for strangers to find out each other's age in the first few minutes of conversation and to adjust their language to show respect.

Hierarchy of boss-subordinate. Boss-subordinate is a typical cultural aspect in the planning process. The relationship of boss-subordinate is typically unequal. This kind of relationship is very similar to the relationship between parents and children. However, it seems that the hierarchy of boss-subordinate is greater than the hierarchy between parents-children in terms of the degree because subordinates can be fired, but parents can hardly fire their children. Therefore, it is difficult for subordinates to negotiate with their bosses in the planning process because if there cannot be consensus, the final decision will be made by the bosses. In addition, applying a counteracting strategy in negotiation often risks failure. Additionally, Chung, Lee,

and Jung (1997) note that the decision-making process is considered a means for exercising authority and control over subordinates.

Hierarchy of educational degree. In the modern society, possessing a Ph.D. degree represents not only expertise and capability, but also social status. This social status yields a different hierarchy among planners and stakeholders. Stakeholders respect the opinions of those who have a Ph.D. more than the opinions of those who do not at the planning table. Educational degrees are considered as an investment. This investment includes an individual's time, money, vigor, pressure, and some sacrifices that need to be made. There is no doubt that an educational degree is worthwhile. Although this cultural aspect seems invisible, planners and stakeholders usually desire to know each other's background to let them gain a basic understanding of what the planning meeting looks like and who they will deal with in terms of attendees' educational degrees, expertise, and reputation to prepare their agenda

Principle of propriety. The principle of propriety refers to rites and fundamental codes of conduct within a society. According to Ryu's (2008) study, several planners indicate that demonstrating propriety in one's behavior toward others is one of the critical factors that contribute to maintaining positive interpersonal relationships. If a person fails to possess or show propriety in interaction with others, relationships will suffer, and, as a result, it could affect the outcome of negotiating in the planning process. This cultural aspect is often seen when planners try to construct a friendly environment in the beginning of the planning process.

Principle of saving face. According to Ryu's (2008) study, in some cases of the Korean context, even though a higher ranking manager thinks his subordinate's idea is better, he does not listen to his subordinate at the planning table. This situation occurs because a higher ranking

manager fears "losing face" if his subordinate's idea is better than his. This cultural aspect probably plays a role in decision making in the negotiating and planning processes.

Culture of sexism. The culture of sexism occurs not only in Korea or the United States, but also in many other places in the world. In some traditions, women's lives are very limited in terms of their learning, freedom, and working. Even though women can find a job, their wage is often much less than that of men in the same position. There is general agreement that female planners face significant challenges and barriers in society. Johnson-Bailey and Lee (2005) note that "women of color academicians, though part of a power system, have little power to control and affect the larger academic environment" (p. 118). In this cultural context, women are considered powerless when they negotiate with men.

Culture of racism. This cultural aspect is also categorized as a societal culture in that "if one works within the U.S. system, one's practice is affected by racism" (Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, & Cervero, 2005, p. 1267). In addition, Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (1998) also add that "among the factors that compose positionality, race, gender, class, sexual orientation and physical disability, it was race that was the most salient issue" (p. 396). Johnson-Bailey (2002) points out that although educators and practitioners acknowledge race as a variable that affects teaching and learning, they do so without fully acknowledging how race shapes the ways in which they plan and practice. Therefore, the culture of racism is not hidden in program planning practice and shows its impact on negotiation processes.

Brief summary. These seven cultural aspects affect planners' perceptions of power, interests, negotiation, and responsibility. In addition, they also affect planners' responses to program outcomes—"educational outcomes and social and political outcomes" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 24) and influence relationships among individual planners and organizations.

Based on recognition of cultural aspects, it can be concluded that these possible aspects sway planners' decision making, mastery of technical procedures, and interpersonal relations. Further, these aspects also influence consideration of both individual and organizational values, and concepts about organization and administration. More specifically, these cultural aspects indicate how complex and intricate negotiating in planning practice is due to cross-cultural differences that play a role at the planning table and in the larger society.

Relevant Studies

Two studies related to program planning in the field of adult education are addressed here. The first one is a quantitative study, and the second one is a qualitative study. Both studies have been great sources for me as I conduct my own study. The knowledge from these two studies not only helps me gain a better understanding of negotiation strategies in program planning but also makes a significant contribution to my research design and interview questions.

Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson's (1998) power and influence tactics. The goal of this study was to develop a reliable and valid instrument to measure adult educators' power and influence tactics in planning education programs by applying quantitative methods. Seven power and influence tactics (reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, exchanging, bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting) were included to reflect different planning behaviors. This study went through two stages. The first stage was a pilot study with 102 adult educators that suggested that a reliable scale could be developed to measure these seven tactics. The second stage was a validation study that was conducted for the scale with a total number of 226 adult educators and trainers. The researchers identified 31 items corresponding to those seven power and influence tactics. Table 1 shows the 31 associated items with each category of seven tactics of power and influence.

Table 5

Yang et al's. (1998) Dimensions and Associated Items in Power and Influence Tactics Scale

Dimensions	Associated Items
Reasoning	1. Convincing <the person> that your plan is viable. 2. Presenting <the person> with facts, figures, and other data that support your plan. 3. Using logical arguments to convince <the person> to support your plan. 4. Demonstrating to <the person> your competence in planning the program. 5. Showing <the person> the relationship between your plan and past practices in your organization.
Consulting	6. Asking <the person> for suggestions about your plan. 7. Asking <the person> if he or she has any special concerns about your plan. 8. Indicating your willingness to modify your plan based on input from <the person>. 9. Indicating that you are receptive to <the person's> ideas about your plan.
Appealing	10. Saying that <the person> is the most qualified individual for a task that you want done. 11. Waiting until <the person> is in a receptive mood before making a request. 12. Making <the person> feel good about you before making your request. 13. Making <the person> feel that what you want done is extremely important. 14. Appealing to <the person's> values in making a request.
Networking	15. Getting other people to help influence <the person>. 16. Linking what you want <the person> to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization. 17. Obtaining support from other people before making a request of <the person>. 18. Asking other people in your organization to persuade <the person> to support your plan.
Bargaining	19. Promising to support future efforts by <the person> in return for his or her support.

	20. Offering to do some work for <the person> in return for his or her support.
	21. Offering to do a personal favor in return for <the person's> support for your plan.
	22. Offering to speak favorably about <the person> to other people in return for his or her support.
Pressuring	23. Repeatedly reminding <the person> about things you want done.
	24. Simply insisting that <the person> do what you want done.
	25. Raising your voice when telling <the person> what you want done.
	26. Challenging <the person> to do the work your way or to come up with a better plan.
	27. Demanding that <the person> do the things you want done because of organizational rules and regulations.
Counteracting	28. Communicating your plan in an ambiguous way so that <the person> is never quite clear about it.
	29. Taking action while <the person> is absent so that he or she will not be included in the planning process.
	30. Withholding information that <the person> needs unless he or she supports your plan.
	31. Telling <the person> that you refuse to carry out those requests that you do not agree with.

Note. Cited from "Development and Validation of an Instrument to Measure Adult Educators' Power and Influence Tactics in Program Planning Practice," by B. Yang, R. M. Cervero., T. Valentine, and J. Benson, 1998, *Adult Education Quarterly, 48*(4), p. 237. Copyright 1980 by the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education.

These 31 associated items made a great contribution to the field of negotiation in the context of program planning. In addition, the findings of this study indicate that the tactics of networking, reasoning, consulting, and appealing were more likely to be used by planners whose power base was considered weaker than that of others at the table, and that reasoning was one of the most effective influence tactics under asymmetrical power relations. Nevertheless, according to the authors, these findings contradicted what the researchers hypothesized because reasoning and consulting were believed to be more likely used in a consensus situation with symmetrical power relations, and pressuring and counteracting were more likely to be used in a conflict situation under asymmetrical power relations. The researchers explained that in the asymmetrical

situation, planners need to use logic, facts, or other rational ways to influence the target and to use pressuring and counteracting tactics to voice their concerns about carrying out their interests. Put simply, according to this study, when planners use counteracting, they still need reasoning to construct a strong argument to make the strategy of counteracting work well.

Mosley's (2005) negotiation of sociopolitical issues in medical education program planning. The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand the sociopolitical issues individuals face in medical education when engaged in program planning designed to address racial and ethnic disparities. A total of 14 individuals participated in this research. The findings of this study indicated that the three characteristics of negotiation that planners involved in medical education program planning were substantive negotiation, meta-negotiation, and intra-personal negotiations.

Substantive negotiation meant that planners engaged in a planning environment with complex power relations to establish a program by negotiating many issues with other stakeholders. Resources, evidence based program planning, and marketing were the three areas that planners negotiated around. For resource utilization, planners needed to work within the system by connecting the program to the institutional mission to enhance chances of getting internal funding or other resources. Evidence based program planning was to use data obtained through qualitative and quantitative perspectives in each step of the planning process. In addition, integrating the evidence gathered with best planning practices and considering the interests of the stakeholders made the best outcomes of the program possible. It was important for planners to market the program by expressing a need to highlight the positive outcomes of the program designed to address the main purpose of the program. Planners needed to be concerned about

internal and external marketing strategies and the image of the program. It was the key to selling the program in a way that makes the program matter to potential participants.

Meta-negotiation refers to a strategy that program planners adopt in order to strengthen the planner's power base by changing the power structures (Cervero & Wilson, 1998). Typically, program planners use meta-negotiation to strengthen their own power base by gaining leverage with stakeholders who are important to the program. Mosley (2005) identified three ways to apply meta-negotiation to strengthen planners' power base in program planning: functional line authority, relationship development, and being a team player. Functional line authority involves seeking a person who matters to the program and who can make a decision based on his/her own authority and striving to put this person at the planning table and to make him/her take similar responsibility regarding the planning project. Relationship development means that program planners need to build power-bearing relationships, implying interpersonal networks among a variety of stakeholders along the institutional hierarchy regardless of their position inside or outside the institution. Those stakeholders include students, faculty, administrators, community leaders, and so forth who may be interested in the process or outcomes of planning for the program. The findings of this study indicate that the best agenda in developing trust and trustworthiness in relationships is having "no agenda," which implies an unbiased approach when developing relationships. Being a team player means that planners need to make up a team and develop relationships with the team members in the planning process. This team relationship development should go beyond co-workers to have someone on the same side to watch out for the program. By bringing others who will be on the same side that the planner is on to make up a team, the planner is more likely to secure her interest in developing, implementing, and sustaining the program with the support of her team. In addition, when planning programs, the

team needs to tap into the diverse skills of a diverse group of individuals in order to make the whole better than its parts in the long run.

Intra-personal negotiations, according to Mosley (2005), are those planner-centered activities in which planners engage to position and sustain themselves as well as persevere with the planning environment in order to succeed as program planners. The aspects of intra-personal negotiations include three elements: personal commitment, time management, and support systems. Personal commitment concerns planners' planning philosophy and ethics. In other words, planners need to know what matters most to motivate their planning interests. These planning interests include students' appreciation, money, sticking to values, making a difference, responsibility, and so forth—interests that the planner must recognize, claim, and embrace because it becomes the framework of operation or a source of contention. Time management is important because time is capital or a commodity, and it cannot be restored. Planners need to set priorities for the limited time of working in terms of their work load because they have a limited amount of time. Therefore, besides using time efficiently, planners need to learn when and how to say no if they are asked to accept additional work in order to avoid being draining not only physically but also emotionally. A support system helps planners survive mentally and physically because planning is often related to political issues associated with stressful conditions. Mosley also identified three types of support. The first type is an outlet, source, or strength outside the institution that could include being with family, gathering together or talking on the phone with close friends, group activities (such as climbing, hiking, biking, and singing), and so forth. The second type is the way of thinking. Mosley recommended that being a Teflon person is better than being Velcro person because Velcro people make everything stick to themselves, a practice which may bother them with little affairs at all times, but Teflon people seem to let

things slide in order to be able to face political issues on a daily basis. The third type involves spiritual beliefs, including prayer being constantly in touch with one's own faith, and so forth.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discusses many tactics and strategies related to negotiating with and influencing others. Most strategies can be used in the context of program planning. This summary recapitulates the main points of this chapter related to negotiation strategies by providing a table. Table 6 indicates the main negotiation ideas (including political tactics and manipulation, negotiation theories, two influencing studies drawing from the field of business, Cervero and Wilson's program planning theory, and two studies related to adult education) and suggested tactics.

Table 6

Recapitulation of Negotiation Strategies Discussed in the Chapter

Theme	Related strategies
Political tactics to accumulate power	Maintain alliances with powerful people Avoid alienation Use information as currency Withdraw from petty disputes Avoid decisive engagement Avoid preliminary disclosure of preferences Make a quick but successful showing in the beginning Collect IOUs Exploit possible negative outcomes Divide and rule
Political manipulation	Persuasion Inducement Obligation Coercion
Negotiation theories	

Game theory	Assess the BATNA and improve it Determine the reservation point Make the first offer Use a rationale to support offers
Win-win theory	Build trust and share information Ask diagnostic questions Make package deals Make multiple offers simultaneously
Fairness theory	Social comparison Procedural justice
Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson's (1980) profile of organizational influence strategies (drawing from the field of business)	Assertiveness Ingratiation Rationality Sanctions Exchange Upward appeals Blocking Coalitions
Yukl and Tracey's (1992) influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss (drawing from the field of business)	Rational persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation Ingratiation Exchange Personal appeal Coalition Legitimating Pressure
Cervero and Wilson's Program Planning Theory	Satisfice Network Bargain Counteract
Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson's (1998) power and influence tactics (drawing from the field of adult education	Reasoning Consulting Appealing Networking Exchanging Bargaining Pressuring Counteracting

Mosley's (2005) negotiation of sociopolitical issues in medical education program planning (drawing from the field of adult education	Substantive negotiation Resource utilization Evidence based program planning Marketing the program Meta-negotiation Functional line authority Relationship development Being a team player Intra-personal negotiations Personal commitment Time management Support systems

Adult educators can choose any strategies from this table. The big difference between strategies drawing from the field of business and those coming from adult education is that the former do not include the strategy of counteracting but the latter do. It seems that it is difficult to challenge leadership in the field of business but in the field of adult education counteracting is possible because planners and stakeholders may come from different organizations, and the more powerful stakeholders cannot have a full control over adult educators (planners). For example, in McDonald's (1996) planning story about the CityGreen project, an environmental education program, although the dean has more power than McDonald, he cannot fire her when she challenges the dean's power because she comes from another organization. Although certain circumstances may limit the use of counteracting, it seems that the example shows that counteracting can work, not that it is limited. In addition, many strategies in this table are embedded in different negotiation theories including game theory, win-win theory, and fairness theory. The strategies related to game theory include persuasion, reasoning, rationality, assertiveness, pressuring, bargaining, upward appeals, appealing, personal appeal, sanctions, and blocking. The strategies related to win-win theory include ingratiation, exchange, coalition, consultation, networking, and relationship development. Legitimating is the only strategy related

to the fairness theory. Effectiveness should be the most important factor considered when a strategy is chosen. Although more strategies are related to game theory, it does not mean that this theory is the most effective one because the strategies of assertiveness, pressuring, sanctions, and blocking may make others feel so bad that a deal becomes impossible.

In addition to negotiation theories and strategies, this chapter also discusses the role of adult educators, adult education administration, and the possible cultural aspects of negotiating in the planning process. Three reasons explain the marginality of adult educators. First, adult education plays a peripheral role in the U.S. educational system. Second, adult education lacks specific credentials. Third, the purpose of adult education is ambiguous. These three barriers marginalize adult educators making them afraid to deal with power struggles. The process of administrative work in adult education includes developing and communicating the philosophy and mission; setting goals and objectives; planning, organizing, and structuring; leadership; staffing; budgeting and financing; marketing; and evaluation. This process creates a platform on which adult educators deal with potential conflicts with other, more powerful, stakeholders. The seven possible cultural aspects of negotiating in the planning process indicate the norms in the planning context. These seven cultural aspects (hierarchy of age, hierarchy of boss-subordinate, hierarchy of educational degree, principle of propriety, principle of saving face, culture of sexism, and culture of racism) remind adult educators of the situations in which extra attention needs to be paid and for which the adult educator working as an educational program planner needs to be fully prepared beforehand.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore the negotiation strategies that program planners apply to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table?
2. What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?

This chapter describes the methodology that is used in this study including the research design, sample selection, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability, and the researcher's assumptions and bias associated with this study.

Design of the Study

The goal of this study was to explore negotiation strategies in the setting of asymmetrical power relations in the process of planning educational programs. The negotiation strategies discussed in this study may assist planners in handling power struggles and in improving planners' political relationships with other more powerful stakeholders. It was also hoped that these strategies would assist in furthering positive outcomes for these discussions and that the result would be a more balanced inclusion of all interests. Based on the goal of the study, an open-ended data gathering approach was the most appropriate. I believed that qualitative methods served this research best because of my interest in generating new theories or models from data rich in detail and embedded in the social context. In this section, I first introduce the

epistemology of this study because it guides the theoretical perspective and thereby the methodology (Crotty, 1998). Second, I describe the theoretical perspective of the study. Third, I address the methodology that I applied to the study and explain why this methodology was best suited to the study.

The Epistemology of the Study

According to Hamlyn (1995), epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge. Three epistemological stances, objectivism, constructionism, and subjectivism, are differentiated by Crotty (1998). The epistemological stance of this study was embedded in constructionism which is "the view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). The epistemology of constructionism provides the philosophical grounding for this study because this research explored the knowledge and reality of negotiation in a social context and constructed meaning based on human beings' thinking, behavior, culture, world, and interaction.

To conduct this study, I desired to interpret how program planners dealt with powerful stakeholders at the table in the realm of negotiation. Crotty (1998) identifies the following four key tenets of the epistemology of constructionism: (a) Meanings are not discovered but constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting; (b) constructionism mirrors the concept of intentionality which is a radical interdependence of subject and world; (c) it is possible to make sense of the same reality in quite different ways because there is no true or valid interpretation; moving from one culture to another provides evidence that strikingly diverse understandings can be formed of the same phenomenon; (d) what distinguishes constructionism from objectivism is its understanding that all meaningful reality is

socially constructed. In addition, this interpretation entails an ontology in which social reality is regarded as the product of processes by which social actors together negotiate the meanings for actions and situations (Blaikie, 1993). Therefore, the epistemological stance of constructionism fits my ontological viewpoint in that this study tended to make meanings from actions that social actors, including program planners and relevant stakeholders, applied in situations in which negotiation activities were embedded in social interactions to construct social reality.

The Theoretical Perspective of the Study

The theoretical perspective of this study included interpretivism and critical inquiry. With regard to interpretivism, Weber (2004) assumes that researcher and reality are inseparable and that knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience. In addition, the research object is interpreted in light of the meaning structure of the researcher's lived experience and the truth as intentional fulfillment, implying that interpretations of the research object match the lived experience of the object. Moreover, researchers recognize and address the implications of their subjectivity by claiming defensible knowledge and interpretive awareness. Additionally, the theoretical perspective of interpretivism is also embedded in Blumer's (1969) three basic interactionist assumptions. First, human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that these things have for them. Second, the meaning of these things is derived from, and arises out of, the social interaction that people have with others. Third, meanings are handled in and modified through an interpretive process in which people deal with the things they encounter. In fact, symbolic interactionism was a theoretical perspective that connected the assumptions above to this study because this study dealt with issues of language, communication, and interrelationships between program planners and other stakeholders in the planning process.

As for a theoretical perspective of critical inquiry, Crotty (1998) indicates that critical inquiry informs research that reads the context in terms of conflict and oppression and seeks to bring about change. Critical inquiry keeps the spotlight on power relationships within society to expose the forces of hegemony and injustice. This study tried to understand the role marginality plays for adult educators in the process of constructing an educational program. This study also sought to uncover the use of power at the planning table and to bring about change by exploring negotiation strategies. In addition, this critical inquiry challenges conventional social structures in which adult educators are struggling with marginality and calls this ideology into question to make an effort to improve their chances of success during negotiation. Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) state that "in addition to the intersections of race, class, and gender, a second theme underlying these contemporary approaches is that social inequities, including those found in education, stem from power based relationships" (p. 249) and that "while critical theory allows us to uncover the use and abuse of power, it is a particularly challenging perspective to put into practice" (p. 258). This study explored power used at the planning table and sought to bring about change when conflicts and power differentials existed. Therefore, the theoretical perspective of critical inquiry informed this study and inspired me to conduct this research.

The Methodology of Grounded Theory

The methodology I adopted to conduct this study was grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory is first described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Their collaboration in research on dying hospital patients led them to write the book *Awareness of Dying*. In this research they developed the constant comparative method later known as Grounded Theory. According to Charmaz (2006), grounded theory methods consist of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories grounded in data.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) affirm that the grounded theory should include simultaneous involvement in data collection and analysis, constructing analytic codes and categories from data, using the constant comparative method, advancing theory development in the process of data collection and analysis, elaborating categories and defining relationships between categories, and conducting the literature review *after* developing an independent analysis. Atkinson, Coffey, and Delamont (2003) consider that these guidelines offer a set of general principles and heuristic devices rather than formulaic rules. Strauss and Corbin (1998) add that, for grounded theory, a researcher does not begin a project with a preconceived theory in mind unless his or her purpose is to elaborate and extend existing theory.

Although both Charmaz (2006) and Glaser (2001) advocate grounded theory in conducting a qualitative study, there are a number of disputes resulting from grounded theorists' various interpretive and positivist traditions. According to Charmaz (2006), there are two kinds of grounded theory—constructivist grounded theory and objectivist grounded theory. "A constructivist approach places priority on the phenomena of study and sees both data and analysis as created from shared experiences and relationships with participants" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 130), whereas "objectivist grounded theory resides in the positivist tradition and thus attends to data as real in and of themselves and does not attend to the processes of their production" (p. 131). Charmaz (2006) considers that a constructivist approach means being alert to conditions under which such differences and distinctions arise and are maintained and that the researcher needs to have knowledge to see differences and distinctions and to connect social contexts and situations by treating experience as separate, fragmented, and atomistic when samples are extremely small. On the other hand, according to Glaser (2007), "the latent patterns—categories—hold as objective if the GT [Grounded Theory] researcher carefully compares much data from many

different participants" (p. 98). "Personal input by a researcher soon drops out as eccentric and the data become objectivist not constructionist" (p. 98). In addition, "So much data are used in GT research to generate categories (latent patterns), that categories are generated by constant comparison of many, many interviews that both moot researcher impact or interpretation and constantly correct it if necessary" (p. 104). Based on the two scholars' accounts above, the constructivist approach is applied to studies in which researchers use small samples, whereas the objectivist approach tends to include many cases and interviews in a study. This study involved a small size of sampling, and therefore I attempted to apply Charmaz's (2006) constructivist approach in the process of my data analysis.

My perception of grounded theory is that findings emerge from data primarily and are then compared to existing theory if relevant. Researchers should avoid preconceptions. In addition, grounded theory can help researchers not only analyze data, but also construct a rigorous relationship between data collection and the ultimate theory. Grounded theory fitted this study because this approach assisted in analyzing data for qualitative research and the findings of the study seemed to be transferred to a wide range of settings; therefore, this theory helped me conduct a productive and authentic study. I was convinced that grounded theory was the best choice for my study in terms of efficiency and authenticity. Three reasons motivated my rationale for applying grounded theory.

The need to conduct qualitative research. Charmaz (2006) indicates that "researchers can use grounded theory methods with either quantitative or qualitative data; however, they have adopted them almost exclusively in qualitative research" (p. xi). My study was a qualitative study which explored theories embedded within in-depth thoughts and behavior arising from participants' experiences related to social systems and cultural traditions. Grounded theory is

well suited to constructivist, meanings-centered studies. Under this approach, human beings are active agents of their own lives and in their worlds rather than passive recipients of larger social forces. Grounded theory is flexible enough, however, to integrate assumptions from critical theory such as the idea that social forces play a role in how people are positioned and position themselves in society. The tension between interpretivist agency and the structural forces of critical theory becomes part of the analytic process of grounded theory. Grounded theory provided this study with a rigorous, systematic approach that included interviews, note taking, coding, and theoretical sampling, which are the core processes in conducting a qualitative study. Therefore, grounded theory was the best choice for this study in terms of data collection and data analysis.

Grounded theory fits my philosophical stance. Blumer (1969) considers that the ideas that Strauss embraced about grounded theory reflected the pragmatist philosophical tradition. According to Charmaz (2006), pragmatism assumes that people are active and creative and that meanings emerge through practical actions to solve problems. In addition, through actions people gain understanding and perspective. Charmaz also believes that pragmatism informs symbolic interactionism, a theoretical perspective that assumes society, reality, and self are constructed through interaction and thus rely on language and communication. Further, Charmaz explains that this perspective assumes that interaction is inherently dynamic and interpretive and addresses how people create, enact, and change meanings and actions. Thus, grounded theory can help deconstruct power dynamics and human behavior through interaction by applying the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism to reflect people's actions and interpret meanings from people's creative thoughts. Therefore, this philosophical approach provided a

theoretical platform in accordance with the epistemology of constructionism and the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism brought together in this study.

Conducting research across the settings and transferring the theory to a wide range of settings. My study was conducted across different fields including organizational settings and continuing professional education. Kearney (1998) points out that the logic of grounded theory can transcend substantive areas and move into the realm of formal theory, which means that generating abstract concepts and specifying relationships between them help human beings understand problems in multiple substantive areas. In addition, Charmaz (2006) noted that "codifying qualitative research methods entailed specifying explicit strategies for conducting research and therefore demystified the research process" (p. 7). According to Charmaz (2006) and Kearney (1998), grounded theory can reach across different areas by generating concepts and a theory that transcends context due to the logic of grounded theory and explicitly systematic research methods that grounded theory provides. My goal in conducting this study was to develop negotiation strategies which were able to be transferred and applied to other educational fields as well. Thus, I deemed that the approach of grounded theory was appropriate to the goals and the research questions of this study.

Sample Selection

For sample selection, "purposeful sampling" (Patton, 1990, p. 169) was adopted in this study. This sampling is a way in which particular settings, persons, or activities are selected to collect information that is unavailable from other choices. Patton (1989) suggests several approaches to conduct this kind of sampling, including "typical case," "extreme or deviant case," "critical case," "sensitive case," "convenience" sampling, and "maximum variation" sampling (p. 100-107). To clearly address the selection process of this study and make sense of it, I divide this

section into three parts—strategies for purposeful sampling, criteria of sampling, and procedure of selection.

Strategies for Purposeful Sampling

Among the strategies for purposeful sampling mentioned above, I chose maximum variation sampling and snowball sampling for this study. According to Seidman (2006), maximum variation sampling ensures that "the range of people and sites from which the sample is selected should be fair to the larger population" (p. 52). In maximum variation sampling, the researcher tries to select diverse participants in terms of their culture, demography, and location. Therefore, this study took into consideration a range of sites and a range of people, who varied in terms of gender, age, and race and sought participants with different characteristics. A limitation of this method for this study was the geographic factor. Because of limited funding and time, this study was confined to Georgia in the United States. Nevertheless, this study reached participants in the Georgia area whose experiences represented a variety of groups in the larger population of the specific geographic area of interest.

This study employed snowball sampling and asked participants "who else should I talk to" (Patton, 2002) to make the snowball bigger and bigger as I accumulated new information-rich cases. To do this, I asked interviewees about others who they knew had had experiences with negotiation at the planning table. Their bosses, colleagues, and partners from different organizations, whom interviewees recommended, were potential participants for the study. I kept a social and professional profile of those potential participants as a record, and that record also helped this study increase the diversity of the participants to substantiate maximum variation sampling.

Criteria of Sampling

In order to elicit data rich in detail from participants, the selection criteria for the study were determined as follows: (a) experienced program planners who had worked as a program planner in the field of adult, continuing, or higher education for at least five years; (b) continuous employment in the field of program planning with a gap of no more than one year in the past six years; (c) program planners who represented diverse organizational cultures including business, law, pharmacy, government, educational institutes, non-profit and profit, associations of continuing professional education, and other adult and continuing education providers; (d) program planners who represented diversity in age, gender, and race in the Georgia area of the United States. The aim of these selection criteria was to obtain useful information and to maximize what could be learned in the period of time available for the study (Tellis, 1997). These criteria helped me filter potential participants to ensure that the data collected from experienced participants were rich, detailed, diverse, and encyclopedic. Thus, the research questions of the study were more likely to be answered by setting these sampling criteria.

As for the question of how many participants would be enough for the study, Seidman (2006) suggests two criteria: sufficiency and saturation. Sufficiency focuses on whether there is a sufficient number to reflect the range of participants and sites that make up the population so that others outside the sample might have a chance to connect with the experiences of those in it. For this study, the sufficiency was met because the 12 participants recruited for the study represented voices from perspectives referring to men, women, minorities, positions in organization, and age. The second criterion is saturation of information. A number of scholars (Douglas, 1976; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Rubin & Rubin, 1995; Weiss, 1994) discuss a point in a study at which the interviewer begins to hear the same information reported and no longer learns

anything new. This point can be considered the saturation point. Douglas (1985) indicates that if he has to pick a number, it would be 25. For this study, I did not have a number in my mind. However, after having interviewed twelve participants and having had the collected data assessed, I found the information was saturated and then decided to stop the sampling process.

Procedure of Selection

For the selection procedure, first at all, recruitment letters were sent to potential participants who were working in the fields of continuing education including institutions, universities, or associations involved in adult or continuing education. Second, I contacted potential participants who agreed to participate in this study. The purpose was to make sure that those potential participants met the criteria of the study to avoid misunderstanding about the study. Third, once I found the potential participants met the selection criteria, I would make an appointment with them, conduct an interview, and ask them at the end of the interview whom else I should talk to in order to find more potential participants. Fourth, I assessed the potential participants' demographics and identified the first ten participants. In addition, a list of priorities was established from which to select a participant in case more participants were needed in the future. Finally, a total number of 12 participants were selected for this study.

Data Collection

For this study, data were collected by conducting semi-structured interviews based on the critical incident technique. According to Seidman (2006), if the research interest is in participants' "subjective understanding" (p. 11), then it seems that interviewing, in most cases, may be the best avenue of inquiry. Although multiple methods, including document collection and observation, might be appropriate for this study, based on the present research questions, this study sought to uncover planners' subjective understanding embedded in participants' experience

in planning programs exclusively through interviewing. In addition, the interview is a powerful way to gain insight into educational and other important social issues through understanding the experience of the individuals whose lives reflect those issues (Seidman, 2006). Documents or observations may provide limited help; however, it was very difficult for me, as an international student who has never worked as a full-time employee in the United States, to gain access to internal documents or to observe planning meetings in an organization. To use resources efficiently, I decided to collect data only through interviews. According to Merriam (1998), interviewing is the main data-gathering device in most forms of qualitative research. Seidman (1998) indicates that "at the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (p. 3). Therefore, obtaining and studying experiences from other individuals' narratives can be the heart of interviewing research. Although interviewing provides valuable data, some barriers may be encountered. For example, a researcher may face shy interviewees, difficulty finding interviewees, and expressional obstacles that prevent interviewees from answering questions accordingly. The following three sections—semi-structured interviews, the critical incident technique, and the procedure of data collection—describe how this study employed interviewing to collect data.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Merriam (1998) states that interviews can range from a highly structured or standardized format, in which questions and the order that interviewees are asked are predetermined, to an unstructured or totally open-ended format, in which nothing is set ahead of time. According to Roulston (2010), for semi-structured interviews, interview protocol is used as a guide, questions may not always be asked in the same order, and the interviewer initiates questions and poses

follow up probes in response to the interviewee's descriptions and accounts. For this study, semi-structured interviews were employed. This meant that I collected data not only from predetermined questions, but also from follow-up questions asked in a flexible manner. In order to obtain in-depth data within the time frame, an interview guide was developed accordingly (see Appendix A). Moreover, I adopted a progressive process in which I started from a very wide angle, one that takes in the whole scene (Gillham, 2000) and progressed to more focused questions. Additionally, I used probes to expand on participants' responses during interviews. "Probes are supplementary questions or responses which you use to get interviewees to feed you more" (Gillham, 2000, p. 46). Gillham also lists eight effective probes: clarification, showing appreciation and understanding, justification, relevance, giving an example, extending the narrative, accuracy, and reflecting to help interviewers collect "key points." Further, during the interviews, I took notes and kept a journal to make the data as rich as I could. An IRB was approved before the process of data collection began. Each interview started with a consent process, in which the consent form (see Appendix B) was given to each participant, and was followed by an introduction of the researcher, the research topic, and the purpose of the study. The interview ended with a discussion of what would follow so that participants could establish a basic understanding of the entire process of interviews.

In addition to the semi-structured interviews, there are also several forms of interviews to help collect as much data as possible. Seidman (1998, 2006) advocates a three-interview series that includes life history, the details of experience, and reflection on the meaning. For this study, a modified two-interview series was used because the second interview was designed only for the purpose of further clarifications. Considering the distance I needed to travel to conduct interviews and the limited availability of the participants, I tried to collect a sufficient amount of

data in the first round of the interview. Each single interview took from 50 minutes to one hour and 50 minutes depending on the individual participant's responses to the interview questions, and all interviews were conducted solely by the researcher in Georgia in the United States between May and October, 2010. It turned out that only four participants were interviewed twice for the purpose of clarification.

Critical Incident Technique

The critical incident essentially involves asking participants to identify events or experiences that were "critical" for some reasons, and the incidents are then pooled together for analysis (Kain, 2004). In addition, this technique has been developed further as an investigative tool in organizational analysis from within an interpretative or phenomenological paradigm (Chell, 2004). The critical incident technique provides a method for tapping into responders' perceptions, yielding a substantial data set for a qualitative analysis of the communication process, and captures the differences that may fall between points on a standard scale (Radford, 2006). Flanagan (1954) initially used this research technique to study issues regarding airline pilots, personnel, and air traffic controllers by asking participants to describe critical incidents that occurred during World War II. According to (Drennon, 2000), the critical incident technique presents for constructivist methodologies by extending the depth of questioning in critical incident interviews, a strategy which results in rich narratives, and by capturing both context and meaning from the perspective of respondents. According to scholars in this field, there are both advantages and disadvantages as discussed below.

Advantages. There are three key advantages gained when using the critical incident technique. (a) This research technique connects real-world examples and behaviors and minimizes the subjective input of the researcher (Stano, 1983). In addition, Kain (2004) believes

that the critical incident technique is similar to the notion of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) because both approaches involve using evidence to allow theory to emerge. (b) Critical incident studies are particularly useful in the early stages of research because they generate both exploratory information and theory or model-building and can identify issues that may deserve further attention and research (Woolsey 1986, cited in Kain, 2004). (c) By asking for descriptions of critical incidents that participants actually experienced, researchers can save long-term field observation activities and still access participants' perspectives through human discourses in which the real meanings are embedded (Kain, 2004).

Disadvantages. Two disadvantages mentioned by Kain (2004) concerned the researcher in this study. (a) The critical incident technique may create anxiety among some participants who fear the possibility of identity exposure. Some unique incidents that happen in a very specific context can be easily identified by those who are involved. A couple of participants recruited for this study indicated that they had worried a little about having their identities exposed. To reduce the risk of participants' identity exposure, I changed the entire context of each incident but kept what the participant felt about the incident and how he/she reacted to the incident. (b) The critical incident technique relies completely on participants' self-reports, and such reports may be inaccurate. With regard to the resolution of this disadvantage and to enhance the accuracy of the study by applying this research technique, I asked similar questions multiple times during the entire interview. If I found any discrepancies among those answers, I asked participants the same questions again to clarify the answers and to improve the accuracy of the collected data.

Procedure of Data Collection

For this study, I asked each participant to share only one incident that impressed him/her during his/her career as an adult program planner. Through recruiting and screening procedures,

I identified qualified participants who expressed their willingness to participate in the study. First, I emailed them the consent form and the interview guide of the study and encouraged them to review those documents to see whether or not they had any questions. Second, I contacted them by phone or email to make appointments to conduct interviews. The location where each interview was conducted was determined with regard for the individual participant's situation. Because each planner had his/her own office, the interview was usually conducted in that office or in a conference room nearby to make the process as convenient as possible for the participant. In addition, an interview was sometimes conducted near a participant's residence depending on the partucular participant's needs and preferences. Third, for a single appointment, I sent another email to thank the participant and remind him/her of the upcoming meeting two days ahead not only to confirm the time and location of the meeting but also to construct a positive relationship between the participant and me, the researcher, by increasing interactions between us. Fourth, when the participant and I met for the first time, I introduced myself, began the process of getting the consent form signed, asked for permission to record the interview conversation, and then started asking interview questions. Finally, when a single interview was done, I always mentioned that I might need to meet or contact the participant again to clarify some of the answers and obtain his/her permission for follow-up contact. Because there was no compensation or reward for participation in the study, there was no obligation for the participants to meet with me again to conduct another interview. I understood that the participants might be very busy and that it might be difficult for some of them to meet me a second time. Furthermore, I realized that some participants did not live near my residence. Because I was afraid that the participants were so busy that I hardly scheduled the second interview within a short period of time and tried to save my time, energy, and cost, I decided that the second interview would be

optional and would depend on the need for clarification of a particular participant's answers. Consequently, I collected as much data as possible in the first interview. Throughout the study, only four participants were interviewed twice for the purpose of clarification.

Data Analysis

Maxwell (2005) demonstrates that the activities of qualitative research include "collecting and analyzing data, developing and modifying theory, elaborating or refocusing the research questions, and identifying and addressing validity threats" (p. 2). Analyzing data can be the heart of the research because this process is highly involved in the results of the study and greatly determines the success of the study. In addition, this process can be very complicated because the researcher needs to find clues and themes from disorderly and unsystematic raw data. After transcribing the interviews and collecting field notes and journals, the researcher starts to read, arrange, organize, develop themes, and so forth. In so doing, the researcher needs to follow guidelines to ensure the quality of data analysis. For this study, I adopted grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to analyze data. In this section, two themes are discussed—grounded theory and the process of data analysis.

Grounded Theory

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), grounded theory is a systematic generation of theory from data that contains both inductive and deductive thinking. The purpose of grounded theory is to discover the participants' main concern and how they continually try to resolve it by using empirical data to conceptualize what's going on. Generating concepts by conceptualizing empirical data through the process of using grounded theory explains people's actions regardless of time and place. According to Charmaz (2006), grounded theory includes eight processes in a recursive form. These eight processes are writing the first draft, gathering data, coding, memo-

writing, theoretical sampling, reassessing the theory, writing the draft, and reflecting on the process. It seems that four of them are core steps to conduct a qualitative study by using grounded theory—coding, constant comparison methods, theoretical sampling, and writing the draft. These four processes are addressed below.

Coding. According to Charmaz (2006), coding means categorizing segments of data with a short name that simultaneously summarizes and accounts for each piece of data. Coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emergent explanatory theory. Through coding, researchers interpret data and begin to grapple with what it means. There are two phases of coding: initial coding and focused coding. Initial coding is done to closely study fragments of data—words, lines, segments, and incidents—closely for the analytic import. Focused coding is done to select what seems to be the most useful initial codes and to test them against extensive data. Two types of focused coding are axial coding, which specifies the properties and dimensions of a category, and theoretical coding, which specifies possible relationships between categories researchers have developed. Coding is an important process to give researchers a focused way of viewing data.

Constant comparative methods. The constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is the core of qualitative analysis in grounded theory. Tesch (1990) explains this constant comparison by stating,

> The method of comparing and contrasting is used for practically all intellectual tasks during analysis: forming categories, establishing the boundaries of the categories, assigning the segments to categories, summarizing the content of each category, finding negative evidence, etc. The goal is to discern conceptual similarities, to refine the discriminative power of categories, and to discover patterns. (p. 96)

Charmaz (2006) adds that constant comparative methods are used to "establish analytic distinctions and thus make comparisons at each level of analytic work" (p. 54). I conclude that constant comparative methods have three strengths. First, they increase internal validity as well as external validity. From Boeije's (2002) interpretation, comparisons can increase the internal validity of the findings because the researcher tries to describe and conceptualize the variety that exists within the subject under study. Further, constant comparisons can increase external validity when the sampling has been conducted well in a reasonably homogeneous sample in that there is a solid basis for generalizing the concepts. The conceptual model can even be transferred to different substantial fields that show similarities with the original field. Second, it allows greater awareness of the data. Charmaz (2006) indicates that from the experience of constantly comparing data the researcher might possess a repertoire of psychological concepts that the researcher ordinarily invokes to understand behavior. Third, data saturation can be checked. Boeije (2002) explains that the cycle of comparison and reflection on *old* and *new* material can be repeated several times. It is only when new cases do not bring any new information to light that categories can be described as saturated.

Theoretical sampling. According to Charmaz (2006), theoretical sampling seeks pertinent data to develop the emerging theory from the process of coding. The main purpose of theoretical sampling is to elaborate and refine the categories that constitute the theory by recruiting appropriate participants in the middle of data collection to avoid premature closure of analytic categories or redundant categories. In doing so, the researcher needs to be selective about which data he/she seeks and where he/she seeks participants in order to see the boundary of categories and the variation in the studied process. Theoretical sampling helps researchers check, qualify, and elaborate the boundaries of categories and specify the relations and links among categories.

This strategy is the best way for grounded theorists to retrace tentative and emerging categories to decide if researchers need to go back to collect more data or to review more memos. Researchers conduct theoretical sampling to develop the properties of categories until no new properties emerge. When new data no longer sparks new theoretical insights, nor reveals new properties of the core theoretical categories, categories are "saturated" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 113). According to Glaser (2001), grounded theory saturation is repetition of the same patterns or categories which meaning is broader than repetition of the same events, stories, actions, and statements. When categories are saturated or no new properties of the pattern emerge, the researcher can stop gathering data.

Writing the draft. Writing the draft helps researchers gain further insights and create more ideas; it also permits researchers to see more clearly the connections between categories and the implications from them. Through the writing and rewriting process, researchers can bring out implicit arguments, provide context, make links with extant literature, examine categories critically, present analyses, and specify the data that support their arguments. In addition, classic grounded theorists (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) argue that delaying the literature review until the analysis is done is an important strategy to avoid importing preconceived ideas and imposing them on researchers' work. However, there is a debate among scholars regarding whether this is feasible or even possible (Blumer, 1979; Dey, 1999; Layder, 1998). Charmaz (2006) recommends that if the literature review is done in the beginning, one should let the material "lie fallow" until the categories and analytic relationships between them have been completed.

The Process of Data Analysis

The process of my data analysis is addressed below. (a) After transcribing all the interviews, my first step was line-by-line coding. Through line-by-line coding, I was able to read the data

carefully and to write down the codes that helped me understand conceptually the content of the coded section. (b) The second step was focused coding. One way to organize the analysis was to sort the data by research question (Radford, 2006). My focused coding was guided by relational and content dimensions based on the research questions (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). (c) The third step was to follow the focused coding to provide the study participants' profiles and describe their critical incidents. This writing process helped me fully understand each participant's situation and actions and allowed me to summarize each his/her detailed story into a three- to four- page profile. This process assisted me not only in reporting the participants' stories but also in internalizing those stories. By internalizing or memorizing the participants' stories, I was able to sort the study data faster and analyze the data more accurately. (d) In the fourth step, after conducting each interview, I started to analyze the data by using the constant comparative method to create themes and categories. I first compared focused codes within the same incident to identify the most significant focused codes that were strongly related to the research questions. After identifying all focused codes in each critical incident, I compared all codes, interview statements, and field notes within the single incident and across different incidents to organize the codes into categories regardless of the frequency of occurrences. In addition, in this step, I arranged all categories into different themes based on common traits. I examined each category from every possible angle to identify the most appropriate themes representing the characteristics of similar categories and to consider the word choice for each theme carefully and creatively. (e) In the fifth step, I applied the method of theoretical sampling to seek additional participants. For example, I found that the data collected from three participants who worked in Continuing Education Centers located at different universities showed similar patterns and very few new theoretical insights. Therefore, I stopped recruiting

participants from Continuing Education Centers and tried to contact additional organizations regarding higher education to search for new participants. In addition, I decided on the saturation point in this step based on the data collected from the last two participants—the 11th and 12th participants. These two participants provided very few new theoretical insights. Therefore, I stopped the interview process at this point. (f) The sixth step was theoretical sorting. Through sorting, I worked on the theoretical integration of the categories and compared categories at an abstract level (Charmaz, 2006). (g) In the seventh step, I interpreted the theory that I constructed for the study based on constructivist grounded theory. Constructivist grounded theorists take a reflexive stance toward the research and consider how their theories evolve, a process which involves reflecting on meanings and actions that both researchers and research participants interpret (Charmaz, 2006). Because the sample size of the study—12 participants—seemed small, I approached constructivist grounded theory by becoming an instrument fostering my own reflexivity in regard to my interpretations as well as those of the research participants (Charmaz, 2006). I reported every meaningful category in my analysis, as long as the categories developed my understanding and moved my epistemological stance forward in terms of answering the research questions. (h) The eighth step, the final step, was to do an expanded review of the literature regarding the findings of the study. Classic grounded theory suggests delaying the literature review until after completing the analysis (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In this step, I compared the literature review that was done at the beginning with the findings of the study, explored more relevant literature in terms of the findings, and reflected on the research process and the findings of the study to present conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

Validity and Reliability

How can one trust the result of a research study? In quantitative research, researchers generally attempt to design controls that will deal with both anticipated and unanticipated threats to validity (Maxwell, 2005). In contrast, in qualitative research, the understanding of reality is really the researcher's interpretation of someone else's interpretation because qualitative researchers are the primary instruments for data collection and analysis and interpretations of reality are accessed directly through observations and interviews (Merriam & Simpson, 2000). In this section, I describe some strategies that I applied to increase validity and reliability, respectively, from the perspective of the qualitative researcher of this study.

Validity

There are two types of validity: internal validity and external validity. Internal validity is considered the strength of qualitative research (Merriam & Simpson, 2000) and pertains to the questions of how research findings are congruent with reality (Merriam, 1998). In other words, if the researcher chooses different participants or sites or applies different methods of data analysis, will the results of the study still remain the same? Or, if the researcher possesses subjective assumptions or biases that make the results of the study diverge from the truth or reality, can the findings still be trusted? Because qualitative inquiry assumes that there are multiple, changing realities and that reality is constructed by individuals (Merriam & Simpson, 2000), internal validity is difficult for the research to achieve. Internal validity may undermine qualitative research because the researcher may not fully understand his/her biases on the process of analysis which may be prejudiced by first impressions or by the researchers' subconscious preconceptions. Therefore, finding some strategies to enhance internal validity is very important for the researcher. Merriam and Simpson (2000, p. 102) suggest five strategies: (a) triangulation—the

use of multiple investigators, multiple sources of data, or multiple methods to confirm the emerging findings, (b) member checks—taking data collected from participants and researchers' tentative interpretations of these data back to the people from whom they were derived and asking if they ring true, (c) peer/colleague examination—asking colleagues to examine the data and to comment on the plausibility of the emerging findings, (d) statement of researcher's experiences, assumptions, biases, and (e) submersion/engagement in the research situation—collecting data over a long enough period of time to ensure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon.

For this study, all strategies suggested by Merriam and Simpson were used to ensure internal validity. First, the maximum variation sampling included participants and sites as wide as possible to triangulate data source. The constant comparative methods in grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) helped me triangulate the process of data analysis by comparing data from different participants. Second, I did member checking to ensure credibility and accuracy of my interpretation to participants' view. The interview transcripts were sent to the participants for checking. I kept a record of participants' clarification, verification, and feedback and took them into consideration to substantiate the process of analysis. Third, my major professor and my committee members who are knowledgeable and trusted were able to answer my doubts and to help me review my interpretations and findings. This process raised alternative thoughts or opinions to be considered to enhance the overall trustworthiness of the study. Fourth, I included a section of my assumptions and biases that were related to the study and presented later in this chapter. In addition, in that section I also described my past experiences to reveal my assumptions and biases and to explain where they come from. Fifth, I did a pilot study with an approved IRB prior to this study. I collected and analyzed the data from that pilot study to

immerse myself in the in-depth phenomenon of program planning and to engage myself in the research situation. Although the findings of that pilot study were not considered effective, what I learned from conducting interviews and analyzing data for a qualitative study from the pilot study improved my research capability and prepared me well to be ready for a formal qualitative study. Sixth, it took me about five months, from May to October in 2011, to collect data in order to allow me to be deeply engaged in the research situation for enough period of time to ensure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. All of these strategies helped me ensure internal validity successfully for the study in the process of data collection and analysis.

External validity, according to Merriam (1998), is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied or generalized to other situations. In qualitative research, the sample size is smaller and the procedure of sampling is not standardized. It is not surprising, then, that the findings of qualitative research may not be generalizable. However, if the researcher conducts the same qualitative research and can obtain the similar findings by using the data from different participants and different sites, the findings are transferable to other situations. Merriam and Simpson (2000) suggest three strategies to enhance external validity in qualitative research: (a) rich, thick description, involving providing enough information/description so that readers will be able to determine how closely their situations match the research situation and whether findings can be transferred; (b) multisite designs, which is the use of several sites, cases, situations, especially those representing some variation, which will allow the results to be applied to a greater range of other situations; and (c) modal comparison, involving describing how typical the program, event, or sample is compared with the majority of others in the same class. In this study, I applied the following three strategies to enhance the external validity of the study. First, I applied critical incident technique to this study to collect data based on the participants' real

situations that provided rich and detailed information. By reading those situations, readers will be able to compare their own situations with those participants' real situations in order to determine whether or not the findings of the study can be transferred. Second, the fact that participants come from different sites may increase the external validity of the study. This study employed a multisite designs to allow the results to be applied to a greater range of other situations because the most participants were recruited from different sites, organizations, or geographic area. Third, I recruited participants from different gender, race, positions, and the range of the ages to make sure that the data came from people with diverse backgrounds and to compare the facts with those from different perspectives of people. I believed that all three strategies improved the external validity of this study.

Reliability

According to Kirk and Miller (1986), reliability is the extent to which a data collection procedure and analysis yield the same result for multiple participants in the research process. Franklin and Ballan (2001) state that "reliability refers to the degree to which other researchers performing similar observations in the field, and analysis such as reading field notes transcribed from narrative data, would generate similar interpretations and results" (pp. 273-274). According to Hansen (1979), there are two types of reliability regarding qualitative study: internal reliability and external reliability. Internal reliability refers to the degree to which other researchers given a set of previously generated concepts would match them with data in the same way as did the original researcher (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982, as cited in Franklin & Ballan, 2001). External reliability addresses the issue of whether independent researchers would discover the same findings in the same or similar setting (Franklin & Ballan, 2001).

Rafuls and Moon (1996) identified four items involving both the internal and external reliability of a qualitative study: selection criteria of participants, interview guide questions, description of researcher's roles, and the methods and the procedure of analysis. Kirk and Miller (1986) strongly encourage researchers to keep field notes, a log, and a field work journal containing events, ideas, emotions, mistakes, and concerns in order to make the research process clearer. Tutty, Rothery, and Grinnel (1996) recommend developing an audit trail conducted by a researcher's peers to help the researcher maintain consistency throughout the study. According to Guba (1981, as cited in Franklin & Ballan, 2001), the researcher needs to develop an audit trail in the form of documentation and a running account of the process throughout the study in order to allow an external auditor or researcher to examine the audit trail as well as to verify whether procedures and interpretations were reasonable. With regard to this study, the research design included clear criteria for selecting participants, a clear interview guide, an open statement regarding my subjectivity, and a transparent process of using grounded theory, which Glaser and Strauss (1967) consider helpful for understanding the essence of structured qualitative data analysis. In addition, I followed Kirk and Miller's (1986) suggestion to keep a field work journal containing all events, emerging ideas, emotions, mistakes, and concerns that occurred to me during the research process to increase both internal and external reliability. Furthermore, I have a peer who was a native English speaker and pursuing his doctoral degree in education but slightly different from adult education, my major, to read my writing two hours a week throughout the study to verify whether my interpretations made sense. Although the role of this peer was not actually that of an external auditor, as an international student whose native language was not English, having a native English speaker to review my writing definitely improved both internal and external reliability. Based on the strategies I adopted in this study, I

was convinced that the whole research design of the study eliminated most threats to reliability by using as many means as possible to increase reliability.

Researcher Bias and Assumptions

Researcher bias and assumptions may affect the validity and reliability of a study, especially in qualitative research. Peshkin (1988) stresses that while research is actively in progress, researchers should systematically interrogate their subjectivity. The subjectivity statement helped me understand the manner in which I interpreted the study by exposing the roots of my biases and assumptions on the topic. To clearly address my biases and assumptions about this study, I investigated two areas—my own personal background and my researcher subjectivities.

My Own Personal Background

I was born in Taiwan. I grew up in that small island and have been intimidated by a huge hegemonic country-China since I was born. Later, when I grew up a little bit, I watched a few of films produced by the government that described the war we had had between Taiwan and Mainland China, and I was wondering how we can deal with this powerful country without fighting each other. I grew up and completed most of my education in Taiwan. Upon graduation from high school, I was admitted to the Taiwanese military academy and assigned to the Taiwan Navy after I graduated. I decided to get out of the navy in 2007 and came to the United States to pursue my career goal after I served as a naval officer for several years. I have experienced the strength of authority both in the situation of my country and in my military career. In addition, my experience of living, studying, and conducting research in a different country is a big challenge for me because the cultural conflicts between Taiwan and the United States will influence my values, beliefs, and my positionality. Therefore, the three factors, my military

background, being a Taiwanese, and conducting research in the different country, shaped my subjectivities as a researcher.

My Researcher Subjectivities

What I needed to be cautious about during the research were (a) dogmatic inference and (b) misjudging the values of negotiation strategies. These two garments I wore were hardly removed and were insistently present in both the research and nonresearch aspects of my life. As a researcher, I had to be aware of my subjectivities, and I understood that these subjectivities might go beyond my control while I was energetically engaged in the research process.

Dogmatic inference. This subjectivity came from my military background and the fact that I grew up in the small island, Taiwan, and was intimidated by a huge hegemonic country, China. The pressure of authority that I experienced either in the military or from China made me feel antipathy toward people with power. Therefore, I might misinterpret the actions taken by powerful individuals and exaggerate the influence of their movements. For example, I might interpret ethics in different ways between less powerful planners and more powerful planners. I might dogmatically consider that the interests from more powerful planners were likely to be unethical even though some less powerful planners might approach planning in an unethical way. In addition, the planner with more authority might not necessarily use that power to take advantage of less powerful individuals or groups. The assumption that the individuals with less power were likely to be innocent might not be true. The hypothesis of an asymmetrical power relationship in the context of educational program planning was not necessarily true, either. Thus, this subjectivity might jeopardize the authenticity of my study.

Misjudging the values of negotiation strategies. This subjectivity came from my cultural assumptions. I was able to learn some different negotiation strategies from the process of data

collection. I also needed to judge whether these negotiation strategies were considered as good to use in the context of educational program planning. In addition, because this study was conducted here in the United States, I, as a Taiwanese researcher in America, needed to balance "interpersonal skill" and "public relations." From my point of view, Taiwanese usually put the personal relationship as the top priority which was higher than law. This meant that Taiwanese were likely to believe others who had close relationships with them regardless of what those people had said or done. However, Americans might put law as the top priority which was higher than personal relationships. Americans probably believe others based on evidence and what they have seen or heard. Therefore, I might misjudge the values of different strategies by viewing facts through the lens of the Taiwanese culture more than that of the American culture. Thus, the strategies I valued might not be useful in the context of educational program planning in American organizations. Likewise, the strategies I thought were not important to planners might be helpful in American society. This subjectivity was a threat to the validity of my study because how "good" these negotiation strategies were might depend on my decision.

I kept my subjectivities in mind by keeping a field work journal on an everyday basis. Although it might not be possible for me to remove both garments, I might be able to lessen their weight of those garments to increase the validity and reliability of the study by using the grounded theory, doing a pilot study, keeping a journal, member checking, triangulation, peer examination, thick description, and multisite designs. Although these subjectivities were based upon my assumptions, values, and beliefs that appeared unconsciously from my perspective, being aware of my subjectivities helped me keep away from the biases that my subjectivities yielded and improved the validity and reliability of this study.

Strengths and Limitations

The strengths of this study included my great passion for exploring knowledge in the field of negotiation and my living and working experiences. Both my passion and experiences supported me to make decisions in the research process. These decisions included creating the interview questions and sensitively interpreting the meaning embedded in transcripts and codes. Using the methodology of grounded theory, the best approach for conducting this study, was a further strength because it guided and helped me to eliminate bias by grounding my findings in the data through each process systematically.

The limitations of this study were related to issues embedded in cultural, language, and geographic barriers. As I mentioned in the section of my subjectivity, I was deeply influenced by three cultures: Chinese, Taiwanese, and American. These cultural aspects sometimes confused me and made it difficult for me to obtain the "correct" meaning from participants. In addition, the language barrier always existed whenever I spoke, listened, transcribed, interpreted, or thought. Although I might hire someone to transcribe the conversations within the interviews, my way of thinking, which differed from that of Americans, might affect the process of analysis. Moreover, because of the limitations of my time and budget, the participants of this study were restricted to Georgia in the United States. Thus, the internal and external validity might be affected in terms of transferability.

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, I described the methodology of conducting this qualitative research that explored negotiation strategies in the context of asymmetrical relations when planning educational programs for adults. This chapter first described the details of research design of the study including the constructionist epistemology, the theoretical perspectives of interpretivism—

symbolic interactionism and critical inquiry—and the methodology of grounded theory. Second, in the sample selection section, I described the strategies of purposeful sampling, criteria of sampling, and procedures of sampling. Third, in the data collection section, I introduced a modified two-interview series, semi-structured interviews, the critical incident technique, and the procedure of data collection used in this study. Fourth, in the data analysis section, I addressed grounded theory and the process of my analyzing the data. Fifth, in the validity and reliability section, I mentioned the strategies that I used to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. Finally, I described two of my subjectivities—the possibility of dogmatic inference and misjudging the values of negotiation strategies—which I needed to acknowledge and to guard against in conducting this study.

CHAPTER 4

PROFILES OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS AND CRITICAL INCIDENTS

Twelve participants agreed to participate in this study. All participants are currently located in the field of Higher Education. Each participant was given a pseudonym. This chapter introduces participants alphabetically by presenting a profile of each. The profiles include what I learned about the role and responsibilities of participants' educational planning positions; organizational structures in which they carried out their work, situations in which they were involved when in that position; responses, decisions, and reflections on those situations; and outcomes of their educational programs. Thus, the profiles provide critical context for understanding each planners' planning practice. Participants' ages range from the early 30s to the late 60s. With regard to race, two were European American males, five were European American females, four were African Americans females, and one was Hispanic American female. Table 7 shows each participant's age, gender, race, educational degrees, and years of experience in working as adult program planner. Their planning areas included credit and noncredit adult education, residency education, community education, faculty training, workplace leadership training, higher education, continuing professional education, conferences, and professional education for certification.

Andy

Andy, a professor, is a white male in his early 50s. He graduated with a doctorate in Pharmacy in the 1980s and also earned another doctoral degree in Higher Education in the 2000s. Throughout the 19 years that he has worked professionally in pharmacy education for adults, he

has been a postdoctoral researcher, a program planner, and a professor. In his current position, he oversees all outreach programs in the college, including degree programs for working professionals and continuing education for pharmacists and other health professionals.

Table 7

Participant Demographics in the Study

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	Race	Education	Degree Areas	Planning Experience
Andy	50s	M	White	Ph.D.	Pharmacy & Higher Ed.	19 years
Brad	50s	M	White	J.D.	Law	27 years
Deborah	60s	F	White	Ph.D.	Adult Education	25 years
Erin	30s	F	Black	MA	Human Resource	12 years
Grace	40s	F	White	Ph.D.	Higher Education	10 years
Hanna	50s	F	Black	MA	Adult Education	25 years
Judy	50s	F	Black	MA	Adult Education	16 years
Maggie	50s	F	White	MA	Adult Education	16 years
Olivia	50s	F	White	Ph.D.	Adult Education	30 years
Rachel	30s	F	Black	Ph.D.	Adult Education	7 years
Sophia	40s	F	White	MA	Wildlife Management	14 years
Vicky	30s	F	Hispanic	MA	Adult Education	13 years

Andy's Critical Incident

In Andy's mid-career right before being a professor in Georgia, he worked for a pharmacy association. This association was an organization with a large membership, and it developed

policies and working practices for pharmacists primarily in hospitals. In addition, this association was also an accrediting body for a pharmacy residency program. Andy was responsible for surveys and standards for that pharmacy residency program. He traveled the country and went to different hospitals to compare their residency programs to the standards. He came up with a learning process that involved developing learning objectives to help these programs train residents, an approach more systematic than those used in the past.

Therefore, upon the decision of the association, Andy's division teamed up with another part of the association that was responsible for instructional design to plan a program for pharmacy residents. The purpose of the planning was more about the instructional design, which was how to train pre-sectors or mentors to effectively train their mentees in pharmacy practice and how to evaluate programs. At that time, Andy did not have any experience regarding formal training and instructional design for adults. As the planning went on, Andy began to think it too far removed from pharmacy practice because it was so theoretically based and Andy was practice-based. When Andy expressed his concern to the instructional designers, they responded favorably and listened to what Andy said in regard to pharmacy practice, but they were very adamant about how the instructional design should be implemented saying, "Well, this is the process that we need to go through. It doesn't matter which pharmacy or medicine or anything else." Because Andy was not familiar with instructional design at that time, he was really counting on instructional design experts and let them lead the process at first. Therefore, Andy felt that he had less power than the instructional designers, and that was a frustrating time for him.

The development stage of this program took the whole planning team about a year to complete. In this stage, both Andy's division and the division of instructional designers within the association felt ultimately responsible for the program, so there was a little bit of a power

struggle going on there. Both divisions worked together to break down every single task into multiple tasks. Most of the time, Andy's role was a facilitator between the two groups. However, along this process, he built relationships with those instructional designers, listened to them to earn their trust, figured out what was important to them, gained better understanding of their culture, and tried to empathize with their situation.

In the implementation stage, the planning team rolled this program out to start a particular pilot study. The participants in the pilot group came from four different sites, and there were probably 60 to 80 participants at each site. Andy received a great deal of negative feedback from the participants right after the program was kicked off. That feedback made Andy believe that the instructional design experts did not really understand the whole system, so he decided to negotiate with those instructional designers in order to reframe everything to get away from theory and to return it to the practical aspect of things.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, the major strategies that Andy used to negotiate with the other side were persuasive techniques. Most of his techniques involved the use of a great deal of informal persuasion and strong evidence. He built relationships with those instructional designers in the earlier stage of planning, and based upon these relationships, he discussed informally what he was concerned about with the head instructional designer. Both of them shared their concerns and ideas openly with each other. Finally, Andy successfully persuaded her to go to the sites and to talk with participants directly in the pilot study. According to what she heard, she decided to do some one-on-one interviews with some participants there to understand what was working and what was not working. In the following negotiation meeting, Andy felt that he had more power than in the beginning. Both divisions compromised between theory and

practice. Andy knew that he could not dismantle the whole program because that would not be helpful for the whole planning team.

Andy and both divisions were very satisfied with the outcome of the program. This program was implemented about 12 years ago, but it was well-grounded and changed pharmacy residency education. This program has become a nationally known model that everybody now uses. It has definitely produced very good results and helped pharmacy residents receive training with greater consistency.

Brad

Brad, a lawyer, is a white male in his 50s. He has a graduate degree in Law, the Juris Doctor, which is the terminal professional degree for lawyers in the United States. He has been planning programs in the field of Continuing Judicial Education for judges and court support personnel for more than 27 years. Currently, his responsibilities include organizational management and educational product design and delivery to court system constituents. Brad practices law in the context of providing opinions about law to judges and court personnel. His law practice is in the field of Judicial Administration, Court Administration, and Judicial Professionalism. He has to maintain a membership in the State Bar to practice law in this capacity.

Brad's general experience in educational program planning with adult professionals usually involves committee work. He has to spend a great deal of time interacting with groups of individuals to identify their learning needs and to discuss their methodological preferences in regard to learning. For the most part, his service constituents are elected public officials. If they are not elected public officials, they are appointed to their positions by elected public officials. In this context, these constituents have a certain attitude that they know better than anybody else. In

addition, there is always tension coming from those constituents because an elected public official or a designated appointee of an elected public official has higher status than Brad does as a professional. However, the real problem for Brad is that he does not have a vote at the planning table because the organization he belongs to decided that he would not be a voting member. Therefore, he feels powerless whenever he plans continuing educational programs with a committee that has been formed by his constituents.

Brad's Critical Incident

Brad described a recent case as one that was typical in his planning career and that illustrated fairly clearly some of the quandaries he faced at the planning table. The case concerned budget and policy approval with the Magistrate Courts Training Council. Usually, the Training Council provided nine educational courses a year for magistrates. Of these nine courses, two were targeted at large groups of 100 to 200 people, but the other seven were targeted at small groups of 10 to 60 people. The committee of this training council called a series of meetings to arrange activities for the subsequent calendar year. The committee included policy makers (judges), product planners, and product deliverers. The policy makers included judges and representatives from the professional membership association for magistrates. Only policy makers were voting members of the training council. In this particular case, there were only five members who had the right to vote: three judges and two staff members from the professional membership association for magistrates. Those two staff members always did what they were told by the judges' professional associations' leaders. Brad's role was product planner. He saw his job as providing guidance and direction, broader perspective, and input; bringing continuity into the future; and drawing on continuity from the past to maintain a solid core of educational products and services for magistrates and magistrate court personnel.

In this planning event, the two staff members from the professional membership association for magistrates believed that the training council should target everything at groups of 100 to 200 people in the year 2011 because they thought the organization would have some budgeting cutbacks. However, according to the evaluation data from different courses in the past, Brad believed that the smaller group learning forums were more meaningful and useful and that most of the participants enjoyed more. In addition, it was his belief that the focus on large groups was informed by the politics within their professional association which enabled the leaders in the association to be recognized and to be deemed relevant. After reviewing the budgetary data for the upcoming year, Brad found that the organization would have enough income for the year 2011 and that the budgetary shrinkage would probably not occur until the year 2012. To present this strong argument clearly, Brad collected, arranged, calculated, and analyzed the current financial data of the organization and presented it in a conference call. Because he did not have a right to vote in the committee, Brad had to use all of his powers of persuasion to try to convince voting members that sustaining a good quality of judicial continuing education was very important since the organization's budget was sufficient for the year in question.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, the major strategies that Brad used to negotiate with those powerful voting committee members included (a) providing solid data with good explanations, (b) avoiding taking sides too soon in the debate, and (c) accumulating good will capital, intellectual capital, historical capital, and interpersonal capital. The first strategy, providing solid data with good explanations, meant that good data had to be explained clearly and needed to be given ahead of the meeting in order to let people feel that nothing was hidden from them. The second strategy, avoiding taking sides too soon in the debate, implied not dominating the debate, but

allowing policy makers to sort out the issues, advantages, and disadvantages, and then concluding the discussion by identifying the position that Brad thought was the strongest. The third strategy was to accumulate personal capital including good will capital, intellectual capital, historical capital, and interpersonal capital. In regard to the good will capital, Brad thought that the more often that he agreed with the other committee members, the more confident they would feel working with him; and then, when the time came to disagree with them, his disagreement would appear to be less adversarial. To create good intellectual capital, he provided thoughtful and detailed options as they dealt with making their decisions and did not usurp their authority, but enriched the quality of their decision. As for the historical capital, Brad had the advantage of knowing the context in which these things were discussed in the past, and he was there at that time because he had been working in this field for more than 27 years. In regard to the interpersonal capital, he tried to play a role which was more than a formal organizational role, in which he fulfilled a certain set of duties and responsibilities to build an interpersonal connection with people around him through formal and informal settings and to reinforce or bring credibility to the transaction.

At the end of the discussion, the policy makers voted on it. The result was that the other 3 voting members of the training council did not share the view with the staff from the professional membership association for magistrates that big groups were preferable. However, they will hold another meeting in October or November this year to discuss the budget and policies for 2012. Brad does not know what will happen then. Nevertheless, he will try to talk with the participants one-on-one before the meeting to discern their position and concerns.

Deborah

Deborah, a public service faculty member, is a white female in her 60s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Elementary Education and both her master's and doctoral degrees in Adult Education. She did some GED training to help adults get their high school diploma in the 1970s. At the time I interviewed her, she had just been retired for six months from her position as public service faculty in a continuing education center at a university in Georgia. She had worked there for 25 years. The center of continuing education fulfills the mission of enriching lives through learning by providing exceptional educational programs, award-winning credit and non-credit programs and courses, customized conferences, meetings, special events, and online courses that improve lives through learning. Her role and responsibilities included developing programs, writing curriculum, training, marketing programs, assessing needs, working with client groups, looking at funding, and budgeting in the field of adult and continuing education. Most programs she was involved in at that time were face-to-face programs.

Deborah's Critical Incident

Deborah recalled an incident in which she felt powerless when her organization wanted to change a healthcare management certificate program to an online program a couple of years ago. The purpose of the program was to train healthcare managers who had gotten promoted to management positions in spite of insufficient training and to help them keep their positions in the healthcare field. These healthcare managers included nurses, physical therapists, respiratory therapists, and lab technicians in hospitals.

The negotiation concerned whether or not Deborah's organization would put a program that had previously been a blended program with other stakeholders completely online. Originally, this program planning involved a representative from the Board of Regents and others from the

University System of Georgia including a director, a department head, an associate director, a university course author, Deborah, from a continuing education center, and other faculty from universities in Georgia. A total of 12 people worked on the committee to create the program. Deborah's role was that of project manager for the program. A series of face-to-face meetings were called. The committee decided on a course which used both face-to-face and online formats. After the program was completed, according to participants' evaluation responses given at the end of the program, many participants preferred a course that was completely online to one that had a blended format. After having a full internal discussion about the participants' responses regarding this delivery issue within the organization, Deborah's organization decided to deliver that program through the online format only because Deborah thought this online program could reach a much larger population nationwide and even worldwide. Deborah, the project manager for the entire program, felt powerless because she needed to persuade not only the Board of Regents, which provided the initial funding and definitely had more power than did she, to obtain its mercy but also other committee members who would lose their positions if the program were delivered through the online format only. In addition, this decision would prevent some universities from being involved, and the Board of Regents might disagree with the idea because the Board wanted to see participants obtain the certificate at various colleges around the state but was little concerned with other potential participants living in other states or countries. To obtain their agreement on implementing an online program, the selected delivery format for the program, Deborah needed to negotiate with the Board and each involved universities about how her organization could compensate them.

Negotiation Strategies

To fulfill the objective of implementing this online program, Deborah felt a great deal of stress because she needed to persuade the Board of Regents and all the schools that were involved, and this task was not an easy one for her. In this critical planning incident, comparing her power with that of other stakeholders, she felt powerless because the Board of Regents definitely had the power to make a final decision on this proposal. Therefore, the first thing she needed to do was to gain the Board's blessing. She decided to contact the representative of the Board of Regents. At that time, Deborah did not know him well but had just met him before. To build the relationship with him, she talked with him on the phone and met with him to explain the intention of her organization and seek solutions to this situation for both the Board of Regents and those other 10 colleges involved. Because the Board had put money into the previous certificate program, Deborah suggested returning that money so that the Board could use it for continuing education efforts around the state. In addition, to help personnel development of the Board, Deborah's continuing education center also planned to provide free slots in special programs for continuing education specialists. The compromise went pretty well for both parties. As for those 10 colleges, part of the money was used to train people who worked at these centers of continuing education. Deborah also let the other schools know that her organization was not trying to grab all the money or all the clients from them. The major strategy that Deborah used in this negotiation was to give options that all parties could feel good about.

Deborah was satisfied with the outcome of the negotiations and the program. This online certificate program is still running and getting healthcare people from all over the United States and other countries. It seemed to Deborah that all three parties were winners in the negotiation process because Deborah's organization got more participants and enlarged its income, the Board

of Regents got its money back and was able to invest in other fields of continuing education while still taking care of healthcare professionals in the state, and those 10 colleges with continuing education centers could train their faculty and staff for free.

Erin

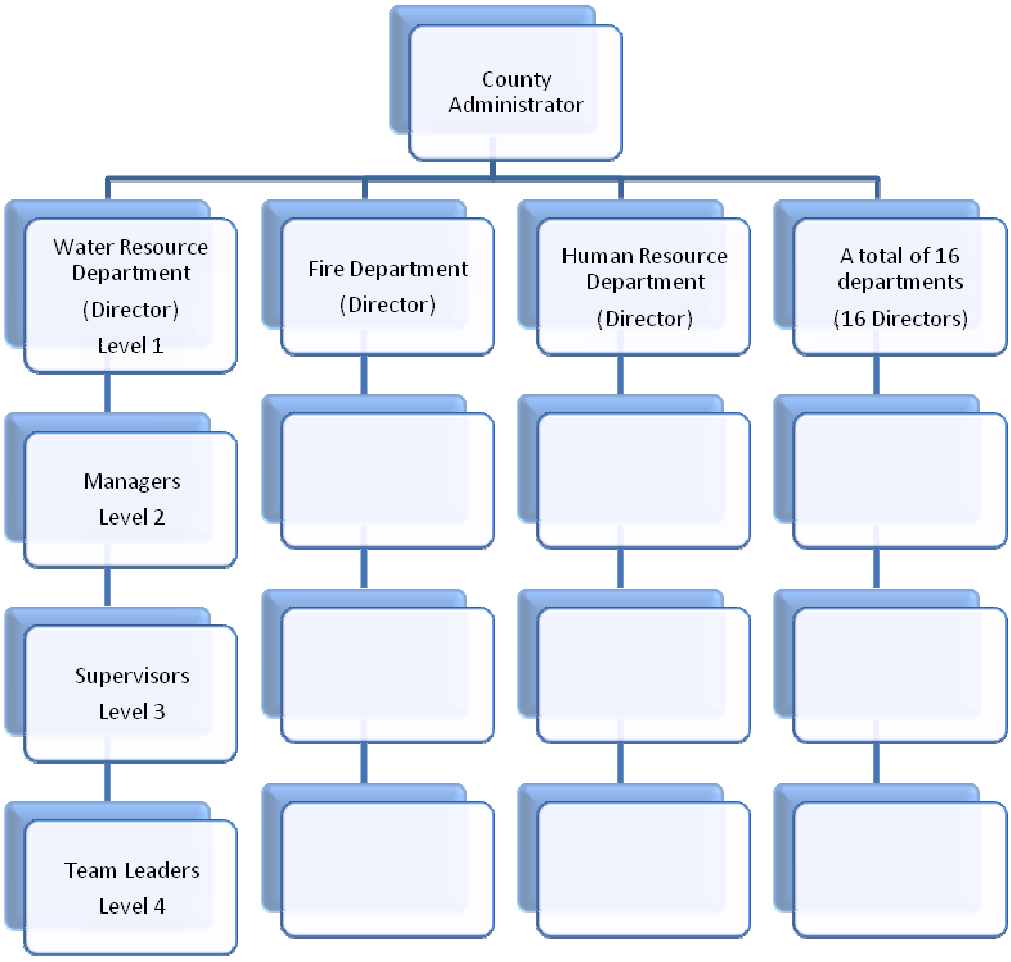
Erin, an Assistant Vice Chancellor in a university system of Georgia, is an African American female in her late 30s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Industrial Engineering and her master's degree in Human Resources, and she is currently pursuing a doctoral degree in Adult Education. She started planning educational programs for adults in 1998 because she worked as a training manager in the manufacturing industry. In the year 2000, she was hired by a county government in the Atlanta metropolitan area in Georgia. She worked as an organizational development director for seven and half years there. She got her current position as Assistant Vice Chancellor in the University System of Georgia in 2008. Her primary role is to design, develop, implement, and evaluate programs for faculty and staff of 35 colleges and universities within the University System of Georgia. Currently, she is working on an executive leadership program for all faculty and staff, about 42,000 employees, to provide a variety of programs including computer training, leadership and management training, supervising skill training, and interpersonal skill training.

Erin's Critical Incident

Erin recalled an incident that took place in her early career working as an organizational development director in a county government. At the time that Erin started her career with the county government, the Human Resources Department was receiving many grievances from employees. This situation made her department believe that most supervisors did not know how to manage their subordinates. Therefore, it occurred to her to provide those supervisors with

leadership training. The county government was a huge organization. There were 15 departments plus the Human Resources Department. Each department was just like a little company. Erin mentioned the Department of Water Resources as an example. There were probably 2,000 employees just within that department. The organizational chart of the whole county government is shown as Figure 1.

Figure 1. County Government Organizational Chart in Erin's Incident



For leadership development of the whole organization Erin designed, there were three different programs for different levels of leadership. The program for the first level directors, which was 6 months in length and 2-3 days a month, was called Executive Leadership. The

program for the second level managers, which was 8 months in length and 2-3 days a month, was called Excel Management Development. And the program for both the third level supervisors and the fourth level team leaders, running 13 weeks in length and one day a week, was called Lead Academy. All three programs were provided for free by the organization to help employees develop their leadership capacity. Both the Executive Leadership program and the Excel Management Development program were costly because the instructors and material came from a university with credibility. However, the Lead Academy program was not quite as expensive because Erin used subject experts serving in the county. In addition, the Lead Academy program was completely implemented by the Human Resources Department, and Erin was actually the person in charge of the whole program.

There were at least four factors making Erin feel powerless when she was planning these programs. First, it was a culture change for the organization because none of the employees had any training and development going on before. Most managers and especially those 15 department directors resisted changes and automatically built a wall. Second, Erin was brand new to the county, so she had not built up any recognizable credibility or any interpersonal connections across departments. Third, Erin thought that her department (Human Resources Department) was probably on the low end in terms of status because other departments thought the only reason they needed HR was to handle their problems through employer relations and to hire more employees for them. Fourth, those department directors did not want to lose their supervisors in their workplace for an entire day once a week for consecutive 13 weeks when they attended the program. In addition, Erin had lower status than those directors at that time because her position was at the second level of leadership, whereas theirs were at the first level.

Negotiation Strategies

To persuade those directors, Erin applied two major strategies: using data and building relationships. Of these two, she prioritized building relationships because she thought it might be difficult to get someone to pay attention to her data without an interpersonal connection. First, she collected data by using surveys and focus groups. She also conducted interviews over one-on-one meetings with non-leader workers, supervisors, and team leaders not only to find out the reasons for the grievances coming from that department but also to explore the factors that could help supervisors enhance their leadership skills. Second, she took all of the collected data to those 15 department directors. When she met with those directors, most of them looked at her and said, "Well, where is your HR director?", "Why are you coming directly to me?", or "Is your director going to be here, too?" After she met one-on-one with all 15 department directors to explain what she was going to approach, 9 of those supported her, but 6 did not. Third, she went with her HR director to meet with their boss, the County Administrator, to explain what they were doing and to seek his support. The County Administrator had regular meetings with all department directors, so Erin needed to go to these meetings with her director to present the whole plan in front of them. Erin knew that earning the support of all the department directors was very important because their attitude would influence the County Administrator's decision on it. In addition, it was difficult for Erin to build a relationship with the County Administrator, but building relationships with those 15 department directors seemed easier. Fourth, she decided to increase informal communications with those directors by using hallway meetings and elevator meetings and kept them informed by using phone calls and emails. A hallway meeting took place when she was walking down the hall and found some directors chatting there. Seizing this opportunity, she would go up to one of these stakeholders and engage him or her in conversation.

A little elevator speech was important, too. She thought engaging in a personal and professional conversation with stakeholders about their lives and then talking about some of the key bullet points of her programs helped her gain support from them in the next regular meeting.

Finally, Erin successfully persuaded all 15 directors and started conducting the Lead Academy with a pilot group. Erin was very satisfied with the outcome of the program. The number of grievances really went down after Erin initiated this pilot program. She worked there for seven and half years and was very happy with the results, and more and more leaders participated in the programs not only to improve their leadership capability but also to promote the effectiveness of the whole organization. Those programs continue to this day, even though Erin is no longer there.

Grace

Grace, the director for online learning instructional service and assessment in the University System of Georgia, is a white female in her 40s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Liberal Arts, master's degree in Public Administration, and doctoral degree in Higher Education. She has been involved in educational program planning for adults for almost 10 years. Her current responsibility is to provide support to online instructional programs specifically for the collaborative programs, utilizing the online world to share courses on many campuses and running a marketing system—the Academic Franchise Program. Most students enrolled in this kind of online program are adults, often nontraditional students, who are going for specific degrees. Her position involves two kinds of reviewing. First, she looks at proposals implementing online programs already in place. Second, she examines online programs that have been in place for a number of years to see whether they are still viable. Her general experience

regarding program planning involves many faculty and staff from different colleges or universities in Georgia.

Grace's Critical Incident

Grace recalled a situation occurring a couple of years ago when she was working on the Academic Franchise Program. This planning event was in relation to one of the chancellors who wanted to increase online learning in the University System. So, the context of planning was to meet this strategic goal set by the chancellor within a certain time frame. Grace was responsible for this planning project and tried to meet the chancellor's expectations. Eight campuses were involved in the process of planning, and stakeholders included at the planning table were deans of colleges of education from different universities, staff from other offices of the University System of Georgia, faculty and instructional designers engaged at the University System level, and educational specialists, registrars, and admission officers from different campuses where an online learning environment had been established. Grace's role at this planning event was to provide information as needed, to arrange meetings for the discussion, to take decisions that were made during the planning meeting, and to make those decisions into policy.

At the meeting, it seemed that Grace and other planners had less power than the deans. When presenting ideas, issues or questions, she and other planners would ask the deans for their opinions and sometimes their opinions were diverse and very strong. For instance, one of the deans was very concerned about the budget and aggressively dominated the decision process on the issue of tuition and fees. Some deans were more concerned about faculty, roles, and responsibilities, whereas others were more interested in students and how they would perceive the program. Although all the deans tried to work together, they came from different areas, and that made it difficult to work out conflicts when opinions differed. Finally, the deans tried to

work it out just between themselves. According to Grace, some of their decisions were mistakes, but the only thing that Grace and the others could do was to give their opinions. Under these circumstances, Grace and the other stakeholders at the planning table were incidental to the planning process for the most part.

Negotiation Strategies

The strategies that Grace used to negotiate with the deans and other stakeholders included (a) using facts and data to back up her opinion, (b) giving in on some little things and getting the big things, and (c) arranging a "town hall meeting." First, Grace thought highly of using data. Those data included students' satisfaction surveys, evaluations of courses, and the ticketing system. The ticketing system consisted of notes written and submitted by students whenever they encountered a problem. Those notes would be reviewed, worked on, and filed by the staff. Second, Grace thought that to compromise, something must be given up. Therefore, focusing on the important things and allowing something that was not that important were the key to making compromises. Third, because there were still some conflicting ideas in the planning meeting, Grace suggested bringing as many stakeholders as possible together to listen to their ideas. So, the registrars, financial staff, admission officers, deans, faculty, and student advisors were invited to a town hall meeting. There were about 100 people in the room, and they were all able to focus on the important information provided and give their opinions. They were also divided into different small groups to validate decisions. So, deans could go to some specific small groups to hear how others felt about their decisions. By allowing stakeholders to explore pros and cons in each group, the Town Hall helped the decisions making process for the program and resolved most conflicts among stakeholders and deans.

Grace was very satisfied with the outcome of the discussion and the program. She said, "Actually having people to be able to see each other and see their facial movements and their body language and have leaders of those groups—it made a significant difference." According to Grace, the Town Hall strategy helped stakeholders have a real conversation and achieve consensus, and it worked particular well in Grace's case.

Hanna

Hanna, the associate director for online instructional services and assessment in the University System of Georgia, is an African American female in her 50s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Food and Nutrition, her master's degree in Nutrition Education, and her doctoral degree in Adult Education. She has been involved in adult program planning for over 25 years. As an associate director for online instructional services and assessment, she was responsible for providing leadership support and coordinating programs related to technology. Many programs that Hanna was involved in were training programs at the university level to teach faculty how to use technology in the classroom. She also developed and taught courses on nutrition education for adults. Hanna felt that she had less power at planning meetings due to her race and gender. In her position, she had been consistently challenged by colleagues to prove herself. According to her, the following incident was very typical in her career as program planner.

Hanna's Critical Incident

Hanna recalled a planning case, a faculty development workshop, in 1995 in which she was asked to develop an online learning program to teach 60-some faculty members, in public colleges and universities within the state of X, how to use technology. At that time, she had just been hired by the organization, the program was brand new, and this project was her first

opportunity to plan such a program in higher education. In addition, all the participants were faculty members in universities within the state; therefore, the program was a very high-profile statewide training. There were three individuals involved in planning—Hanna who was a workshop director, her boss, who was a white female, and a white male, John (pseudonym), who was a technical director. Hanna's boss and John had worked together for a number of years before she was hired. It appeared to Hanna that her boss had more confidence in John's opinion than in Hanna's opinion. Therefore, even though Hanna was in charge of planning, she felt that she had less power at the planning table not only because of her boss's higher position but also because of John's greater credibility in the eyes of her supervisor. John brought a certain level of credibility and confidence to the planning process, although he did not have an official title regarding this planning event. In addition, she had not built up enough credibility in her boss's mind because she had never worked with her boss before. The agenda that Hanna proposed was very comprehensive and included an introduction to a number of different technologies; however, the agenda that John proposed was very narrow and focused on just one specific topic, PowerPoint. So, Hanna struggled with how she could achieve her planning goals.

Negotiation Strategies

The major strategy that Hanna used in that situation was to build the relationship with the man, John. She initiated informal communications with him prior to the next meeting. In their private meetings throughout the planning process, Hanna expressed her ideas to him and asked for his feedback about the agenda. By doing this, Hanna found that he was the type of person who was very easily influenced if he felt that he was important, respected, recognized, and included. Hanna did not bring him any data, charts, or studies when she tried to convince him. She learned how to collaborate with him by sharing authority, making compromises, and finding

alternatives to create the program. This collaboration worked well and helped her extend the agenda to include more modern technologies for the program. In addition, most importantly and unexpectedly, Hanna started building up her credibility with her boss because she found that working more closely with John and getting him to support the agenda and topics of the program helped bridge the gap between her boss and her.

Hanna was satisfied with the outcome of the negotiations and the program. She managed to broaden the program and incorporate more modern technologies. She felt that she had achieved her planning goals regarding the program. On the other hand, she also felt that she was able to establish a new relationship with her boss.

Judy

Judy, the director of the Department of Training & Development at a state university in Georgia, is an African American female in her 50s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Business Administration and her master's degree in Human Resources Development, and she is currently pursuing a doctoral degree in Adult Education. She has been involved in adult program planning for over 16 years. She began her career in adult program planning as a patient education coordinator in the health industry about 16 years ago. In this position, she worked with subject-matter experts to design literature and brochures to help patients understand their medications or operational procedures. After working there for five years, she was hired by a university in Georgia as a classroom instructor and member of the planning staff. In this position, she planned many professional development programs and worked with various levels within the organization to create programs for six years. After that, she took her current job as director of the training department at another state university in Georgia and has worked there for over five years. Her

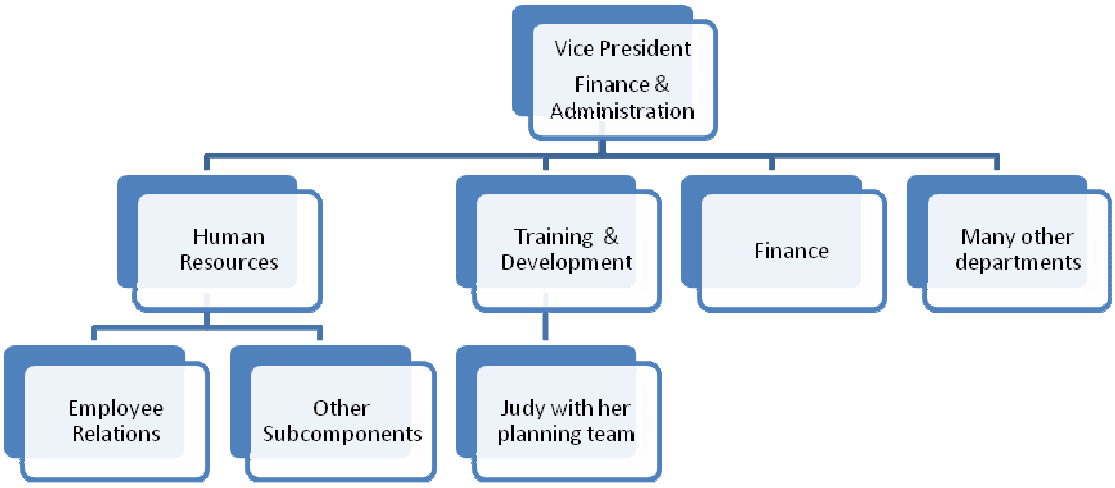
role in this position is that of administrator, and her responsibilities include managing training programs as well as recruiting external facilitators to conduct training classes.

Judy's Critical Incident

An incident that Judy recalled took place in her middle career as classroom instructor and planning staff at a state university in Georgia. Most programs she designed at that time were related to new employee orientation and professional development programs, including management development and conflict resolution. In regard to this planning event, the Division of Finance and Administration was the largest component at the university. The top management, the Vice President and department directors, believed that it would be beneficial to the operations and the effectiveness of the whole division if they could orientate new employees and re-orientate employees who were already on board by implementing a program to educate them about new policies and procedures that might have occurred since they were hired. The participants were new employees and current employees in the Division of Finance and Administration. Judy was responsible for taking the lead in carrying out the program. The planning table involved representatives from each department in the division and two teams. However, the major planning decisions were directed by the two teams, the Human Resources team and the Training & Development team. The organizational chart of the Division of Administration and Finance is shown as figure 2.

There was a conflict between Human Resources and Training & Development. Judy's approach was to teach employees in each unit the specific policies and procedures appropriate for that unit and the things that they needed to be aware of to become better employees. However, the HR team focused on the benefits, employee handbooks, and other things that went of general interest for all employees on the whole campus at the university.

Figure 2. Organizational Chart of Division of Administration and Finance in Judy's Incident



There were at least two factors making Judy feel powerless in the process of negotiation. First, HR had greater experience and more credibility than Judy's department in new employee orientation. Second, culturally and customarily, HR had always wielded the decision-making power in orientation programs. In addition, it was actually Judy's supervisor who charged her with implementing this planning approach. However, when she reported the conflict to her supervisor, she left it up to Judy to resolve the problems. This situation made Judy feel even more powerless because she could not say no to her boss due to her lower status.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, Judy decided to meet with the head of the HR team one-on-one to talk about the differences and the benefits of each plan. In the process of the discussion, Judy built relationships with the HR team leader. They shared viewpoints and made compromises. Once they established the employees' true needs, they could start to determine what should be added to and taken out of the program. Judy thought that the outcome of the discussion and the

program was better than what she expected. She believed that she successfully accomplished the goals of her division, and that HR also achieved its objectives for new employee orientation. She said, "It was a win-win." However, she thought that she could have done it even better if she had constructed the relationships and conversed with the HR team leader earlier. In addition, she supposed that she could have provided better data, in the form of surveys or interviews, to help her make a stronger argument in the negotiation.

Maggie

Maggie, a Public Service Faculty member in a continuing education center at a university in Georgia, is a white female in her 50s. Her main responsibility in her current position is to provide individuals in communities with credit and noncredit courses through educational programs. She earned her bachelor's degree in Electrical Engineering and her master's degree in Adult Education. And currently, she is pursuing her doctoral degree in Adult Education. She has been involved in adult program planning for about 16 years. In the first half of her career, she worked with a nonprofit engineering organization in the state and designed educational programs for engineers. According to Maggie, she lived in a very male dominated world because most people in the electrical engineering field were men. In the 1990s, she was hired as the Director of Development and Alumni Relations in the college of electrical engineering at a university in state Florida.

Maggie's Critical Incident

An incident that Maggie recalled took place in the 1990s when she worked as Director of Development and Alumni Relations in the college of electrical engineering. She was involved in planning an event for a state research institute. The purpose of the event was to look at how to make investments to improve research in the state. The event was a collaborative effort between

businesses, universities, and the government to promote public-private relationships. Maggie's role was that of coplanner with the president's office at the university and assistant in charge of logistical layout. People involved in planning included staff from the president's office, administrators on campus, the dean of Maggie's college, and Maggie. In one of the planning meetings, the dean made a decision to use plastic forks and spoons, paper plates, and bare tables to reduce expenses and avoid having to clean up. However, Maggie did not think that it was a good idea, and it seemed to her that the dean was committed to his decision. And definitely, she had less power than he did.

Negotiation Strategies

The major strategy that Maggie applied to negotiate this issue with her dean was backing up and reframing an idea from a different angle. First, she thought that it was not wise to contradict the opposite direction of the opinion at the planning table when the more powerful stakeholder insisted adamantly on doing something in a particular way. Maggie did not immediately say anything at the planning table but approached the dean after the meeting. Second, when she expressed her idea about the dean's decision, she got a direct answer from him—"No!" At that moment, instead of arguing with the dean, she went back to rethink her idea and determine whether or not it was a good one. After having taken more time and having thought about it more deeply, Maggie considered that her idea was still a good one but that she had not packaged it right. She decided to create a new environment to move her idea forward. Her reframing included all the facts and her concerns. The facts were that most attendees would be CEOs of businesses, presidents of universities, and government officials. Showing deference to those people by using higher quality items, like real plates, silverware, and tablecloths was important. In regard to her concerns, Maggie told the dean that she just wanted to keep him out of trouble

because she assumed that the image that the President, the dean's boss, hoped to project was one of high quality and hospitable service. When Maggie mentioned the President, the dean's boss, the dean started to hesitate about his previous decision. In addition, the dean did not want to ask the President about such a seemingly minor thing. So, finally, the dean was convinced.

According to Maggie, when she tried to influence a stakeholder with more power, she would look at the context, research that person by gathering information about his/her concerns, and then reframe the proposal so that the more powerful stakeholder could process it again through his/her lens. Because most of the time Maggie dealt with powerful males who were very chauvinistic in her early career, she learned how to negotiate with them in the program planning process by changing directions in such a way that these more powerful men were usually unable to tell her *no.*

Olivia

Olivia, the Assistant Vice President for Academic Affairs at a university in Georgia, is a white female in her 50s. She earned her bachelor's degree in English and American Studies, her master's degree in Community Counseling, and her Ph.D. in Adult Education Student Personnel Services. She has been involved in adult program planning for about 30 years. As Assistant Vice President for Academic Affairs, her responsibilities include administering an extended campus of the university and building and working with academic departments to bring programs to that location. There are approximately 500 graduate students and three continuing education units on the extended campus. Prior to working in this position, she worked as Associate Director of a continuing education center at a university for four and half years. In this capacity, she was in charge of learning services including adult programming for both credit and noncredit programs, classes, and conferences. She had a staff of about 50, coordinating courses and

programs for adults. Her general experience planning educational programs includes program design, program implementation, marketing, and teaching.

Olivia's Critical Incident

A planning case that Olivia recalled occurred when she was Associate Director of the continuing education center. In this case, she was in a situation in which her supervisor wanted her to implement a program that would not necessarily be her choice because a similar program already existed in her continuing education center. This planning case involved three individuals: Olivia, her supervisor, and a vendor who knew Olivia's supervisor well. Olivia was asked by her supervisor to add a certificate management program to the center because the vendor, who had built a good relationship with Olivia's supervisor and had a packaged program, wanted to sell the program to the center. However, at that time, another similar program was running successfully. In addition, the vendor and the instructors in the existing program were not happy when they learned that Olivia was supposed to bring in a competitor. In this situation, Olivia felt powerless. Since she was program coordinator, it was her job to identify programs and to determine whether or not those programs were appropriate for the audience and the continuing education center. However, in this case, the decision was made by her boss. It would not have made any difference, even if she thought the program was awful. It was a done deal—Olivia was to implement the program whether she liked it or not.

After pondering the matter, Olivia decided to have a discussion with her boss. She expressed her concerns about splitting the market to her boss because with a finite number of clients, there might not be enough for both programs. However, her boss responded by saying, "If we do our marketing correctly and if we do the planning process correctly, there is enough

market there for both programs." In addition, her boss intended to see if the new program was a better one, and he wanted to drop the old one if he found that the new one was better.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, the only thing that Olivia could do was to follow her supervisor's order and collaborate with the vendor to implement this program because she did not want to jeopardize her position. To implement the program, she organized a series of meetings to initiate the process. In the first meeting, Olivia was told by her boss that he knew the program and considered it a very good one. In subsequent follow-up meetings, Olivia and the vendor discussed all the details regarding the implementation of the program and worked very well with each other. Both programs were marketed to the public in the same manner. Olivia did her best to help implement the program and made the best of it so that both her boss and the vendor would not blame her if participants gave the program a poor evaluation.

Olivia suspected that it would have been an entirely different situation if the program had really been bad. Had that happened, Olivia would have had to take a completely different stance to approach her boss with a cogent argument that would make him change his mind. The final results of the evaluation data showed that both programs were good. However, some feedback from participants and others interested in the programs indicated that these two programs were relatively similar and that it was difficult for participants to determine which one was the better fit for them. Therefore, in regard to future programs, Olivia decided to modify both programs by changing their content a little in order to make them work better for the purpose of marketing and implementation.

Rachel

Rachel, an Assistant Professor at a university in Georgia, is an African American female in her early 30s. For her bachelor's degree, she studied mathematics, psychology, and sociology. Her master's degree was in Public Administration, and her Ph.D. was in Adult Education. She worked as an adult program planner in the government and in a leadership institute at a university for about 7 years. Since she earned her doctorate, she has been working as Assistant Professor for four and half years. In this position, she teaches graduate level courses, manages as well as coordinates programs, conducts research, and performs university service on campus. Primarily, she serves nontraditional students, although the university is getting more traditional age students. According to Rachel, the average age of students on campus is approximately 29. Her experience planning programs includes idea formation, curriculum development, marketing, budgeting, program implementation, and actually teaching.

According to Rachel, she felt powerless in most situations at the planning table when she worked for the leadership institute at another university. This institute was a multidisciplinary outreach unit within public service and worked with communities of all types, within and outside Georgia. At the time she worked there, there were four factors making her feel powerless: (a) her lack of knowledge about leadership, (b) her lack of experience in operating, training, and planning programs, (c) her age, and (d) her race. She was always the youngest person and the only person of color in planning meetings there. In addition, she was an introvert. She spent too much time thinking and reflecting, and oftentimes she missed the opportunity to express her opinions because the conversation had already moved on.

Rachel's Critical Incident

The incident that Rachel recalled in those years working for the institute was one which occurred while she was involved in planning a community leadership program. The purpose of the program was to help empower individuals at the local level to improve their leadership skills as well as their community. Certain nonprofit organizations wanted to create this program by partnering with Rachel's institute in order to recruit participants from their communities and deliver the program. Stakeholders at the planning table included Rachel, a lead faculty member, elected officials, community members, representatives from nonprofit organizations, and other faculty members who helped teach in the program. Rachel played two roles in the planning process. One was that of facilitator, helping lead, initiate, and explain the details in the meeting. The other role was that of instructor, actually teaching the module and establishing training sessions. In addition to these two roles, she also played a major role in implementing and coordinating the program, which took place in the state of Florida. The demographics of the participants indicated that they were primarily white, older, and retired people.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, Rachel felt insecure and uncomfortable about what she could bring to the table and too timid to speak up and express her thoughts and opinions. While Rachel was involved in the planning process, some negotiation points came up, including course schedules, meeting places, responsibility for paying for meals in the evening classes, and a curriculum conflict—theoretical or practical emphasis. Most of the time, both community members and representatives from nonprofit organizations took a strong position on those issues because according to the contract between Rachel's institute and the other stakeholders, the program, which Rachel's institute provided, was a customized program that was supposed to

meet customers' needs. Therefore, it seemed to Rachel that the other stakeholders had more power. In addition, in most situations, Rachel was quiet due to her personality. Nevertheless, she observed that her lead faculty—the team leader of her institute—applied a strategy using a great deal of relationship building. The lead faculty had many contacts with rural communities, and by mentioning those individuals appropriately, she was able to build a rapport with clients and move the conversation along. She resolved most issues related to schedule, place, and food. However, the big compromise was about curriculum. Rachel's team made a concession. Her team wanted the participants to solve practical issues within one of the six sessions, but the community members wanted it to be more focused on learning new knowledge about leadership instead of applying some learned skills to a relevant issue. In regard to this concession, Rachel indicated, "I could have facilitated the conversation in a meaningful way to help them produce the best product." Reflecting on this situation, Rachel believed that she should have been courageous enough to communicate with them and express her concerns and ideas without hesitation.

Sophia

Sophia, the Department Head of Conference and Events Planning at a continuing education center of a university in Georgia, is a white female in her 40s. She earned her bachelor's degree in Zoology and her master's degree in Wildlife Management. She has been involved in adult program planning for about 14 years. In 1996, she was hired to be a program developer for a natural resources program. Her audience included foresters, wildlife biologists, hydrologists, and other natural resources professionals. Her responsibilities for this position included assessing needs, hiring faculty, developing courses, marketing programs, and managing all the logistics. In 2002, she was hired as the Department Head, her current position, and has been working in this

capacity for about 8 years. She is in charge of many kinds of planning including wedding receptions, retreats, and large conferences. Her responsibility is to oversee the department to make sure that everything it provides makes customers satisfied and come back. She plans 20 to 30 conferences each year, and the average attendance is about 30 people.

Sophia's Critical Incident

An incident that Sophia recalled took place a couple of years ago. At that time, her boss was working with the dean of College of Continuing Studies of the University of X which was in a different state. Her boss and the dean decided to hold a conference but did not ask anyone's opinions or do any market analysis or surveys. The purpose of the program was to get people together who worked with universities throughout the United States that included a conference center and an internal or adjacent hotel on campus. At that time, this program was not a specific annual event for Sophia's department, and there were a variety of other conferences related to the theme of the program. Sophia was told by her boss that she would be in charge of a planning team comprising planners from both campuses. Sophia was very uncomfortable because it was quite difficult to organize a program committee consisting of members from different universities who were far away from one another and who had never met. In addition, her boss did not ask for her opinion or have a full discussion about this planning event. She felt powerless in this specific situation.

Negotiation Strategies

Sophia tried to negotiate with her boss. She approached him because she wanted to know his intentions and look into the event to see whether it made sense. However, he did not listen and said, "We will do this conference, and you're in charge of it." So, unexpectedly, there was no negotiating. In regard to the planning process, her boss attended the first planning meeting to

give her the responsibility for it, and then he never had anything more to do with the planning process. Things that Sophia needed to take care of included giving the conference and sessions names, the themes of papers, the call for papers and reviewing, brochures, marketing strategies, and a timeline. At the beginning of the process, nobody really brought any ideas into the meeting, and everyone kept deferring to everyone else. There were some people on the planning committee only because they had to be and they really did not care what happened. The other planning members from the University of X attended the planning meeting by dialing in for a conference call and did not invest any ideas or effort at all in planning. In addition, Sophia thought that it was always difficult doing everything by conference call without meeting face to face. It ended up that the staff from Sophia's continuing education center really planned the conference and the people from the University of X just went along with it and provided support if they could. Sophia felt stressed and powerless because she needed to gather good ideas to implement the conference and had to meet the timeline that her boss had imposed. After a while, she decided to take control of the situation and to move forward.

The program turned out to be successful, and Sophia was satisfied with it. About 100 participants registered and attended the conference. Sophia's boss thought that it was great. The staff in the University of X took the role planning the conference for the following year, and the conference took place in the University of X. In spite of the success of the conference in these consecutive two years, it was not held the following year because Sophia had a new boss by that time. In regard to negotiating in this case, Sophia thought that nothing could be done differently because there was definitely a power difference there. Her boss had all the power, and she had no power at all. Under these circumstances, she had to follow her boss's orders to retain her job and to maintain a good relationship with her boss.

Vicky

Vicky, a member of the public service faculty planning multicultural community-based programs in a leadership institute in a university in Georgia, is a Hispanic American female from Venezuela in her 30s. Her native language is Spanish, and she came to the United States about 10 years ago. She earned her bachelor's degree in Industrial Engineering in Venezuela and her two master's degrees in Technology Management and Adult Education in the United States. Currently, she is pursuing her Ph.D. in Adult Education. She started planning programs for adult workers to help them understand safety regulations when she worked as an industrial engineer in 1997. She has been involved in adult program planning for over 13 years. She worked with adult students from 2002 to 2005 in a community college in Georgia. Starting in 2005 she worked as a program planner for implementing community educational programs in a nonprofit organization. Then, she got her current job in 2008.

Vicky's Critical Incident

The incident that Vicky recalled took place in her career as program planner during 2007 and 2008. In 2005, she was hired to plan a community program to educate parents about how to talk to their kids to prevent teen pregnancy. The participants of this community program were all Latinos, and they all spoke Spanish. The founder was a famous movie star in the United States. This movie star was dedicated to teen pregnancy prevention. Because of the movie star' advocacy, Vicky's program was fully funded. People liked the movie star and were willing to donate money to help fund the program. Vicky worked on the program for three years. She spent the first year planning, meeting people, and getting ready to implement it. The program actually started in the following year. Vicky had a full control in regard to program planning because she had a Latino background, she was able to speak Spanish, and she knew the culture of

the community well. The program took place every week, and about 20 participants attended the program each time free of charge. For two years Vicky worked with the people there, built a very good trusting relationship with the community and the participants, and managed the program successfully.

In 2008, Vicky's boss told her that the founder, the movie star, had decided to close the teen pregnancy prevention program and not to hold these programs any more in the near future. Vicky was surprised when she heard it. The fact was that the founder wanted to create a training department for other organizations. It would still be nonprofit, but people had to pay for the training. Although Vicky had strong data indicating that the people in community wanted the teen pregnancy prevention programs to continue, she did not have the courage to persuade the founder in person because she thought that she was too far away from the founder in terms of power difference. In addition, Vicky did not know whether or not its economic situation went down badly.

Negotiation Strategies

Under these circumstances, Vicky thought that this issue was not negotiable in this situation, and that the bottom line was the security of her job. She decided not to negotiate this issue with the founder and her boss, but instead applied for more than 20 jobs. She was successful and found her current job. She left that organization in April, 2008, and the program was closed in July, 2008. Later she learned that the program coordinator who had worked with her in the teen pregnancy prevention programs had been laid off in December, 2008, and that the person who had replaced her had been laid off, too. In regard to the community, Vicky left in April, but the program did not close until July, so she did not know what happened from April to July. However, she knew that people in that community were upset. Unfortunately, she could not do

anything about it. Although Vicky did not apply any negotiation strategies in this case, her decision to leave seemed to be the right one in that situation.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the profiles of twelve participants, and each participant shared one critical incident during her or his career. All critical incidents occurred in the context in which the participants felt that they did not have a great deal of power to negotiate in the planning process. A summary of the participants' critical incidents is shown as Table 8.

Table 8

Summary of Participants' Critical Incidents

Pseudonym	Influences on Participant's Power	Working Programs	Negotiation Points
Andy	Expertise	Pharmacy Residency Education	Curriculum—Theoretical vs. Practical
Brad	No Voting Rights	Continuing Judicial Education	Big Group vs. Small Group
Deborah	Administrative Bureaucracy	Healthcare Management Certificate	Delivery Format—Blended vs. Online
Erin	Status Based On Job Title Task Importance Resistance to Culture Change	Leadership Development	Training vs. No Training
Grace	Status Based on Job Title	Academic Franchise Program	Deans vs. Related Stakeholders in Decision Making Process

Hanna	Racism & Sexism Newly Hired	Faculty Development Workshop	Content—Broad vs. Narrow
Judy	Cultural Credibility	Orientation and Professional Development	Content—General vs. Specific
Maggie	Boss-Subordinate Sexism	Conference Meeting	Serving Quality —Silverware vs. Plastic Utensils
Olivia	Boss-Subordinate	Certificate Management Program	Necessary vs. Unnecessary to Implement a New Program
Rachel	Experience	Community Leadership Program	Curriculum —Theoretical vs. Practical
Sophia	Boss-Subordinate	Conference	Necessary vs. Unnecessary to Implement a Conference
Vicky	Boss-Subordinate	Teen Pregnancy Prevention for Parents	Program Ending

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to explore the negotiation strategies that adult educators used to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table?
2. What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?

This chapter is divided into two parts in order to answer the two research questions of the study. The first part, identifying relevant situations, addresses the first research question, analyzes situations in which twelve participants felt powerless, and categorizes key factors that caused those participants to feel that they were powerless or that they did not have enough power in the planning process. The second part, identifying negotiation strategies, addresses the second research question and analyzes negotiation strategies that the participants applied to negotiate with other more powerful stakeholders in situations in which unequal power existed at the planning table.

Identifying Relevant Situations

Table 9 provides an overview of the major themes and categories which emerge from the collected and analyzed data. The findings for the first research question concern the situations in which adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations occurring at the planning table.

The answers to this question are based on the participants' critical incidents. The themes are answers to each research question, and the categories provide associated details. Combining the themes and the categories can be easily followed and understood by readers because it provides a complete and clear picture of the findings.

Table 9
Overview of the Findings-1

Research Questions	Themes	Categories
In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table?	Organizational Hierarchy	Boss-Subordinate
		Pair of Hands Role (No Voting Rights)
		Administrative Bureaucracy
		Status Based on Job Title
		Task Importance
	Cultural Norms	Societal (Racism and Sexism)
		Organizational
	Individual Credibility	Professional Expertise
		Positionality

Twelve participants were recruited for the study, and each one shared one incident that she/he considered significant during her/his career as an adult educational program planner. According to the participants' stories, twelve unique situations were identified, and three major themes—organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility—were developed. The themes may overlap in a given situation. Each theme and the derivative categories are discussed below.

Organizational Hierarchy

Organizational hierarchy is the primary theme making participants feel powerless, and most of the time, it strongly involves hierarchical positions between participants and stakeholders. In addition, in some cases, participants perceived more than one hierarchical factor during their planning process. Five categories—boss-subordinate, pair of hands role, administrative bureaucracy, status based on job title, and task importance—are addressed based on the participants' incidents.

Boss-subordinate. Of the twelve participants, four, Maggie, Olivia, Sophia, and Vicky, indicated that their position as subordinate played a major role making them feel powerless in their planning situation. According to the participants' interviews, the boss-subordinate situation was the most difficult one when planners had a different planning idea from that of their boss because they would have risked losing their job had they strongly argued with their boss or disobeyed their boss's order. Of those four cases, Maggie was the only one who successfully persuaded her boss, the dean, but in the other three cases, Olivia and Sophia decided to follow orders regarding program implementation, although they approached their bosses about controversial decisions, whereas Vicky decided to leave her organization after learning the funding of her programs had been cut.

Maggie's situation. Maggie's incident took place in the 1990s when she worked as Director of Development and Alumni Relations in the college of electrical engineering at a university in Florida. She was involved in planning an event for a major state research institute. The purpose of the event was to look at how to make investments to improve research in the state. Many high ranking officials and CEOs were invited to the event that was a collaborative effort between businesses, universities, and the government to promote public-private relationships. Maggie's

role was that of coplanner with the president's office at the university and assistant in charge of logistical layout. She described her situation in the following words:

> We were planning in advance for a major state research institute with someone from the President's office that we had it all planned out with. We had planned to have real dishes, not paper plates; tablecloths, not bare tables; and silverware, not plastic forks and spoons, all that kind of stuff. The dean went down and asked some questions about it and came back to say, "We're not doing it that way. This can cost maybe $100 to have the extra stuff." Now, we were going to have people—the people that we're going to be with us for like major chief officers, chief executive officers of companies around the state and major banks like Bank of America.

Under these circumstances, she did not argue with the dean right away but backed away. In regard to this situation, she reported,

> We backed away. So again that's a minor example but what I found is that whenever I have encountered those situations of feeling powerless, I would have made the case. In the cases where I knew I was powerless to do it, I would take different actions.

In Maggie's incident, she felt powerless when her planning idea was different from that of her boss, the dean. It was not easy for her to change her boss's mind because she was subordinate to her boss. However, according to her, she usually managed to persuade her boss by using more subtle, indirect strategies. In regard to this case, she successfully convinced her boss to use real dishes and silverware.

Olivia's situation. Olivia encountered a situation when she was Associate Director of the continuing education center. Her supervisor wanted her to implement a program that would not

necessarily be her choice because a similar program already existed in the continuing education center. She described her feelings about this incident by saying,

> Well, the powerless part came because as a program coordinator, you're usually the one who identifies programs and determines whether or not they are the appropriate program to be offered. In this particular case, it was presented here as a program, but it really wasn't anything that I had a choice. It wouldn't make any difference whether I said this was a horrible program, because there was some relationship between my boss and the person who had the program. And so, it was the powerless part came in by feeling like it didn't make any difference whether I thought the program was awful. Well, that's a powerless position.

Under these circumstances, the only thing that Olivia could do was to follow her boss's request to implement the program. She recounted,

> It was something that is handed to you and said, "You do it regardless of how you feel and then you can, in the planning process, you can either make it difficult or you can make it work." That's a choice that you have to make in this particular case. It wasn't necessarily what I would have chosen to do, but I made it work.

Although Olivia approached her boss to express her concern about splitting the market, her boss still insisted on implementing the program. In this situation, she had no choice, so she made it work as well as possible.

Sophia's situation. Sophia encountered a situation when her boss and the dean of the College of Continuing Studies of the University of X decided to hold a conference but did not ask anyone's opinions or do any market analysis or surveys. Sophia described her feelings about this planning case and her negotiation experience by saying,

> Well, there was no negotiating. Before, he's made the final decisions. I have a discussion with him about why he wanted to do this, so that I could get on board with it. A few of us here looked into it to see whether it made sense, but the bottom line is that he just was not listening. He didn't care. He just said, "We will do this conference and you're in-charge of it," and basically do it.

Under these circumstances, Sophia felt powerless. In regard to this situation, she recited, "There was definitely a power difference there. He had all the power and I had none."

Vicky's situation. Vicky was the only participant who encountered a situation in which the funding was removed based on the relationship of boss-subordinate. At that time, she was working with parents in a Latino community on teen pregnancy prevention programs. She addressed her situation by saying,

> We were working on a program that was a community program for almost three years all my time with them. Then, suddenly, they said, "We are going to close the program**.** We are not going to do these programs anymore." And, we show the results and surveys that we did with the participants, and we told them that we could continue seeking funding for the program, but they decided, "No, we are closing."

She was curious about the reason why the program was going to be closed. She made inquiries about it. Finally, she got the answer. She reported,

> They say because it was very difficult to work over there, to have participants and everything, and because, now, they wanted to be training other agencies. They didn't want to work with the community, but with the agencies; so they didn't want to do direct services anymore because they closed us and then created a training department.

In Vicky's planning case, the founder wanted to remove the funding to create another training department. Under these circumstances, she needed to follow and felt she should not question the decision in order to keep her job. She explained,

> This example is all about power and who has the money, and who decides, yes. So, that was a good example that, yes, one decision once she made her mind, and then it goes through and you have to follow. She's the founder of the organization. My boss was the CEO; so she's the founder and she's the real boss for the organization. And, nobody wants to say no to her.

According to Vicky, there is nothing she can do about it, and this situation definitely made her powerless and worry about her job security.

The four cases provided by Maggie, Olivia, Sophia, and Vicky offer a clear description of the situation of boss-subordinate in which program planners felt uncomfortable expressing their ideas to their bosses. Of these four cases, Maggie was the only one who successfully convinced her boss, but Olivia, Sophia, and Vicky failed to convince their bosses to change the decisions that they had serious doubts about in the planning process.

Pair of hands role (No voting rights). Brad indicated that he had no voting rights at the planning table. According to Cameron and Green (2004), there are three types of consulting roles: an expert role, a pair of hands role, and a collaborative role. The pair of hands role is seen as an extra pair of hands and expected to apply specialized knowledge to implement action plans as recommendations but does not have a right to judge, evaluate, or make any decisions (Cameron & Green, 2004). In Brad's planning case, Brad took this role to provide information, ideas, and consultation only, but the decision was made by policymakers including judges, elected public officials. He explained,

> You know what? When those five people are going to listen to all arguments for something and against something and then they're going to ultimately decide because only they in their voting process actually have the power to decide. And, they have the status of being elected officials.

Under these circumstances, at planning meetings, some policymakers were already on Brad's side, or they were easily persuaded by him. However, sometimes policymakers were against him in the beginning, created more difficulties than were foreseeable, and showed the strong impact of the power differential. He added,

> Differential is really after that word [power] because with regards to most policymaking boards, we have no vote so the differential is always the same; other people less informed, differently motivated, have the power. As I said at the outside, at some point disadvantaged so we have to use different techniques and skills and methods as well as time and timing to carry it forward.

In this particular planning case, although two of the five policymakers argued for the big group format, the other three stayed on Brad's side arguing for the small group format and against the other two. It seemed that he "won" the case, but he said, "You may not really be in the position to win, so you do the best you can and you persevere, come back, and improve your presentation for the next time."

Administrative bureaucracy. Deborah was the one who encountered a situation of administrative bureaucracy when her organization wanted to change a healthcare management certificate program from a blended format to a pure online program. Stakeholders involved this planning issue included the Board of Regents and schools. She said, "We tried to do that, yes,

and, of course, we had to do it with the Board's blessing." In regard to the role of the Board, she explained,

> The board has the power just because they can bless it. They say this is the way it has to be so that after we got it all pulled together, we would have to go through them; so they had that kind of power and they've got results spelled out.

Deborah believed that financial power is part of administrative bureaucracy because although the Board of Regents was not her boss, the funding that the Board provided was very important for starting the program. She reported,

> The gentleman from the board of Regents has the final word when this happens. When this domino falls, then I have some money for it. That was important because we didn't have startup money for it, so he had the power as far as the finances went, and so he had the handle on the timeframe because we couldn't start it until he said this domino falls and we can get this money maybe. So, he had that kind of power.

In this planning case, Deborah's continuing education center had received the funding from the Board. Therefore, when the center wanted to change the format to an online program, it needed the Board's approval. Besides the role of financial provider, the Board of Regents also played a role monitoring the program and all involved schools. Deborah recounted,

> The guy from the Board of Regents, you know, he was caught between us, so he was the one doing the negotiating there because it was important to him that everybody feel like they're getting a good deal and that's what you want. I feel like I got a good deal and you did, too. So, that's what he was trying to do and he wanted some of these services and money spread out over the state.

Therefore, Deborah's continuing education center needed to obtain the approval of the Board when her planning team tried to make changes in the program, and there was definitely a power differential between her center and the Board of Regents.

Status based on job title. Two participants, Erin and Grace, indicated that their situations were related to other stakeholders' positions and titles that were higher status than those of Erin and Grace. In Erin's planning case, she tried to persuade 15 department directors who had higher positions and titles in the county government to agree on implementing leadership programs; whereas in Grace's planning case, she had deans who had higher status than Grace and other planning staff and intended to dominate the planning meetings. Both cases indicated that Erin and Grace felt powerless in an asymmetrical political situation and struggled in the planning process.

Erin's situation. Erin was a second-level manager in the department of Human Resources in a county government (see figure 1 for the organization chart). To implement new leadership programs, she met 15 first-level department directors to persuade them to agree on the plan. She described her organization by saying,

> We had the county administrator and right below the county administrator, we had the 15 department directors. So, those are the people who I'm directly to negotiate with and show them the benefit of having their managers and supervisors go through that training.

In addition, she explained the hierarchical aspects that did not allow a person with lower status to talk directly with another person with higher status across departments in the organization:

> It was a protocol that was not culturally acceptable in the organization. It was not acceptable for a lower-level manger to go directly to meet a higher-level manager in another department. I wasn't necessarily nervous going directly to these department

> directors because I was used to doing this when I was in the private sector—that protocol didn't exist in the company—but I was a little nervous about going against the protocol because they would, sort of, look at me saying, "Why are you coming directly to me? You're not supposed to do that." Some of them welcomed setting up a meeting with me. Others wanted to know, "Well, where is your HR director?", "Is your director going to be here, too?"

When Erin tried to talk with those 15 directors about implementing the new programs, she violated the protocol based on status difference in stakeholders' positions and titles. The 15 directors had the same position and title with Erin's boss, the HR director, but Erin was a subordinate to her boss and was lower than those 15 directors in terms of their job title and status. Therefore, her case could be identified as a situation in which Erin experienced asymmetrical power relationships vis a vis these 15 powerful stakeholders.

Grace's situation. Grace encountered a situation in which her planning project involved deans of colleges of education from different universities when she was working on the Academic Franchise Program. She described the situation below:

> Generally, what happened at the meeting is I'm thinking more broadly in these opportunities. One is that the deans would come together, and we would present them with some issues or some questions, and we would ask their opinions. And, sometimes, those opinions were diverse and sometimes they were very strong, very opinionated. Generally, sometimes they would ask our opinions as well, but they actually presented their own opinions and sometimes tried to work it out between themselves. But, in the end, we were going to be responsible for making that program work, and so that was a little discouraging sometimes if that had happened.

In Grace's planning case, she and her staff worked with deans at the planning table. Because the deans had higher status than she and her colleagues, they would not offend those deans when their planning ideas were different from those of the deans. The only thing that they could do was to provide opinions and research, but no decisions could be made by them.

Task importance. Task importance is a situation in which different departments possess differential power bases in the same organization in terms of the task that they are doing. Erin was the only participant who believed that this situation occurred. It came about when she tried to persuade 15 department directors to implement leadership programs in a county government. She explained her situation by saying,

> The only reason they called on HR was to handle their problems through employer relations and to hire more employees for them. That's all they thought about regarding HR. So, when you look at these 15 department directors, HR was probably on the low end of the status quo.

Erin believed that part of the reason for HR's low status came about because the other 15 departments did the real service for the whole county, but HR people just sat there and waited to handle problems and hire new employees. In addition, she thought that the other part of the reason was that she and her boss came from the private sector and brought ideas that the other 15 directors considered unimportant to the whole organization. She recited,

> Yes, we were on the low end already. So, they may have brought in a man from the private sector, the [HR] director, who had all these wild ideas that took us even lower in terms of me. So, I had a lot to work through to get to these 15 to say, "This is a viable program that our organization needs and will benefit from."

Cultural Norms

Cultural norms is the second theme making participants feel powerless and usually strongly influenced by race, gender, and culture. In addition, participants of the study perceived cultural aspects that were influenced not only by society but by organizations as well. Two categories—societal cultural norms and organizational cultural norms—are addressed based on the participants' incidents in this section.

Societal Cultural Norms—Racism and Sexism. Hanna and Maggie considered that their situations were deeply related to racism and sexism. Hanna was an African American female and believed that her race and gender intertwined to make her feel powerless, whereas Maggie was a Caucasian female and believed that her gender played a role in making her feel powerless. Their cases are addressed below.

Hanna's situation. Hanna felt that she did not have a lot of power when she worked with her white female boss and John (pseudonym), a white male, to develop an online learning program to teach 60-some faculty members how to use various types of technology. She felt that she had less power at the planning table not only because her boss had a higher position but also because her white male colleague, John, had greater credibility in the eyes of her supervisor. It seemed that this kind of situation was not a unique case in her general planning experience because when she was asked how often she felt powerless in planning meetings, she responded,

> Often, absolutely, absolutely all the time, all the time. I think of my race, I believe that I'm always having to prove myself and as with the situation with John and in that situation I was the only African American. John and my manager were both Caucasian, and I believe that because of my race and my gender that I'm constantly being challenged

> to prove myself. And, as a result, that spills over into the planning process. So, I'm in planning situations all the time in which I believe that the balance of power is never equal.

According to her general planning experience, Hanna's race and gender always played major roles in her planning episodes, but it seemed that her race made a greater impact on her than did her gender. These situations made her necessarily and constantly establish her credibility over and over again to prove herself in order to overcome challenges from her colleagues.

Maggie's situation. Maggie indicated that her situation was strongly related to sexism. She was a white female and considered that she had lived in a male-dominated world since she started her career as a program planner. She explained,

> I work in such a male-dominated world, which was predominantly electrical engineering, for the first part of my career and it is a similar personality that I run up against that I have real challenges with. It's the personality that generally looks like a chauvinistic white male that I can't change. You can feel powerless, feel like you don't have the capacity to influence them or you can speak up and say, "You hired me to do this. This is my expertise not yours. Now let me do it."

In Maggie's planning case, she successfully persuaded her boss, the dean, to use silverware instead of paper and plastic utensils. She described the dean's personality by saying, "The dean was also very authoritarian, very chauvinistic in his approach but I did trust him. I did believe we had shared values so I could figure out how to work with him." In Maggie's description of her situations, she used many strong words like *chauvinistic*, *authoritarian*, *predominantly*, and *dominated* to portray how she felt powerless about the world in which she lived and worked and to describe the male who was the main character in the decision-making process.

Organizational Cultural Norms. Organizational cultural norms included two aspects—cultural credibility and resistance to culture change. Judy's case involved cultural credibility in the organization, whereas Erin's case involved resistance to culture change. Their cases are addressed below.

Cultural credibility. Judy indicated that historical credibility played a significant role in her planning case. Judy's department, the Department of Training & Development, worked with the Department of Human Resources to implement a reorientation program for new and current employees in the Division of Finance and Administration at a university. The conflict between her planning team and the team of Human Resources was about content differences because Judy focused only on the information regarding her own division, whereas the Human Resources team focused on general information regarding the whole campus. She reported,

> I didn't feel like I had a lot of power because I was moving forward in one direction, whereas another unit that was very instrumental in the whole overall aspect of the program had another direction. I couldn't strongly voice my concern on how things were being operated because HR had a bigger investment in new employee orientation, more experience, and more credible. I felt powerless because HR had the credibility and the decision-making power. As far as how the new orientation was going to look campus-wide, we couldn't establish the differences between the two.

According to Judy's planning case, it seemed that HR had more credibility than Judy's department, the department of Training and Development, because HR was in charge of and had successfully carried out employee orientation for a long time. Based on this culture and custom, it was fair and reasonable to believe that HR had more power over the decision-making process because HR had not only its expertise and experience but also its invested time in planning

orientation programs. Everyone took it for granted that HR was the department dominating the whole program and its planning.

Resistance to culture change. Erin was the only one who described the term *culture change.* She encountered this situation when she tried to implement leadership programs in a county government. The primary culture change was that no employees received any training from the organization and that those 15 directors did not see the value that the training could provide. So, they automatically built a wall to resist change. She explained,

> A lot of the department directors thought my program is just another one of those changes that the human resources do and wanted to make, and they automatically built a wall. So, I had to try to break that wall and show them the value. My initial challenge was to help get them to see why their employees needed to participate in training and development and what the value would be to their organization. It was a culture change for the organization because they didn't have any training and development going on. That was a huge culture change for our organization.

The second culture change was that the 15 directors did not want to see their supervisors leave their workplaces for a whole day once a week for 13 weeks. Erin recited how some of the 15 directors responded to her:

> I heard it all before. They're going to do the same thing that they've always done. It's going to cause problems for us operationally because now you're going to really take my leaders away for 13 weeks, one day a week and that's not going to do any good because they're just going to go back and do the same thing they were doing before.

She added, "'Programs like this don't work,' is what I heard from some of the directors who don't want to see that happen. So it was a culture change because they had never done anything

like this before." She experienced a challenge because 15 directors liked to do things the way they usually did them, according to custom, culture, or rules, and suspected that those changes would erode their power base and that the programs would not work.

Individual Credibility

Individual credibility is the third theme making participants feel powerless, and most of the time, it strongly involves educational degrees, experience, and age. In addition, in some cases, participants perceived more than one factor during their planning process. Two categories—professional expertise and positionality—are addressed in this section based on the participants' incidents.

Professional expertise. Andy was the one who indicated that he encountered a situation in which professional expertise played a major role dominating planning decisions when he worked on a pharmacy residency program. He explained his planning situation by saying,

> I was ultimately responsible for it, but I had a team of people that basically were doing most of the development. I was the facilitator of the whole process, but I was ultimately responsible for it. But, I think the instructional design people felt they were ultimately responsible for it, too, so there was a little bit of a power struggle going on there. We got some money to do it, and it was a grant, a large grant, that we're both PI's [Principal Investigators] on so it was a push and pull there.

Andy also explained that he gave power to the instructional design experts because he lacked relevant knowledge regarding the program, and he really counted on their help. However, as the program went on, he noticed that their planning philosophies, theoretically based and practice-based, were different. He described,

> I guess I did feel like I have less power which was somewhat ironic, because the program I was responsible for and I was really counting on the instruction design experts to lead the process, and there was a process that I was not familiar with at the time as far as the instructional design part of things. So, I felt like I was handing over a lot of power that I had built up. As the program went on, I think it too far away from practice. I mean, they were so theoretically based and I was practice-based, and so I felt like over time that they were implementing things that were not in the practical settings. And I felt like I lost a lot of power.

Under these circumstances, Andy tried to discuss this issue with the instructional design team. However, the response from that team was adamant. He narrated,

> They responded favorably, and they listened to what I had to say with regards to pharmacy and with regards to the team we were going to be working with, the pharmacy team we're going to work with, but they were very adamant in how the instructional design piece should take place. So they, again, they listened to me, but they said, "Well, this is the process. This is the process that we need to go through. It doesn't matter which pharmacy or medicine or anything else."

According to Andy's planning case, expertise played a major role in his planning. He trusted those experts in the beginning, but when he noticed that the program ran counter to what he expected during the middle of planning, he had trouble getting his power back.

Positionality. Positionality related to this study included two aspects—lacking experience and being newly hired. Rachel's case involved lacking experience, whereas Erin's case involved a situation in which she was newly hired. Their cases are addressed below.

Lacking experience. While she was involved in planning a community leadership program, Rachel, a young African American female, encountered a situation in which she felt uncomfortable due to her age, experience, and race. In that program, attendees were primarily white, older, and retired. Her age and working experience always made her feel more powerless than her race and gender. When she was asked how she felt about planning this program, she responded,

> In a lot of the situations where I found myself, I was the youngest person. I think that's where you're trying to get is that a major factor in my feeling uncomfortable and feeling powerless was my age, and then I also found myself being the only person of color at the table; so it's a really interesting dynamic – young. Okay, I wasn't the only female; so really gender wasn't too much of an issue, but I would say my age trumps the race because, at times, I felt like folks did not hear me because I looked young; so they assumed that I did not have much to say nor did I have experience to bring to the conversation or to the table.

According to Rachel, she started planning educational programs for adults in her mid 20s. At that time, she was always the youngest and the most inexperienced person at her planning tables, which made a greater impact on her than did her race and gender. She felt powerless and was afraid of expressing her opinion at the table because of her lack of experience. She recited,

> There was a long period of time where I sat at planning tables where I didn't voice my opinion because I was afraid of what others might think about what I say whether it was valuable or whether it wasn't valuable, and part of that was because of my age, lack of experience. I was a little intimidated by them because of the expertise that they brought to the table, the number of years that they had behind them in teaching and planning

> programs. So…I really didn't express or vocalize my thoughts, my ideas. I wasn't as aggressive or rather assertive with my ideas about how to improve or to change.

Rachel has just started her career as a program planner. Although she knew that she had the skill set and the knowledge, she felt powerless and uncomfortable to work with other individuals including her colleagues and stakeholders at the planning table due to her lack of experience. She said, "I did feel a little bit…like a fish out of water there," to describe her situation.

Being newly hired. Hanna was the one who strongly indicated that she experienced a situation in which she felt powerless when she had just been hired by an organization. In her planning case, she worked with her boss, a white female, and John (pseudonym), a white male, to develop an agenda for a brand new workshop for faculty members in higher education. However, her boss seemed to have more confidence in John's opinion than in hers. She explained,

> There were several meetings that took place over and I felt like I didn't have as much power in each of those meetings, but one meeting in particular I can think about in which we were trying to decide on the agenda. And, there were another male (John), my boss (a female), and myself in the meeting and it just appeared to me that the other gentlemen and my boss had worked together for a number of years before I came and that she had more confidence in his opinion about the agenda than I did. My boss gave him a lot more authority in planning the agenda, even though I was supposed to be the workshop director and he was just the technical director. I felt marginalized.

This issue seriously concerned Hanna, and she decided to bring it up in the discussion with her boss. She reported,

> I asked my manager, "I thought that I would have the responsibility of planning the agenda here, and it appears to me that John is now being given that authority. So, I'm

> confused. What is my role now? What do I need to be or where do I fit in in planning this workshop?" And my manager said, "No, no, no, no. You're still the person who is in charge of the agenda. We just need to make sure that John's viewpoint is heard." And I said, "Well, yes, but it seems to me that John's viewpoint is being considered more than mine." And she said, "Well, he has been here for a while, and he has set up these—he's taught classes relating to the use of technology so I think he has more experience that he can bring to bear than what you are proposing here." And I said, "Well, so is he then going to be responsible for continuing the planning?" And she said, "Well, no. We wanted to make sure that we get his input." So, that left me with a feeling that I wasn't sure what my role was going to be going forward.

Hanna's planning case indicated that she experienced asymmetrical power relationships when she had just been hired by her boss. Although, according to Hanna, she had already worked as an adult program planner for about ten years and had proven her competence, her boss tended to trust the opinions of someone else, John, whom her boss had worked with for a longer period of time than she had worked with Hanna. Maybe her boss just wanted to make sure that the program could appropriately match cultural aspects of the organization which Hanna might not know about. However, her powerless feelings were definitely understandable in her situation, and it was probably true that a new employee in an organization needed a period of time to adjust his/her mindset and behavior, establish individual credibility, and adapt to the culture of the organization to succeed in his/her position.

Identifying Negotiation Strategies

This section answers the second research question, which concerns negotiation strategies that adult educators can apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful,

stakeholders at the planning table. The answers to this question are based on the participants' critical incidents. Table 10 provides an overview of the major themes and categories. A total of six major categories were identified and divided into two themes—exercising power and ceding power. The strategies for exercising power include building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow. The strategies for ceding power include going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table. Each theme, category, and its derivative subcategories are addressed bellow.

Table 10

Overview of the Findings-2

Research Questions	Themes	Categories
What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?	Exercising Power	Building Relationships— Private one-on-one Conversation Informal Communication Avoiding Taking Sides too Soon in Debate Establishing Credibility— Presenting Facts Building Social Capital Facilitating Information Flow— Providing Options Seeking the Others' Viewpoints Reframing Making Information Public
	Ceding Power	Going Along with a Questionable Decision Observing to Learn Leaving the Table

Exercising Power

Exercising power means that less powerful planners need to seek any opportunities to cumulate their power in order to negotiate with other more powerful stakeholders. In the process of exercising power, the less powerful planners will be able to make a decision on whether or not exercising power is the best approach to use. In some situations, they may need to cede power when the strategies for exercising power do not work well. According to the study, three main strategies and nine substrategies are identified and addressed below.

Building relationships. Building relationships was highly valued by participants in their incidents. Most of the time, participants attempted to build relationships with stakeholders whom they did not know well. Therefore, oftentimes relevant cases involving relationship building included the following: (a) A planner was new to an organization, and (b) a planning case involved other stakeholders from different organizations, departments, or geographic areas. Based on participants' incidents, three categories (strategies) were identified—private one-on-one conversation, informal communication, and avoiding taking sides too soon in debate. All three strategies concerned how to establish and avoid ruining relationships between a program planner (negotiator) and other stakeholders and how to maintain those relationships. Of those three strategies, private one-on-one conversation was probably the most efficient and worthwhile in terms of the number of participants using it and its effectiveness in successful persuading more powerful stakeholders in their planning cases.

Private one-on-one conversation. Four participants, Brad, Erin, Hanna, and Judy, emphasized that one-on-one conversation was applicable to their situations when they negotiated with other stakeholders. Although he did not actually apply this strategy, Brad recognized that it would have been helpful to meet the two policymakers privately in his case. The other three

succeeded in their situations to persuade other seemingly more powerful stakeholders by using this strategy. Based on their incidents, the private one-on-one conversation was one that took place face to face between two persons, and the main purpose of this private talk was to establish a relationship by exchanging viewpoints and concerns. In regard to the planning cases in which the participants encountered the situation of boss-subordinate, they met with their bosses privately to discuss the planning issues not only to build relationships with their bosses but also to persuade their bosses by using other strategies. To apply this strategy, the participants needed to seek any chance to make this private one-on-one conversation happen in order to have an open dialogue and build a relationship between both parties. The excerpts from the participants' conversations are based on their incidents and addressed next.

Brad. Brad did not have voting rights in his planning case. He wanted to persuade the other two policymakers to accept the small group format for the program. He wished that he could have worked out the conflicts in the very beginning of planning. He narrated,

> What I wish that we could have done differently is to have been able to talk before the vote, before the meeting with the two people that take this opposing view, privately. If we would have the opportunity to dialogue with them and explain why we do things the way we do for our track record, what success has been about their preferences and how we address and satisfy those. Maybe if we could talk with them outside of a formal decision-making setting, we could persuade them that we've got a pretty good set of methods that were used and that it's justifiable, and we wouldn't have to then go into these formal meetings where we use pretexts to achieve something and we never really address openly and candidly the issues at hand.

Erin. Erin tried to persuade those 15 directors to allow their supervisors and team leaders to leave their workplaces to attend a leadership program taking place one day a week for 13 consecutive weeks by meeting with each director one-on-one to explain her ideas. She reported,

> I was able to build a relationship by going in meetings with them [15 directors] one-on-one and explaining who I am because people didn't know me. I was new to the organization, so explaining who I am and what we were planning on doing. After going one by one to every department director and explaining to them why we needed this program, I was able to eventually win them over because of the relationships that I built with them by going to them directly on a one-on-one basis.

According to Erin, after she met with the 15 directors one-on-one, nine of them agreed with her, but six did not. Although she could not convince them all by meeting them individually only one time, nine was a good number to start with for the program in the beginning, and she could work on the other six later by meeting them again if possible or using other strategies.

Hanna. Hanna found that her boss, a white female, had more confidence in John's opinion about the agenda than in Hanna. She decided to meet with John individually. She recounted,

> I went to him to try to get him to agree to my agenda format for each day of the workshop. One of the decisions that I made was that I wanted to broaden the scope of the workshop to be more inclusive of other kinds of technologies—the much newer technologies at that time. I found that he was the type of person who just simply was very easily influenced if he felt like you felt he was important. So, I think I played to his, I guess, ego, and I found out that he was the type of person that generally wanted to be respected, wanted to be recognized, and wanted to be felt included, and I think I just simply collaborate with him.

According to Hanna, after talking with John, she built a good relationship with him and convinced him of some of her planning ideas. In the one-on-one meetings, she found that once John felt respected and recognized, it was easier for John and her to reach a consensus. In addition, the good relationship between them also helped her build more credibility with her boss to improve her relationship with her. Furthermore, in her opinion, building relationships was more important than providing data.

Judy. Judy was in a situation in which her planning direction was different from that of the Human Resources team, which played a major role in orientation program planning and was more powerful than Judy's planning team due to HR's cultural credibility in that field of planning. Under these circumstances, Judy decided to have a one-on-one meeting with the head of the HR team. She reported,

> Once we realized that it was a problem, I sat down with the head of HR team and we just talked about the differences, and then we talked about the benefits of each one. Then, we went through this whole cycle of sharing each other's viewpoints and then, basically, listening to each other and then meeting each other halfway we'd make some decisions and compromises. So, at that point, when we determined that "Yes, we can work together," it was kind of easy to negotiate how the whole program was going to look. If we had had that conversation before I moved forward, it would have alleviated a lot of the conflict.

Judy explained how useful the open conversation between her and the HR team head was. She believed that the conflict between them could have been avoided or alleviated had she had that open conversation with the other team leader, and she also felt that the relationship constructed

through the one-on-one meetings helped those two teams work together well and make the negotiation process smoother.

According to the three participants above, it seemed very effective to meet the key stakeholders individually to build a good relationship and resolve conflicts. In Brad's case, he wished to have met the other two policymakers privately in advance to have open and candid discussions to persuade them because private talks were less confrontational than talks in a formal meeting. In Erin's case, she did meet individually other stakeholders who had higher status in terms of the job title to introduce herself, explain the program, and answer concerns of those stakeholders. Her action indicated that she respected them and thought highly enough of their concerns and opinions to let them feel comfortable about her and the program. Her gesture of good faith alleviated their resistance to the program. In Hanna's case, she talked with John individually to ask his opinions and concerns so that he felt respected, recognized, and included in the relationship. This relationship helped her convince John to accept her idea to broaden the content of the program. In Judy's case, she discussed the planning issues with the head of the HR team so that they might share their viewpoints, listen to each other, and compromise. Through this process, both of them and the teams knew that they could work together. The four cases indicated that when people met one another in person, saw one another's facial movements, heard one another's voices, listened to one another, and shared viewpoints and concerns, they built a good, friendly, and less confrontational relationship in which they trusted one another and found it much easier to resolve conflicts.

Informal communication. Three participants valued the function of informal communication. According to them, informal communication included making phone calls,

sending emails, meeting in the hallway, and talking briefly in the elevator. Their explanations are addressed below.

Andy. When Andy was involved in a planning case, he wanted to persuade the instructional design team to move from theoretically based planning to practice-based planning. He used many informal persuasion techniques, and finally he successfully persuaded the instructional design team to visit the site to meet and conduct interviews with program participants in the pilot study. He explained,

> I think I have to use persuasive techniques. I think it's still good to try to do a lot of informal persuasion instead of formally going before a group and using that as a kind of a one-shot deal to try to persuade. I think that I had a philosophy, and I do this a lot like before our meeting, and I'll call individual members of that committee or whatever, and I'll discuss with them what they're thinking about this, so that you don't go into some meeting cold. And, it's always good to know there's going to be at least one person that's going to support what you believe or whatever.

Brad. Brad was engaged in a planning case regarding a possible financial crisis which might influence their planning format, big groups or small groups. Because he did not have voting rights at the planning table, he needed other persuasion tools to help him. According to him, he emailed a memo and documents two days before the meeting took place. He reported,

> I sent a memo out in advance with all of the financial data in it so that people would have a chance to digest those numbers because numbers are difficult for people. When you get to financial numbers at the time that you're discussing them without giving them a chance to evaluate them in advance, they're less trustful with the credibility. They will be given the numbers in advance, so that they can read them over and over again, then they

> understand you're not trying to hide anything. I guess my bias is if you provide the information as openly and as in-depth as you possibly can, given all the constraints you're working under, the less people will have to use as ammunition against.

Erin. Erin hoped that she could successfully persuade the 15 directors to support leadership programs in a county government. She has met with them one-on-one already, but only nine out of 15 were convinced, and it seemed that interaction between those directors and her was not enough. Her informal communication included a hallway meeting and an elevator meeting. She explained,

> I went directly to them in their office once, but then when I had to go their meeting, I got a chance to interact with them more and you can't forget about the hallway meeting. It's a chance like if I was walking down the hall and found the director of planning and development and other stakeholders in the hallway, I needed to stop to engage them in conversation. A little elevator speech so they will continue supporting your programs. Engage in a personal and professional conversation about their world and their lives, and then talk about what I am interested in talking about giving them some key bullet points that is what I want this person to remember about my program so they'll support it the next time it comes up in conversation.

Andy, Brad, and Erin provided their detailed stories regarding informal communication. Although their purposes of their actions were very similar, to persuade others, the means of application was slightly different. Andy liked to use phone calls before planning meetings to seek support, Brad liked to send emails in advance to convey messages containing very important data regarding planning in order to allow time for stakeholders to evaluate the information and to trust it, but Erin liked incidental meetings and informal conversations with the directors to

convey messages, including information, evaluation, and outcomes regarding programs. It seemed that each means possessed its own advantage in the specific planning context. If these three techniques can be combined, I am sure that it will be a very effective strategy for program planners to negotiate with other more powerful stakeholders regardless of the planning context.

Avoiding taking sides too soon in debate. Brad was the one who suggested that it was not wise to choose a side in the early stage of debate and that it was better to let stakeholders sort out pros and cons of the issue and then make a strong argument to conclude the debate. He recounted,

> I find that the most persuasive thing that I can do is to not dominate the debate, but to allow policy-makers to sort out the issues, pro and con, in the debate among themselves. And, when that debate seems to have run its course and people have expressed the fullness of their views and arguments for something or against something, at that point, I try to interject in a concluding way the position that I think is the strongest position—operationally or theoretically.

Because Brad had no voting rights in planning meetings, his voice and verbal skills were the only tools that he could use at the planning table. Therefore, he would have needed to use his voice prudently and wisely if there had been a debate going on during the planning process. It was understandable and reasonable for the one with no power at hand to think through the lens of other more powerful stakeholders and wait for the right time to provide a rationale for the conclusion by observing them, and reflecting on their ideas, and avoiding taking sides until it was appropriate. By doing so, Brad could use his voice efficiently and avoid ruining the relationship with other powerful stakeholders at the very beginning stage of the planning.

Establishing credibility. The purpose of establishing credibility was to build trust so that stakeholders can be convinced at the planning table. Based on the collected data and analyzed

data, two categories were identified—presenting facts and building social capital. According to the participants, establishing credibility was related not only to many aspects that might go beyond the planning table per se., but also to planners' long term management of their careers.

Presenting facts. Almost every participant believed that providing facts was important when negotiating at the planning table. However, the quality of the data indeed influenced the effectiveness of using this strategy. Therefore, in some cases, even though valid facts have been presented, the other stakeholders may still insist on their original thoughts and would not want to change their position. Next, I excerpt some key points from four participants, Andy, Brad, Erin, and Grace, who emphasized the effectiveness of presenting facts.

Andy. Andy suggested using onsite evidence to present facts. In his planning case, he tried to persuade the instructional design team to adopt a practice-based approach to curriculum development instead of a theoretically based approach. He took the head of the instructional design team to sites where a pilot study was going on, and finally he successfully convinced the head and the whole team. He stated,

> We had this pilot group that we could tell were frustrated. I was telling the instructional design folks, "We got to do something. We got to do something different." One person was head of the project and she could explain all that from a theoretical perspective. So, we, though, took her to the sites and let them talk to her directly and said, "We can't do this and this," and so she did some one-on-one interviews with some people and wrote down what was it that was not working and so we kind of reconfigured and redid stuff, and started implementing some new things and simplifying things and tools. To persuade them through this pilot study, we had some data and said, "This is not correct. Maybe we can change something."

Brad. Since Brad did not have voting rights at the planning table, he felt it was difficult to convince the policymakers in his planning meetings. He believed that, about 80% of the time, the person who went to the meeting with strong facts would prevail in the decision making process. In addition, the facts useful at one meeting might not be useful for the next meeting because things would change dramatically in the world. He explained,

> In this particular instance, because the issue is simply on a budget, we have all those numbers here because we monitor income expenditures. Whenever we deal with elected officials, we have to have more facts to justify our position than they do. And, in this particular circumstance getting back to the magistrate training council, the conference phone call of a week ago, we had more facts. And, traditionally, what happens is that the person who goes into the policy-making meeting with the greater number of arguments that are supported by fact, probably 80% of the time, that person will prevail; that position will prevail. We prevailed last week.

Erin. Erin did focus groups and surveys for the facts that she wanted to present to the 15 directors. After she met one-on-one with them, 60% of them supported her, but 40% were not convinced. She reported,

> We did focus groups. We did surveys, and it was centered around what this group said their needs were, and so I asked this group basically to validate those focus groups and so then I compile all of that information and then take it to these directors. So, I had one-on-one meetings that this is what people are saying they need. So, I took all of that data, packaged it, and then took it to these department directors and said, “These people are saying they need XYZ so they can be a better team leader and a better supervisor, and this is why we need the leadership academy because it’s going to address grievances.”

Grace. Grace strongly believed that presenting facts was as important as building relationships. She argued that most administrators were data-driven decision-makers in today's world. She explained,

> I try, and whenever I do anything, I try to have facts and data to back up my opinion. If I don't have it, if all I have is anecdotal evidence, I'm less likely to be confident in what I'm saying, so I do want that information and do try and collect and then provide it. People can look at the data for themselves and interpret it. Facts are better than opinion. It's hard to argue with fact. The administrators in today's world are much less relationship based.

Grace also explained what data she used by saying,

> Sometimes, it was survey data that we collect from the students' satisfaction surveys, evaluations, that sort of thing. Sometimes, it was information from our ticketing system. Whenever somebody has a problem, they go to the helpdesk, a ticket to our helpdesk, it creates a case and that case is then reviewed, worked, and the notes are taken on that and what was done, what was presented.

To sum up, the four participants used different facts to back up their arguments. Andy presented facts by using onsite evidence, which was a pilot study and one-on-one interviews with participants, to tell the instructional design people that the program needed an adjustment. Brad used numbers showing income and expenditures to support his argument. Erin used data from surveys and focus groups to show grievances and the need for leadership programs. And, Grace used surveys, a ticketing system, and registration information to bolster her opinions. The four participants provided strong arguments testifying to the effectiveness of providing facts.

Building social capital. Building social capital included two aspects—seeking allies and accumulating interpersonal capital. Andy involved seeking allies, whereas Brad recommended accumulating interpersonal capital to establish personal credibility. Their cases are addressed below.

Seeking allies. Andy suggested finding whomever you knew well, whoever stood on your side and had credibility to obtain positive influence over the planning meeting. He explained,

> Well, I think you have to call on your friends and you have to start using the influence that you do have and the people that you have credibility with to help you get past a hurdle. In other words, you get people to think like you and you say, "How can you help me? How can we get past this?" And, it's best if you got somebody who's the next step up from you, but then it doesn't have to be your immediate supervisor, they can be somebody across another division, but in a higher position and I've used that a lot or somebody who has credibility.

Andy wished he had used this kind of influence to seek allies in his planning case. At the time that he was planning the program, he was so young that he did not know very many people who had credibility and hesitated to ask them for help. According to this example, after having worked for years, he began to figure out how to seek allies to make changes in order to achieve his planning goals for an educational program.

Accumulating interpersonal capital. Brad strongly recommended accumulating interpersonal capital to establish personal credibility. In his opinion, interpersonal capital consisted of good will capital, intellectual capital, historical capital, and interpersonal relationship capital. He explained each type of capital below,

Good will capital. Brad believed that good will capital was established based on how often you agreed with other stakeholders whom you worked with. He explained,

> As you work with people, there are times when you have to agree with them; at times, you need to disagree with them. The more often that you agree with them, the more they feel confident in working with you, so you build up good will. And then, when the time comes that you have to disagree with them, it will appear to be less an adversarial disagreement and more of a refinement of perspective, and they will tend to look on difference as something that is not being made to be adversarial, that is being made to improve maybe something they haven't thought out before. That's the good will capital.

Intellectual capital. Brad thought that intellectual capital was constructed based on how deep, thoughtful, and professional the ideas that you contributed to the planning table were. He explained,

> Intellectual capital issues are just the more thoughtful and more detailed in the greater depth that you provide to them as they deal with making their decisions that demonstrates to them that you are not trying to usurp their authority, but are really trying to enrich the quality of their decision that you might give them a good intellectual foundation. And, again, that's something that you build over time with them and they come to respect or not, but usually want to respect.

Historical capital. Brad considered that historical capital was built on the experience working on a specific area and the knowledge and the background affiliated with the planning context. He stated,

> Historical capital I've been around a long time. I've seen some of the arguments about how to do things three and four generations of organizations, and I can give a perspective

> and I can basically say, well, this isn't the first time that this policy-making body has discussed the given matter, and in the past, the issue has been raised in such and such a context. These are the value issues that have been applied in the past to resolve this question because you're in the position today to either do it like it's been done before or to go in a completely new direction. But here is the ground, the discussion that's going on before.

Interpersonal relationship capital. Brad believed that interpersonal relationship capital could be built by meeting with stakeholders on a face-to-face basis. This strategy was similar to the "private one-on-one conversation" mentioned in the building relationship theme. It appeared that the difference between the two was that the former approached a casual format, whereas the latter took place in a formal format. He explained,

> If you got an interpersonal connection more than just in a formal organizational role where you fulfill a certain set of duties and responsibilities, you have an interpersonal connection with all these places. Now, it's hard to create those interpersonal connections when your policy-makers are spread all over the state, you're not with them based on a face-to-face basis. So, you have to go out of your way to build some interpersonal relationships. If you're in their part of their state working for a different group**,** you'll be well-served to drop by and give them a call in their office face-to-face or on the telephone or let them know that you're going to be in town on such a day and maybe you can all go to lunch together or something like that.

These four types of capital that Brad mentioned here were very critical for program planners to establish credibility. It seemed that gathering these four kinds of capital was a long-term task. Planners needed to deal with each planning case and related stakeholders very carefully because

the records of the planners' conduct at the planning table would influence their credibility. In addition, it also appeared that gathering capital was hard work and a wrong move could jeopardize all types of the capital that had just been collected.

Facilitating Information Flow. Facilitating information flow was a way for planners to circumvent barriers when conflicts occurred, compromises were few, and more powerful stakeholders dominated planning decisions. Based on the participants' incidents, four categories were identified—providing options, seeing the others' viewpoints, reframing, and making information public—and are addressed next.

Providing options. Deborah was the only one who mentioned this strategy. In her planning case, her continuing education center wanted to change the format of a program from blended to pure online. To do so, she needed first to obtain the agreement of a member of the Board of Regents, and she successfully convinced him, the representative, by providing options. She explained,

> Because we would strategize before we either met with him or before we talked on the phone with him. So what could we bring to the table that would be some options that he could feel good about that. Yes, we did. We used strategies to give options, to be able to say this was still work if we do this and we understand where you're coming from on this and what do you think about this and here are some options. And he liked to have options so that he could choose.

In Deborah's planning case, she and her colleagues pondered options that her center was able to give before she met or talked on the phone with the representative of the Board of Regents. Therefore, she had already evaluated the options and learned what the base line would be. In addition, according to her, she understood the needs of the Board of Regents, so it was not

difficult that the options her center provided were accepted by the Board of Regents. The final deal, a package deal and combining the funds and free participation to programs, was a good one for both parties.

Seeking the others' viewpoints. Three participants mentioned that stakeholders' viewpoints needed to be considered. Two out of three, Brad and Judy, emphasized that exploring each other's concerns was a reciprocal way to resolve conflicts. The other participant, Rachel, believed that stakeholders' concerns and fears must be heard and taken into consideration through full communication.

Brad. Brad was in a situation in which he did not have voting rights. He expressed his viewpoint regarding people's concerns at his planning table by saying,

> I think it's also important if you're going to do it, don't talk just to the people who are going to be aligned with your viewpoint. And, let them know you're sifting for their concerns and their perspectives and their preferences and their proclivities so that you can use that to evaluate whether or not you're on the right track so that you can readjust your own direction and you can have a real open dialogue with people. So, if you do it in a way that doesn't make it secret behind the back and that is you listening for input, and it's giving you an opportunity to express your concerns in a one-to-one way.

Judy. Judy had a different planning idea from that of the HR team. When she explored the HR team's concerns, she actually shared her own concerns with that team, too. She reported,

> Luckily, my style of working with people is very acceptable; so once I've realized there was conflict, I went to the other area, I went to HR, and actually had an open dialogue with them, and really just listened to some of their concerns and then I expressed what I was doing and then tried to work with them to resolve the conflict. So, I was well

> accepted, and they were open to hear what I had to say as I was listening to their concerns about the situation.

Rachel. Rachel was so young that she was afraid of expressing her opinions and often missed opportunities to speak up in her planning meetings. She stated,

> I would say what I've learned is, first and foremost, don't be afraid to communicate, to express any concerns, fears that you may have. Usually, I found, for me, there are legitimate fears and concerns that should be expressed. They have to be heard. All sides of the matter must be taken into consideration to produce the best product.

According to the three participants, obtaining a better understanding of concerns from one another was a way to facilitate communication and make information flow smoothly. The greater the flow of thoughts, the better the understanding. People probably readjust their positions often after listening to one another because exploring concerns helped construct effective communication in which people could hear different information or opinions that they did not know and perhaps had never thought about. It seemed, in other words, that exploring concerns was an effective way to enhance communication.

Reframing. Maggie was the only participant who emphasized the function of reframing. In her planning case, she disagreed with her boss, the dean, who wanted to use paper plates and plastic utensils instead of silverware and real plates in an event focusing on how to make investments to improve research in the state. She explained her idea about reframing and how she used it in her situation by saying,

> If I propose an idea and it didn't go through then I stop. It's not that I stop. I automatically think, "This is still a good idea. I just didn't package it right." I would always say, "Okay, that didn't work that time so let me back up. Let me think about how

> I reframe this. Let me go at it with a different angle." A lot of times in my mind, it's about understanding how that person thinks and sees and figuring out their view in the lens that they process things through and then creating the proposal so that they process it through their lenses.

Maggie explained her reframing by adding,

> Though the silverware example probably was more of an immediate confrontation and part of that had to do with me feeling secure and being able to say let me say to you I think we need to go a different direction. I knew that the dean needed to be reminded of who would be in the room and the expectations that he wanted to show up well in that process. I decided to reintroduce it.

According to Maggie, her ideas about reframing were to bring additional information that would strongly affect the person who she really wanted to convince. It seemed like a different type of facilitating information because the dean who Maggie wanted to convince ignored his own concerns. Therefore, Maggie's reframing was to repackage her proposal to include his concerns that were through his lens and in a way he had never thought about. Maggie's role was like a facilitator who arranged information and then reposted it in a way in which the dean could recognize his situation more clearly. To identify a stakeholder's concerns accurately, Maggie suggested researching and understanding how he/she processed information through his/her lens before reframing it. In her example, she successfully convinced the dean by reframing her argument.

Making information public. Grace recommended this strategy when conflicts occurred among different groups. In her planning case, she and her colleagues felt powerless when deans wanted to dominate planning meetings between themselves. She and her colleagues decided to

invite as many stakeholders as possible to join a Town Hall Meeting in which they released related information to almost all stakeholders. She explained,

> We did what we call the Town Hall Meeting. What we were getting was conflicting ideas from groups so we brought everybody together. We brought the registrars, financial aid, admissions officers, deans, faculty, and student advisors. Everybody came to the meeting from these five campuses, and we must have 90, 100 people in the room, which I don't recommend this as a strategy, but everybody got to hear the same information. And, actually having people to be able to see each other and see their facial movements and their body language and have leaders of those groups—it made a significant difference.

According to Grace, the Town Hall meeting resolved the conflicts that existed among different groups. It seemed that the Town Hall meeting was like a platform on which stakeholders exchanged information, shared their concerns, and made decisions. Under these circumstances, the deans were not able to dominate the meeting because the information flow was open and quick, and all the decisions were announced and reviewed in public. In addition, she also mentioned that people meeting face to face with one another made a huge difference. This opinion was in accordance with the idea that meeting face to face would build relationships easily, which I mentioned earlier in the first theme in this chapter.

Ceding Power

Ceding power means that there is no choice but to follow the orders given by a stakeholder with more power at the planning table. Three participants indicated that there was no choice, no negotiation strategies were applied, and nothing could have been done differently. I still consider it a negotiation strategy because although participants were subjected to power, they were able to maintain a position regardless of the organization in order to survive. Once they could hold a

position, they could envision having another chance to negotiate again due to the situation or a change in environment, they might learn something from that case by observing what would happen in the planning process that followed, or they might leave the organization and be able to find another job to survive and maintain their career. Based on the three participants' incidents, three categories were identified—going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table—and are addressed next.

Going along with a questionable decision. Two participants, Olivia and Sophia, indicated two similar cases in which they did what their bosses told them to do. In Olivia's case, she thought that the program that her boss wanted her to implement was a duplicate program of another one that had already been running in her continuing education center. However, in Sophia's case, she felt uncomfortable about her boss's decision that she should implement the plans for a conference because she thought that she lacked the knowledge and background to do it and that it was not a good idea to plan a conference with the other group, which she did not know, without meeting face to face. The two situations they described are provided below.

Olivia. Olivia received an order from her boss to implement a certificate management program. She was reluctant to do it because there was a similar program running there and the relationship between her boss and the program owner was the key to that decision. Finally, she implemented that program and it went well. She explained,

> I'm not convinced in this particular case because of the relationship that existed and the determination of my boss to bring this program in that I really had no choice. Oh, well, you always had a choice so I could've said absolutely not. I'm not going to do it and jeopardize my own position. Looking at the program, I didn't think it was a bad program. I thought it was a duplicate program. I thought we were splitting our market. I thought

> that we might have difficulty getting both courses to run, but I don't think I would have done anything different in this particular case because I think I did what I needed to do, which was to attempt to persuade the person with the power that this was not a good idea and I did my own research.

Olivia thought that it might have been a wholly different situation if the evaluation of the program had not been as good as expected. She reported,

> Because of his relationship, his interpretation of this program was good. Well, it happened that it was, but maybe it wasn't. Then it would have been an entirely different situation. If the program had really been bad, then I would have had to completely do something else and take a different stance, and that would have changed the whole power struggle.

Sophia. Sophia was in a situation in which her boss asked her to carry out a conference with another university in a different state. She had questions about that decision, but her boss did not explain much about it. She reported,

> I had discussion with him about why he wanted to do this, so that I could get on board with it. But, he just said, "We will do this conference and you're in charge of it," and basically do it. There was no negotiating about that when he made up his mind to do stuff, that was it. He told me to do it and I did it and didn't ask why.

According to Sophia, it seemed that the real problem was whether or not it was necessary to implement the program and who should be in charge of it. In addition, it appeared that Sophia's boss wanted to favor the interest of the dean and have someone get it done. Managing this task was like an additional duty for her. Furthermore, her situation seemed worse than that of Olivia

because if the conference went wrong, she would be the first one to have to take the responsibility. She had to do it anyway to keep her job.

Observing to learn. Rachel was the one who sat back and observed how her leader negotiated with stakeholders in planning meetings. In her situation, most of the time, she was afraid to speak up due to her young age. She learned many things from her observations at the planning table. She recited,

> As I reflect back even then, I mean, I began to speak up more and more, but I don't think I did as much as I should have and a lot of what I did was I sat back and watched and observed. I could speak about the person who was the lead when I observed. She used a lot of relationship building. She had a lot of contacts, a lot of experience with the rural communities and so the contacts that she had, she was able to establish a rapport with the client. That was the key strategy that I observed being used to help move the conversation along. So, yes, that's an important piece, a very important piece.

According to Rachel, it was very important to build relationships to establish rapport with key people in the target audience. Her case implied that people tended to fear to speak up if they felt that they did not have much power. Observation might be a way to improve her capability to be a better negotiator for her future planning task when she had no power to change anything.

Leaving the table. Vicky was the one who decided to apply for a new job and to leave her organization when she knew her program, a community program to educate parents about how to talk to their adolescent children to prevent teen pregnancy, would be closed soon. She explained how she learned the program would be closed and her feelings about it by saying,

> She [Her boss] told me in a meeting that we were going to make some changes. Then, she asked me to write a proposal for the new program. So, I did that because I was

> thinking we were doing the new one and we were keeping this office. And then, when I delivered the proposal, she said, "We're going to close the program." Fairly, I didn't say that much because I needed to keep my job, right? But, at the same time, I was looking for somewhere else over 20 opportunities. I was lucky that I had this job, so I left in April, 2008. And, I was lucky that I found this job because they closed in July, 2008 and I left in April. But then, I learned in December [2008], they laid off my program coordinator that worked with me and the person who replaced me. So, that's why I'm so grateful I found this job.

According to Vicky, two major concerns motivated her to find another job. First, she felt sorry about that Latino community because the people in the community trusted her. Second, she was worrying about losing that job. She had to have a job. I still consider leaving the table a negotiation strategy because it is an option in such a situation in which a planner has negative feelings about a program and carefully evaluates all conditions related to the advantages and disadvantages of the program, the organization, his/her career, and the context. In Vicky's case, it seemed that she made the right decision.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter offered the major findings of the study, in which I answered two research questions guiding the study. An overview of the findings was provided in the chapter. With regard to the first research question, addressing situations in which adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table, three themes—organization hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility—were identified. According to the collected and analyzed data, five categories—boss-subordinate, pair of hands role, administrative bureaucracy, status based on job title, and task importance—were developed for the first theme, organization

hierarchy; two categories—societal cultural norms and organizational cultural norms—were developed for the second theme, cultural norms; and two categories—professional expertise and positionality—were developed for the third theme, individual credibility. The nine different asymmetrical power relations shared by the 12 participants indicated that the recruitment for the study was successful because it included participants with very diverse backgrounds and that there were few overlaps in terms of power relations among all cases. In those 12 incidents, boss-subordinate and status based on job title impacted participants more strongly than other types of power relations shown in the study due to the frequency with which these factors were reported by the participants and the importance that participants assigned to these factors. Four African American female participants were recruited for the study, but only one stated that her powerlessness came from her race. Of the 10 female participants, one white female and one black female believed that a cultural norm—sexism—played a role in their situations.

With regard to the second research question which concerned exploring negotiation strategies that adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with more powerful stakeholders, two themes—exercising power and ceding power—were classified. All themes and categories (strategies) were developed based on participants' incidents in which they applied the strategies in their cases. However, although some strategies were not used in their cases, they indicated that they might have used them if they had had an opportunity to do it differently. Different strategies were categorized on each theme. Three strategies—building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow—were developed for exercising power, and three strategies—going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table—were developed for ceding power. Therefore, a total of six main strategies were addressed to answer the second research question. Participants made a decision to use different strategies

based on their resources, timing, situations, and contexts. Studying the incidents described by the participants could help us make the right decision on the proper strategies to use in order to duplicate the participants' successful experiences or to bring positive changes in our future negotiations at the planning table.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This study found that program planners negotiated their interests in situations which were highly related to asymmetrical political relationships and adult education administration. Program planning played a significant role in implementing adult educational programs because "a variety of administrative tasks must be completed in order to bring educational programs into existence" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 187). In the process of doing the administrative tasks, organizational structures, societal and organizational culture, and individual conditions strongly influenced planning decisions. Negotiation was the way in which planners and stakeholders exchanged ideas and persuaded one another to carry out programs that they or their organizations expected. This study explored factors influencing unbalanced relationships in terms of power and reactions counteracting the effects of these factors through negotiation. The purpose of this chapter was to reframe and explain the findings and connect the findings and literature in order to manifest the value of the study. In doing so, this chapter is divided into five parts. The first part of this chapter briefly summarizes the design, process, and major findings of the study. The second part provides conclusions and discussion of the findings that reframe and explain the findings in detail by connecting them to relevant literature. The third part addresses the implications of the study for theory, research, and practice for the field of adult education. The fourth part is recommendations for future research. Finally, a short, concluding note is added at the end of the chapter.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify situations in which planners felt powerless and to understand negotiation strategies that adult educators used to negotiate when planning educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships. The study was guided by the following research questions: (a) In what situations do adult educators experience asymmetrical power relations at the planning table? And (b) What negotiation strategies do adult educators apply to negotiate planning issues with other, more powerful, stakeholders?

The design of the study was qualitative and involved the use of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and interviews through which the data were collected. Twelve experienced program planners were recruited and interviewed. There were two male and ten female participants; their ages ranged from the 30s to the 60s and they were Caucasian, African, and Hispanic. The 12 participants were from nine different organizations distributed over five different geographic locations in Georgia, including Athens, Atlanta, Covington, Gwinnett, and Kennesaw, representing diverse areas in Georgia in a variety of settings. The length of the participants' experiences ranged from 7 to 30 years of planning programs for adults. Five participants held their doctoral degrees, one possessed his Juris Doctor (J.D.), and the rest possessed their masters degrees. This study also employed the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954). Based on this research technique, each participant shared one critical incident regarding a situation in which he/she felt powerless at the planning table and took actions regarding negotiating with other, more powerful, stakeholders. All interviews were conducted solely by the researcher between May and October of 2010. Of the 12 participants, four were interviewed twice for the purpose of clarifying statements and collecting more detailed

information for the study. Data analysis was based on grounded theory. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), the constant comparative method and theoretical sampling constitute the core of qualitative analysis in the grounded theory approach. The method and the sampling technique in the process of data analysis helped establish and confirm rigorous and comprehensive themes and categories for the study.

Two major findings emerged from the data in terms of the research questions: (a) Situations in which planners felt powerless and (b) negotiation strategies that were applicable to the asymmetrical political situations. The first findings demonstrated that organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility were major themes influencing the participants—program planners—so that they felt that they did not have enough power at the planning table. According to the data collected from the interviews, a total of nine influences were identified. The theme of organizational hierarchy included boss-subordinate, pair of hands role, administrative bureaucracy, status based on job title, and task importance. The theme of cultural norms included societal cultural norms (racism and sexism) and organizational cultural norms. Finally, the theme of individual credibility included professional expertise and positionality. Although each participant had his/her own way of perceiving power, there were certain similarities and differences that shaped his/her situation and influenced his/her judgments about power. Three participants felt more than one influence in their situations. Boss-subordinate and status based on job title were two typical influences perceived by more than one participant.

The second findings explored two themes—exercising power and ceding power—that helped participants negotiate their interests when they felt powerless in the planning process. For exercising power, major strategies include building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow. For ceding power, major strategies include going along with a

questionable decision, observing to learn and leaving the table. A total of six major strategies were identified. The strategy of building relationships comprised three detailed strategies: private one-on-one conversation, informal communication, and avoidance of taking sides too soon in debate. The strategy of establishing credibility contained three detailed strategies: presenting facts and building social capital. The strategy of facilitating information flow involved four detailed strategies: providing options, seeking the others' viewpoints, reframing, and making information public.

Conclusions and Discussion

Five conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the study. The first conclusion concerns how power differences are shaped at the planning table. The second conclusion deals with organizations' adult education ideology. The third conclusion emphasizes the importance of relationship building. The fourth conclusion involves strategic decisions about exercising or ceding power. The fifth conclusion focuses on the value of win-win theory when program planners negotiate in the context of asymmetrical political situations. These conclusions are discussed next.

Conclusion 1: Asymmetrical Political Relationships Result From an Array of Complex Interacting Factors

The first conclusion of the study is that asymmetrical political relationships are shaped by an array of complex interacting factors consisting of three different types of power—organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. The findings support the idea that planners are influenced by these three different types of power at the planning table and that the asymmetrical political relationships are interwoven among them. For example, Maggie negotiated with her boss, a white male, based on the boss-subordinate relationship and also

thought her boss was a sexist. Therefore, organizational hierarchy and cultural norms both shaped her feeling of powerlessness. Erin wanted to persuade the 15 directors whose status based on their job titles was higher than hers, and at the same time she felt that organizational culture resisted any changes she tried to make when she attempted to implement new educational programs for improving second- and third-level employees' leadership capability in the organization. In a similar manner, Hanna was influenced not only by racism and sexism (social cultural norms) but also by her positionality shaped by her individual credibility. Although in some cases participants believed that only one type of power existed, there might have been other types of invisible power. For instance, Judy felt that she had less power than Human Resources because HR had greater experience and more credibility and had dominated planning meetings in orientation programs both culturally and customarily. However, an invisible power in the form of a nonnegotiable order from her boss influenced her (organizational hierarchy) and caused a conflict between HR and her department.

According to Pfeffer (1981), "a person is not 'powerful' or 'powerless' in general, but only with respect to other social actors in a specific relationship" (p. 3), and "the assessment of how much of a given source of power a given social actor possesses may be the most problematic" (p. 48). Fairholm (1993) indicates that "power in use is merely organizational dynamics—the action of people in relationships" (p. 45). Based on the quotes above and the findings of the study, the power differences at the planning table represent the sum of the relationships that a planner connects with, and the asymmetrical political relationships result from an array of complex interacting factors—organization, culture, and the individual— that shape the power differences at the planning table.

With regard to organizational hierarchy, according to Fairholm (1993), “people in all kinds of work or in any social or hierarchical relationship share the goal of getting others to behave in ways they want them to” (p. 19), and “it is an obvious manifestation of power, one connoting the formally granted rights inherent in the organizational position held” (p. 20). At the planning table, stakeholders with more hierarchical power want others to think the way they want them to think and to work for them. For example, Olivia’s boss wanted her to implement a program that was very similar to another program already running well in her Continuing Education Center regardless of the limited market that would be split. In Brad’s case, Brad had no voting rights at the planning table, but he needed to follow policymakers’ thinking and work for them. Other data, like Maggie’s, Sophia’s, and Grace’s cases with their deans, Deborah’s case with the Board of Regents, Erin’s case with the 15 directors, and Vicky’s case dealing with a budget cut, demonstrate that organizational hierarchy is an influential element at the planning table.

With regard to cultural norms, according to Godwyll and Annin (2007), “racism and sexism are both socially constructed and have similar dynamics in that prejudice and discrimination are central to both concepts” (p. 43). The study shows that even though a female planner has experience and professional expertise, she will still need to prove her ability again and again in a given project due to her race and gender and that it is often a challenge for females, especially African American females, to work with white males at the planning table. For example, Hanna’s and Maggie’s cases indicated that race and gender played a role at the planning table. Besides racism and sexism, organizational cultural norms reveal basic assumptions or beliefs shared by members of an organization. According to Schein (1987), culture is a learned product of group experience and is found only where there is a definable group with a significant history. In addition, Schein (1987) asserts that if one can demonstrate that a given set of people have

shared a significant number of important experiences in the process of solving problems, one can assume that such common experiences have led them to a shared view that has come to be taken for granted and has dropped out of awareness. If one tries to change the culture in an organization, one must change the social behavior based on the beliefs and assumptions of its members. In doing so, one will encounter resistance at the very beginning because one is violating the history of the organization. Based on the discussion above, we can see the cultural norms play an important role in the context of program planning.

With regard to individual credibility, some evidence illustrates that this type of credibility plays a role in influencing participants. For example, Andy respected instructional designers and gave up all his power at the beginning of planning because he lacked knowledge about designing an educational program. Other examples include Rachel's lack of self-efficacy and Hanna's concerns about her status as a newly hired employee. According to Pfeffer (1981), power derives not only from "the skills of the various actors and their ability to perform their tasks in the organization" but also from "the ability of the participants to convince others within the organization that their specific tasks and their abilities are substantial and important," and "to have an important and critical function, but to fail at it, will not provide much power" (p. 98). Pfeffer further indicates that the power of actors is fundamentally determined by the importance of what they do in the organization and their skill in doing it. Based on the findings of the study and the literature discussed above, there is no doubt that individual credibility is an important source of power in organizations.

To sum up, asymmetrical political relationships are based on power differences between social actors, and the power differences at the planning table come from the sum of the relationships that relate to the planner. In addition, asymmetrical political relationships are based

on these complex interacting factors: organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. These three types of power are explored and identified in the study. Moreover, "understanding the sources of power in organizations is a necessary step toward understanding how to develop strategies for the acquisition and use of power in organizations" (Pfeffer, 1981, p. 98).

Conclusion 2: The Major Conflicts in the Planning Process Result From Differences Between Organizations' Adult Education Ideology

The second conclusion of the study is that the major conflicts in the planning process are attributed to differences in organizations' adult education ideology. According to the study, the major conflicts in the planning process include three areas—curriculum, the necessity of implementing a program, and delivery formats. With regard to the field of curriculum, the major conflicts include practical vs. theoretical, broad vs. narrow, and general vs. specific. The curricula that the planners and related stakeholders preferred were based on their beliefs and perceptions in regard to the program, their organizations, and the attendees' learning needs. For example, Andy planned a pharmacy residency program and believed the practice-based curriculum was more important than the theoretically based one because, according to his beliefs and perceptions, the purpose of the residency program was to help residents improve the practice knowledge that the organization wanted them to apply to practice in the real world rather than helping them learn additional updated theoretical knowledge or review that knowledge that they had learned in school. However, the instructional designers believed that learning updated theoretical knowledge was important because, according to their beliefs and perceptions, new therapies and medicine kept being invented to deal with new diseases or provide advanced resolutions for extant diseases, and this idea was what the organization hoped for, too. Obviously,

the conflict between both ideas comes from the adult educators' ideology regarding how the program can advance their organization through the assessment of the overall organizational setting and the change in environment. In a similar manner, the decision in regard to broad, narrow, general, or specific knowledge that planners attempted to focus on in the program was based on their ideology regarding how they felt about their inner organizations and outer environment.

With regard to the necessity of implementing a program, the major conflicts were caused by different philosophies and missions between planners and related stakeholders in terms of adult administration. For example, Erin successfully persuaded 15 directors and her boss, the County Administrator, to implement new leadership programs for her organization. However, Olivia and Sophia failed to persuade their bosses not to implement new programs that their bosses insisted on creating, and Vicky decided to leave her organization when she learned that her program would be closed due to a budget cut. These cases indicate that ideologies that the planners and their bosses possessed ran counter to one another. In another example, in based on her philosophy and mission, Erin wanted to improve employees' leadership capability, and at the same time her department was able to play a major role in the process of implementing those leadership programs. On the other hand, the 15 directors wanted to maintain a certain quality of work and get the job done without paying attention to employees' leadership development. Similarly, Olivia's, Sophia's, and Vicky's planning interests ran counter to their bosses in terms of their responsibilities for their organizations, communities, and aims of their careers.

With regard to the delivery formats, when planners work on programs for adults, the type of delivery format—online, blended, or face-to-face and big group-setting vs. small group-setting—is often the subject of heated debate. The major concerns in choosing a delivery format include

the budget of the program and the quality of teaching and learning. With reference to online teaching and learning, in the field of adult education and continuing professional education, more and more programs are delivered online because adults usually are subject to time and place. In addition, according to Egbert (2009, cited in Baylen, 2010), emerging technology-based tools (e.g., blogs, wikis, podcasts, etc.) provide new ways to support adult learners in (a) learning content, (b) communicating and collaborating with peers, (c) facilitating critical thinking and problem-solving, and (d) producing creative and appropriate outcomes for the target audience. As computer and communication technologies are developing rapidly, online learning offers adults much more flexible and interactive learning, and its instructional quality can be as good as or even better than that of face-to-face learning (Seaman, 2009). Although it can be expected that online learning will become more and more popular in lifelong education, the face-to-face format can provide real time interactions, facial movements, and opportunities for friendship among peers, instructors, and learners that the online format rarely provides. With reference to the size of the group-setting, the quality of teaching and learning in the small group-setting is better than that of the big group-setting because the former helps instructors actively engage more individual learners at the same time in terms of the ratio of instructors to learners to create a better learning environment than does the latter. Therefore, the decision regarding the delivery format should be concerned with factors related to adult educators' beliefs about individual learners and their organizations. These factors include at the very least potential learners' intentions, learning contexts, geographic limitations, available resources in the organization, the aims of the program and the organization, and the affected public, who may not be able to present their voices at the planning table. In addition, adult educators' ideologies are also influenced by information adult educators hear. For example, Deborah learned from program participants who recommended

online programs for the future programs. Brad received feedback indicating that the small group-setting was preferred by most participants. These different ideologies caused conflicts at the planning table.

So, what shapes adult educators' ideology? Based on the discussion above, adult educators' ideologies are shaped by the assessment of the overall organizational setting and the change in environment; their responsibilities for their organizations, communities, and aims of their careers; potential learners' intentions and learning contexts; geographic limitations; available resources in the organization; the aims of the program and the organization; the affected public who may not be able to present their voices at the planning table; and the information adult educators hear. According to Galbraith, Sisco, and Guglielmino (1997), "Each adult, community, and continuing education organization should have a stated philosophy which provides for an understanding of values, concepts, and fundamental beliefs. It is essential to discover how the organizational philosophy relates to your philosophy as an administrator" (pp. 6-7). An uncertain mission, vision, or philosophy statement will easily incur conflicts between adult educators because organizations' ideologies are shaped by many factors as mentioned above. This idea echoes Mayer and Allen's (1977) and Pfeffer's (1987) argument in Chapter 2, Review of the Literature, which stated that politics is more likely to appear in ambiguous conditions within an organization. According to the study, when different ideologies are held among planners, and at the same time structural uncertainty and politics occur at the planning table, most of the time, the decision will be made by the one who has the most power.

Conclusion 3: Relationships Play a Key Role in Negotiation

The third conclusion of the study is that relationships are key to negotiation in asymmetrical power situations for the context of program planning. According to the study, of all strategies

that the study explored, building relationships is the most significant one. The key to building relationships is to build trust. The findings of the study suggest three strategies—private one-on-one conversation, informal communication, and the avoidance of taking sides too soon. But how can one build trust with more powerful stakeholders through these strategies? Thompson (2009) suggests three major types of trust relationships with others—deterrence-based trust, knowledge-based trust, and identification-based trust. According to Thompson (2009), "deterrence-based trust is based on consistency of behavior, meaning people will follow through on what they promise to do" (p. 131), "knowledge-based trust is grounded in behavioral predictability, and it occurs when a person has enough information about others to understand them and accurately predict their behavior" (p. 132), and "identification-based trust is grounded in complete empathy with another person's desires and intentions" and "trust exists between people because each person understands, agrees with, empathizes with, and takes on the other's values because of the emotional connection between them" (p. 133). When talking and communicating with more powerful stakeholders, less powerful planners can gain strong influence in negotiation if they always keep the three types of trust in mind.

How are the strategies explored in the study unique to asymmetrical power situations? Based on the findings of the study, the relationship seems to be the key to a successful negotiation in asymmetrical power situations. Three reasons explain why building relationships is extremely important to negotiation in the context of asymmetrical political relationships and how the strategies work uniquely in asymmetrical power situations. First, in a symmetrical power relationship, building relationships can help an individual gain an advantage; however, it also allows the individual to lose an advantage due to reciprocity based on the relationship. In addition, what is gained will be equal or almost equal to what is lost. On the other hand, in an

asymmetrical power relationship, building relationships can help the less powerful side gain something but not necessarily lose anything because the less powerful side may have little or nothing to lose. However, with regard to the more powerful side, what it can gain is very limited, but what it can lose may be substantial. In other words, for the less powerful side, building relationships is a task with low cost but high reward.

Second, according to the study, the more powerful side probably plays a role in being persuaded, whereas the less powerful side probably plays a role in persuading the other side. In other words, stakeholders on the more powerful side do not need to use any negotiation strategies to persuade the other side because they have power to make decisions without consultation with the less powerful side. In addition, the relationship between both sides is not considered important by the more powerful side. However, with regard to the less powerful side, building relationships is like creating a platform on which the less powerful planners can use other strategies—establishing credibility and facilitating information flow—to gain influence. For example, according to the study, almost every participant believed that providing facts was important when negotiating at the planning table. However, the quality of the facts was an important key when the facts were presented. Besides, the study showed that the more powerful stakeholders did not listen to the information that Olivia and Sophia presented in their cases. In addition, even though Olivia made valid points about the disadvantage of splitting the market, the more powerful stakeholder, her boss, still insisted on his original decision and did not want to change his position because the relationship between Olivia's boss and the program owner was stronger than that between Olivia's boss and Olivia. In hindsight, Olivia and Sophia needed a platform, a more developed relationship with their bosses, to be able to get their attention, to convey their messages, and to implement other strategies. Therefore, the better the relationship,

the more effective the strategies because the more powerful side tends to listen and think through ideas provided by the less powerful side. Moreover, improving the relationship will assist the less powerful side in gaining more leverage. Why does the relationship not constrain the strategies that the less powerful side uses? It rarely happens because, the study, in most cases involving asymmetrical power situations, indicated that critical thinking on the part of the less powerful planners caused them to resist being persuaded by the more powerful side because the decision the more powerful stakeholders made was primarily based on their power instead of strong reasons and facts. This critical assessment motivated the participants to resist surrendering themselves to power if possible.

Third, the advantages of each strategy used to build relationships in the study are conspicuous. Based on the findings of the study, the strategies of building relationships include private one-on-one conversation, informal communication, and the avoidance of taking sides too soon in debate. With regard to private one-on-one conversation, Drolet and Morris (1995, cited in Thompson, 2005) believe that face-to-face communication, compared to using the telephone, writing, or other formats, fosters the development of interpersonal synchrony and rapport, and thus leads to more trusting and cooperative behavior between negotiators. The function of private one-on-one conversation provides not only a chance for participants to meet and see each other's facial movements but also an open dialogue that allows sufficient time for both parties to exchange ideas and immediately correct information to build trust. With regard to informal communication, according to Thompson (2005), "the impromptu and casual conversations that negotiators have in a restroom, by a water cooler, or walking back from lunch are often where the most difficult problems are solved and the most important interpersonal issues are addressed" (p. 307). This idea is in accordance with descriptions of negations provided by Erin, who was a

participant in the study and who chatted with more powerful stakeholders in the hall and gave little informal speeches in the elevator informally to make important points. With regard to the avoidance of taking sides too soon in debate, doing so helps minimize hostility at the beginning of negotiation to reduce the possibility of ruining relationships between both parties. At the planning table, each stakeholder may have different opinions on an issue. It is a wise idea to listen to others' interests and then to form a strong argument based on what is heard and proposed instead of taking a side at the very beginning of the planning process that builds a wall between a less powerful planner and others who have more power. However, the avoidance of taking sides too soon in debate is not considered a good strategy in the context of symmetrical power situations because, according to Galinsky and Mussweiler (2001), making the first offer (addressing the interests) usually obtains a better final outcome in that it acts as an anchor point at the very beginning of negotiation in those symmetrical situations.

To sum up, the relationship between both parties plays a key role in negotiation in the asymmetrical political context. The effectiveness of establishing credibility and facilitating information flow depends on how well the less powerful side builds the relationship with the more powerful side. The relationship helps the less powerful side gain trust and cooperation from the more powerful side because the less powerful side always acts as a persuader that needs more trust and cooperation than the more powerful side. In addition, the relationship will not constrain but will rather create advances in negotiation when using other strategies because the less powerful planners need to convey messages via the relationship to allow them to be heard and considered by the more powerful side, and they do not have much to lose due to their lack of power at the planning table. However, negotiation in symmetrical power situations is different because the importance of building relationships may vary and depend on the context. In that

kind of situation, both sides are persuaders and want to convey messages and use strategies via relationships. Therefore, sometimes relationships may constrain the advance of other strategies in negotiation.

Conclusion 4: Making Strategic Decisions About Exercising or Ceding Power is Central to Negotiation in Asymmetrical Political Situations

The fourth conclusion of the study is that making strategic decisions about exercising or ceding power is important when negotiating in asymmetrical political situations. According to the study, four participants decided to cede power and allow other more powerful stakeholders to dominate the planning table. Ceding power is still considered an important strategy because not engaging in a counteracting action is considered an action—a strategy—and this strategy may be unavoidable when there are no other options available. For example, Olivia, after talking with her boss, decided to cede power for the following two reasons. First, she wanted to see what would happen if she went along with a questionable decision by her boss. If a particular aspect of the program that he insisted on went wrong or any negative results came about unexpectedly, she could gain some power to renegotiate with him. And, especially, these unexpected results would be the strongest evidence she could use to persuade him. Second, ceding power was a strategic decision that Olivia made to secure her position so that she might gain another chance later to negotiate the same issue with her boss. In another example, Sophia's boss did not even listen to Sophia when she tried to negotiate with him. She felt her boss's strong desire to implement the program in question. She decided not to question his decision to avoid jeopardizing her position or ruining the relationship between her boss and her. In Vicky's case, Vicky did not even contact the founder of her program to negotiate but directly searched for another job instead. The alternative position she was looking for helped her prepare to walk away from the negotiation

table. This idea was just like a BATNA based on game theory and mentioned by Fisher and Ury (1981) and Thompson (2005) in the second chapter of this dissertation. Rachel's case was a little different from the other three cases. Lacking self-efficacy and confidence, Rachel was reluctant to speak up at planning meetings, seldom thought her opinion was mature, and had less power than other stakeholders. For her, it was reasonable to cede power by acceding to others' opinions, to observe others' behavior, to learn from others' ideas, and to avoid conflicts to construct a friendlier context for future planning in her organization.

According to Thompson (2009), the most important questions negotiators need to ask themselves in negotiation concern what they want and what power, influences, and alternatives they have. According to the study, in addition to these two questions, I would like to add one more—Is what they want worth risking their status on the job for? In the context of asymmetrical political situations, the decision of excising or ceding power is important to program planners because misreading the context will cause severe consequences in terms of their status. Comparing the importance of the issue with potential consequences is the key to making the decision. For example, Olivia and Sophia did not think that implementing new programs was so important that they needed to fight strongly for implementation with their bosses. Vicky understood that her program would not last long even though she successfully persuaded the founder, her boss's boss, to keep her program running. However, in Judy's case, Judy could not cede power because she received an order from her boss to negotiate a planning issue with another department. She needed to win that negotiation in order to meet the expectations of her boss.

There is very limited literature showing how to negotiate in the asymmetrical political context. In addition, there is no literature teaching when and how negotiators to cede power in

negotiation because ceding power means loss, and no one wants to teach negotiators to lose their case. However, in the real world, ceding power might be the best option when negotiators do not have a better choice available in a specific situation. This conclusion does not teach people to sit passively and do nothing about the situation but, instead, teaches them to manage the situation strategically by minimizing loss and seeking any possible chances for future negotiation to improve the overall outcome of the negotiation in a situation in which negotiators have very limited choices.

To sum up, according to Thompson (2009), "a more accurate model of negotiation is a mixed-motive decision" which "involves both cooperation and competition" (p. 13). The action of ceding power is to show one's cooperation in order to gain the other party's reciprocity for future use to build one's interpersonal capital strategically. On the other hand, the action of exercising power is to show one's competitive nature in order to win the case, but sometimes doing so might make things worse than what one expects and might cause severe consequences. It is important and necessary for adult educators not only to evaluate how important the issue is but also to assess the situation and the power, influences, and alternatives they have before making decisions about exercising or ceding power.

Conclusion 5: Win-Win Theory is the Most Strategic Stance When Negotiating in Asymmetrical Political Situations

To describe win-win negotiation explicitly, I would like to use Morrison's (2006) words to clarify the idea of win-win negotiation theory and explain how win-win theory is different from game theory:

> I define winning a negotiation as being able to obtain all or almost all of your objectives for that negotiation. It does not mean that your opponent has to lose. A major problem in

> our sports-centered society is that many believe that for me to win, you have to lose. This is true in games, but it is not true in negotiations. In a negotiation, if the other side gets all their objectives, that is great just as long as your side gets your objectives or most of them. In negotiations, you must not try to beat the other side; you must focus on obtaining your objectives. It is not possible to have both sides win a game, but it is possible, and must be our goal, to have both sides win the negotiation. (pp. 17-18)

In the study, six participants approached win-win theory negotiation. Of those six, two participants, Judy and Olivia, without a prompt, mentioned that win-win negotiation was what they expected. Four participants, Andy, Deborah, Erin, and Hanna, did not mention the term *win-win*, but their cases indicated that the win-win negotiation approach was applied to their cases, for both parties of their cases were satisfied with the results of the negotiations. In asymmetrical power situations, it is definitely difficult for the less powerful side to win a negotiation regardless of the objectives. If the less powerful side encounters a conflict regarding the same issue with the more powerful side, it is even harder for the less powerful side to win. In this kind of situation, both sides are applying game theory in negotiations because there is only one issue appearing there. If the less powerful side has objectives on different issues from the more powerful side, according to the quote above from Morrison (2006), both sides may be able to win a negotiation if both sides reach their own objectives. In addition, according to the literature in chapter two, building a trusting relationship plays a key role in increasing the possibility of reaching win-win outcomes. This idea of the importance of building relationships was in accordance with that of the third conclusion above. Therefore, win-win theory is significantly valued not only because of the frequency with which it was reported by the participants and the importance given to the win-win outcomes in the study but also because of

the strong connections between the win-win approach and relationship building in the context of asymmetrical power situations.

Game theory was the type of negotiation applied by Brad, Maggie, Sophia, and Vicky. All four cases indicated that there was a common point—only one issue appearing in each negotiation case. Game theory was not considered as useful as win-win theory in the context of asymmetrical power situations in that, based on the findings, a common point—only one issue appearing at the planning table—caused the less powerful planners to lose the negotiation easily. Apparently, it is not wise for the less powerful side to negotiate only one issue with the more powerful side. Although win-win theory cannot guarantee that the less powerful side will "win," including more issues at the planning table definitely increases the possibility of reaching agreement or a compromise that satisfies both parties. However, in some unique situations, less powerful planners may not be able to find any additional or appropriate issues at the planning table, even though they try hard. For example, in Olivia's case, her boss wanted to implement a new program, but Olivia considered it unnecessary. She tried to bring a marketing issue to the table, but her boss ignored it. This case indicated that issues that the less powerful side attempts to bring to the table must be able to get the attention of the more powerful side—otherwise this strategy may not work well.

Fairness theory was the type of negotiation uniquely applied by Grace because she advocated procedural justice by which each stakeholder was invited to a meeting to express his/her opinions toward planning issues and because she wanted final decisions to be made democratically. The consensus of the opinions from everybody attending the meeting helped Grace and other less powerful colleagues counteract power from the deans. Fairness theory emphasizes equity in negotiation. This equity includes not only the content but also the process.

In the study, Grace applied the strategy of calling for a town hall meeting to invite stakeholders to the planning table to make decisions. Including the interests, opinions, and concerns of stakeholders was a very effective strategy because the deans had previously tended to make decisions just among themselves. Through the town hall meeting process, the less powerful stakeholders felt that the decision-making process was fair to them. However, according to Cervero and Wilson (2006), "Collaborative prescriptions for participatory decision making are likely to be conducive to substantive democratic involvement primarily in situations where stakeholders share highly consensual interests" (p. 210) because "nearly all prescriptions for collaborative strategies presume consultative situations. Consultative strategies aren't effective for handling bargaining or dispute situations in which interest conflicts and power imbalances make a difference" (p. 210). Cervero and Wilson (2006) explain the reason by saying, "the full range of actions at the planning table is only visible through a political lens. That lens shows the conflicts and the effective use of power to maintain the dominant interests of the company's leadership" (p. 210). I agree with Cervero and Wilson's viewpoint since if the deans in the study wanted to dominate the whole meeting, they would use their influence to prevent the town hall meeting from being held. Therefore, the leadership of the organization would decide whether or not the meeting would take place. Fairness theory may be appropriate in symmetrical political contexts, but it will still be subject to the interests of those who have the most power in asymmetrical political contexts.

To sum up, according to Cervero and Wilson (2006), planners' actions are always reconstructing the power relations and interests of everyone involved or affected by the planning process while directed toward constructing educational programs. Therefore, win-win theory fits the context of program planning better than game theory because the former offers certain

advantages, including integrating most different interests between parties and creating positive relationships. Those advantages help planners counteract power and negotiate with more powerful stakeholders at the planning table. Additionally, the win-win approach can help reconstruct a friendlier, continuing, and long-term relationship with powerful stakeholders in the planning process. Fairness theory was implied democratic planning in the study. It can be used well in consensual situations but not used well in contexts in which conflicting interests and power differences occur because the decisions about procedural justice and about who benefits from various programs are made by those who have the most power.

Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice

This qualitative study, identifying the situations in which adult program planners felt that they did not have enough power at the planning table and exploring strategies that could help them negotiate with more powerful stakeholders in the planning process, adds to the understanding of power and how to counteract power in planning practice for adult educational programs. There are a number of implications extending comprehension of the findings in the study and recognizing political realities in program planning practice. The implications based on theory, research, and practice illuminate the value of the study and are addressed next.

Implications for Theory and Research

There are four implications for theory and research: (a) The study enhances understanding of planning practice for adult educational programs, (b) it advances the theoretical and practical base of Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b, 2006) program planning theory, (c) it improves knowledge in the field of negotiation in asymmetrical power relationships, and (d) it approaches constructivist grounded theory. These four implications are discussed below.

Enhancing understanding of planning practice for adult educational programs. This study helps fosters greater understanding of planning practice for adult educational programs. Based on the review of literature, most of what we know, including power and politics in organizations and the role of adult educators, is in accordance with the findings of the study in terms of planning practice. We also know that power relations are determined by the design of the organization and derived from societal and organizational cultural values and norms, but we did not know clearly what else plays a role in the whole system and to what extent those factors shape power differences. The cases in the study indicated that power played a role in serving more powerful stakeholders when they wanted to push forward an agenda regardless of the wishes of others. In addition, this study provided details regarding program implementation. Those details included contexts of conflicts intertwined with power, politics, culture, and adult educators' ideologies and explained the participants' reactions to the situations based on their knowledge, recognition, and experience.

Based on the findings of the study, one more factor—individual credibility—was identified. In addition, program planners' political relationships are shaped by an array of complex interacting factors—organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility—because the power differences at the planning table come from the sum of the relationships that relate to the planners. In addition to those interacting factors shaping the power differences, what we also did not know clearly was the kind of conflicts occurring at the planning table. According to the study, three kinds of planning issues regarding organizations' adult education ideology were acknowledged—curriculum, program implementation, and delivery format. All the details, findings, and conclusions explored in the study help understand planning practice interwoven

with the organizational, cultural, and individual factors and fill the gap of knowledge between what we know and what we did not know clearly.

Advancing Cervero and Wilson's program planning theory. This study advances the theoretical and practical base of Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b, 2006) program planning theory. According to Cervero and Wilson (2006), planning practice is a social process of negotiating personal and organizational interests in contexts of structured power relations. There are four central concepts for the theory of planning practice—power, interests, negotiation, and ethical commitments (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). In addition, in planning practice, planners typically negotiate power and interests in situations marked by asymmetrical power relations. To plan responsibly in the face of asymmetrical power relations, Cervero and Wilson (2006) suggest some strategies that involve mobilizing groups of people to counter the effects of established interests and that take a variety of forms from providing information to potentially affected groups to more active interventions. They further propose that planners draw on the entire repertoire of strategies as they face increasingly complex situations. This study can be considered a supplement to Cervero and Wilson's theory because additional strategies explored by the study can help planners deal with the situations in which asymmetrical power relations dominate the planning table and in which planners feel they are at the end of their rope. Moreover, Cervero and Wilson (2006) support a critical planning model that "describes context in specific political terms of sociostructural oppression and urges adult educators to address questions of social injustice" (p. 247). Based on the critical tradition, Cervero and Wilson (2006) raise the idea of ethical commitments in practical settings and two questions needing to be addressed by program planners: "Who should benefit in what ways from educational programs, and whose interests should be represented at the planning tables where judgments are made about

educational programs?" (p. 92). By answering these two questions to each case in the study, most cases indicated that participants' motivation to negotiate was based on the participants' ethical commitments. For example, the ethical commitments of Andy, Brad, Deborah, Erin, Grace, Hanna, Judy, and Maggie motivated them to negotiate with others to benefit their organizations and participants attending programs. However, in Olivia's and Sophia's cases, their ethical commitments were intertwined with their personal priorities, social status, and political relationships, and the answers to those two questions mentioned above were not in accordance with what Olivia and Sophia expected. Although they communicated with their bosses to try to change their decisions, they finally decided to accede to their bosses' power in that insisting on their ethical commitments would jeopardize their positions. Under these circumstances, planners need to apply strategies to avoid the negative consequences that may occur in structurally organized settings that benefit some people and disadvantage others. In so doing, this study can be a resource for planners who want to counteract structural power at the planning table when their philosophy, concerns, and goals run counter to those of other stakeholders who have more power. Thus, this study can advance the theoretical and practical base of Cervero and Wilson's program planning theory.

Improving knowledge in the field of negotiation in asymmetrical power relationships. This study improves knowledge in the field of negotiation in asymmetrical power relationships. In the field of program planning, there are no studies exploring negotiation strategies based on negotiation theories in terms of asymmetrical power relations, and Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b, 2006) work is the only significant contribution to program planning about negotiating in the context of asymmetrical power relationships. In the general negotiation field, there is very limited literature existing in the area of foreign affairs, international relationships, business,

dispute resolution, and international trade. In the literature, little research identifies differences in negotiation between the symmetrical and the asymmetrical contexts in terms of power when suggesting strategies and tactics. The findings of the study identify three important factors that suggest that the knowledge of negotiating in asymmetrical power relationships can be improved greatly: (1) the importance of various power sources; (2) the recognition of the importance of building relationships with more powerful stakeholders; and (3) the acknowledgement of win-win theory as the most valuable in asymmetrical political contexts.

First, this study identifies three power sources: organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. However, most literature addressing negotiation and power ignores cultural norms—racism and sexism, cultural credibility, and resistance to culture change. For example, Pfeffer (1981, 1994) mentions that power comes from organizational structure and individual specialized knowledge or expertise in his two books, *Power in Organizations* and *Managing With Power*, but does not mention anything about cultural norms in organizations. Of those cultural norms explored by the study, racism is very rarely mentioned in the literature. Another example concerns Tjosvold and Wisse (2009), who edited a book entitled *Power and Interdependence in Organizations* included a chapter—Gender Inequalities in power in organizations—by Eagly and Fischer (2009) but including no chapters related to race inequalities. In addition, this study also identifies the extent of influence of each power source in order of importance: organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. This order helps planners understand more about the influence of power sources.

Second, the literature provides a variety of negotiation strategies, but rarely mentions trusting relationships between parties. In other words, most of the literature focuses on negotiation techniques but ignores psychological influences. Building trusting relationships is a

strategy that incorporates psychological influence. By using this strategy, a planner can earn others' confidence so that others believe that they are not put at risk, harmed, or injured by his/her actions (Thompson, 2009). Without a trusting relationship, most negotiation techniques will not be considered effective, for the planner's counterpart does not believe what he/she says and acts without trust. In chapter two, I arranged various strategies explored by former studies in the fields of business and program planning and presented them as Table 6. Of those strategies, only two suggest building or developing the trusting relationship recommended by (Thompson, 2009) and Mosley (2005), respectively. Thompson's (2005, 2009) work provides more integrated information regarding trusting relationship building than that of other scholars. According to Thompson (2009), the first two steps in building relationships involve arranging a personal meeting and putting the focus on the relationship. This idea is in accordance with the findings of the study. However, Thompson does not prioritize the strategy of building relationships. The findings of the study emphasize and recognize the importance of building relationships, which is the most important strategy in negotiation.

Third, analogically, in the field of academia, theories are like bones, whereas techniques are like flesh. Flesh grows along with the bone. Without the bones, the flesh will lose its support. Likewise, most techniques are drawn from theories. With the support of theory, techniques are more meaningful and understandable. In the study, three theories—win-win theory, game theory, and fairness theory—are addressed, discussed, and analyzed based on the literature review and findings. Therefore, the contribution of the study is not only using theories to explain negotiation strategies but also identifying win-win theory as the most appropriate one in the context in which significant power differences exist. In the field of program planning, according to the study, the usefulness of win-win theory has been identified. Can we analogically say that win-win theory is

as useful in other fields such as business, foreign affairs, and international trade as in the field of program planning? The first question concerns the differences between program planning and other fields. In other words, are there real differences, and do they matter? In the world of business, according to Thompson (2009), "negotiation comes into play when people participate in important meetings, get new assignments, head a team, participate in a reorganization process, and set priorities for their work unit" (p. 3). Obviously, we can find those scenarios in the participants' incidents in the study. Those incidents bridge theory and practice in negotiation and illustrate the connection between other negotiation fields and program planning. Based on the bridge and the connection mentioned above, I am sure that the knowledge that this study contributes about win-win theory helps people negotiate in different fields as long as significant power differences exist at the negotiation table.

Learning from constructivist grounded theory. This study was based on constructivist grounded theory. In chapter three, I mentioned a dispute regarding interpretive and positivist traditions in terms of the approach of grounded theory—constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) and objectivist grounded theory (Glaser, 2007). According to these two scholars, the constructivist approach is applied to studies in which researchers use small samples, whereas the objectivist approach tends to include many cases and interviews in a study. Glaser (2007) indicates that categories are generated by constant comparison of many, many interviews, whereas Glaser and Strauss (1967) point out that the saturation point to decide not to interview more participants comes when the researcher begins to hear the same information reported and no longer learns anything new. The statement from Glaser and Strauss (1967) seems contradictory to that from Glaser (2007) because it is not necessary to include many, many cases when the saturation point already emerges. The main point regarding these two ideas is the definition of

the saturation point. The decision of the saturation point is definitely made by the researcher. So, two questions occur to me. Should the researcher recruit many participants? Should the researcher report theoretical insights that were described by the only one participant in a study? For instance, if a researcher conducts a qualitative study through interviews by asking international doctoral students who are studying in the United States the reason why they want to stay or leave the country after getting their degrees, the theoretical insights gained from the tenth participant's answers have probably already been reported by the first nine participants. Therefore, in constructivist grounded theory, for most qualitative studies, it is not necessary to conduct as many as 40, 50, or even more interviews with participants.

What I learned from this study is that continuing to look for new and meaningful things is more important than paying attention to the frequency of occurrences when interviewing participants. Common information shared by participants is important, but unique facts are just important as long as they can help researchers and readers develop understanding in the area of inquiry. Take the example mentioned above about international doctoral students studying in the United States. If only one interviewee told the researcher that she wanted to leave this country because she felt uncomfortable about enforcement of traffic laws by policemen, would the researcher need to report this incident in the study? My judgment, based on my biases, is that her decision to stay or leave the country may depend on the part of the country she lives in and her personal feelings about the situation. However, the incident extends the participant's vision from traffic law enforcement to other fields of law enforcement that significantly influence people's lives in this country. As a researcher using the constructivist grounded theory approach, I tried to report unique findings deemed important to construct the whole picture of the inquiry. Therefore,

in constructivist grounded theory, the researcher plays a role of the instrument of the study because his/her biases more or less influence the result of the study.

Analogically, this study recruited 12 participants; based on the findings, seven categories were developed to answer two research questions, and 23 subcategories evolved. Some of these categories were just based on one participant's account. I believe that each unique fact contains important meanings that emerge from the constant comparative method through which I, the researcher, analyze the data and make my own judgment, based on my biases and the social contexts, to construct the whole picture of the findings in terms of the inquiry in the study. In addition, this constructivist grounded theory approach encourages researchers to report unique and worthwhile cases to describe the diverse world and realities. Obviously, this study approaches constructivist grounded theory in terms of data analysis and matches Charmaz's (2006) words: "those who take a constructivist approach aim to show the complexities of particular worlds, views, and actions" (p. 132).

Implications for Practice

There are four implications for practice: (a) Power and negotiation play major roles in adult program planning practice, (b) negotiation training is required by planners before they actually plan real educational programs for adults, (c) face-to-face conversation is the first step in negotiating with others who have more power, and (d) ethical leadership and ethical planning issues are concerned with socially responsible use of power. These four implications are discussed next.

Power and negotiation play major roles in adult program planning practice. Most planning theories recommend that planning begin with needs-assessments, go through educational design, and end with evaluation. However, in practice, planners bring their own

planning objectives and read the planning context in many different ways. Cervero and Wilson (2006) state that "frame planning practice as a social activity of negotiating interests in relationships of power" (p. 5). I believe this statement explains planning practice well. This study explores the relationships of power by observing real planning incidents in practice revealed by the 12 participants and manifestly confirms Cervero and Wilson's view in that, according to their incidents, planners negotiate their interests in the contexts in which final decisions are usually made by stakeholders with more power. In addition, "understanding power is essential for seeing the conditions in which planners act as well as for changing those conditions" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 191), and "although power both enables and constrains action, exercising power in concrete situations is always a form of negotiation among the various people involved" (p. 86).

Moreover, according to Thompson (2009), "negotiation is an interpersonal decision making process necessary whenever we cannot achieve our objectives single-handedly" (p. 2). In the field of adult education, "negotiation is the social activity in which people interact at the planning table in order to reach agreement about what to do in relation to the educational program" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 94). Therefore, based on the findings of the study and the statements above, in adult program planning practice, negotiation is a necessary social activity that planners use to influence others in the decision-making process in which power plays a key role in deciding whose interests matter.

Negotiation training is required by planners before they actually plan real educational programs for adults. Planners need to learn how to negotiate before planning. Theoretically, program planners have learned planning theories in the classroom that help them create programs step by step. Based on the previous implication—power and negotiation play major roles in adult

program planning practice, the negotiation knowledge should be possessed by program planners before they are assigned planning tasks. However, in practice, this study implies that most participants learn how to negotiate through their planning experiences but not in schools. In addition, according to my recent research, most graduate programs related to adult education do not provide specialized courses concerned with the issues of power and politics in adult education and negotiation knowledge. A very limited number of graduate programs in adult education provide information about power, politics, and negotiation knowledge included in the course of program planning. Although Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2006) have done a great job in telling students—future adult educators—how to plan educational programs in different situations by using planning stories, students may not be able to understand fully what actions planners take to negotiate at the table and what situations planners struggle with until they actually plan a program in person.

Given that negotiation knowledge is important for a variety of professionals who are responsible for planning adult programs in their fields of continuing education and that most participants in the study disclosed that they struggled with planning in the face of asymmetrical power relationships, the courses focusing only on program planning are insufficient to train future program planners to deal with planning issues, which seem to grow more complex from one to the next day. Knowledge of negotiation in the field of adult education demands immediate attention from educational programs at the graduate level. Scholars in business schools increasingly emphasize the importance of negotiation for managers and open a variety of negotiation courses in business schools. Based on the planning practices revealed in the findings of the study, I believe that providing specialized negotiation courses to train professional program planners would be meaningful to the field of adult education.

Face-to-face conversation is the first step in negotiating with others who have more power. Face-to-face conversation is the beginning of negotiation in the context of asymmetrical power relationships. According to Thompson (2009), face-to-face negotiation is crucial in the initiation of relationships and collaborations. People are more cooperative when interacting face-to-face than via other forms of communication, for this form conveys the richest information; allows for the simultaneous observation of multiple clues, including body language, facial expression, and tone of voice; and provides people with a greater awareness of context (Thompson, 2009). Face-to-face conversation creates a great opportunity to foster trusting and cooperative behavior, resulting in a better rapport with more powerful stakeholders.

With regard to the context of asymmetrical power relationships, face-to-face conversation is even more important because the rapport cultivated can improve psychological cooperation and establish long-term relationships. According to participants' incidents, this study suggests that planners not only construct relationships through private face-to-face conversation but also seek chances to meet in an apparently unexpected manner in person with more powerful stakeholders to increase the frequency of face-to-face communication, for example, hallway meetings and elevator speeches, because, in addition to fully bidirectional communication, nonverbal signals also play a key role in developing social interactions and trust strengthening persuasiveness.

Ethical leadership and ethical planning issues are concerned with socially responsible use of power. According the study, organizational hierarchy seems to be the most influential factor creating power differentials at the planning table. In addition, the related relationships in the organizational hierarchy include boss-subordinate, pair of hands role, administrative bureaucracy, status based on job title, and task importance. To put it broadly, people with more power in these relationships definitely assume a leadership role in organizations. In the study,

Olivia's, Sophia's, and Vicky's incidents are strongly influenced by their bosses' power. Olivia's and Sophia's bosses wanted them to implement programs that they did not believe to be necessary. Vicky's boss cut the budget for her program without explanation. Olivia, Sophia, and Vicky had negative feelings about their incidents. These cases imply that there are issues concerned with ethical leadership and ethical planning in the context of asymmetrical power relationships at the planning table. If we were in Olivia's, Sophia's, and Vicky's shoes, what would we think of the decisions that their bosses made?

With regard to ethical leadership, according to De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009), the essence of ethical leadership is the element of social responsibility concerning the use of power. De Hoogh and Den Hartog explain, "The socially responsible use of power would suggest that ethical leaders make principled and fair choices, act with integrity, are trustworthy and honest, do not practice favoritism, treat others with respect, and structure work environments justly" (p. 342). Additionally, ethical leaders should allow followers to have a voice and a share of the power. In addition, Kanungo (2001) believes that leaders' acts must stem from the leaders' altruistic rather than egoistic motives. However, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) add that some underlying motives may be mixed and not always easy to ascertain. Moreover, Gegax (2007) emphasizes "environmental stewardship" (p. 73)—an ethical leader's moral responsibility to protect our natural resources.

With regard to ethical planning, according to Cervero and Wilson (2006), judgment is based on ethical commitments that people bring to the planning table about what possible futures should be and how they can be achieved through education. In addition, the ethical commitment to substantively democratic planning means that all people who are affected by an educational program should be involved in the deliberation about what is important (Cervero & Wilson, 2006;

Apple, 1992), and "substantive democracy insists on the recognition that systems of power and privilege do not stop at the doors of the social and organizational contexts in which programs are offered" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 100). Based on these statements, planners need not only to invite opinions from most people who are affected by an educational program but also to create a situation in which stakeholders with the most power hardly dominate planning interests. According to the principles mentioned above, we can easily judge whether Olivia's, Sophia's, and Vicky's bosses are ethical leaders and ethical planners. To provide the best educational programs to improve adults' life chances and values in the real world, planners not only need to follow planning theories, the guidance, but also need to be aware of political and educational contexts with a good sense of ethical leadership and ethical planning to evaluate their own interests and to judge the interests of others in real-life ambiguous contexts and asymmetrical power relationships.

Recommendations for Future Research

Four recommendations for future research are made based on the findings of the study. First, this study explored influential types of power and negotiation strategies in the context of asymmetrical power relationships regarding the planning of educational programs for adults. A quantitative investigation surveying adult program planners to determine how often they encounter asymmetrical power situations, what types of power they feel at the planning table, and how effective the negotiation strategies explored in this study are would provide valuable insights into educational power and politics in the field of adult education.

Second, the participants for the study were recruited in Georgia in the United States. In terms of geographic and cultural differences, would the findings be the same if the study had been conducted in another country? According to Thomas (2005),

> I/O psychologists, OD consultants, and those trained in HR work in a variety of settings such as large organizations, multinational and local consulting firms, colleges and universities, as well as for nonprofit agencies and local, state, and federal government…. Just as these practitioners work in a variety of settings, they also specialize in a variety of areas, including selection and placement, training and development, organizational development, performance measurement, and quality of work life. If you think about this list closely, you'll recognize that issues surrounding diversity impact every area. (p. 3)

In addition, Holst (2006) states that "The role and responsibility of critical adult educators must be to recognize the global transformation before us, and see the implications of the emerging new polarity on a world scale" (p. 49). Based on the trend of multicultural diversity and globalization, it would be worthwhile to conduct a comparative study in Asian countries, such as China, Japan, Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan, to identify similarities and differences between those countries and the United States.

Third, this qualitative study relied only on interviewing for gathering data. With regard to future studies, combining observation and document analysis in the study would help us find more detailed information by observing real meetings and tracing documents. For example, conversation analysis is a method for investigating the structure and process of social interaction between humans in real planning meetings by using video and/or audio recordings made from naturally occurring interactions (Perakyla, 2008). Document analysis allows researchers to analyze minutes of planning meetings to obtain more detailed and accurate data and to compare data from interviews. Such research would contribute more meaningful insights to planning practice than this study.

Fourth, this study focused on program planning in the field of education. Can the types of power and the negotiation strategies explored in the study be applied to different fields such as planning in the field of business? To contribute to the field of negotiation, for future studies, researcher should investigate the similarities and differences in power, politics, and negotiation between educational and business settings. In addition, today, educational business—providing supplemental individual training and development—is growing more and more popular in society, whereas educational planning for adults—running educational institutions, public or private—is trending toward commercialization and professionalization. Research that takes into account perspectives of concerns in the fields of education and business would add depth and dimension to our understanding of power, politics, and negotiation in both fields.

A Concluding Note

The idea of conducting this study was inspired by the research of Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2006), Goody and Kozoll (1995), Knox (1991), and White and Belt (1980)—most adult education administrators have relatively little formal power compared with administrators elsewhere within an organization. In addition, according to Cervero and Wilson (2006), "Ask adult educators about their role in their organizations and the answers routinely returned are 'I really don't have much influence on things,' 'I just do what I'm told,' or 'I really don't make any decisions that matter.'"(p. 191). These answers were in accordance with what I heard from the participants in most of the interviews for the study. Although we cannot say with absolute certainty that adult educators' marginality is definitely true, asymmetrical power situations are not unique for adult educators and organizational power plays a significant role when asymmetrical power situations happen. For this study, I was interested in what power source

influenced adult educators and how adult educators negotiated with more powerful stakeholders to enhance their own positions in asymmetrical power relationships.

As I reflect on the study, I ask myself a few questions. How significant are the outcomes of negotiation at the planning table? If the less powerful planners actually "win" the negotiation, so what? Does it improve society? What are the consequences if the more powerful stakeholders win the negotiation? If the less powerful planners violate ethical planning and win the negotiation, what will happen next? These concerns regarding the consequences of planning outcomes and ethical planning emerged while I conducted my research.

In Olivia's incident, her boss wanted her to implement a new educational program very similar to the one that had been running in their center. Let's examine what could have happened when she lost the negotiation with her boss. There are four possible scenarios: (a) Both programs could have been canceled due to insufficient registration; (b) the new program could have been canceled due to insufficient registration, but the enrollment in the original program might have dropped down to the minimum; (c) the original program could have been canceled due to insufficient registration, but the enrollment in the new program might have dropped down to the minimum; (d) both programs could have continued, but the enrollment might have reached the minimum number for a viable program. Scenario *a* indicates that the decision to implement a new program was unfair to those who wanted to attend the original program. Scenario *b* indicates that the quality of the course might have suffered because of the decreased class size and the diminished possibility of idea exchange and student interaction. Scenario *c* was even more unfair to those who wanted to attend the original program. Scenario *d* seems to be the one that Olivia described and indicates that there was unfairness to participants of both programs and that Olivia's continuing education center lost income. In addition, high cancellation rates might

have impacted credibility of the institution and the programs. Obviously, according to these scenarios, only the new program owner would benefit from the decision to implement the new program. However, neither Olivia, the center, nor the public would gain anything. Is anyone responsible for those who were affected unfairly?

I would like to emphasize the importance of ethical commitments and planning responsibly (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2006) because the consequences of negotiation at the planning table result from adult educators' social responsibility for society. Adult educators, concerned with equality, empowerment, justice, freedom, rights, and obligations (Sork, 1988) and equipped with expertise in the field of adult education, should play a key role during program planning in challenging privileged professionals to accept their social and ethical responsibilities. To achieve this goal, adult educators should benefit from the contributions this study makes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview One

1. Personal Background

- What is your academic background?
- How long have you been involved in educational program planning for adults?
- How long have you worked in your current position?
- What are your roles and responsibilities in this position?

2. Critical Incidents

Now I would like to ask you more specifically about your experience planning programs.

- Tell me about your general experience planning educational programs?
- Now please tell me about a time when you found yourself in a planning situation where you did not feel you had a lot of power.
    - What was the context for this planning event?
    - What was its purpose?
    - Who was involved? (no names but positions)
    - What happened at this meeting?
    - What role did you play in the planning process?
    - How did others respond to you?
    - How were they responding to each other?
    - What specific decisions or actions did you make during the planning process?
    - What effects did your decisions or actions have on that process?
    - Was it what you were expecting? If yes, how? If not, what did you think would happen?
    - What were the final results of the planning process?
    - How satisfied were you with those results?
    - What influence do you think you had on the process and results?
    - How did others influence the decisions you made?
    - Did you feel that any compromises were made in regards to where you wanted to go with the planning process?
    - Did you have to bring out a specific strategy to move the process forward? What happened that made you think this was necessary?
    - Do you wish you had done anything differently? If so, what?
    - What did you learn about negotiating in situations where power differences exist?
    - In other words, what might you have done differently in this same situation next time?

- Why did you choose to share this particular incident? What do you think it tells us about power dynamics during program planning?

Interview Two

Interview two will be used for follow up questions and clarifications of the critical incident shared and discussed in interview one.

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM

I agree to take part in a research study titled "Negotiation Strategies in the Context of Asymmetrical Political Relationships When Planning Educational Programs for Adults" which is being conducted by Sheng-yun Yang from the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy at the University of Georgia 706-542-3343 under the direction of Dr. Ronald M. Cervero, Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy, University of Georgia (706-542-2221). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information that can be identified as mine returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

- The purpose of the study is to explore negotiation strategies in asymmetrical power relationships when planning educational programs for adults to improve adult educators' negotiation capability at the planning table.
- The benefits for me are that I may reflect on the experiences that I have encountered at the planning table and how I develop my negotiation strategies in the process of planning. I also understand that my participation can assist educational program planners to develop programs efficiently and concern about less powerful individuals or groups. I may also request copies of reports from the study and learn about others' experiences in developing my capacity of negotiating at the planning table.
- If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:
  - I will be asked to participate in a two-round interview conducted by Sheng-yun Yang.
  - The interview for each round will last 30 to 60 minutes and the interval of each round of interview may be within two weeks depending on my availability.
  - The interview will take place in a convenient and comfortable setting for me and the meeting will be scheduled with me in advance and a copy of the interview questions will be made available to me upon request.
  - The conversation will focus on my experiences about developing educational programs in the culture of my organization, the challenges I faced, and the ways in which I had things done through the process of negotiation at the planning table.
  - Interviews will be audio-taped.
- No discomforts or stresses are expected. I understand that I can stop the interviews at any time if I do have any discomfort about the conversation.

- Any individually-identifiable information collected about me will be held confidential unless otherwise required by law. My identity will be protected by using a "fake name" and all data will be kept in a locked, secured location. Researchers will create a master list to link the pseudonym to the participant's identity. This master list will be destroyed as soon as the study is done. The principal investigator Dr. Cervero is responsible for maintaining all applicable protocol records for at least three years after completion of the study. These records include the copy of approved protocol, raw data, amendments, correspondence, transcripts, and signed consent forms. Completion of the study is signified by notification of project completion by the principal investigator Dr. Cervero to the Human Subjects Office. In addition, The recordings will be transcribed.
- The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at: 706-389-6119.

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Sig nature	Date

Telephone:706-389-6119
Email: shengyun@uga.edu

_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date

Telephone:706-389-6119
Email: shengyun@uga.edu

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.