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The relationship of contract attitudes to conflict-handling modes of elementary school principals.

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF
CONTRACT ATTITUDES TO CONFLICT-HANDLING MODES
OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

A Dissertation Presented

By

PAUL CARMINE GAGLIARDUCCI

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

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Education

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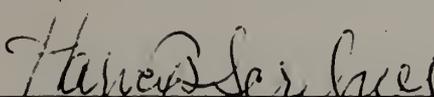
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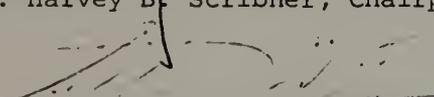
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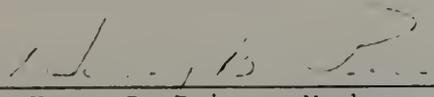
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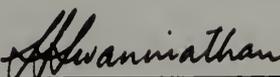
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Mario Fantini, Dean
School of Education

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DEDICATIONS

To my father, Anthony Gagliarducci, whose common
sense philosophy and high ideals have remained
with me always.

To my uncle, Vincent Gagliarducci, whose pursuit
of a similar goal was an inspiration throughout
my research.

To my wife, Jeanne, whose sacrifice, encouragement,
and love allowed me to accomplish this goal. I
shall always be grateful.

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Finally, God bless Elaine, Kara, and Monica for giving their dad
a hug when he needed it.

ABSTRACT

The Relationship of Contract Attitudes
to Conflict-Handling Modes of
Elementary School Principals

(May 1983)

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The major focus of this study was to determine what relationship, if any, existed between elementary school principals' attitudes toward the teacher collective bargaining agreement and their conflict-handling modes. Seventy-one principals from the four counties in Western Massachusetts responded to a contract attitude questionnaire developed for the study. Twenty principals were then selected to be interviewed and to respond to The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The analysis of the data compared the principals' contract attitudes and conflict modes by grouping them by (a) positive and negative attitudes, and (b) dominant conflict modes categorized as effective (collaboration and compromise) or less effective (competing, avoidance, and accommodation).

The findings of the study led to the following conclusions:

1) The principals who participated in the study perceived the following to be true:

    a. The contract has affected their role, function, and power. The effects were viewed as both positive and negative.

b. The contract has affected the principal/staff
    relationship and the conflict resolution process.

c. Principals are not comfortable within their role
    as contract administrator. The positive attitude
    principals, however, were more comfortable than
    those principals who held negative attitudes.

d. Principals do not believe, however, that this role
    has increased conflict with staff members.

2) Attitudes and perceptions toward the contract tend to be
related to conflict-handling modes:

a. Principals who exhibit a positive attitude tend
    to utilize collaboration and compromise more
    often than principals with negative attitudes.

b. Principals who exhibit a negative attitude tend
    to utilize avoidance more than principals with
    positive attitudes.

Recommendations in the study indicated a need to assist elementary
school principals to increase their awareness of the implications of
the contract to (a) develop or improve skills in contract administra-
tion, and (b) develop or improve skills necessary for effective con-
flict management.

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Statement of Problem

The employer-employee relationship in America's public schools dra-
matically changed with the advent of collective bargaining for teachers.
As Andree (1970:3) predicted, "The bargaining for contracts and policy-
making power by public school teachers with their school boards will
become the most vibrant and dynamic focal point for change in the
1970's." Organizations were redesigned in order that administrators
could maintain the power and influence in such areas as contracts and
policy as well as planning and supervision. Oram (1958:13) points out
that,

> decisions reached at the bargaining table concern
> every aspect of the management function...and
> even more challenging is the fact that today's
> collective bargaining decisions are inevitably
> of a long-range character with consequences that
> extend far into the future.

Within the public school bureaucracy, this impact has led to a
redefinition of many administrative positions including that of the
elementary school principal. Responsibilities, functions, and job
descriptions have been constantly examined and altered to meet the
challenges of the collective bargaining unit. Slichter, Healy, and
Livernash (1960:4-5) state that "all decisions and many others are af-
fected by unions and the labor-management contract. In addition
1) they alter the process of decision-making by management, either by
direct restriction upon the process or by their indirect influence,

1

and 2) they affect the execution of management policies by subjecting the plant administration to organized scrutiny and criticism."

The elementary principal has felt confusion, ambiguity, and mis-understanding with regard to functions within the collective bargaining process and the subsequent contract. Debate and controversy abounded in educational literature during the '70's. Today, the one thing most agreed upon is that change has occurred in such areas as leadership, role, administrative functions, power, authority, future direction, and position within the organization. (See Perry and Wildman, 1970:219; Weldy, 1979:13; Hencley, McCleary, and McGrath, 1970:9; and Cunningham, 1969:263.)

As a result, some principals have formed bargaining units to fore-stall what they consider an erosion of their position and power base. Others have become directly involved with the bargaining process as members of the administrative team. Conversely, some principals have allowed the change to reduce their position to nothing more than that of an administrative paper shuffler, and "keeper of the keys" (Cronin, 1969:123).

Critical to the research of this project is the evidence that in-dicates the principal's role in collective bargaining has been serious-ly neglected in the area of personnel relations (Andree, 1970:69). Since this role has been in a constant state of flux, the principal, according to Cunningham (1969:265-270), is obliged by the advent of collective bargaining to examine the factors that affect his position and then to act accordingly.

Andree (1970:69) contends that the principal can become a key person in negotiation. He believes that the principal will be pushed into a new role for his own survival because the voter will demand aggressive administrators who are adroit and skillful in methods of personnel supervision. What form the new role will take is dependent on the objectives of the system and often the philosophy of the school board or superintendent. Lieberman (1969:12) believes that prior to implementation of the contract, a principal should at least be informed of new central office interpretations of language and should also be updated as to contract provision and pertinent contract-related litigations. Weldy (1979:32) extends the role further by stating:

> A board of education must call upon administrators to develop its bargaining positions and to help reconcile differences with teachers without abdicating its control and without 'giving away' the administration of the school.

If these developments take place, then, the collective bargaining agreement should help to create a more powerful principal who need not fear the loss of authority.

The issue of role is complex and at least two conflicts must be resolved: 1) placement of the elementary principal within the management organization, and 2) the role of the principal in the daily implementation of the contract (Palin, 1975:77) states:

> It is futile to deny, these days, that these administrators are 'management,' and as such, they have much at stake in the bargaining. More than that, it would seem that they have a responsibility to represent management's position and to render what assistance they can, if negotiations are really to be carried out in good faith.

Shils and Whittier (1968:167) add:

> Principals have to be included since they will
> have to administer the contract in the schools
> and are in the best position of discounting the
> impact of demand on school administration.

Michaels (1976:25) suggests that the principal is more often
placed with management than with the teaching staff. He is expected to
fulfill the policy of the school board via the dictates of the superin-
tendent (Ford, 1980:38). His involvement with staff supervision and
personnel relations is increasing. This change in direction need not
be viewed as a relinquishing of instructional expertise. Ford (1980:
42-43) states that contract language tends to limit the principal's ac-
tions and, as a result, has placed him more directly with management.
He further states that contract management can be combined with instruc-
tional leadership. Bowers (1976:1) has written about the importance of
contract administration as a prerequisite to sound personnel relations:

> Negotiations and administration are the main com-
> ponents of a collective bargaining relationship.
> A negotiated agreement provides the conceptual
> framework for a labor-management relationship,
> while administration is a continuous process
> which gives life to an agreement. The functions
> of implementating, interpreting, and monitoring
> contract provisions on a daily basis are integral
> parts of the administrative process.
>
> The extent to which there is harmony or conflict
> between labor and management is strongly influ-
> enced by the quality of administration.

If administrators are to be effective, they require new skills.
One skill that bears closely upon this study is the method of dealing
with administrator/staff based conflicts. Commonly, collective bar-
gaining agreements contain language to deal with conflicts and detail

procedures to aid in their resolution. These grievance clauses or pro-
visions were developed as an arena for discussing mutual concerns and
defining or clarifying contract language (Weldy, 1979:32). Lieberman
(1969:15) indicates that at the first level of grievance, usually the
building principal, most grievances can be resolved. Confrontation and
resolution prior to entering a formal grievance process, are critical
to quality contract administration. Conflict-handling skills may be
used to create effective climates in which mutual understanding and pur-
poseful communication exist. The ability to exhibit conflict-handling
skills then becomes an essential component of the principal's leader-
ship skills.

As a contract manager, the principal, by role and function, is
directly affected by conflict with staff members (Faber and Shearron,
1970:349-351). He is responsible to interpret, implement, and enforce
contract provisions, a fact which dramatically increases the opportunity
for conflict situations. It is the method that the principal chooses
which often determines the successful administration of the contract.
In short, as Andree (1970:77) states:

> Collective bargaining among school employees is
> here now, to stay. The most important contributor
> to successful negotiation of conflict area is the
> principal of the school. It is he who deals with
> these problems of conflict almost daily, who un-
> derstands what can and must be done. He becomes
> the chief administrative contributor to the dia-
> logue that must resolve these problems. He is
> the school board's best resource for that resolu-
> tion.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to:

1) identify and assess attitudes of elementary school principals
   regarding the teachers' collective bargaining agreement as
   it relates to the principals' role, function, and perception
   of power;

2) determine the conflict-handling modes utilized by principals
   who perceived either negative or positive effects of the
   contract on the principalship; and

3) investigate the relationship of the conflict-handling modes
   to the attitudes toward the contract expressed by the
   principals.

Significance of Study

The basis for the inquiry is guided by the following concepts:

1) Conflict is an inevitable force that must be dealt with in
   some manner. It is a major component of human relations
   and acts as either a positive building tool or a destructive
   device (Bailey, 1971:234).

2) The collective bargaining agreement for teachers has had
   considerable impact upon school administration. Although
   the elementary school principal was not considered an
   integral contributor to the process in the early years,
   recent discussions have addressed the problem (Randles,
   1975:57). Differences of opinion abound; nevertheless,

today the principal is seen as a manager of the contract,
a position that he may be unprepared to accept.

3) The management of conflicts arising from terms of the con-
tract is only one function under the broader term of leader-
ship. As contract administration becomes a more specified
task of the principal, how then does he confront conflicts
that rise from contract provisions and prescribed bargained
guidelines? Is the methodology that the principal exhibits
related to leadership behavior?

The study of attitudes of elementary school principals toward the
contract and the principal's use of conflict-handling modes is an ex-
tension of several past studies; however, this particular study is di-
rected at one specific phase of the principal's duties, i.e., contract
administration. Researchers and students have attempted to assess the
effect of the contract upon the entire range of a principal's function.
Central to many has been the question as to whether the principal should
be included as a member of the bargaining team. In other studies, how-
ever, concepts have emerged concerning the significance of leadership
behavior, conflict-management, and contract administration. Hamel
(1980) concluded that collective bargaining led to a significant change
in the perception of principal and staff relations. Sargent (1980) in
a similar study concluded that collective bargaining had hindered per-
sonnel supervision. St. James (1980) found that principals perceived a
loss of power and felt the need for additional training in order to
cope with the new responsibility. McCobb (1979) discovered that

principals felt ambiguous about their role; he also concluded that they performed contract administration duties more often than their superintendent. Davis (1979) stated that, depending on the contract type (i.e., management-oriented or labor-oriented), a principal's leadership behavior directly affected staff members. Johnson (1981) found that contract stipulations were perceived to affect the principal especially in the areas of personnel management. Garnier (1981) concluded that perceptions of effective conflict handling modes coincided with established theories, i.e., those modes or styles that were proposed as being effective were perceived as effective.

The works by Wahlund (1970) and Janes (1980) impact the basis of this project more specifically. Wahlund's study concerned the use of conflict management strategies by elementary school principals. Two groups were compared for analysis. One group was labeled as being effective, the other was a random selection. Wahlund concluded that effective principals utilized a more participatory type strategy than did the principals from the random group. Janes' work involved the assessment of effects of the contract on principals in the State of Illinois. Surveying principals, superintendents and school board members, he concluded that the contract has had a negative effect on the functions of the principal and contract administration is a desirable role within the collective bargaining process.

This study is predicated on the premise that effective conflict management involves a set of skills that can be learned, and that a distinct need exists to train administrators in areas relating to more

positive contract administration. A complement of skills and techniques relating to the contract and conflict, in turn, affects the leadership role of the principal. Such a role is vital to positive employee relationships and successful learning environments. This researcher believes the time has come to place the elementary school principal squarely in a managerial oriented role. Such a role should be clearly acknowledged within a school system's organization. The principal can then develop clear and unambiguous relationships with staff members in regard to supervision and contract administration.

The proposed study has as its focus five null hypotheses stated as follows:

1) Elementary school principals do not perceive an effect upon their role, functions, and power from the collective bargaining agreement of teachers.

2) The contract has not affected the relationship of principals and staff as it relates to supervision and conflict resolution as perceived by elementary school principals.

3) Elementary school principals do not perceive themselves as being comfortable within the role of contract administrator.

4) Attitudes and perceptions toward the collective bargaining agreement have no relationship to the conflict management styles utilized by elementary school principals.

5) Principals who can be categorized as effective handlers of conflict as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument do not exhibit positive attitudes toward the contract.

Design and Methodology

Design.

1) A questionnaire instrument (Appendix A) will be constructed following a review of studies relating to perceptions and attitudes of the contract by elementary school principals.

2) A pilot test will be conducted with the instrument involving elementary principals not included in the population.

3) The instrument will be redesigned based on the findings and suggestions from the pilot study.

4) The questionnaire will then be mailed to the population.

5) A follow-up reminder will be sent to each respondent approximately two weeks after the initial mailing.

6) Evaluation of the responses will be conducted to select a total of twenty principals who will undergo an interview procedure which includes responding to the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (Appendix B).

7) The data from the questionnaire, interview, and conflict instrument will be recorded and analyzed.

Methodology. The research methodology appropriate for the study requires sufficient flexibility to encompass both statistical data and in-depth narrative information. The use of qualitative and quantitative methods appears to accomplish this goal as it will permit the researcher to examine the complexities of the problem. Light and Pillermer (1982:3) state:

Our central theme is that by organizing the
strengths and weaknesses of differing kinds of
studies, the most valuable syntheses will make
use of both quantitative and qualitative infor-
mation. We do not view these two approaches
as competitors, or even as competing ideals with
a trade-off.

Adding further:

We believe that the arguments about the superi-
ority of quantitative versus qualitative reviews
lead nowhere. An 'either-or' position is neither
necessary nor productive. Quantitative synthesis
offers a number of statistical tools that a re-
viewer can use to organize conclusions based on
outcomes of many studies. Using quantitative
techniques does not reduce the value of careful
program descriptions, case studies, narrative re-
ports, or expert judgment. It is the reviewer
who specifies that questions are worth asking,
and who must then match these questions to what-
ever information is most likely to provide use-
ful answers (Light and Pillermer, 1982:6).

Instrumentation

The data in the study will be gathered by means of three techniques

representing qualitative and quantitative methods. The Thomas-Kilmann

Conflict Mode Instrument will be administered to twenty principals to

determine their conflict-handling behaviors.[1] This instrument places

an individual in a position on a grid, which is constructed on a 9x9

scale that correlates "degree of assertiveness or cooperation" (Thomas

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[1]For discussion on validity see Kilmann, Ralph H. and Thomas,
Kenneth W. Developing a force-choice measure of conflict-handling
behavior: The Mode-Instrument. Educational and Psychological Advance-
ment, 1967.

and Kilmann, 1976) or "concern for the individual vs. concern for the organization" (Blake and Mouton, 1978). Each subject will then be classified in five areas that relate to conflict resolution: avoidance (1,1); competition (9,1); compromise (5,5); accommodation (1,9); and collaboration (9,9) (Kilmann and Thomas, 1977). During the analysis of data, the subjects' conflict-handling modes will be correlated with the attitudes and perceptions expressed toward the collective bargaining agreements.

A questionnaire consisting of closed items will be utililized to gather the information about perceptions of and attitudes toward the contract by the principals. The responses to each item are rated on a 5-point Likert scale of agreement to disagreement (Mouly, 1970:299). The design of the items will specifically elicit information on how the principal views changes in his job (i.e., role, functions, and power), his relationship with staff, and the conflict management process as affected by the collective bargaining agreement. From the data collected, each subject will be categorized according to the degree of positive or negative responses.

Finally, the researcher will conduct a semi-structured interview (Patton, 1980:198; Bogdon and Taylor, 1975:99) to probe more fully the

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The use of the grid as a method to plot an individual's conflict mode is not exclusive to Thomas and Kilmann or Blake and Mouton. Others have developed similar grids and terminology. A discussion of these various theoretical approaches will be presented in Chapter II of this study.

personal perceptions of the subjects. Using a preselected group of questionnaire responses and a standardized approach to gain further insight, he will encourage non-standardized dialogue as well. The broad picture that should emerge from the use of a combination of methods will help the researcher to make a meaningful analysis of the data and draw significant conclusions from it.

Both questionnaire and interview methods are used in the study. The questionnaire method is useful to determine a more specific population of the sample by classification (Good, 1966:220). The interview, on the other hand, provides clues to the attitudes and perceptions of the principals (Good, 1966:229). Further, the depth of the responses from the questionnaire aids in analyzing the data and forming specific conclusions. Despite the fact that each procedure has its advantages and disadvantages (Mouly, 1970:241-275; Good, 1966:213-242), the use of the two make possible the discovery of valid and credible data.

Study Population

Criteria. All subjects in the study must meet two criteria:

1) Each shall be presently working with staff members covered by a system-wide collective bargaining agreement.

2) Each must have at least five years experience as an elementary school principal. The five-year minimum provides, (a) ample time for developing managerial skills and styles, (b) the opportunity to experience a wide range of situations, (c) acquaintance with administration as it exists within the

collective bargaining agreement, and (d) experience with the growing militancy from teacher organizations at the elementary level witnessed in the Western Massachusetts area.

Sample selection. The ultimate aim of the research project is to examine the relationship of contract attitudes to conflict-handling techniques of twenty elementary school principals. To secure a valid research group of this number:

1) one hundred elementary school principals will be contacted from the Western Massachusetts area;

2) each subject will be asked to respond to items on a questionnaire concerning negative or positive perceptions of the influence of the collective bargaining agreement on the elementary school principalship;

3) each subject will also respond to a list of demographic information focusing on sex, age, size of school, school setting, length of educational service, status of teacher contract, and principal's membership in a bargaining unit;

4) only those districts known to be involved in collective bargaining will be contacted. Determination of these districts will be made after consultation with Massachusetts Department of Education information or by direct contact with the school districts. The research will focus on the larger urban and suburban school systems in the area. Smaller rural systems will be omitted due to a greater possibility that collective bargaining agreements will not exist.

Pilot sample. The questionnaire will be pilot tested on a group of principals not included in the study but from the same geographic area. All subjects must meet the same criteria as the study population. A number of the pilot subjects will also be given the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and be interviewed by the researcher. The procedure should provide: (a) feedback on the questionnaire, (b) help determine that a correlation exists between contract attitudes and conflict-handling styles, and (c) enable the researcher to practice interview techniques.

Analysis of Data

The following procedures will be implemented in the study:

1) The analysis of the data includes a comparison of question-naire results with the conflict styles determined by the Thomas-Kilmann test. The comparison is accomplished by utilizing:

   a. Mann-Whitney U-Test - to measure the significance of the differences between the negative and positive scores;

   b. T-Test - to determine the significance of response score means between groups;

   c. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients Test - to determine the difference in response frequency from the positive to negative groups;

   d. Chi-Square Test - to discover the patterns of response from the questionnaire items and interview responses.

(Due to the experimental nature of the study statistically
significant scores are determined at these levels: $p < .01$;
.05 and .1)

2) A semi-structured interview proposed in the methodology will

provide further evidence in support of the data and will aid

the researcher to draw conclusions and make recommendations.

As stated by Patton:

> Qualitative data provide depth and detail. Depth
> and detail emerge through direct quotation and
> careful description. The extent of depth and de-
> tail will vary depending upon the nature and pur-
> pose of a particular study (Patton, 1980:22).

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined operationally for use in the pro-
posed study:

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING. The process of mutual discussion between
labor and management concerning wages, benefits, and working
conditions.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENT. The end result of the bargain-
ing process wherein both parties sign a contract stating specific
language governing management and employee rights and responsi-
bilities.

CONFLICT. A situation in which a dispute, confrontation, or dis-
agreement requires a solution on a mutually acceptable basis.

CONFLICT-HANDLING MODE. The method or skill utilized by an
individual when confronting a conflict situation. Measured by
the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, five specific areas
are identified: collaboration, accommodation, avoidance, compro-
mise and competing.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT. The process by which an individual deals with a conflict situation. Whether or not the conflict is resolved depends on the individual's conflict-handling mode.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION. The elimination of the conflict situation by a method that is mutually acceptable to both parties. Conflict resolution is an integral component of conflict management.

CONTRACT ADMINISTRATION. The principal's responsibility to interpret, implement, and enforce the collective bargaining agreement (contract). Such action may come from self-initiative, superintendent directives, or school committee policy.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. A learning center which contains any combination of grade levels below 7 to kindergarten that include K through 6.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL. The chief administrative officer of an elementary school. In the proposed study the principal shall be referred to in the male gender.

GRIEVANCE PROCEDURE. The provision in the collective bargaining agreement utilized to formally settle a conflict situation arising usually from misuse of improper interpretation of contract language.

Limitations

The limitations of the study are:

1) The study population is limited to the Western Massachusetts geographical area.

2) The study assumes that principals are involved in contract administration; some principals may not have job descriptions that allow for this function.

3) In school systems that are undergoing contract difficulties, tensions increase between staff members and principals and may affect present attitudes.

4) Principals categorized as effective or less-effective handlers of conflict illustrate a bias of the researcher based on the concepts of Blake and Mouton who advocate "collaboration" or "compromise" as desired conflict-handling strategies.

5) Principals labeled as positive or negative indicate only the attitudes toward the contract and not a level of performance or success within the school building.

6) Staff members have not been consulted for their perceptions of the conflict-handling mode of their principal.

7) The investigator assumes that the principals will be candid in their responses to the questionnaire and follow-up interview.

8) The instruments utilized in the study seek responses that are attitudinal and percepts of behavior. The actual performance of the subjects was not measured, therefore, an element of bias from the subject may exist.

9) The questionnaire developed in the project is open to criticism with regard to validity although pilot tests and revisions were conducted.

Organization of Study

The study will be divided into five chapters. Chapter I presents the statement of the problem, purpose, significance, design and methodology, population, definitions of significant terms, and limitations.

A review of the literature of related topics that will focus on the evolution of the elementary principalship, growth of collective bargaining, leadership and conflict theory, and related management strategies appears in Chapter II.

Chapter III provides a description of the methodology and research instruments used in the study.

Analysis and presentation of the data is found in Chapter IV.

Chapter V concludes the study and consists of the conclusions and recommendations developed from the data.

C H A P T E R   I I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The position of the elementary school principal within the educa-
tional organization has been changing and evolving ever since its in-
ception during the mid-19th century. In the process the role, func-
tion, and organizational perceptions of the principalship have been
continually defined and redefined. There still exists today a variety
of external and internal forces that influence the nature of the princi-
palship. Having considerable impact and importance within this scheme,
the collective bargaining agreement between the teacher union and the
school board has produced a change in direction for the principal (Perry
and Wildman, 1970:219).

Pedagogical history records that the principal in the elementary
school was considered first a teacher and then an administrator as he
performed his daily functions. Control over the educational process
was left to lay people (Snyder and Peterson, 1969:7). The trend con-
tinued until the early 1900's when the administrator was released from
teaching as a primary function. As his responsibility increased, the
principal's daily tasks were now more than just an exercise in clerical
orchestration.

The scope of his job steadily widened; then World War II helped to
usher in a new era of importance. The school became increasingly a
focal point for the community, and there was greater reliance on the

principal to help provide leadership for new programs conceived to meet changing societal needs (Snyder and Peterson, 1969:9).

A decade of growth followed, which paralleled the development of the collective bargaining movement of teachers. Having roots in the large urban areas, teacher unions began to assert their power in order to gain impact on the decision-making process and the determination of their working conditions. The movement had a negative effect upon the position of the elementary principal as the effort to delimit his power and responsibility took a firm hold. At the bargaining table there was a systematic removal of the duties of the administrator, which soon led to his alienation from the teacher (Snyder and Peterson, 1969:15). The situation prevails even today. As Cronin states in an article concerning post-contractual considerations:

> The negotiation process should compel boards to review their expectations of the principal and to redefine his role. At present he is rapidly becoming little more than 'the man in charge of keys, custodians, and kids in trouble' (Cronin, 1969:123).

Becker et al. (1971:152) state that the process has stirred confusion and resentment among principals. They quote a principal who feels that "in ten years the role of the principal will be one of supervisor, much as what is now used in the foreman-employee relationship, due to the influence of unions and professional organizations."

The direction that the principalship will take in the future with regard to the contract is a critical issue. The intent of this review is to examine the issue by focusing on the following areas:

1) a chronological development of the principal's role in the educational process beginning in the colonial period, moving to his emergence as an influential member of the institution, and concluding with current perceptions of his role and function;

2) a review of the histories of the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers and how their development has represented the collective bargaining movement in education;

3) a discussion of current and future contract-related issues that impact the principalship;

4) an examination of the relationship of conflict management and leadership behaviors.

The basis for this review rests with an assumption that principals must begin to redefine their roles and address questions concerning leadership and conflict management styles as they relate to the effects of the collective bargaining agreement. They may discover that contract management can become a productive area of activity. As McGowan (1976: 16) states, "The collective bargaining agreement can represent a creative challenge; the principal who understands its concepts can develop strategies and techniques to implement contract language." Johnson (1981:83) concluded in her study of collective bargaining's impact on the principal that "although collective bargaining has made it more difficult for these principals to manage their schools effectively and provide conditions for effective instruction, it remained possible for them to do so."

<u>The Elementary School Principal--</u>
<u>A Historical Review</u>

The evolution of the elementary school principal's role has close-
ly paralleled the growth patterns of public schools in general. A re-
view of the history indicates that as schools gained importance in so-
ciety, the principal emerged as a significant contributor to the educa-
tional process. When the institution came under attack by critics, the
principalship's function and role were also questioned. The shift in
perspective has often led to confusion and resulted in the principal's
search for identity within the organization. Faber and Shearron (1970:
332) indicate that the principalship has been affected by such factors
as:

    1) the changing values of American culture,

    2) changing theory and practices of the administrator, and

    3) a changing elementary school.

In short, as public schools changed to meet the needs of society, so
has the nature of the principalship.

The early schools were essentially private or church institutions
(Campbell et al., 1980:9). About 1800, however, came a demand for pub-
lic education. Thomas Jefferson was among the first to propose a system
of free public elementary schools (Campbell et al., 1980:9). Eventually,
through efforts of people such as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, small
community, one-room school houses became common throughout the country
(Campbell et al., 1980:9).

These school buildings were usually staffed by one teacher who
assumed responsibilities for instruction as well as what could be

considered administrative tasks. However, actual policy-making and
educational leadership remained under the control of lay people
(Snyder and Peterson, 1969:7).

In large urban areas the elementary school experienced significant
growth during this time. As the population increased, one-room school-
houses grew to multi-unit buildings. The number of teachers per build-
ing increased dramatically, a situation which led to a delineation of
power between the teachers and the lay people (Campbell et al., 1980:
10). In Boston, for instance, 190 lay trustees supervised the elemen-
tary schools; and, in Philadelphia, 24 ward boards had control over 92
schools (Knezevich, 1975:381).

Early problems. Still, complex problems plagued the urban school sys-
tem. Reformers pressed the need of full-time professionals to manage
the school system; the answer was the school principal (Knezevich,
1975:381). Boston, Cincinnati, and St. Louis were, in the mid-1800's,
the first cities to institute the position of principal in their ele-
mentary schools (Campbell et al., 1980:98). Other solutions were also
sought to ease the problems faced by urban systems. One solution was
to increase the number of one-room schoolhouses; another was to insti-
tute a double-headed system with a grammar master and a writing master
to teach prescribed subjects (Knezevich, 1975:382). With the unifica-
tion of all school departments under a single head, the school principal
became the initial component of a full-time professional bureaucracy in
education (Butts, 1978:98).

The principalship was still primarily concerned with instruction, however, and remained so until the 1870's when more large cities began to release the principal-teacher from instructional duties (Knezevich, 1975:383). Some early functions included discipline, regulation of instruction, maintenance of the building, supervision of staff, and classification of students. These job descriptions, however, differed from one community to the next (Knezevich, 1975:383). Many principals became content to utilize their time with routine tasks only, as they served the dictates of the central office staff (Goldman, 1966:4). Except for a few individuals who attempted to bring innovation to the position, the principalship was not evolving with much distinction or importance (Goldman, 1966:4). In the beginning of the 20th century, the principalship of the elementary school began to receive significant recognition as a possible source of leadership within the institution.

Trends toward administration. Initially, there was a trend toward formalized training for teachers and administrators in the country especially in Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York (Monroe, 1971: 365). For instance, as early as 1898, Teachers' College at Columbia offered seminars in school administration (Callahan, 1962:15). Men like Spaulding and Cubberly became leaders in the attempt to bring the principalship to the professional status that was held by doctors, lawyers, and businessmen (Callahan, 1962:190).

Second, because school systems had grown so large, lay school board members could no longer afford to devote the needed time to supervise and direct the policies of the community for schools (Marks, Stoops and

Stoops, 1978:10). Increasingly it became the responsibility of the professional to make educational policy and determine system-wide philosophies.

A third important development occurred in 1920, when a group of principals formed a national organization within the established National Education Association. The Association of Elementary Principals was concerned with advancing the principalship in terms of significant role and functions. Utilizing the national group as a vehicle of communication, principals spread their message throughout the country by means of professional magazines and journals (Jacobson, Reavis and Logan, 1965:500).

A fourth factor in this process was the recognition by the community that the principal represented more than just the disciplinarian of the school. There were accounts of principals reaching out into the community to provide preventive health care services, to set up programs to combat truancy, and to help in the war effort during World War I (Jacobson, Reavis and Logan, 1965:498).

Finally, during the period when management and administrative theory evolved, the principalship became recognized as a management function. As American industry came under the stopwatch of Frederick Taylor, so did the public school. Men like Spaulding and Bobbitt extolled Taylor's efforts to promote efficiency. In schools, standards were adopted that prescribed techniques for instruction and classroom management. Principals were then held accountable for the achievement of students under these programs. Efficiency became a common evaluative tool

when principals were compared at the conclusion of grading terms
(Callahan, 1962:188-190).

Principalship comes of age. During the Depression years and World War
II, the principalship continued to grow. As communities looked toward
schools for help in meeting their needs, the principal emerged as a
significant leader. Only during the last 25 years, however, has the
elementary principal been recognized as a resource that could serve both
the educational institutions and the public. In 1958, the federal gov-
ernment passed the National Education Act, the purpose of which was to
improve the level of education in the nation's schools so that the
United States could compete with the achievements of the Soviet Union.
Specifically mentioned in the bill, elementary school principals were
called upon to help solve curriculum problems at the elementary level
(Snyder and Peterson, 1969:10). At this same time, surveys indicated
that elementary school principals were not involved in such tasks as
instructional supervision, curriculum development, decisions about
instructional methods and materials, budget-making, supervision of
pupil and staff personnel, district-wide policy-making, and planning for
educational change (Hencley, McCleary and McGrath, 1970:9).

The 1960's saw substantial growth of the principalship. Surveys
indicated that, more than ever before, the principal could be identi-
fied in terms of supervisory functions. Moreover, a profile report of
the National Association of Elementary School Principals reported that
the typical principal was a more qualified individual than ever before
(Knezevich, 1975:384).

Functions and roles of the principals still varied through-
out the nation's public schools. Contributing to this lack of consis-
tency were such factors as geographical location, building size, com-
munity philosophy, budgetary restraints, and lack of legal status
(Hencley, McCleary and McGrath, 1970:1-7). Many administrators, for
instance, felt during the 60's that litigation by students, parents,
and teachers seriously undermined their authority and altered the power
structure (King, 1979:3). Utilizing the political process, they began
to convince state legislatures to define the principal's rights and
functions by statute.

In 1971 and 1976, two surveys indicated that principals had suc-
cessfully achieved this goal in a number of states. These statutes
identified functions that were clearly within the scope of the princi-
palship and helped to outline powers and duties. A New York statute
contained an introduction that cited the need "...to insure that schools
respond efficiently and effectively to the changing needs of students...
it is important that the role of the building principal be defined."
In states that adopted them, such laws (a) delineated the relationship
of the principal to the superintendent; (b) placed the principals in a
clear leadership role within the school building; (c) provided the
principal with power to make recommendations concerning appointments,
assignments, promotions, transfers, and dismissals of personnel; and
(d) gave the principals responsibility for planning, managing and eval-
uating the total educational process of the school (King, 1979:6-12).

Summary. The principalship, which was slow to evolve as a position of significance, has been viewed with a great deal of skepticism. Until recently, roles, functions and responsibilities were unclear. Even today, the status of the principal within the organization remains a question. Since he has strong ties to the instructional role of the past, the principal has not been fully accepted as a member of the management team. Conversely, teachers typically view the position as a distinct arm of the school board (Snyder and Peterson, 1969:22). These attitudes have caused alienation and resentment in many systems. The principal's position has been affected by a number of social, political, and economic factors. Among these, the collective bargaining movement has had a significant impact.

The Collective Bargaining Movement in American Education

The need to organize appears to be a natural instinct of man's social behavior. Aristotle claimed that man was a "political animal" who desired group companionship as a natural process. History records that there were frequent attempts by workers to join together for common gains and purposes. The temple builders of Ancient Mesopotamia and the craft guilds of the Medieval period are examples of early unionization in the world.

Not unlike other working groups, educators in America followed the natural tendency to form groups. This process began in the mid-1800's at the state level (Perry and Wildman, 1970:3). From these merger

beginnings the educational labor movement has evolved into a powerful, influential force in the nation's socio-political system.

At the forefront of the movement are two organizations: the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association. Although they expound similar goals and purposes, their co-existence has been marked by a constant rivalry to gain the loyalty of the American teacher. Traditionally, the NEA has had a flexible membership comprised of all levels of the educational organization. The AFT, on the other hand, has been made up of those at the level of instruction, i.e., teachers, nurses, aides, and para-professionals (Lieberman and Moskow, 1966:126-127). The type of membership is only one of the many differences between the two unions. A discussion of these differences in the context of the history of each organization will shed light upon the growth of the collective bargaining movement.

The National Education Association. A small group of administrators gathered in Philadelphia to form the National Teachers Association in 1857 (Cresswell, Murphy and Kerchner, 1980:58). Daniel Hagar, president of the Massachusetts Teachers Association wrote these words to express the group's purpose: "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of public education in the United States" (West, 1980:1). Thirteen years later the organization, joining with the National Association of School Superintendents and the American Normal School Association, became known as the National Education Association (West, 1980:2).

During its first forty years, the main activity of the group was to set up conventions as a forum for educational issues and problems of the day; among the topics were educational philosophy and theory, standards for high schools and colleges, and the development of manual and technical schools (West, 1980:3). Salaries and working conditions were considered secondary to the service functions performed by the teacher and, therefore, were rarely discussed (Perry and Wildman, 1970: 9).

At the turn of the century, however, the NEA gave its first evidence of concern for teacher welfare. In 1903, a Committee for Teachers' Salaries, Pension and Tenure was formed to research the plight of American teachers (Perry and Wildman, 1970:9). This committee was created as a response to the prodding of the fledgling Chicago Teacher Federation, which had been invited to attend the annual convention (Cresswell et al., 1980:63). The Chicago group hoped to influence the NEA to turn its attention toward teacher welfare but was only partially successful.

Once the NEA had completed its report on teacher welfare, several years elapsed before substantial interest in this subject was again shown. In 1912, a separate organization within the national group was formed to represent teachers, the Classroom Teachers' Association (Perry and Wildman, 1970:5). Although recognition had been granted to the problems of teachers, talk of trade unionism in education was still considered above the dignity of the profession. For example, records of speeches given at their gatherings reveal that the members of the NEA believed that society would be a just and fair protector of the welfare

of the teachers (Perry and Wildman, 1970:4). The leaders of the Chi-
cago federation soon discovered that such attitudes would not lead the
administratively controlled NEA into active support for teacher rights
or toward discussion of solution of social problems that were afflicting
the country at that time (Cresswell, et al., 1980:72).

The American Federation of Teachers. Again rejected in their efforts
to influence the NEA, members of the Chicago federation gathered with
eight locals, some of which had previous ties to labor unions, and formed
the American Federation of Teachers. They recognized the need to organ-
ize in order to aid teachers in their quest for better pay and improved
working conditions, and to address problems involving teacher grievances
against school boards and administrators. Their affiliation with organ-
ized labor reflected a significant change in posture from that of the
NEA and indicated a need to gain support and guidance from the estab-
lished private sector labor movement (Cresswell et al., 1980:72-73).

Shortly after formation of the AFT, membership in the organization
grew rapidly; soon both the AFT and the NEA were engaged in a clear
rivalry for dominance in public education. The effects of this situa-
tion would remain important throughout the history of both organizations.

During a three-year period, ending in 1919, the AFT's membership
increased more rapidly than had been anticipated by the NEA. Acting
decisively, the NEA formed a commission to promote membership and to
combat the growing trend toward labor-affiliated groups (Cresswell et
al., 1980:106). Administrators and school boards sympathetic to the
NEA began anti-union campaigns and utilized "yellow dog" contracts as a

means of discouraging the growth of the AFT (Perry and Wildman, 1970: 8). These attempts were largely successful until the Great Depression. During the 1930's teachers, like other workers in this country, suffered economic hardships. To gain economic protection and security, many again turned to the AFT for support, and membership grew (Perry and Wildman, 1970:8).

Growth and division. For the next thirty years, however, both the NEA and AFT sought simply to survive. Public support for education decreased significantly during the Depression. In Illinois, for example, per capita expenditures for students dropped nearly 25% as school systems shortened the school year, reduced salaries, and laid off employees (Cresswell et al., 1980:75).

While both teacher groups suffered decreased membership during this period, the AFT experienced problems that accounted for more reductions in their ranks. The AFL-CIO became involved in a national power struggle involving the entire labor movement. The Federation became divided on which side to favor, the rift eventually resulting in the dismissal of several local affiliates sympathetic to the CIO (Cresswell et al., 1980:77).

Another issue which also stymied growth was the suspicion of communists in the teacher labor movement. A concerted effort was launched by the AFT national headquarters to rid affiliates of communist members within the ranks (Cresswell et al., 1980:79).

Finally the AFT's image of a typical industrial labor group took form in the late 40's. In the tradition of "bread and butter" unions,

the AFT followed the organizational models developed by their parent
American Federation of Labor (Cresswell et al., 1980:78). In the years
to follow, this step toward unionism would prove to be a significant
difference from the NEA.

Also during the 40's, both organizations developed distinct iden-
tities, adopting different views on several key issues. Considerable
debate surrounded the issue of collective bargaining, which had gained
popularity and legal status in the private sector. In both organizations
affiliates used collective bargaining to gain contract agreements. The
AFT local in Cicero, Illinois, signed the first collective bargaining
agreement in 1944. In 1946, the Norwalk, Connecticut chapter of the
NEA attained official recognition as a bargaining agent; so did the
Pawtucket, Rhode Island AFT (Perry and Wildman, 1970:9).

Convention platforms indicated further proof of the differing
philosophies of both groups. For example, the AFT took stand on is-
sues of social importance such as racial discrimination and women's
rights while continuing to discuss the problems affecting the classroom
teacher (Cresswell et al., 1980:87). The NEA took a more professional
stance, raising questions about educational issues such as teaching
methodology, classroom management, and grade structures. The differen-
ces in platforms brought about the need for representative elections as
a means of determining which group would speak for the teachers of a
particular system; and, in 1946, the first such election was held in a
Chicago suburb.

Although in earlier years both groups had expressed opposition to
collective bargaining, it soon began to emerge as a major function for

both. The two organizations were, however, clearly differentiated by the methods and presentation of the practice of bargaining.

The collective bargaining issue. Three factors surfaced as major causes for the changes in attitudes toward collective bargaining. They were:

1) the rise of teacher militancy,

2) the granting of legal status to the public sector,

3) the trend toward recognition of both groups as unions.

In 1947, an NEA resolution recommended that each member "seek a salary adjustment in a professional way through group action" (Perry and Wildman, 1970:10). The 1950's and early 60's saw the continued growth in popularity of collective bargaining. Much of the activity was promoted by the AFT, while the NEA held steadfastly to the professional approach to negotiations. During this period the AFT had gained control of many large urban school systems. In 1951, they claimed the powerful New York City United Federation of Teachers as a member; a year later that body conducted a purposeful one-day strike which had a lasting impact on the overall collective bargaining movement (Campbell et al., 1980:285).

The UFT's strike and the gains it netted moved the NEA to reexamine its policy toward collective bargaining. Then, at its 1962 Denver convention, the NEA officially accepted collective bargaining as a national concept. However, they called it "professional negotiations," a phrase that enabled the NEA to adhere to a posture of professionalism (Perry and Wildman, 1970:11).

Behind this change in position was the desire of teachers for increased influence in the decision-making process. Eight causes of "teacher militancy" are offered by Perry and Wildman (1970:13):

1) Teachers wanted a bigger piece of the pie--more money, more benefits,

2) The increase of men in the teaching force and the overall rise in training level created a much more diverse body of employees,

3) Teachers wanted a voice in the formation of policy and the formulation of rules,

4) Collective bargaining received legal status,

5) As large city unions gained control, smaller units became more confident,

6) Continued rivalry between the NEA and AFT caused affiliates to outdo one another at the bargaining table,

7) Teachers reacted to criticism by becoming more militant,

8) The 1960's was an era of widespread disenchantment and unrest, which spilled over into the teaching ranks.

Thus many factors lay behind the growth of collective bargaining. However, perhaps the most important reason for its popularity was its being accorded legal status. A number of laws and regulations had been enacted on the federal level, beginning in the 1930's, that gave impetus to collective bargaining. Yet these federal laws, it must be noted,

could serve only as a basis for state legislation, since the matter of education is largely a state's right.

Labor laws and collective bargaining. Among federal laws, several are considered to have had great impact. One is the Norris-Laguardia Act (1932), which neutralized the role of federal courts in union-management relations, and in the granting of the right to strike to labor unions. The National Industrial Recovery Act (1933) endorsed the right to bargain collectively and also set up a mediation board to settle disputes. The National Labor Relations Act or the Wagner Act (1935) forbade employers to refuse to permit the existence of unions in their businesses and gave power to the federal government to intervene when necessary to protect workers (Lieberman and Moskow, 1966:66-69).

However, after World War II, public attitudes changed to a more conservative tone and Congress seized the opportunity to reduce federal interference in labor matters. The Taft-Hartley law listed unfair labor matters that were omitted from the Wagner Act and allowed workers to refrain from unionizing if they wished (Lieberman and Moskow, 1966:74).

This is not to say that Congress withdrew from interest in the activities of labor unions. Twelve years later, following the investigation during the McClellan hearings involving corruption in unions, Congress passed the Landrum-Griffin Act (1957), which concerned itself with the internal management of unions and the rights of the membership (Lieberman and Moskow, 1966:76-77).

On the state level, the first law was passed in 1959 that gave legal status to the rights of public employees. The law concerned the

right to bargain collectively in Wisconsin; and, as the first compre-
hensive public sector bargaining law, it soon became a model for legis-
lative activity in other states (Cresswell et al., 1980:150).

Soon to follow was Executive Order No. 10988 by President John F.
Kennedy, which allowed employees to join unions and bargain with feder-
al agencies over wages and conditions (Campbell et al., 1980:284). Many
states, following the lead of the federal government, used this action
as cause to grant legitimacy to the rights of public employees to
unionize.

The last factor which had bearing upon the rise of collective bar-
gaining was the trend to recognize the NEA and AFT as unions. Actually
the AFT was always considered a union because its goals and objectives
were to secure the welfare of teachers. However, for the NEA the role
of teacher welfare had long been a source of conflict with the AFT and
within its own power structure.

The fact that the NEA did, in 1947, accept collective bargaining
as a convention resolution signaled its first major change in philosophy
toward unionism. Other indications of this change followed. The number
of its affiliates that secured agreements with school boards through
collective bargaining increased dramatically between the mid-60's and
the mid-70's. In 1975 and 1976, all members of local and state affili-
ates were unified under the national organization as set in the bylaws
of 1972 (West, 1980:38). Thus, as a labor organization, the NEA was
now one of the nation's largest.

Ironically in efforts to combat the AFT on the issue of collective
bargaining, the NEA had fit into the same mold. Yet this transformation

into a union was a discomforting one to NEA members, largely because
it was irreversible.

A union defined. Perhaps it would be useful here to discuss exactly
what a union is considered to be. Webb and Webb (1902:1) state that a
union is "...a continuous association of wage earners for the purpose
of maintaining or improving conditions of working laws. Further, a
union formulates its own rules, bargains collectively, has joint gov-
ernance over work rules, and influences legislation governing employ-
ment." Hoxie (1966:279-295) adds that a union maintains an economic
viewpoint that is primarily a group viewpoint and that its programs are
group programs. Tannebaum (1965:710) defines unions as organinations
designed to protect and enhance the social and economic welfare of mem-
bers.

The relationship between these definitions and the NEA's functions
are extremely close. According to Cresswell and Murphy (1980:58), the
NEA is indeed a union, even though it aspires to an image of an organi-
zation primarily concerned with educational issues: "Although the NEA
has expended vast sums of money creating an image that reflects educa-
tional concerns, its substantial devotion to the pursuit of members and
their welfare makes it a union even if the term is accepted only sym-
bolically."

The conflict between the rival teacher organizations continues to-
day although their methodology and functions as unions are closely
aligned. The tactics of both groups have become more militant; and as
Campbell states: "The purported ideological differences between the

AFT's unionism and the NEA's professionalism have become blurred"
(Campbell et al., 1980:285). During the 1970's there were even un-
successful attempts to merge the two unions.

Philosophically, there remain many differences as reflected in the
continued debate over the inclusion of administrators as members of the
NEA. Steadfastly opposed, the AFT has gained allies from militant NEA
members who have called for a reexamination of the issue. New tensions
have arisen, and long-standing organizational linkages between teachers
and administrators have broken down. In some cases, teachers and admin-
istrators have felt that fragmentation resulting from the separation has
reduced political clout. Educational coalitions lobbying for reform or
increased financial aid have experienced failure due to bitter divisive-
ness on the issue of including administrators as members (Campbell et
al., 1980:286).

Collective bargaining today: status and impact. The present status of
the collective bargaining movement, which is a reflection of both unions,
remains tied to the economic and political mood of the country. In a
period of declining enrollment and fiscal restraint, negotiations have
been chiefly concerned with job security and legal rights (Campbell et
al., 1980:286). Politically, the conservative mood of the nation repre-
sents a dissatisfaction with public schools and has created a strong
backlash among taxpayers against the more active and militant teacher of
the present era. Both the NEA and the AFT, however, remain committed to
the existence of their organizations and to the collective bargaining
process in general.

West states that the NEA is better prepared and organized to deal with the rapid pace of social change (West, 1980:256). He cites the objective to legalize collective bargaining in all 50 states as a priority for the organization. The NEA, according to West, is the logical power base for American education to continue to pursue the goals, "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States (West, 1980:257).

The AFT has also attempted to maintain its influential posture during these difficult times. Realizing the teaching ranks have reached a no-growth period, the AFT has expanded its membership to include non-educational personnel. At their 1977 convention, the phrase "and other workers" was added to the constitution to include in their ranks librarians, nurses, and other non-instructional personnel (Campbell et al., 1980: 301).

Collective bargaining has had an impact in the areas of instruction and school-management organization. It has undoubtedly increased the power base of the classroom teacher. The impact on classroom instruction is more difficult to measure; however, the NEA has taken some positive steps to influence instructional quality.

It has devoted much energy to programs that encourage improved teaching methods. Teacher centers, expanded in-service programs, research grants, and publications are examples of their massive campaigns (West, 1980:202-211). Energy has also been expended on the inclusion of instructional issues at the negotiating table. Discipline, curriculum development, and policy-making are contractual issues that have surfaced

in recent years (Weinstock and Van Horn, 1969:31). Traditional con-
tracts already included such items as teaching load, class size, length
of day, and preparation time as part of the working conditions package.

Whether each of these items has had a direct relationship on stu-
dent achievement and the learning process remains a subject for debate.

For example, Doherty (1979:137-139) states that collective bargain-
ing has considerably increased the per/pupil cost during the 1970's.
In relation to student achievement, however, there has been a negative
correlation: as costs have increased, student scores have declined. He
concedes that numerous environmental factors have affected the results
but also discounts the teacher union stance that more money increases
student achievement. Class size, support personnel, and educational
materials, he continues, have been hotly contested items that do not
relate directly to a rise in pupil scores when measured. Williams
(1977:12) states that he has seen little change that can be directly
linked to the contract. Lieberman (1979:16) agrees that no visible im-
pact on pupils can be detected. Controversy is likely to continue on
the issue of whether a relationship exists between the collective bar-
gaining agreement and student achievement. Whether statistics will
yield conclusive results is not known.

In general, the literature indicates that the scope and impact of
collective bargaining will continue to be affected by changes in Ameri-
can social, political, and economic institutions. The history of col-
lective bargaining movement and the growth of the nation's teacher
unions have illustrated a pattern that fluctuates with the changing

needs of society. The outlook for a departure from this course appears unlikely.

The Principalship: Issues and
Problems Relating to the Contract

The collective bargaining movement has had significant impact upon the elementary principalship; a storm of controversy rages around such issues as leadership, roles, administrative functions, power, authority, future direction, and position within the organization. The literature indicates that there are no clear answers; what is clear, however, is that change has occurred.

Perry and Wildman (1970:219) state that the building principal's influence and power have been eroded due to the bargaining agreement. Weldy (1979:30) states that, in his opinion, the advent of the teacher negotiations has been the single most dramatic development in determining the success and satisfaction that the principal derives from his role. Hencley, McCleary and McGrath (1970:46) believe that the most serious dilemma of the principal is that he is confronted by teachers at the building level and is forced to carry out provisions of a negotiated contract into which he has had little input. According to Knezevich (1975), negotiations may prove to be the most important factor in determining future relationships within the educational profession. Cunningham (1969:265-270) suggests that the elementary principal is obliged by the advent of collective bargaining to examine eight critical factors affecting his position; among these factors are areas of conflict, development of new skills, and introduction of new preparation methods.

Further illustration of the impact of the collective bargaining movement can be presented by addressing four questions that are commonly raised in the literature:

1) What changes in the role and function of the principal are due to the collective bargaining movement?

2) How do principals perceive themselves in relation to the contract?

3) Is the principal an instructional leader or a contract manager?

4) What is the future of the elementary principal in relation to the movement?

Defining role and function. The role and function of the principal have been ambiguous terms with definitions that have evolved, according to Faber and Shearron (1970:382) because of changes of values in society, changes in administrative theory, and changes in the makeup of the school. To this, Gorton (1976:65) adds, the role of the principal has been in a constant state of flux. The American Collegiate Dictionary (1967:305-307) defines role as "proper or customary function," and function as "the kind of action or activity proper to a person, thing or institution. The simplicity and overlapping definition have created a variety of perceptions and expectation of the terms. Depending on the theorist, role and function have been camouflaged by a screen of educational jargon. For purposes of discussion, Faber and Shearron (1970: 306) indicate that role represents a statesmanship behavior of the

principal with interpersonal interactions, and function is more closely
tied to the technical or administrative duties of the individual.

Changes in the principal's role. The role of the principal has changed
with each period of development as illustrated in the first section of
this paper. Pharis (1975:4) states that the role of the principal is
at best a mixed bag and at worst practically schizophrenic. He adds
that role expectations are determined by a series of environmental fac-
tors such as school size, neighborhood stability, nature of population,
and availability of support personnel (1975:6). Randles (1975:58)
states that the collective bargaining agreement can bring new power to
the principal rather than the fear of loss of authority. McGowan (1976:
13) advocates that the principal must begin to act, rather than react
and readjust to the contract. The feeling exists that, despite super-
ficial confusion, the principalship may evolve into a more powerful role
than expected.

Generally speaking, the principal has a number of commonly accepted
roles although the terminology designating those roles may differ (Hughes
and Ubben, 1978:7). For example, the principal is considered:

1) a manager,

2) instructional leader,

3) disciplinarian,

4) human relations facilitator,

5) change agent,

6) conflict mediator.

(Gorton, 1976:65). Often the nature of the interaction or the person
with whom the principal interacts determines the role he will fill.
In his daily routine, the principal may wear many hats and often is
classified as the "good guy" or "bad guy" (Lipham and Hoeh, 1974).
Of all possible roles, those that are directly related to staff have
been most affected by the contract.

Some believe that the contract prescribes the role that the princi-
pal can take, and that specific contract provisions further delineate
his limits within each role (Creswell, 1980; Ingils, 1972). Michels
(1977:24) views a breakdown in the traditional line of authority be-
tween the teacher and the principal and superintendent as illustrated
in the Figure 1. For example, in the past the principal's role was more
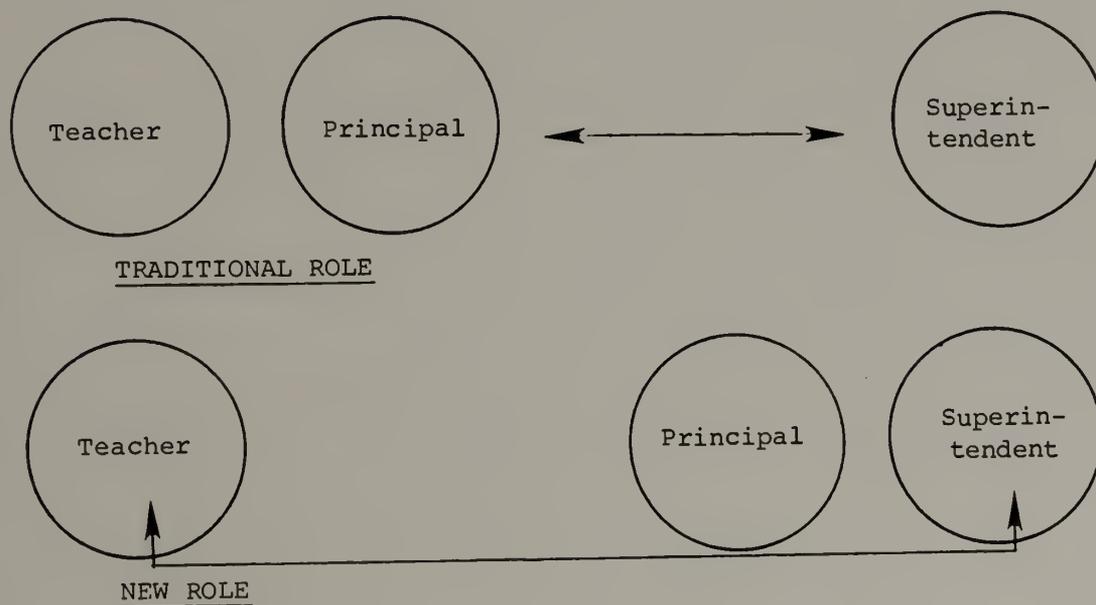
Fig. 1. Positional changes in role of principal from
Michels (1977).

closely identified with the teacher. At present, the alignment of the three individuals places the principal with the superintendent. Turner (1977:74) believes that the continued growth of the collective bargaining movement leads to a reinforcement of the new adversarial re-lationship. Olson (1967:31) adds that the contract may not have neces-sarily helped to clarify roles but has led to continued confusion.

Changes in the principal's functions. Like the roles of the principal, the functions he performs have received much attention due to the ad-vent of the collective bargaining movement. In the very early years, the principal functioned in a clerical role, keeping records of atten-dance, accounting for funds, and maintaining the school building. The evolution of the principalship has meant a more complex set of tasks and functions to be performed. In a widely discussed study of the prin-cipalship, the Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Admin-istration listed eight functions:

1) instruction and curriculum development,

2) pupil personnel,

3) community school leadership,

4) staff,

5) school plant maintenance,

6) organization and structure,

7) finance,

8) transportation

(Faber and Shearron, 1970:212-214). McGinnis (1977:23) notes the gener-al functions of the first-line gatekeeper are to supervise instruction,

interpret and implement the educational program, stimulate communica-
tion, and counsel on educational matters. More specifically he points
to orientation of staff, encouragement of innovation, initiation of
improvement in the school plant, and preparation of in-service pro-
grams. Hughes and Ubben (1978:7) offer these generalized functions:

1) school-community relations,

2) staff personnel development,

3) pupil personnel development,

4) educational program development,

5) business and building management.

The impact of the contract on the functions of the principal paral-
lels his changing role. Most often, contracts contain language dealing
with working conditions such as length of school day, numbers of meet-
ings, duties and responsibilities of the teacher, etc. Each of these
areas limits past practices of the principal and helps distinguish ex-
pectations. During the early years of collective bargaining, principals
felt that the loss of power to determine such conditions infringed great-
ly on their ability to run the building. One principal summarized a
general feeling by stating, "They have given away the store at the bar-
gaining table, but still expect us to run a smooth shop" (American
School Board Journal, 1976). Although the feeling remains that the "days
are gone when we could run things as we saw fit," there is a tendency to
believe that capable and creative principals will grow with the chal-
lenges of the contract, while weaker ones will hide and become adminis-
trative ghosts (McGinnis, 1977:23). Understanding what can be done with-
in the limits of the contract and by realizing that the main function of

the principal is to facilitate the teaching and learning process in the building, the elementary principal can continue to be an education specialist, focusing always on the child (Turner, 1977:76).

The principal--today/the future. Principals have expressed a variety of attitudes and reactions concerning the teacher contract. At the extreme, some principals have formed bargaining units of their own in an effort to protect their interests (Cooper, 1976). Cunningham (1969:259) maintains that there is deep unrest among principals and that many believe they should be fighting for their survival. Epstein (1967:195) explains that principals had misunderstandings and suspicions of the contract during its infancy period and did not want to get stuck by diaper pins. Principals in a 1978 New York survey indicated that contract management was a major concern for them. The survey indicated that 45% believed that their leadership style was altered due to the contract; 63% felt that the contract caused change in their allocation of time; and 59% thought the total education program had been affected negatively by the contract (Benson, 1979).

In literature about principals' attitudes toward the contract, two themes often recur: the frustration with their inability to accomplish what they perceive to be expected goals, and the perception of being caught in the middle between the teacher union and the central office. Consequently, many principals feel isolated (Watson, 1966:2).

A 1971 study conducted at the University of Oregon's Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration (Becker et al., 1971) revealed several samples of the kinds of frustration they feel.

> The elementary principal is considered an errand boy and a disciplinarian rather than a professional administrator with leadership responsibilities (1971:50).
>
> Unless a principal takes it upon himself to identify more specially his role and firm up his position, which includes a leadership role in policy-making, negotiations, and decision-making, he is going to be left out completely (1971:149).
>
> Increasing teacher militancy is starting to cleave the profession and it worries me (1971:151).
>
> The elementary principal has become the bastard child of education (1971:151).
>
> I feel in the next ten years, the elementary principal as a title may be entirely phased out. Management rather than instructional leadership, may well be the new role... (1971:162).
>
> It seems the principalship is becoming a pivotal position, and by that I mean, this position has pressures from all sides, from the community, from the board, from teachers, from students, and I find myself in the middle (1971:162).
>
> There is a great likelihood that with the increasing impact of negotiations, the principal's position could regress to one of actually being a school building monitor, coordinator, and high-paid paper shuffler (1971:162).

As illustrated above, the role of the elementary principal remains a dilemma for many. Present and future expectations focus on whether the principal is to be a contract manager or an educational leader. A further question is whether the principal can fill both roles simultaneously.

Pharis (1976:6) states that the principal is often asked to be a superman; he is expected to supervise the educational process at each level while performing a full load of administrative tasks. Turner (1977:75) claims that such expectations have caused considerable tension in the

relationship of staff and principal and have become an increasingly troublesome issue.

Erickson (1964:57-62) offers six forces of change in the principal-ship which he believes necessitate a new role: the strategist. Such an individual would take all the discrete components of the school's environment and rationally and artfully combine them to produce a successful educational instrument. Faber and Shearron (1970:349-351) believe changes in attitude will come only when the principals realize that they can no longer be super-teachers or instruction experts but begin to see their roles as that of administrator whose expertise is in organization, decision-making, coordination, and conflict resolution. King (1979:21) cites the current status of state legislation, which clearly distinguishes the principal as a manager whose functions encompass both instructional supervision and contract administration.

The dilemma of today's principal is how to perform responsibilities in a flexible manner that will allow for innovation, change, and full utilization of resources. To do so, he must determine his role and function under the guidelines of the contract and define the parameters for his actions.

Summary. Problems of the collective bargaining agreements will continue to demand the principal's attention. By law he is required to carry out the terms bargained by the union and the school board (Ford, 1980:41). If he is to remain in the position, he must accomplish this by utilizing a high level of skills in such areas as communication, interpersonal relations, and conflict management. The principal must assume the role of

contract administrator openly and willingly. Ranldles (1975:57) states that, in fact, the principal has no other option and that by demonstrating competencies in contract administration, he may even derive his most important source of power.

Contract Administration: Nature and Definition

The principal of the elementary school assumes many functions and responsibilities as a part of his job description. As he interacts with divergent groups and their problems, his role and expectations constantly change. This process has underscored the need for the principal to adapt, grow, and initiate behavioral changes relating to his leadership and administrative style.

During the past two decades, the advent of collective bargaining for teachers has clearly forced the principal to examine his leadership style. The introduction of the union contract also ushered in a new role for the principal--that of contract administrator. Traditional paternalism between the teachers and principal is gone (Knezevich, 1976: 10). In its place, the contract has created new responsibilities of the principal for development of the curriculum and supervision of staff. At the same time, he must practice sound human relation skills and seek supportive cooperation to achieve these goals (Gorton, 1976:176-178).

Contract administration was thought in the beginning to be the major responsibility of the superintendent (Randles, 1975:57). Current theory, however, indicates that it is the principal who has become the critical person in the new labor relationship between the teacher and

the school board (Gorton, 1976:175). Considered by many to be a front-line supervisor, much in the same mold as the industrial foreman or manager, the principal must interpret the language of the contract on a daily basis.

In its most positive light, contract administration has been described as management and labor working together under the contract to promote their common interests while taking into account their legitimate distinct perceptions of conditions of employment (Young, 1981:9). Lieberman (1979:258) states that contract administration involves difficult issues relating to administrative structure and policy. Massey (1969:211) believes that contract administration is the responsibility of both parties but that it is basically management's responsibility to administer it.

Contract administration at the building level is further delineated by the following factors:

1) the principal's responsibility to the school board (what his job description says),

2) the principal's responsibility to the staff (how he is perceived by the union),

3) the principal's responsibility as granted by the superintendent (what his superior allows him to do),

4) the principal's responsibility as determined by contract language (what limits are set by the contract provisions).

In short, the principal must uphold the contract for all parties involved while he maintains a relationship that fosters the continued

achievement of educational goals. Crucial to contract administration
is the principal's ability to maintain effective communication, develop
ways to solve problems, set common values and develop continuing rela-
tionships (Stoops et al., 1975:81). Contract administration becomes yet
another tool used by the principal to achieve goals and objectives con-
ducive to an atmosphere of learning.

According to Ingils (1972:69-70), the principal must have the fol-
lowing kinds of knowledge if he is to develop necessary skills for effec-
tive contract administration:

1) Have detailed knowledge of all aspects of contract and
   the interrelationship among various segments. (He
   must know what the contract says.)

2) Have detailed knowledge of what is intended.

3) Be familiar with "common law" principles which relate
   to the administrative application of the contract.
   (He should interpret and apply principles fairly--
   without being arbitrary, capricious or discrimin-
   atory.)

4) Realize that the contract is based on pragmatism and
   that his decisions should be pragmatic. (He should
   not get involved in philosophical debates of personal
   opinions; he should make decisions for practical
   application with realistic results.)

5) Be aware of ambiguity in language.

6) Know the difference between general and specific
   language.

7) Understand how language prevails over past practices.

8) Know what administrative decisions were applied in

the past and how they can be applied in the present.

Ford (1980) in his article entitled "The Principal--Contract Manager and Institutional Leader" discusses the manager vs. leader controversy by illustrating the issue and problems presented by the contract. His argument is based on the emphatic belief that the principal's role is limited by the very contract whose provisions he is forced to carry. Further illustrating the problem, he offers two problems that have created difficulty; working condition language and maintenance of standard clauses (Ford, 1980:37). Working conditions, as previously discussed, have seriously affected the flexibility of the principal's leadership role and have impeded attempts to bring innovation or change to the curriculum. The maintenance of standard clause precludes any unilateral change in past practices regarding working conditions. Ford (1980:38) feels that further tightening of contract language by teachers has forced principals into the role of a manager and maintainer of the status quo, a role that the teachers did not desire. Further problems have developed due to this practice because teachers also were constricted in efforts to innovate or become involved in pilot activities. Teachers as well as principals were uniformly bound to follow the contract; therefore, many were prohibited from working extra hours, attending additional meetings, or volunteering time without added compensation (Ford, 1980:40).

The alternative of combining both the leadership and manager roles is within the grasp of those who wish to be effective. The principal who

chooses such a path realizes that there is a responsibility to both
the teacher and the school board (Ford, 1980:39). To the teacher, he
must apply contract language fairly and equitably to all staff members.
To the board, his role as the contract manager is of first importance
if he is to keep his job--because they will not tolerate conflict or
grievances that might be created by the principal. The combination of
the roles then requires an individual who is proactive and assertive
rather than reactive and passive (Ford, 1980:42). He must assess the
organization and its goals to determine direction, include influential
staff members in his plans for change, share with staff members his
feelings concerning the contractual limits that inhibit growth and
change, communicate with the central office the kind of contract lan-
guage needed to effect change. Ford (1980:43) believes that if the
principal follows such a course, he can function in both roles.

The future of the principalship as impacted by collective bargain-
ing depends upon two things: the type of individual who holds the title
and the perception of this person by the teaching staff and central of-
fice. Faber and Shearron (1970:382) see for the principal of the future
an opportunity to contribute administrative skills and leadership efforts
to the educational process. McGowen (1976:16) views collective bargain-
ing as a creative challenge. Watson (1966:4) states that the principal
must be able to adapt to new circumstances affecting power if he is to
survive and flourish. Schroeder (1977:77-78) maintains that the princi-
pal should be fair and friendly, have the ability to "float" as he deals
with each task, and be firm if success is to be achieved. Above all, he
states, all the training in the world cannot make a super-principal if

the individual lacks common sense (Schroeder, 1977:78). Pharis (1975: 8) concludes that beginning in the middle of the teacher-school board controversy is a positive force for this is where the action is and principals, then, become like ball bearings converting friction into motion.

The expectations of the teacher and the central office also affect the future of the principal. Central office administrators must define their own concept of the role of the principal; then they must establish procedures ensuring that principals can make decisions at the proper time and place (Heddinger, 1978:30-33). Teachers, on the other hand, can contribute by understanding what role the principal plays in the contract; they need not accept the notion that traditional relationships must end. Principals are then better able to perceive the unions and the other aggressive professional associations as part of the movement of today's teachers toward their goals of self-respect and self-determination (Ford, 1980:43). The principal, if he is to withstand the impact of collective bargaining and still maintain an effective environment, must develop skills to confront the task. Knezevich (1976:16) colorfully describes the principal of the future by stating:

> Some qualities a principal must have to cope in today's world are the sharpness of a fox, the heart of a tiger, the persistence of a bulldog, the strength of an ox, the hide of an alligator and, of course, the agility of a gazelle. And he must prove that he can function with the financial genius of a Rothschild banker, the foresight of a prophet, the ethics of a saint, the diplomacy of an ambassador, the public relations ability of an inveterate charmer and the judgment of Solomon...As the principal goes, so goes the school. We have not developed a better way.

<u>The Principal and the</u>
<u>Grievance Clause</u>

A major responsibility of the principal, as administrator of the
contract, is to interpret the provisions that have been bargained.
This requires a knowledge of the contract, a determination to be fair
and unbiased, and an understanding of the intent of each provision as
determined by the school board or central office.

Collective bargaining agreements in general are concerned with
salaries and benefits, working conditions, protection of rights, and
participation in the decision-making process (Shils and Whittier, 1968:
357-360). The principal, not always affected by these general areas,
is primarily concerned with such specific areas as teacher rights, su-
pervision and evaluation, duties, assignments, and definition of work
day. Weldy states that, in a comprehensive master contract, he observed
the principal was mentioned over 60 times in provisions that limited or
prescribed his supervisory activities (Weldy, 1979:32). The provisions
involved such items as length and frequency of faculty meetings, length
of school day, class size, non-teaching duties, length and notification
of supervisory visits, due process procedures, and participation in
selection of educational materials (Weldy, 1979:32).

A crucial provision, often the cause of teacher/principal conflict,
is the grievance clause found in many contracts. As guardian of the
employer's dictates, the principal is often the first level of appeal
for teacher grievances. In this area, emotional and personal conflicts
have had the greatest impact and have led to a re-examination of the
traditional teacher/principal relationship. Reed (1977:82) states that

the mistrust and militancy stemming from teacher grievances have some-
times created prejudicial outcomes, then requiring settlement at higher
levels. He, along with McGinnis (1977:24), believes that the principal
should not take grievances personally but should view them as legitimate
attempts to settle conflicts or further define language. Contract lan-
guage, McGinnis (1977:25-26) continues, is often imperfect and incomplete
because it has resulted from trading and compromising at the bargaining
table. This is not to say, however, that many grievances do not occur
because principals have used questionable administrative practices or
skills insensitive to the needs of a teacher (Epstein, 1969:115).

By definition, the grievance clause is intended to be an area where
mutual concerns are discussed and problems resolved. Contract language
often helps to clarify the objectives of the grievance procedure. For
example, Article III of the West Springfield Education Association (1979-
1981) contract states:

> A. The purpose of the procedure set forth here-
> inafter is to produce prompt and equitable solu-
> tions to those problems which from time to time
> may arise and affect conditions of employment of
> employees covered by the contract.

Grievance procedures also involve a level step approach to resolv-
ing a problem. At the lower levels, the principal or department chair-
man is usually involved. Next, the superintendent or other central of-
fice personnel may attempt to arbitrate the grievance. The school com-
mittee becomes involved at the last stage, when parties agree to such
arbitration. Usually, the decision of the arbitrator is final since
the resolution of the grievance is based on interpretation of contract
language only. However, matters of a constitutional objection, such

as due process, may be appealed to the courts (Shils and Whittier, 1968:
446-460).

The grievance clause is a crucial aspect of contract administra-
tion (Gorton, 1976:175-178). If a grievance requires resolution through
the entire prescribed process, it may have damaging effects upon rela-
tionships, upon the organization, and upon the educational process it-
self. Because of the potential for harm, principals must understand
the importance of their role in handling grievances. According to Gor-
ton, the principal's main tasks in contract administration are:

1) interpreting the language and intent of provision,

2) enforcing the terms of the contract,

3) implementing the grievance procedures.

Successful implementation of the clause is critical for two rea-
sons. First, by taking a cooperative stance with regard to the griev-
ance, the principal can demonstrate a genuine concern for staff members.
His willingness to solve the problem at the first level reflects a de-
sire to resolve matters without outside interference. The literature
concerning the principal's role agrees that many, if not most, griev-
ances can be resolved at the principal's level (Gorton, 1976; Shils and
Whittier, 1968; Lieberman, 1969). Hughes and Ubben (1978:162-163) sug-
gest that the principal be approachable, listen, get the facts, take
notes, and make careful decisions. Gorton (1976:180-182) adds that the
principal should know the contract well, attempt to settle the complaint
informally, maintain poise, understand the teacher's point of view, con-
sult superiors if there is doubt, respond in writing, maintain a

positive relationship, and implement decisions fully. Summarizing the
critical nature of the principal's role, a handbook on grievance arbi-
tration states:

> The principal should willingly accept that a
> grievance procedure is a legitimate and effec-
> tive way of bringing problems out into the open
> for airing and resolution. If the climate is
> open, the principal will be the key administra-
> tor in 'taking the grief out of grievance'
> (NASSP Bulletin, 1971:236).

Summary. The issues of grievance resolution and overall administration
of the contract raise two topics for further discussion: the principal's
leadership under the contract and his methodology in conflict resolu-
tion. These two aspects of contract administration set the tone for
the relationship between staff and principal. Furthermore, the quality
of his leadership under a negotiated agreement determines his success
in achieving educational goals and objectives.

When a leader uses conflict management skills, the contract is not
likely to become a focal point for revenge or militancy. An effective
leader creates a climate in which good communication can take place.
In such a climate, the parties solve problems mutually, maintain high
esteem for one another, and utilize human relations skills.

The Principal as a Leader Under the Contract

Leadership is an integral component of the principal's position,
for lead he must--whether by role or job description. Lipham (1981:2)
states that among many variables examined, the leadership of the prin-
cipal emerged as the key factor in the success of the school. According

to Newell (1978:11), no individual influences the learning climate of the school as much as the school administrator. Sergiovanni et al. (1980:16) conclude that the bottom line for educational administration is leadership.

In light of the new demands imposed by the contract, the future of the principalship hinges on the ability to remain a key figure at the building level. Williams (1977:12) states, "A major factor determining the quality of a school has been the leadership behavior of the principal, and the advent of collective bargaining does not change that fact." Certain questions regarding leadership and the principal need to be addressed. For example:

1) What is leadership?

2) What determines effective leadership?

3) Is there one best way to lead?

4) What relationship exists between leadership behaviors
   and the principal's function of managing conflict?

Leadership defined. A review of the literature about leadership reveals a good deal of ambiguity concerning concepts and definitions. Wood (1976:132) states that there is a lack of consistency on research findings about leaders. Erickson (1967:422) and Lipham (1981:4) conclude that disputes among scholars are fruitless and confusing. The task of finding an appropriate definition of leadership is complex and exhausting for the student researcher. For the purpose of discussion, however, Cunningham and Burns are helpful.

Cunningham (1976) remarks:

> Leadership is the curious blending of leading
> and following, provoking and calming, disturbing
> and stabilizing, but always a posture of move-
> ment, generating new strength and capability
> along the way.

Burns (1978) offers the following concepts:

1) Leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers (1978:18).

2) Leadership, unlike naked power-wielding, is thus inseparable from followers' needs and goals (1978:19).

3) The genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers values and motivations (1978:19).

4) Leadership is either transactional, occurring when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things; or it is transformational, occurring when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (1978:19-20).

The leader and effective leadership. The ideas about leadership, discussed above, lead to the questions of what a leader is and what makes an effective leader. Again, a wealth of information is available concerning these aspects of the leadership issue. Sergiovanni et al. (1980:18) have synthesized certain theories by stating that the leader brings qualities of vision, intensity, and creativity to his work. The

leader, they add, is also able to grasp the deeper meaning and value of common events, translate these into a dramatic series of purposes and visions, convincingly communicate both meaning and purpose to others, obtain their commitment and sense of partnership, and articulate these qualities into organizations, structures, and programs (1980:19).

Knowles and Saxeburg (1971:151) contend:

> He (the leader) represents a quality that primitive man explained as magic, but that we, in our age of science think of as a consistency of values and ethical concerns. The leader reflects a charisma which instills an implicit belief in his followers that he can and will succeed and that their interests lie in his interests. The leader provides the symbol for the collectivity represented by the organization's functions. The leader therefore sets the course for the organization to follow and becomes in his behavior the standard or ideal which will be emulated and imitated in the organization by its members.

Knowing what leadership is and what a leader does is essential if one is to understand effective leadership. Of course, not all leaders are effective; history provides us with many examples of those who have brought destruction and torment to mankind. Yet modern theorists have been able to focus on a more moralistic and effective leadership behavior. Many of their assumptions about leadership are drawn from the works of Frederick Taylor and Elton Mayo, as well as from the writings of such scholars as McGregor, Herzberg, and Maslow.

However, the modern theorists have not come to agreement of the single "best way" to lead; the available results of research and experimentation make possible a number of conflicting conclusions. Nevertheless, leadership research has become a vital contributor to the area of educational administration at the elementary and secondary levels.

> Leadership, leader, leader behavior, leadership
> functions, leadership styles, and leader-groups
> relations--all are concepts which call attention
> to a dual concern of the school executive: that
> there is forward movement in the organization
> and that the executive is instrumental in effect-
> ing the progress. To be characterized as a
> leader is, implicitly, to be complimented. The
> obverse is equally true. Thus the message is
> clear: 'Demonstrate leadership' (Sergiovanni and
> Carver, 1980:265).

The growth of theory - toward a best way. In the early 1900's,

Frederick Taylor's work on scientific management led to the belief that

effectiveness resulted from concentration on goals and tasks to satisfy

the needs of the organization (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:69-70). His

conducting time studies of production and work performance has been in-

terpreted to mean that he considered people to be machine-like, to be

manipulated by management through scientific training. Within his

framework, workers had to adjust to the dictates of management, not

management to workers (Newell, 1978:121; Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:

68). In short, Taylor focused upon the needs of the organization, not

those of the individual.

As scientific management became common practice in the industrial

world, Elton Mayo and associates began studies to increase production

and level of performance by improving human relations. During the

1920's and early 1930's, this movement had begun to replace the scien-

tific school of Taylor. Leadership studies took a new direction.

> The scientific management movement employed a
> concern for task, while the human relation move-
> ment stressed a concern for relationships. The
> recognition of these two concerns has character-
> ized the writing on leadership ever since the

> conflict between the scientific management and
> the human relations school thought became ap-
> parent (Hersey and Blanchard, 1978:90-91).

Modern theorists continued to formulate new ideas about men and the organizational setting. These concepts were a major force in the application of behavioral science towards management theory.

Douglas McGregor developed a model known as Theory X/Theory Y. He assumed that the manager viewed workers as exhibiting two distinct sets of behaviors. A Theory X person had an inherent dislike for work, a need to be controlled and directed, a desire to avoid responsibility, and a need to be secure at all times (Robinson, 1972:121). On the other hand, a Theory Y individual was able to maintain self-control, had a capacity for imagination, could accept responsibility, and found satis- faction in work operations (Robinson, 1972:122). Dependent on the man- ager's individual observation of the worker, his management style re- flected the degree of concern for either task (Theory X orientation) or relationships (Theory Y orientation).

Another important theory about man's behavior within the organiza- tion, was developed by Abraham Maslow. Maslow believed that man's be- havior was determined by his pursuit of individual needs. Illustrated by a hierarchical scale, man was constantly striving to fulfill each level from the most basic to achievement of full potential. The levels were labeled: physiological (food, clothing, etc.); safety (security); social (affiliation with others); esteem (recognition by others); and self-actualization (being what one wants to be) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:22-27).

Frederick Herzberg shared similar concerns towards the individual and the work place. His assumptions focused on motivational aspects of worker output and production. Herzberg believed that hygiene factors and motivators were crucial to employee satisfaction. The extrinsic needs of the worker; money, status, and job security, were labeled as hygiene factors. Intrinsic needs such as achievement, recognition, and work challenge were noted as motivators. To achieve and then maintain employee satisfaction and work performance, a manager had to be concerned with providing a balance of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Management behavior reflected this process (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:54-59).

In combination with the work of Taylor and Mayo, these ideas helped to form the basis for modern theories of leadership behavior and organizational development. Before ideas were formulated and synthesized about the needs of man versus the needs of the organization, the most accepted theories of leadership proposed that there was an inborn characteristic of the leader. This "great men" or trait theory was supported by research into the lives of leaders from present to past history, including the different cultures of the world (Hoy and Miskel, 1982: 221). Remaining popular until the early 1950's, Ralph Stogdill's research of 120 trait leadership studies concluded that the trait theory was not a sufficient predictor of leadership. Yielding negligible and confusing results, Stogdill's report indicated only a few consistent correlations concerning leader behaviors and characteristics (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:222). Additional studies revealed that leaders did, however, exhibit some common traits such as intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, energy, and task-relevant knowledge (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:

222). Although not totally repudiated, then, the trait theory left many

questions unanswered, one of which concerned that of leadership effec-

tiveness.

This period of development witnessed the controversy over the issue

of scientific vs. human relation approach to management and leadership.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies turned attention of scholars toward

the concepts of achieving organizational goals in contrast to fulfilling

individual's needs. Developed by Shartle in 1945 and later by Jenkins

and Stogdill (Stogdill, 1974:128), the study indicated that 1) little

success had been achieved in attempting to select leaders by traits,

2) numerous differences in traits existed in leaders, 3) traits exhibi-

ted by a leader varied from one situation to another, and 4) the trait

approach ignored the interaction of the leader and the group members

(Stogdill, 1974:128). The study's associates developed a list of ap-

proximately 1800 items termed aspects of leadership behavior. The items

were then sorted and characterized indicating a relationship of 150

specific traits that were useful in developing a research questionnaire

(Stogdill, 1974:128). Continued studies and research found that two

basic dimensions of leadership behavior existed: initiating structure

and consideration (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:226). Initiating structure

which is concerned with completing tasks and organizational goals can

be defined as "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship

between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to

establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communica-

tion, and methods of procedure" (Halpin, 1959:4). Concerned more with

the individual's needs, consideration "refers to behavior indication of

friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship be-
tween the leader and the members of the staff" (Halpin, 1959:4).

To establish a leader's concern for the dimensions noted in the
study, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire can be administered
to a group of employees. Their responses are then scored and plotted
according to a quadrant graph that indicates four possible behaviors:
high consideration/high initiating structure-Quadrant I, low considera-
tion/high initiating structure-Quadrant II, low consideration/low initi-
ating structure-Quadrant III, high consideration/low initiating struc-
ture-Quadrant IV (Figure 2). The dimensions of the quadrant soon came
to represent leadership behavior and was the forerunner of present theo-
ries. As for the most effective leadership behavior, evidence emerged
that individuals who scored high on both dimensions of the quadrant
tended to be evaluated as effective leaders (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:229).

Low (-)   CONSIDERATION   High (+)

		Quadrant II Low Consideration High Initiating Structure	Quadrant I High Consideration High Initiating Structure
I N I T I A T I N G	S T R U C T U R E	(High) (+)	
		Quadrant III Low Consideration Low Initiating Structure	Quadrant IV High Consideration Low Initiating Structure
		(Low) (-)	

Fig. 2. The Ohio State Leader-
ship Quadrants.

Leadership theory developed as researchers continued to examine factors which influence a leader's behavior. These studies attempted to describe some more abstract qualities that determine effective leadership behavior. Debate soon emerged concerning two important questions: 1) Does the situation determine the leader's behavior, or 2) Can the leader maintain a constant style regardless of the situation? For purposes of discussion, the works of Reddin (1970), Hersey and Blanchard (1972; 1977), and Fiedler (1967) represent the situational approach. The concepts of Blake and Mouton (1978) are used to defend the notion that leadership behavior is controlled by the individual and remains constant.

Situational theories. Reddin's three-dimensional theory of effectiveness is based on four basic styles of managerial behavior as illustrated in Figure 3 (Reddin, 1970:13). Combining the concepts of task and relationship orientations, Reddin believes that situations determine the effectiveness of the four basic behaviors. Each behavior, then, has a more effective or less effective dimension which Reddin labeled as shown in Table 1 (Reddin, 1970:47-48). Application of one style to a variety of situations was not possible because the leader's effectiveness was neither constant nor predictable.

	RO →	
Related	Integrated
Separated	Dedicated

─── TO ⟶
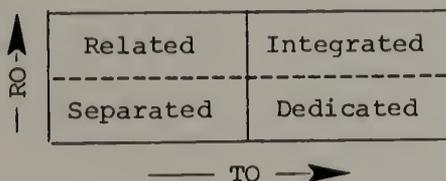
Fig. 3. Reddin's Four Basic Styles of Managerial Behavior.

TABLE 1

EFFECTIVE STYLES SUMMARIZED FROM REDDIN'S
THREE-DIMENSIONAL THEORY OF EFFECTIVENESS

TASK	RELATIONSHIP	BASIC STYLE	INEFFECTIVE	EFFECTIVE
low	high	Related	Missionary	Developer
low	high	Separated	Deserter	Bureaucrat
high	high	Integrated	Compromiser	Executive
high	low	Dedicated	Autocrat	Benevolent Autocrat

Hersey and Blanchard have developed a similar model excluding the
labels associated with the Reddin theory (1972:84). As with Reddin,
they believe that:

> When the style of a leader is appropriate to a
> given situation, it is termed effective; when
> his style is inappropriate to a given situation,
> it is termed ineffective (Hersey and Blanchard,
> 1972:83).

To their model, however, they added a fourth dimension which was
labeled the maturity level. Entitled the Life Cycle Theory of Leader-
ship, as shown in Figure 4, it is based on the assumption that the level
of maturity exhibited by the members of the group also impacts and de-
termines the effectiveness of the leader's behavior. They define matur-
ity level as the ability to accomplish task without leadership direction.
Therefore, as the group members proceed through the work process, the
leader's style reflects a varied concern for task and relationship. For
example, immature groups need more direction, i.e., higher concerns for
task. Developing groups display moderate levels of maturity, therefore,

Effective Styles
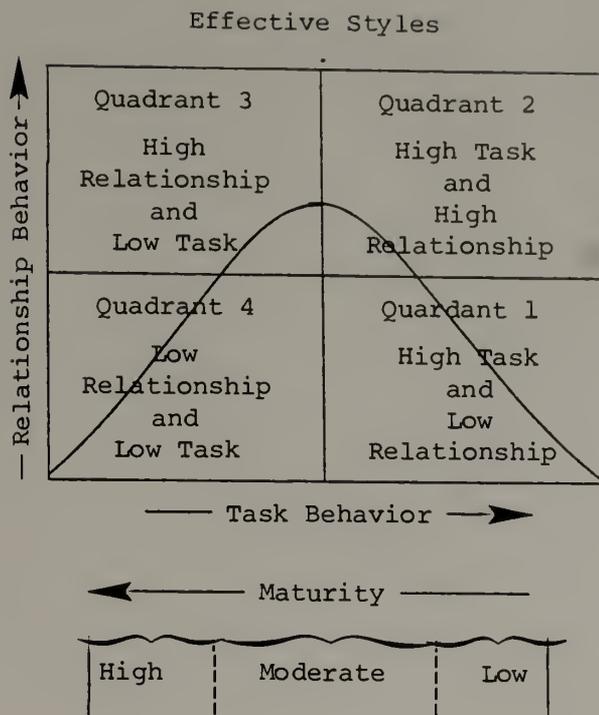
Fig. 4. Hersey and Blanchard's
Life-Cycle Theory of Leadership.

they may need less concerns for task but higher concern for relationships

to strengthen the cohesiveness of the members. Finally, mature groups

would be self-sufficient wherein the leader would have low concerns for

both task and relationships (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:134-138).

> Mature, responsible workers need a loosely
> controlled, flexible organization with gen-
> eral supervision to utilize their full poten-
> tial. Immature, untrained workers need a
> structured organization with supervision to
> develop their talents (Hersey and Blanchard,
> 1972:147).

Fiedler's Contingency Model is another major contribution to the

situational approach to leadership theory. The model attempts to pre-

dict what types of leaders will be effective in different situations,

thus assuming that there is no best leadership style (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:235). Fiedler emphasized that effective leadership style is determined by the motivation of the leader and that group effectiveness is a joint function of leader style and situational favorableness (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:73). Situational favorableness, as defined by Fiedler, refers to the control and influence that the leader maintains within the situation (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:73). As a result, the assumption is that task-oriented or relationship-oriented leaders are either more or less effective within certain situations that are determined by the variables: task structure, positional power, and leader-member relations (Figure 5).

Appropriate Leadership Style	Effective Goal Achievement	Three Variables
———————— For	Is a ———————— Function of	————————
Task-oriented style or inter-personal-rela-tions-oriented style	Organiza-tional or group tasks	1. Leader-member relations 2. Task struc-ture 3. Leader positional power

Fig. 5. Summary Equation of Fiedler's Contingency Model by Serviovanni and Carver, 1980.

In short, Fiedler found that task-oriented leaders perform well in situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable, i.e., a task-oriented leader would not need to be concerned for relationships if the group members had reached a level of self-sufficiency (favorable

situation), in an unfavorable situation, however, the same leader would be unable to show concern for relations because the task objectives would be of utmost importance. To accomplish the goals might even mean "stepping on some toes and ruffling some feathers" (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:78). Conversely, a relationship-oriented person would perform well in a moderately favorable situation which indicated that the group was adrift, therefore, in need of direction toward task, and strengthening of relationship (Figure 6).

Task-oriented style	Relationships-oriented considerate style	Task-oriented style
←		→
Favorable Leadership Situation	Situation moderate in favorableness for leader	Unfavorable Leadership Situation

Fig. 6. Leadership Style Related to Situations by Fiedler.

As Fiedler states:

> The Contingency Model leads to the major hypothesis that leadership effectiveness depends upon the leader's style of interacting with group members and the favorableness of the group-task situation. Specifically...leaders who are primarily task motivated perform best under conditions that are very favorable or very unfavorable for them. Relationship-oriented leaders perform best under conditions that are of moderate favorableness (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:81).

Humanistic theory. The assumption that leadership behavior does not
change relative to situations or other factors are held by humanists
such as Blake and Mouton (1978a). Their contribution, The Managerial
Grid, attempts to measure behavior according to concern for people
(consideration), and concern for production (initiating structure)
(Blake and Mouton, 1978a).

Represented on horizontal and vertical axes (Figure 7), an indi-
vidual is linked to behavior types labeled 1/1 (low concern for people--
low concern for production), 1/9 (low concern for production--high con-
cern for people), 5/5 (moderate concern for both dimensions), 9/1 (high
concern for production--low concern for people), and 9/9 (high concern
for production--high concern for people) (Blake and Mouton, 1978:12).
Although possibilities exist for 81 grid plots, Blake and Mouton (1978a:
12) are primarily concerned with the extreme corners of the grid and
offer the 5/5 behavior as the compromise point for the individual.

Critical to the grid theory is the assumption that the integration
of the two dimensions, the 9/9 approach, represents the most effective
behavior for the leader (Blake and Mouton, 1978a:128). However, situ-
ationists do not rest on this assumption for they assume that a variety
of factors impact and influence the behavior of the leader. To accom-
plish goals and to satisfy needs, they believe that the leader must
constantly adapt. Hence the debate has arisen: "Is there one best way
for a leader to be effective?"

One best way? The leadership behavior that demonstrates concern for
both the individual and the organization is often termed the most

High

```
9 |        9,1                        9,9
  |  Country Club Management       Team Management
  |  Thoughtful attention to      Work accomplishment is
  |  needs of people for satis-   from committed people;
  |  fying relationships leads    interdependence through
8 |  to a comfortable, friendly    "common stake" in organ-
  |  organization atmosphere       ization purpose leads to
  |  and work tempo.               relationships of trust
7 |                                and respect.

6 |                         5,5
  |                  Organization Man Management
  |                  Adequate organization perfor-
5 |                  mance is possible through bal-
  |                  ancing the necessity to get out
  |                  work with maintaining morale of
4 |                  people at a satisfactory level.

  |        1,1                        9,1
3 |  Impoverished Management       Authority-Obedience
  |  Exertion of minimum effort    Efficiency in operations
  |  to get required work done     results from arranging
  |  is appropriate to sustain     conditions of work in
2 |  organization membership.      such a way that human
  |                                elements interfere to a
  |                                minimum degree.
1 |
Low
    _____
     1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    9
```

CONCERN FOR PEOPLE

CONCERN FOR PRODUCTION

Figure 7.   The Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton.

effective. Doyle and Strauss (1976:55-83) refer to it as the win/win

or Interaction method. Gordon (1977:6) states that the effective lead-

er must be both a human relations specialist and a task specialist.

Stogdill (1974:19) contends that the importance of consideration and

initiating structure appear to be well established as effective com-

ponents of leadership behavior. Knowles and Saxeburg (1971:154) con-

clude that the leader must evince concern with the future direction of

the organization and at the same time with the human condition. Blake

and Mouton's grid theory terms the behavior as integrative leadership

and utilizes it as a basis for their preferred leadership style (1978:

131). It is characterized by collaborative teamwork and mutual problem-

solving.

Yet other theorists differ. Hoy and Miskel (1980), Hersey and

Blanchard (1972; 1978), Fiedler and Chemers (1974), House (1971),

Newell (1978), Reddin (1970) and others argue that a variety of factors

and situations force behavior changes in the leader. They dispel the

myth that there is one best approach.

Yet Blake and Mouton claim that the 9,9 style provides the frame-

work within which the individual functions; they advocate it as a dom-

inant style (1978a:95). They state:

> Granted that a manager's Grid style may be con-
> sistent over a range of situations, it is also
> true that managers move from one Grid style to
> another, sometimes shifting and adapting Grid
> styles according to how the person views the
> situation (1978a:13-14).

They continue by explaining:

> This oscillation can also be observed when a
> manager works with subordinates in a 9,9 man-
> ner in everyday situations, but he switches to
> a 9,1 orientation when crises arise, taking
> over and operating without utilizing the re-
> sources of those who in fact may be able to
> contribute to the resolution...The point to
> emphasize is that managerial styles are not
> fixed. They are not unchanging. They are sub-
> ject to modification and change through formal
> instruction or self-training (1978a:14).

The bases for argument against situationalism, lies in the concept of flexibility versus versatility. For Blake and Mouton, flexibility equates to situational behavior that changes style for every situation (1978a:130). Versatility, on the other hand, represents a maturity level within the 9,9 approach that is characterized by adaptation and utilization of skills inherent to the behavior. In short, the individual has options within the style which then negates the necessity to change the behavior completely (1978a:130-139). Such options as respon-siveness, assertiveness, mutual problem-solving, goal setting, and com-munication helping skills have been defined in a training manual devel-oped by Peck and Eve (1981).

Additional arguments are offered to counter the hypothesis that one best leadership style can be described.

1) The grid is a measure of attitude not actual behavior

   (Hersey and Blanchard, 1978:97).

2) The one best theory does not adapt well to other cultures

   (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972:79).

3) The approach assumes that the group has the ability to

   successfully participate (Blake and Mouton, 1978b:7).

4) Implementing the approach is too time consuming
   (Blake and Mouton, 1978b:7).

5) 9,9 is a static approach (Blake and Mouton, 1978b:7).

To counter these arguments, Blake and Mouton offer the following
defense:

1) The 9,9 orientation has been supported by research in
   various social science disciplines: psychology, sociology,
   mental health, political science, and psychiatry as
   examples.

2) Productivity and sales are significantly advanced by
   the 9,9 team management.

3) The 9,9 approach increases employee satisfaction.

4) Physical health is greater for those who utilize the
   approach.

5) A rejection of the 9,9 theory would repudiate many human
   relation concepts such as free choice, shared participa-
   tion, mutual trust, open communication, integration of
   goals, resolution of conflict by problem-solving, re-
   sponsibility for one's own actions, work challenge, and
   the profits of learning through experience (Blake and
   Mouton, 1978b:4-7).

Opportunities exist in the elementary school for the principal to
develop the 9,9 leadership approach because of the size of the school
and the nature of the environment. Commonly the elementary school is
a relatively simple organization. First, with few in-house specialists
or department heads, the hierarchy is composed of the principal,

educational staff, and service or maintenance personnel. The numbers

are comparatively small, so the number of problems and the number of

tasks also tend to be small (Hencley, McCleary, and McGrath, 1970:146-

147). Second, the nature of the environment and the types of goals can

make it easy to apply the 9,9 model. For example, many programs aim to

provide for the individual needs of the student. The goal supports the

humanistic tendency of the 9,9 style which can transcend the relation-

ship of staff and principal creating opportunities to integrate individ-

ual and personal goals (Hencley, McCleary, and McGrath, 1970:131-133).

The grid theory, then, is applicable to the elementary school organiza-

tion.

Summary-effective leader/effective principal. In this section we have

seen that the principal can be an effective leader in the elementary

school. With regard to the contract, he can lead in a way that allows

attainment of goals for both task and personal satisfaction. The effec-

tive leader is one who, 1) involves as many members as possible of the

group in all activities, including leadership activities (Sergiovanni

and Carver, 1980:280); 2) learns how to help subordinates solve their

own problems, how to build problem-solving teams, how and when to en-

list the creative resources of group members, and how to build relation-

ships in which subordinates do not put distance between themselves and

their leader (Gordon, 1979:48); 3) provides for educational experiences

through administration which take account of both the task and the human

dimension (Newell, 1978:253); 4) integrates both initiating structure

and considerations in a consistent pattern (Hoy and Miskel, 1980:233);

5) becomes a facilitator, assuming a role of advisor and negotiator (Finch, 1977:300); 6) has the ability to work effectively with people and to secure their cooperation by utilizing the group process, listening to parents, teachers, and pupils, and by empathizing with his associates (Becker, et al., 1971:233); and 7) possesses the capacity and ability to conceptualize, communicate, exhibit self-confidence and security, command, initiate, and sustain action, and maintain a sound value system (Lippitt, 1982:132-133).

The importance of the elementary school principal has dramatically increased over the past two decades (Hughes and Ubben, 1978; Hencley, McCleary, and McGrath, 1970). Many feel that the effectiveness of the school is determined by the individual in the office (Lipham, 1982). The ability of the principal to balance personal and organizational goals bears directly upon leadership and is a key function.

> In all ways possible, the leader (principal) will
> seek to build a productive organization where
> goals and purposes are jointly formulated and mu-
> tually accepted, where common values prevail,
> where organizational roles and relationships are
> cooperatively defined, where communication is
> facilitated, where destructive conflict is mini-
> mized, and where role achievement and role sat-
> isfaction are optimized (Hencley, McCleary, and
> McGrath, 1970:126).

The Principal and Conflict

The review of literature about the relationship between conflict management and leadership of the elementary school principal focuses on the following: definition and nature of conflict, relationship of conflict to the collective bargaining agreement and the principal, and the

methodology of conflict management. Schmidt and Thomas (1976) found in a study of managers that they spend 20% of their time dealing with conflict and that their ability to manage conflict has become increasingly important. The same holds true for the elementary school principal, who must develop an understanding of conflict and learn how to deal with it.

Conflict defined. The definition of conflict varies as do definitions of other behavioral science terms (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1982; Preston and Hawkins, 1979; Robert, 1982; Mack and Snyder, 1973; Smyth, 1977; Filley, 1975; and Thomas, 1976). Kriesburg (1973:17), for example, defines conflict as a relationship between two or more parties who believe they have incompatible goals. Deutsch (1973:156) states that conflict is an action which is incompatible with another action and prevents, obstructs, interferes with, injures, or in some way makes it less likely or less effective. Discussion by Schmidt and Kochan (1972:361) indicates that conflict depends on the extent to which required resources are shared, the degree of interdependence, and the perceived incompatibility of goals. For purpose of this discussion, conflict is regarded as a force that inhibits the desired outcome of an individual or group. For that outcome to be achieved, management techniques must be used to control, reduce, or resolve the conflict.

Additional discussion of the nature of conflict is offered by Robbins (1878:69), who states that without conflict there would be no challenge, no stimulation: organizations would soon become sick and eventually die. Kelley (1979:12) adds these characteristics: 1) conflict is inevitable; 2) permanent suppression is impossible; 3) conflict

is either destructive or productive; 4) people initiate conflict to ef-
fect changes and people respond to conflict to maintain the status quo;
5) conflict is a relative term and is dependent on context and setting;
6) the potential for conflict becomes greater when there is an increase
in factors such as interdependence, interest in and actions of others,
and the presence of a variety of individuals or organizations. Simi-
larly, Filley (1975:9-12) offers nine characteristics that contribute
to conflict behaviors: ambiguous jurisdictions, conflict of interest,
communication barriers, dependence of one party, differentiation in
organizations, associations of parties, need for consensus, behavior
regulations, and unresolved prior conflicts.

The principal is directly affected by conflict; hence understanding
the nature of conflict becomes essential. Bailey (1971:234) believes
that there are three basic types of conflict that affect the principal:
1) subordinate conflict which involves the principal and a person or a
group under his authority, 2) subordinate conflict which results from
interaction with authority above the principal, 3) lateral conflict
which involves relations of equal status. Lipham and Hoeh (1974:132-
142) add four specific conflict roles which can create a substantial
threat to the principal-teacher relationship. They are: 1) inter-role
(the principal attempts to function in more than one role at a time),
2) inter-reference-group conflict (the principal functions under differ-
ent expectations of two or more groups while reacting to one specific
task), 3) intra-reference-group conflict (the principal is caught in
the middle of expectations of the same group), 4) role-personality-

conflict (the principal creates internal conflict within himself con-
cerning expectations from other and his own personality style.

One theme emerges: conflict within the elementary school demands
the attention of the principal. He must identify the conflict and under-
stand it, confront the situation, and employ conflict-handling techniques.
The conflict managing style emerging from the process directly affects
the success or failure of the educational organization in achieving its
goals. Blake and Mouton (1965:53-54) conclude that many situations in
schools can breed lack of trust, lack of understanding and lack of knowl-
edge. Therefore a need exists to confront conflict by a more effective
use of people, better understanding of rights and obligations, better
communication, and better listening on the part of the leaders.

Conflict: productive/destructive; managed/resolved? Some dispute re-
mains as to whether conflict is productive or destructive and whether it
can be managed or resolved.

Wood argues that conflicts by definition are often regarded as a
negative and, therefore, something to be avoided. Preston and Hawkins
(1979) suggest that conflict is not necessarily a symptom of organiza-
tional dysfunction or unproductive behavior. According to Berlew
(1980), conflict is productive; a resource that managers should build
into their organizations. Simpson (1977) argues that since much con-
flict is natural, the goal of the group is not to eliminate conflict
but to view it as essentially healthy. Finally, Newell (1978:143)
concludes:

Some administrators fear conflict and believe
that it should be held to an absolute minimum.
In fact in some instances, administrators have
told their staff members that anyone who becomes
involved in intrastaff conflict will be fired.
Such administrators fail to realize that con-
flict, though sometimes destructive, is an es-
sential aspect of constructive organizational
behavior.

The key issue, then, is not how conflict was created within the

organization but rather how it was viewed and handled by the leader or

group. Hall (1973), for example, believes that people dictate the mean-

ing and the consequences of conflict situations. Explaining further,

he states:

More often than not, one's view of conflict
in certain ways are more important determin-
ates of conflict outcome than the nature of
conflict itself (1973).

Woods (1977:117) agrees:

Despite the fact that conflict has some sig-
nificant values for discussion, every day
experiences also tell us that conflict can be
dangerous, it can destroy a group, it can
lead to stalemates rather than decisions, and
cause major interpersonal hostilities. Whether
conflict enhances or subverts discussion de-
pends on how the conflict is managed. There
are both ineffective and effective models of
dealing with it.

To conclude, Filley (1975:4) avers:

Conflict, a social process which takes various
forms and which has certain outcomes, itself
is neither good nor bad. The conflict pro-
cess merely leads to certain results, and the
value of those results as favorable or unfav-
orable depends on the measure used, the party
making the judgment, and other subjective
criteria.

Another point raised in writings on conflict is the use of the terms _conflict management_ and _conflict resolution_. Often they are used interchangeably (Crosby and Scherer, 1981); however, the terms do not mean the same thing (Robbins, 1978; Preston and Hawkins, 1979; Sebring, 1978; Thomas, 1976). Although the trend in the writings focuses on the use of conflict management as being the most appropriate, it would seem acceptable to use either term if one makes the assumption that conflict is 1) difficult to eliminate, 2) a natural phenomenon among groups, and 3) potentially helpful rather than harmful. The key issue in the dispute remains, however, the necessity to develop strategies to deal with conflict in a productive way.

Teacher/administrator conflict: the principal's role. Conflict often arises between teacher and administrator, the likely causes being such factors as changes in relationship, poor communication, confusion of roles, and increased independence (Schofield, 1977:8-12). Negben (1979: 25) feels that the administrator should be knowledgeable of conflict origins, such as: communication problems, structural factors in the organization, human factors, and conflict-promoting interactions (1977-78).

The principal, as contract administrator at the building level, is by role and function directly affected by conflict with the teaching staff (Gorton, 1976). As he attempts to interpret, implement, and enforce (Gorton, 1976:175) contract provision, the opportunity for conflict increases dramatically. Under the prescribed contract process, the grievance clause becomes the area in which conflicts reach their climax and are resolved by the quasi-legal process (Hughes and Ubben,

1978:159). Ideally, however, the principal should strive to confront conflict before this point. Knezevich (1975:199) believes that conflict identification and analysis lead to anticipation of issues, allow for finding plausible alternatives, help to develop strategies, and aid in identifying proper responses to handle potentially disruptive activity. Becoming skilled in the area of conflict resolution, the principal will be better prepared to protect the autonomy of the school unit or organization and establish his leadership role on solid professional and administrative grounds (Hencley, McCleary, and McGrath, 1970:46).

Sebring (1976-77) concurs:

> Teacher and administrators who are sensitive
> to this conflict feel frustrated because of
> the dysfunctional behavior patterns that re-
> sult. Especially frustrating is the detrimen-
> tal effect of conflict on the school district's
> learning environment. Some administrators,
> therefore, are searching for more productive,
> realistic and satisfying ways to deal with the
> problem.

He then concludes:

> Administrators need to learn skills in human
> relations, conflict management, problem-
> solving and organization development in order
> to develop more effective ways of dealing
> with their changing roles and to improve
> teacher-administrator interpersonal and inter-
> group relations in their schools and school
> districts (1976-77).

Conflict styles: the grid approach. Conflict management has, like leadership, been illustrated on a grid or quadrant. Four models help to explain the possible styles that frequent the literature regarding handling conflict: Blake and Mouton (1978b) (Figure 8), Hall (1973) (Figure 9), Thomas (1976) (Figure 10), and Peck and Eve (1981)

High

```
   ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
 9 │        1,9                          9,9                   │
   │  Disagreements are smoothed    Valid problem-solving      │
   │  over or ignored so that       takes place with vary-     │
   │  surface harmony is main-      ing points of view ob-     │
   │  tained in a state of peace-   jectively evaluated        │
 8 │  ful coexistence.              against facts; emotions,   │
   │                                reservations, and doubts   │
   │                                examined and worked        │
 7 │                                through.                   │
   │                                                           │
   │                          5,5                              │
 6 │                    Compromise, bargaining, and mid-       │
   │                    dle ground positions are accepted      │
   │                    so that no one wins--nor does any      │
 5 │                    one lose.  Accommodations and ad-      │
   │                    justments lead to "workable"           │
   │                    rather than best solutions.            │
 4 │                                                           │
   │        1,1                          9,1                   │
   │  Neutrality is maintained      Conflict is expressed      │
 3 │  at all cost.  Withdrawal      through authority-         │
   │  behind walls of insula-       obedience approach.  Win-  │
   │  tion relieves the neces-      lose power struggles       │
 2 │  sity for dealing with         are fought out, decided    │
   │  situations that would         by the highest common      │
   │  arouse conflict.              boss or through third-     │
 1 │                                party arbitration.         │
Low└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
      1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    9
```

CONCERN FOR PEOPLE (vertical axis)

CONCERN FOR PRODUCTION OF RESULTS

Figure 8. The Conflict Grid by Blake and Mouton.

1/9

Differences only serve to drive people apart; their "personal" implications cannot be ignored. Realistically, to differ is to reject. Maximum attention to the needs and desires of others is required if relationships are to endure. Conflict requires self-sacrifice and placing the importance of continued relationships above one's own goals. It is better to ignore differences than to risk open combat by being oversensitive; one must guard against causing irreparable damage to his relationships.

9/9

Differences are a natural part of the human condition. In and of themselves, they are neither good nor bad. Conflict is usually a symptom of tensions in relationships and should be treated accordingly. When accurately interpreted, they may be resolved and serve to strengthen relationships, rather than to divide. Conflict requires confrontation and objective problem-solving, often of a type that goes beyond the apparent needs and opinions of the parties involved. Not only are people brought more closely together when conflicts are worked through, but creativity may be achieved as well.

5/9

Differences should be treated in the light of the common good. At times some parties are obliged to lay aside their own views in the interest of the majority; this allows the relationship to continue to function; however imperfectly, and affords a basis for redress later on. Everyone should have an opportunity to air his views and feelings, but these should not be allowed to block progress. It is never possible for everyone to be satisfied and those who insist on such an unrealistic goal should be shown the error of their way. Resolution requires a good deal of skill and persuasive ability coupled with flexibility.

1/1

Differences simply reflect the more basic attributes which distinguish among people: past experiences, irrational needs, innate limitations and potentials and levels of personal aspirations. As such, they are essentially beyond the influence of others. They constitute necessary evils in human affairs, and one must either accept them or withdraw from human contacts. Impersonal tolerance is the most enlightened approach to handling conflicts.

9/1

Differences are to be expected among people for they reflect the nature of the species: some have skills and others have none, and some are right and some are wrong. Ultimately right prevails, and this is the central issue in conflict. One owes it to himself and those who rely on his judgment to prevail in conflicts with others whose opinions and goals are in doubt. Persuasion power and force are all acceptable tools for achieving conflict resolution, and most people expect them to be employed.

CONCERN FOR RELATIONSHIP

CONCERN FOR PERSONAL GOALS

Figure 9. Hall's Conflict Grid.

Fig. 10.   Five Approaches to Conflict by Thomas.

Fig. 11.   Conflict Management Quadrant by Peck and Eve.

(Figure 11). These models present five possible methods of dealing with conflict based on the behavior dimensions proposed in the Ohio State Leadership Studies: initiating structure and consideration. The terminology differs somewhat, as exampled by Hall (1973) who refers to the dimensions as concern for personal goals and concern for relationships. Blake and Mouton (1978b) label the terms as concern for people and concern for production. Thomas (1976) states the behaviors by a degree of cooperativeness and assertiveness, while Peck and Eve (1981) use the notations as responsiveness and assertiveness.

Each of the conflict styles or methods as measured have been labeled to indicate a particular behavioral approach to conflict. Key to the study, however, are the terms found in the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument utilized in the gathering of the research data: Competing, Collaborating, Compromising, Avoiding, and Accommodating. The brief outline that follows is a synthesis of the concepts related to the grid styles. The additional references from Lippit (1982), Gordon (1980), Knowles and Saxeburg (1971), Philips and Chester (1979), Ross (1982), Filley (1975) and Goodsell (1974) helps to explain basic behavioral characteristics of each method.

Method 1 - terminology: avoidance, 1/1, lose/leave, lose/lose, withdrawal, avoider

The individual using this method is apt to:

1) turn away from conflict,

2) refuse to make waves,

3) maintain neutrality,

4) be impersonally tolerant,

5) refuse to disagree,

6) diplomatically side-step or postpone an issue,

7) repress or withhold true emotions and beliefs,

8) show low concern for goals/low concern for relationships,

9) be uncooperative and unassertive.

Method 2 - terminology: accommodation, smooth, yield/lose, 1/9, lose/win, the friendly helper, self-sacrificing

The user of this method often:

1) cajoles to seek harmony,

2) neglects personal goals for the sake of others,

3) is selfless, generous, and yielding,

4) appeases other by denying or ignoring conflict,

5) hesitates and is timid,

6) is falsely cooperative,

7) plays down conflict,

8) shows low concern for goals/high concern for relationships,

9) is cooperative but unassertive.

Method 3 - terminology: compromise, give/take, partial win/partial lose, 5/5

The individual who exhibits this behavior is likely to:

1) soften the loss of goals by limiting gains,

2) split the difference,

3) negotiate and bargain,

4) look for a quick solution,

5) seek the middle of the road,

6) attempt to agree even if a better solution is evident,

7) exchange confessions--"half a loaf is better than none,"

8) show moderate concern for goals and relationships,

9) be intermediately assertive and cooperative.

Method 4 - terminology: competing, forcing, tough-guy, dominance, tough battler, win/lose, 9/1

Given the individual's concerns, the approach portrays behavior that:

1) forces other to lose at any cost,

2) expresses no yield positions, stands by convictions,

3) utilizes power and authority,

4) looks for a quick solution but it must be his,

5) dominates, suppresses others, coerces,

6) demonstrates status by winning,

7) exhibits "yours is not to question why" attitude,

8) shows high concern for personal goals, low concern for relationships,

9) is assertive but uncooperative.

Method 5 - terminology: integrative, synergistic, the problem-solver, collaborative, confrontive, win/win, no-lose, integrative decision-making, 9/9

The individual utilizing this mode of behavior is expected to:

1) seek solutions that satisfy everyone's needs,

2) solve problems mutually,

3) attempt creative and innovative methods,

4) be democratic but not laissez-faire,

5) act candidly and objectively,

6) seek trust and openness,

7) show high concern for both goals and relationships,

8) be cooperative and assertive.

One best way? Many researchers reveal in their writings about conflict management a certain bias toward the use of collaboration, problem-solving, or integration (Thomas, 1978:58). Few, however, agree that such a method is the single or best way (Bernardi and Alvares, 1978; Thomas, Jamison, and Morse, 1978; Philip and Chester, 1978; Goodsell, 1974; and Ross, 1982). Blake and Mouton (1978b) parallel the concepts of leadership style presented in their Managerial Grid as relevant to conflict styles, therefore advocating a best way.

The 9/9 collaborative style is an applicable approach for the elementary school principal. First, the principal who adopts this style benefits the group not only by confronting and attempting to manage conflict but also by allowing the group to mature toward a self-realization of goals.

> Finally, adopting an attitude of one side winning
> and the other side losing is like pouring gasoline
> on the fire of conflict. On the other hand, the
> provisional try honest fact-find (all the facts),
> exhaustive exploration (both parties working to-
> gether), and meaningful problem-solving (with a
> lot of 'what if we try this...?' thrown in)
> pries open the door to constructive creativity
> (Lippitt, 1981:153).

Second, the use of collaboration sets a tone or mood for the working environment that permeates throughout the school. Thus the behavior of the principal is reflected in the learning environment. Filley (1974:17) states:

> Usually the resolution of conflict leaves a
> legacy which will affect the future relation
> of the parties and their attitudes about each
> other.

He then adds:

> The resolution may be one which increases the
> likelihood of future conflict or one which
> contributes to future harmony and cooperation
> (Filley, 1974:18).

Third, the style is not static, therefore allowing for versatility within the principal's role. Such behavior encourages exchanges of ideas and fosters trust that is crucial to improving interpersonal relations.

> Though extremely difficult, it (9/9) appears
> to be the soundest of several possible choices.
> This is not to imply that every decision should
> be made by a leader through calling a meeting or
> obtaining team agreement. Nor for a crisis sit-
> uation does it imply that a leader should with-
> hold exercising direction. But a 9/9 foundation
> of interdependence can build a strong basis for
> an open, problem-solving society in which men
> can have and express differences and yet be
> interrelated in ways that promote the mutual
> respect, common goals, and trust in ways that
> lead to personal gratification and maturity
> (Blake and Mouton, 1978b:100).

Finally, literature supports the notion that the elementary school teacher, through collective bargaining, has sought a greater role in the decision-making process. Methods such as competing or dominating (9/1) that are associated with the paternalism of the principal in the past, no longer are appropriate. The integrative style of management is a method that fulfills the need of the teacher to participate in the problem-solving process. In the future, then, leaders must take a con-scious, organized approach to managing. As Apply states:

Consultative supervision must become the order
of the day. Joint commitment to attainment of
pre-established objectives should result from
a style. Managers must become highly skilled
in one-on-one communication, which is the most
important skill in all human relationships.
Creative consensus management characterizes the
management style to which I refer.

Summary

The principalship of the elementary school has become a position of
leadership. This review has shown the impact of several interrelated
factors--collective bargaining for teachers, conflict, and leadership
style--upon the past, present, and future status of the principal. An
effective leader understands how the collective bargaining agreement
affects him or her and how he can deal with conflict. This principal
runs an effective school.

> For even in the strongest union districts, princi-
> pals ran good schools. At the school site, too,
> a balance must be achieved--this time between
> teacher rights and the needs of the school. Prin-
> cipals who were described by district office ad-
> ministrators and teachers to be effective in man-
> aging labor relations in their schools, were
> neither autocratic, nor had they abdicated their
> responsibilities to teachers. They did not simply
> fit their administration around the various con-
> straints and limitations imposed by collective
> bargaining. They had thought carefully about what
> teachers wanted from them and what they wanted
> from teachers (Johnson, 1981:84).

Table 2 synthesizes the concepts of leadership and conflict-manage-
ment style, attitude toward the contract, and attitude toward conflict
with respect to the principal. The table profiles five behaviors and
attitudes of the principal by relying on the ideas of Cunningham (1969),

TABLE 2

A SYNTHESIS OF BEHAVIORS AND ATTITUDES
REGARDING CONFLICT, LEADERSHIP, AND
THE CONTRACT BY PAUL GAGLIARDUCCI

TYPE	CONFLICT MODE (THOMAS)	LEADERSHIP-CONFLICT STYLE (BLAKE/MOUTON)	CONTRACT ATTITUDE (CUNNINGHAM)	CONFLICT ATTITUDE (HENCLEY ET AL.)
1	Avoiding Behavior lose-lose	Impoverished Leadership (1 , 1)	Not concerned with contract	Does not involve himself with conflict; disturbed by it
2	Accommodating Behavior lose-win	Relationship-oriented Leadership (1 , 9)	Would be shattered by collective bargaining	He may be bypassed by teachers--feels ignored
3	Competing Behavior win-lose	Authority Obedience Leadership (9 , 1)	Feels authority has been negotiated away	Relies upon his authority to solve conflicts
4	Compromising Behavior no win-no lose	Organizational Leadership (5 , 5)	Feels caught in the middle	Feels trapped in his role; dislikes conflict created by staff
5	Collaborative Behavior win-win	Team Management (9 , 9)	Accepts contract as a fact of administrative life incorporates it in behavior	Views conflict as natural and treats it as one variable of leadership

Blake and Mouton (1978a), Thomas (1976) and Hencley, McCleary, and
McGrath (1970). The profiles represent the basis for the assumptions
that were the impetus of this project.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Surveys vary greatly in their scope, their design,
and their content. As in any other research, the
specific characteristics of a survey will be de-
termined by its basic objectives. The statement
of the essential questions which the research is
intended to investigate delineates in large part
the universe to be studied, the size and nature
of the sample, the type of interview to be used,
the content of the questionnaire, the character
of the coding, and the nature of the analysis.
Specific survey methods vary according to specif-
ic survey objectives (Campbell and Katona, 1966:
17).

Introduction

The main purpose of the study was to assess attitudes and percep-

tions toward the teachers' collective bargaining agreement expressed by

elementary school principals as related to their conflict-handling

modes. The study focused specifically on the following: (a) the princi-

pals' attitudes concerning the contract's influence on their role,

function, and power within the school building, (b) contract administra-

tion as a growing responsibility for the principal at the building level,

(c) the changes in staff/principal relationships as affected by the con-

tract, and (d) the conflict management process with emphasis on dominant

conflict-handling methods.

After a review of the literature concerning the elementary school

principalship, growth of collective bargaining in education, and leader-

ship and conflict management theory, a field study was planned and con-

ducted.

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Data for the study was gathered by a questionnaire instrument developed by the researcher, and an interview procedure that included administering a conflict management survey. The questionnaire was developed to elicit attitudes and perceptions of principals toward the contract. It focused primarily on the contract's impact upon 1) the principal's role, function, and power; 2) the conflict management process; and 3) the staff/principal relationship.

The interview portion of the research had three specific purposes. First, contract administration was examined to determine present roles and responsibilities of principals. Also examined were the principals' perceptions of contract administration with regard to both relationship with staff and the conflict management process.

Second, the interview provided supportive material for the questionnaire data. Explanations were sought to determine the factors influencing a principal's decision to agree or disagree with the statements. The data from the dialogue gathered during the interview was also used to develop profiles of principals exhibiting either negative or positive attitudes towards the contract.

Finally, at the conclusion of the interview, a conflict management survey was administered to determine the dominant conflict-handling methods of the principals. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument indicated a preferred method of managing conflict according to five recognized behaviors: Competing (forcing), Collaborating (problem solving), Compromising (sharing), Avoiding (withdrawal), and Accommodating (smoothing). The information enabled the researcher to categorize and group each subject according to their dominant or most often used

conflict method. The five methods were judged as being effective
(collaborating or compromising) and less effective (competing, avoiding,
and accommodating). The frequency of response for each method was also
calculated and correlated to support or reject two of the study's hypo-
theses.

Mixing Research Methods

In planning the study, the researcher decided that data based on a
combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies would best
suit the stated objectives. The nature of the study influenced the di-
rection greatly, i.e., assessing behavior, attitudes, and perceptions.
Douglas (1976:30), for instance, believes that the researcher generally
finds it best to use some combination of methods. It is important, he
continues, that the decision be made early in the research process.

The questionnaire designed for the study focused on the individual
perceptions of principals from both study groups with specific emphasis
on the select group of twenty. An interview was planned to complement
the questionnaire and to examine more closely the factors influencing
these responses. The following conditions were assumed to have had a
critical impact: 1) current status of contract negotiations, 2) change
in staff or building assignment due to economic decisions or decline in
enrollment, 3) relationship with staff members, and 4) school climate
influenced by community support. Campbell and Katona (1966:328) explain
that the principles which govern questionnaire design and interviewing
are relevant to most situations in which information is desired from
the respondent.

In summary, to meet the objectives of the study, methods were chosen that would present a more complete examination of the problem. The analysis of the data, qualitative and quantitative, allowed for an in-depth study of the findings so that conclusions and recommendations could be substantiated.

As Bouchard states (1976:402),

> The key to good research lies not in choosing
> the right method, but rather in asking the
> right question and picking the most powerful
> method for answering that particular question.
> Methods are neither good nor bad, but rather
> more or less useful for answering particular
> questions at a particular time and place. They
> serve the purpose of the investigator.

Study Group I

To secure a valid group of twenty principals needed for the primary data of the study, a larger selection of principals was contacted. One hundred principals from the four Western Massachusetts counties were asked to respond to the contract attitude questionnaire. The principals were selected based on two criteria. The initial criterion that the principals should presently be working with staffs employed by a collective bargaining agreement was met by, 1) consulting a Massachusetts Department of Education directory, 2) contacting several school districts directly, 3) concentrating on the urban and larger suburban districts rather than smaller rural systems where collective bargaining agreements were less likely to exist, and 4) including a response in the questionnaire that determined the status of an agreement for teachers within the

school system. Of the one hundred questionnaires sent, only one princi-
pal who responded did not work with teachers presently covered by a con-
tract.

From the initial mailing of one hundred questionnaires, seventy-
eight were returned, producing a subject response rate of 78 percent.
Of the seventy-eight questionnaires received, however, seven were not in-
cluded on the data for these reasons: three principals did not meet
the second criterion of required time as administrators, one principal
worked in a system that had no collective bargaining for the teaching
staff, one principal had recently died, one was promoted to the second-
ary level, and one principal's response came too late to be calculated
in the data. An eligible response rate (Dillman, 1978:50) was then
calculated at 71 percent and represented a sufficient and valid sampling
for the study.

Demographics: study group I. The data depicting the demographic infor-
mation is listed in Tables 3, 4, and 5. The seven questions asked con-
cerned: 1) sex, 2) teachers under contract, 3) school setting, 4) size
of student enrollment, 5) principals under contract, 6) years of service
as principal, and 7) educational level.

Table 3 presents data based on sex, teachers under contract, and
principals under contract in a separate bargaining unit. The study
group was composed of 22.5 percent female (16) and 78.5 percent male
(55). Interestingly, two of the three newly appointed principals who
did not qualify for the study were female, indicating a possible trend
to consider more women for principalships. As determined by the study's

criteria, the principals (100%) all worked with staff members employed by a collective bargaining agreement. Some principals made note that contracts were still in the negotiation process and thus unsigned. The researcher felt that the status of contract procedure was not sufficient cause to exclude the respondent.

TABLE 3

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP I BY A) SEX,
B) EMPLOYMENT OF STAFF UNDER COLLECTIVE
BARGAINING AGREEMENT, C) PRINCIPAL
EMPLOYED UNDER SEPARATE BARGAINING UNIT

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE		FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE	
		#	%
A) SEX			
Female		16 =	22.5
Male		55	77.5
	Total	71	100.0
B) STAFF UNDER COL-LECTIVE BARGAIN-ING AGREEMENT			
Yes		71	100.0
No		0	0
	Total	71	100.0
C) PRINCIPALS UNDER SEPARATE BAR-GAINING UNIT			
Yes		67	94.5
No		4	5.6
	Total	71	100.0

Most principals in the group were found to be employed by a contract negotiated by a separate bargaining unit. The data indicated that 94.4 percent (67) belonged to such units, while only 5.6 percent (4) did not bargain as a group.

The information presented by Table 4 concerns school setting and school size. The respondents were asked to label their community as either urban or suburban. The data showed that 36.6 percent (26) of the group worked in urban schools. A majority, 63.4 percent (45), labeled their communities as suburban. The data was indicative of the geographic environment of Western Massachusetts.

TABLE 4

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP I BY
D) SCHOOL SETTING, E) SCHOOL SIZE

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE	
	#	%
D) SCHOOL SETTING		
Urban	26	36.6
Suburban	45	63.4
Total	71	100.0
E) SCHOOL SIZE		
Less than 200	2	2.8
200 - 400	43	60.6
over 400	26	36.6
Total	71	100.0

School size was measured by the student enrollment of each school. Only 2.8 percent (2) of the responses came from schools with fewer than 200 students. A majority of the principals, 60.6 percent (43), worked with enrollments of 200-400. Schools with over 400 students were represented in the study by 36.6 percent (26) of the respondents. School size was included in the study because of its relationship to number of staff members. Large schools (over 400) usually have more than fifteen teachers, medium schools (200-400), ten to fifteen, and small schools (under 200) have fewer than ten. The variable of school size was measured in the final analysis of data for its effect on conflict management styles.

Table 5 lists the number of years as a principal as well as a principal's educational level. No principals in the study had less than five years of service (a qualifying criterion for the study). The number of principals with five to nine years was found to be twelve (16.9%), while twenty-one (29.6%) of the subjects had eleven to fourteen years in administration. The majority of the responses, 53.5 percent (38), indicate that the study group was composed of veteran principals who had witnessed the growth of collective bargaining from the mid-sixties to the present.

The educational levels determined by the questionnaire indicated that most principals had obtained either a master's or advanced graduate degree, 47.9 percent (34) for each degree. Only one (1.4%) had a bachelor's degree while two (2.8%) had reached the doctorate level. Although some respondents indicated that additional credits had been obtained, the study was concerned only with the earned degree status of the respondent.

TABLE 5

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP I BY
F) YEARS AS PRINCIPAL, G) EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE	
	#	%
F) YEARS AS PRINCIPAL		
0-4	0	0.0
5-9	12	16.9
11-14	21	29.6
over 15	38	53.5
Total	71	100.0
G) EDUCATIONAL LEVEL		
Bachelors	1	1.4
Masters	34	47.9
Advanced Degree (CAGS)	34	47.9
Doctorate	2	2.8
Total	71	100.0

The Questionnaire

The development of the research project was patterned after the nine tasks outlined by Campbell and Katona (1966:39). The tasks included developing and completing the following: 1) general objectives, 2) specific objectives, 3) sampling, 4) questionnaire development, 5) field work, 6) content analysis, 7) analysis plan, 8) machine tabulation, and 9) analysis and reporting (1966:39-40).

The questionnaire represented a major function of the process. First, it translated the objectives of the entire project into data gathering statements. As Cannell and Kahn state (1966:340),

> In order to achieve this purpose, each question must convey to the respondent the idea or group of ideas required by the research objectives, and each question must obtain a response which can be analyzed so that the results fulfill the research objective.

Second, the questionnaire linked other strategies and instruments to the data it solicited. Since the interview was planned as a second step, the questionnaire assisted the interviewer in motivating the respondents to communicate the required information (Cannell and Kahn, 1966:340). Furthermore, the questionnaire did much to determine the character of the interviewer-respondent relationship and, consequently, the quantity and quality of the data collected (Cannell and Kahn, 1966: 340).

Third, the questionnaire helped to formulate the basis for final analysis. For example, the attitudes and perceptions of the principals were converted into quantitative and qualitative data used to draw conclusions and make recommendations.

Finally, the tabulated scores from numbers 3, 4, 11, 13, and 20 were used to select the principals for the second study group. The response to these statements produced two subgroups based on negative and positive attitudes toward the contract's impact on the principal's role and functions.

A number of factors were considered throughout the development of the questionnaire. The research was sensitive to the rules presented

by Bouchard (1976:381-382). More specifically, the items were evaluated to determine whether they were: 1) necessary, 2) repetitious, 3) clear, specific, and direct, 4) ordered properly, 5) unbiased, and 6) adaptable to tabulation. To accomplish the task, the questionnaire was subjected to a pilot test involving principals from a school district not included in the study. A research consultant was asked to make further comments in conjunction with criticisms from the dissertation guidance committee.

Two mailings (Dillman, 1978:160-183) were conducted during the questionnaire phase. In the first mailing an introductory letter (Appendix C) accompanied the questionnaire, briefly explaining the research project and its intent. The respondent was assured anonymity and notified that he might be asked to continue in the second phase of the project. Each letter also included a self-addressed stampled envelope.

A second mailing with questionnaire was sent to each subject in the study group (Appendix D). Those who had returned the questionnaire were thanked, asked to keep the questionnaire for their files, and reminded that they might be called upon to participate again. To the others, the researcher stressed the importance of the study and asked again for their participation. Self-addressed stamped envelopes were again enclosed.

The questionnaire contained twenty-three closed-ended statements measured by a 5-point Likert scale (Mouly, 1970:299): strongly agree to strongly disagree. Each of the items was constructed to determine the impact of the collective bargaining agreement on several factors affecting the principalship. The items focused on three specific areas:

1) the impact on the principal's role, functions, and power, items 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, and 18;

2) the impact on the staff/principal relationship, items
   3, 6, 12, 13, and 17;

3) the impact on conflict and the conflict resolution pro-
   cess, items 19, 20, 21, and 22.

Two items were also included to gauge the general attitudes of the col-
lective bargaining agreement upon the educational institution; items
16 and 23, but were not used during the final analysis of the data.

In order to score each item, the researcher developed a specific de-
sign to give the items a negative or positive bias. Phrases such as
"much easier," "positive effect," "negative impact," and "more diffi-
cult" were used frequently throughout the construction. Items 5, 11,
13, 16, 19, and 22 were constructed to be positive in nature. The nega-
tive items were 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 21,
and 23.

As previously noted, the total response rate for the questionnaire
was measured at 78 percent. The first mailing produced sixty-eight
responses. Ten returns came after the second letter. The researcher
felt that the response was extremely high considering the small sample.

Study Group II

A group of twenty principals was selected to be interviewed and to
respond to a conflict management survey. The twenty, selected from the
principals who had responded to the questionnaire, were labeled as study
group II. The selection process included the use of five questionnaire
items: 3, 4, 11, 13, and 20. The responses to each item were analyzed
to determine significant positive and negative attitudes. Each item was

scored on a Likert scale from 1 to 5 correlated with the terms strongly agree (1), agree (2), neither agree/disagree (3), disagree (4), and strongly disagree (5). All items were weighted to the positive when tabulations were conducted. A negative biased item, therefore, had a reverse-ordered score, i.e., strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neither agree/disagree (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

The items were chosen for two purposes. First, each was representative of the three specific focus areas in the questionnaire. Items 3 and 13 involved the principal/staff relationship, 4 and 11 were concerned with attitudes relating to job and functions, and 20 referred to the conflict resolution process. Second, the items were to be used later as references for discussion during the interview. Thus, the researcher was able to examine in detail the responses of a smaller group of principals relative to specific areas rather than by a general discussion of the contract.

The results indicated that twenty-seven principals qualified for the study group. The following procedures were used to secure twenty principals who were willing to continue participation in the study: 1) the principals were divided into negative and positive groups, 2) principals with the more significant scores were contacted first, and 3) the first ten who agreed to continue were designated as participants in the study. Since the scores of the principals were sufficient to qualify them for the study, there was no need to random sample the group or select participants based on demographic information. The principals' desire and willingness to contribute to the study was the determining factor for selection.

Table 6 depicts the analysis of the principals in study group II
by all questionnaire items and the five items used in the selection pro-
cess. The principals who exhibited a more positive attitude had a mean
score on the entire questionnaire of 2.1684. The mean score range on
the five items was from 1.0000 to 2.6000. The more negative members of
the study group had a mean score on all questionnaire items of 3.9105
and a five item score range of 4.0000 to 5.0000.

TABLE 6

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP II BY MEANS SCORES FOR
ITEMS 3,4,11,13,20 AND COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE

GROUP MEMBER TYPE	QUESTIONNAIRE MEAN SCORE	ITEM MEAN SCORE	FREQUENCY
Positive Group	2.1684	1.0000	1
		2.0000	1
		2.2000	5
		2.4000	2
		2.6000	1
		Total	10
Negative Group	3.9105	5.0000	1
		4.8000	1
		4.4000	1
		4.2000	2
		4.0000	5
		Total	10

Demographics: study group II. The data illustrating the demographic in-
formation is listed in Tables 7, 8, and 9. The same questions used for
the larger study group also apply, i.e., sex, teachers under contract,

school setting, size of student enrollment, principals under contract, years of service as a principal, and educational level.

Table 7 presents data based on sex, teachers under contract, and principals under contract in a separate bargaining unit. The study group was composed of four (20%) females and sixteen (80%) males. This data is similar to the larger study group indicating that the composition is representative of all principals surveyed. The principals (100%) were all working with staff members employed by a contract as determined by the study's criteria. Similarly, each member of the study group (100%) was employed under a separate bargaining agreement.

The data in Table 8 presents information based on school setting and school size. The composite totals of the group indicate that nine (45%) came from school located in urban areas while eleven (55%) labeled their school as situated in a suburban setting. These statistics differ slightly from the larger group. A majority of principals, fourteen (70%), worked in schools with enrollments between 200 to 400 students. Schools with over 400 pupils were represented by six (30%) of the principals in the group. The larger study group had similar percentages also.

The final information, educational level and years of a principal, are listed in Table 9. According to the criteria, no principal could qualify with less than five years. Three principals (15%) had served between five to nine years; three (15%) served eleven to fourteen; and fourteen (70%) of the principals had fifteen or more years of service.

TABLE 7

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP II BY A) SEX,
B) EMPLOYMENT OF STAFF UNDER A COLLECTIVE
BARGAINING AGREEMENT, C) PRINCIPAL EMPLOYED
UNDER A SEPARATE BARGAINING UNIT

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE BY GROUP					
	Positive		Negative		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
A) SEX						
Female	1	10.0	3	30.0	4	20.0
Male	9	90.0	7	70.0	16	80.0
				Total	20	100.0
B) STAFF UNDER COLLEC-TIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENT						
Yes	10	100.0	10	100.0	20	100.0
No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
				Total	20	100.0
C) PRINCIPALS UNDER SEPARATE BAR-GAINING UNIT						
Yes	10	100.0	10	100.0	20	100.0
No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
				Total	20	100.0

TABLE 8

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP II BY
D) SCHOOL SETTING, E) SCHOOL SIZE

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE BY GROUP					
	Positive		Negative		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
D) SCHOOL SETTING						
Urban	5	50.0	6	60.0	11	55.0
Suburban	5	50.0	4	40.0	9	45.0
				Total	20	100.0
E) SCHOOL SIZE						
200–400	7	70.0	7	70.0	14	70.0
over 400	3	30.0	3	30.0	6	30.0
				Total	20	100.0

TABLE 9

COMPOSITION OF STUDY GROUP II BY
F) YEARS AS PRINCIPAL, G) EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF RESPONSE BY GROUP					
	Positive		Negative		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
F) YEARS AS PRINCIPAL						
5-9	2	20.0	1	10.0	3	15.0
11-14	1	10.0	2	20.0	3	15.0
over 15	7	70.0	7	70.0	14	70.0
			Total		20	100.0
G) EDUCATIONAL LEVEL						
Masters	5	50.0	2	20.0	7	35.0
Advanced Degree (CAGS)	5	50.0	8	80.0	13	65.0
			Total		20	100.0

This was significant for the study because an important assumption was based on the fact that the influence of collective bargaining had grown during the past two decades.

The educational level data indicated that seven (35%) of the group had attained a master's degree and the remainder, thirteen (65%) had an advanced graduate degree (CAGS). None of the members held a doctorate or had only a bachelor's degree. The data from study group I (Table 5)

differed somewhat in that the number of principals holding master's and advanced degree levels was equal.

The Interview

> Interviewing is widely used as a systematic data-collecting technique in organizational research settings. Few researchers fail to use, at one time or another, some sort of focused conversation with participants. The interview may take place during the exploratory phase, during the course of the research itself, or during the analytic phase where it is used to help interpret data collected by other means. The popularity of the interview and its step-brother, the questionnaire, is not an accident. The interview and the questionnaire capitalize on language, the human beings' most powerful form of communication (Bouchard, 197 :368).

An interview-questionnaire process was conducted to accommodate the type of data, i.e., personal perceptions and attitudes of the impact of collective bargaining. The mix of strategies allowed for an in-depth investigation of circumstances and factors that affected the question-naire responses. The gathering of additional support for the data aided in delineating the negative and positive subgroups found in the project.

Twenty principals (study group II) were interviewed during the field study. Each received a letter (Appendix D), and then a follow-up phone call. The conversation consisted of an introduction, an explanation of the nature of the interview, and an invitation to participate. After an affirmative response was received, interview details (date, time, place) were arranged. Due to a flexible research schedule, the times for the interviews varied; however, all were conducted during the

last three weeks of December. Although that was a busy period for ele-

mentary schools, the principals were most cooperative in scheduling the

meetings.

The interview was planned and conducted according to procedures and

guidelines outlined in several sources: Katz, 1966; Cannell and Kahn,

1966; Schatzman and Strauss, 1973; Douglas, 1976; Bogdon and Tayor,

1975; and Patton, 1980. Special attention was given to 1) being prompt

and prepared, 2) developing an immediate rapport with the subject,

3) maintaining interest in the subject's responses, and 4) probing and

motivating the subjects when appropriate.

The responses were taped to facilitate the interview and to allow

for easier dialogue between the interviewer and subjects. Sensitive

issues concerning current or prior grievances and personality conflicts

were not recorded. During the interview, listening and non-verbal com-

munication techniques were used to distract the subject from the pres-

ence of the machine. This effort proved to be successful, for many of

the interviews were conducted in a relaxed atmosphere that led to open-

ness and candor.

The interview had two specific objectives. The first was to sup-

port or reject hypothesis Number 3, "Elementary school principals do not

perceive themselves as being comfortable within their role as contract

administrator," by discussing the issue of contract administration. Con-

tract administration was defined for each subject as, "the principal's

role in interpreting, enforcing, and implementing the contract by either

personal initiative, superintendent directive, or school committee

policy."

Using a standardized, open-ended interview method outlined by Pat-
ton (1980), the researcher asked each subject three questions:

1) What is your role in the administration of your school

   system's collective bargaining agreement?

2) Are you comfortable with this role?

3) Do you feel that this role has increased the possibility

   for conflict to occur between you and staff members?

The second objective was to provide a broader explanation of re-
sponses to selected items on the questionnaire. To achieve this, an
interview guide method (Patton, 1980) and open-ended interview strate-
gies (Bogdon and Taylor, 1975) were used. The items used to select
members for study group II, the final twenty principals, were also used
in the interview. Items 3, 4, 11, 13, and 20 became the focus for dis-
cussion concerning the collective bargaining agreement's influence on
the principalship.

A pilot test of the interview proceedings had initially been con-
ducted with principals not included in the research group. The process
allowed the interviewer the opportunity to practice skills, to determine
interview length and to revise certain questions. The length of the
final interviews varied from 25 to 75 minutes depending on time con-
straints or the subject's willingne-s to discuss the issues. Although
many of the principals expressed a concern for the importance and time-
liness of the research topic, some were inquisitive as to why the pro-
ject was chosen. Others felt the subject was very sensitive and person-
al because it reflected the condition of the staff/principal relationship.

There were several, however, who "jumped" at the opportunity to express their feelings about collective bargaining.

The interviews proved rewarding, successful, and useful experiences. The data collected was rich with insights and sensitivities toward the issue and its impact on the principalship. As Cannell and Kahn (1966: 330) state, "In short, if the focal data for a research project are the attitudes and perceptions of individuals, the most direct and often the most fruitful approach is to ask the individuals themselves."

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument[1]

To determine the conflict-handling strategies of the subjects in the second study group, the researcher used the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. Developed by Drs. Kenneth W. Thomas and Ralph H. Kilmann, the instrument is designed to assess an individual's conflict-handling behavior.

Such behavior is described along two dimensions. Within a given conflict situation, an individual exhibits either a degree of assertiveness (attempting to meet personal needs) or a degree of cooperativeness (attempting to satisfy the needs of others). These dimensions were first introduced by Blake and Mouton (1973) and later reinterpreted by Thomas (Thomas and Kilmann, 1977).

The grid diagram from Thomas (1974), as shown in Chapter II, illustrates an individual's mode in relation to the two dimensions. Utilizing

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[1]Copyright Xicon, Inc., 1974.

the four cornered axes and a mid-point on the grid, five methods of
conflict-handling modes were labeled as:

1) <u>Competing</u> - assertive and uncooperative; defined as
   "standing up for your rights" or defending a position
   which you believe is right.

2) <u>Accommodating</u> - unassertive and cooperative; signifying
   a selfless generosity or charity, also obeying and
   yielding to another's point of view.

3) <u>Avoiding</u> - unassertive and uncooperative; illustrated
   as someone who sidesteps, postpones, or withdraws from
   an issue.

4) <u>Collaborating</u> - assertive and cooperative; defined as
   combining resources and insights creatively to solve
   a problem.

5) <u>Compromising</u> - intermediately assertive and cooperative;
   described as splitting the difference, exchanging con-
   cessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground.

Several factors were considered before selection of the conflict
mode instrument: 1) the researcher was familiar with the instrument;
2) the instrument does not take long to explain, administer, and
complete; 3) it is easily scored and interpreted (an important consid-
eration when planning the length of an interview meeting); 4) the
instrument relies heavily on the concepts presented by Blake and
Mouton (1964, 1978a, 1978b) which were fundamental components of the
literature survey; and 5) although based on the accepted limitation of
the individual's self-perception of his conflict behavior, the instrument

is reliable and valid for the project's objectives. (Support data con-
cerning the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument is found in an arti-
cle entitled, "Developing a Forced-Choice Measure of Conflict-Handling
Behavior: The Mode Instrument," by Thomas and Kilmann, Educational and
Psychological Measurement, 1977:37).

At the conclusion of the interview, each subject was given a copy
of the conflict instrument and booklet. The interviewer briefly ex-
plained the purpose of the conflict instrument and provided directions
to complete it. When the subject had finished, the instrument was
hand-scored and the results were briefly explained. The booklet, which
remained with the subject, offered additional insights for the subject
to review at another time. The principals were pleased to be able to
interpret their scores in more detail at their own convenience.

The final step involved with the conflict instrument was the inter-
pretation of the data for use in a comparison with attitudes of the
subjects with regard to collective bargaining. Two of the five conflict
methods were classified as being more productive than the others:
"collaboration" and "compromising." The methods of "avoiding," "accom-
modating," and "competing" are not interpreted as decidedly wrong or
inappropriate, but simply less productive in the long term. These
arguments were presented in Chapter II.

<p align="center">Quantitative Analysis</p>

Quantitative data was derived from the questionnaire and the
Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The questionnaire responses

were first treated as a large group, seventy-one, and then reduced to the smaller subgroup of twenty. The conflict instrument was administered to the second group only.

First, the frequency of responses for each questionnaire item was tabulated. Also, the demographic information was calculated so that comparisons could be made of attitudes dependent on sex, school size, educational level, years of service, and school setting. Each questionnaire item was additional ranked and scored to determine levels of significance and to help select the subgroup based on the degree of negative and positive scores.

The results from the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument were also scored and ranked. Treated as a group, rather than individually, the scores were correlated with the questionnaire items. The following were used to complete the statistical analysis:

1) Mann-Whitney U-Test - to measure the significance of differences between the negative and positive scores,

2) T-Test - to determine the significance of response score means,

3) Pearson's Correlation Coefficients Test - to determine the difference in response frequency from the positive to negative group,

4) Chi-square Test - to discover the patterns of response from the questionnaire items and interview responses.

Qualitative Analysis

The twenty interviews served as the source for the qualitative data in the study, producing over eighty pages of transcribed dialogue. A case study profiling each subgroup, negative and positive, was then developed. The objective of the procedure was to provide an in-depth analysis of the issue by concentrating on the personal observations of the twenty principals. The profiles outlined at the conclusion of Chapter II gave focus to these case studies.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to outline the procedures and methods used in the field study for the research project. The rationale for the choice of each instrument has been presented and outlined. Also a detailed description of the procedures used by the researcher has been offered. Chapter IV gives in detail the results of the data, and leads to the final analysis which will support or reject the assumptions and hypotheses of the study.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The central focus of this research study is to assess the relation-
ship between the principal's attitude toward the teachers' contract and
the method by which he handles conflict. To collect data, three dis-
tinct procedures were used, and the results are reported in Chapter IV.

The first procedure, a contract attitude questionnaire, was used to
examine how principals in the study perceived the impact of the teachers'
contract on their a) role, function, and power; b) relationship with
staff; and c) conflict-management methods. The questionnaire data were
gathered from the responses of seventy-one elementary school principals.

Following analysis of the questionnaire, twenty principals were
selected to participate in an interview and to respond to the Thomas-
Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The interview was designed to assess
the principal's function as contract administrator. Additionally, the
interview examined the responses of questionnaire items 3, 4, 11, 13,
and 20 so that an in-depth analysis could be made as to attitudes toward
the teachers' contract. These principals were categorized as exhibiting
either positive or negative attitudes.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument was used to determine
a) the frequency with which principals employed five conflict-handling
methods, and b) the preferred or dominant method used by a principal
when first confronted with a conflict situation. Upon completion of
the "Mode" instrument, the principals were categorized as being

effective or less effective handlers of conflict. Of the five methods surveyed by the "Mode" instrument, collaboration and compromise were designated as effective strategies while the modes of competing, avoiding, and accomodating were selected as less effective.*

The data from each procedure were then subjected to the statistical tests outlined in Chapters I and III. Conclusions and recommendations to be presented in Chapter V also developed from the information.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire instrument was developed to determine the attitudes and perceptions of the collective bargaining agreement on the elementary school principal.

The twenty-three questionnaire items found in Tables 10, 11, 12, and 13 were constructed to focus on a) changes in the principal's role, function, and power; b) his relationship with staff; and c) the effect on the principal's ability to manage conflict. Two of the twenty-three items elicited a general attitude concerning the effect of the contract on the educational process. The questionnaire also contained seven demographic items involving sex, years of service, school setting, size of school, educational level of the subject, employment of teachers

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*The terms positive and negative are not intended to suggest the effectiveness of the subject. Positive does not refer to a successful performance level, nor does negative reflect a poor one. No data were gathered to evaluate the principal as perceived or judged by teachers, superiors, or the school community. The same is true for the terms effective and less effective methods of conflict resolution. Collaboration and Compromise were labeled effective based on the theories of Blake and Mouton described in Chapter II.

under a bargaining agreement, and membership of principals in a bar-
gaining unit.

Ranking of responses by mean scores: the effect on a principal's role,
function, and power. The data analyzing the principals' perceptions of
the contract's effect on role, function, and power are presented in
Table 10. The mean score of each item is based on the responses of the
seventy-one principals. Each principal was asked to select a fixed
response based on a 5-point scale: strongly agree-1, agree-2, neutral-
3, disagree-4, and strongly disagree-5. Ranks were then computed to
illustrate those items that were strongly agreed with as contrasted with
those that were most strongly disagreed.

Item 1 ("collective bargaining has changed the functions of my
job") received the highest ranking (2.183) with 67% of the principals
strongly agreeing or agreeing that changes had taken place. The con-
cepts expressed by item 15 ("the contract has inhibited attempts to im-
prove staff supervision") and item 7 ("collective bargaining has placed
my position within a managerial role") were viewed as other significant
factors influenced by the contract.

The principals disagreed (73% mean = 3.704) with item 8 ("there is
no need for a collective bargaining agreement") indicating that they
supported the basic aims of the contract. Additionally, their negative
response to item 2 ("personnel management would best be handled by the
central office") illustrated a desire to maintain the teacher supervis-
ion function in spite of the bargaining agreement. Sixty-six percent
also felt that the contract had not "forced them to acquire new skills"

TABLE 10

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE SCORES OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
1,2,4,5,7,8,9,10,11,14,15,18:
STUDY GROUP I

Questionnaire Item (summary phrase)	Response Frequencies and Percentages										Mean	Rank
	SA[a]		A		N		D		SD			
	#	%[b]	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%		
1. "job function has changed"	25	35	23	32	9	13	13	18	1	1	2.183	1
2. "personnel management handled better by central office"	4	5	11	16	10	14	30	42	16	23	3.606	11
4. "job was much easier"	3	4	14	20	21	30	22	31	11	16	3.338	8
5. "decision-making role has remained unchanged"	3	4	13	18	7	10	37	53	10	14	3.543	9
7. "position within a managerial role"	4	5	35	50	16	23	13	18	3	4	2.662	3
8. "contract needed for money only"	2	3	8	11	9	13	42	59	10	14	3.704	12

TABLE 10 (continued)

												Mean	
9.	"administration would be less difficult"	5	7	18	25	9	13	33	47	6	8	3.239	7
10.	"I'm forced to acquire new skills"	0	0	13	18	11	16	39	55	8	11	3.592	10
11.	"positive effects on functions"	1	1	16	23	26	37	23	32	5	7	3.211	6
14.	"consult with building rep before making contract decisions"	3	4	24	34	9	13	29	41	6	8	3.157	5
15.	"inhibits staff supervision"	8	11	38	54	7	10	15	21	3	4	2.535	2
18.	"negative effects on power base"	3	4	27	38	21	30	17	24	3	4	2.859	4

[a]Code – SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

[b]All percentages rounded off.

as stated by item 10. Interestingly, item 5 ("my role in the decision-making process has remained unchanged") was perceived by sixty-seven percent of the principals as a significant change.

The remaining items (4,9,11,14, and 18) received a balance of response which resulted in near neutral mean scores. The principals were neutral in their perception that their "jobs had been easier prior to collective bargaining" as stated by item 4. Item 11 ("there has been a positive effect on my functions as chief administrator") and item 18 ("there has been a negative effect on my power base") both received near neutral scores. The notions that "administration would be less difficult" (item 9) and "there is now a need to consult with the building representative prior to making decisions" (item 14) also did not produce significant negative or positive response scores from the principals.

Ranking of response by mean scores: the effect on the staff/principal relationship. The data in Table 11 depict the principals' attitudes and perceptions regarding the contract's effect on the staff/principal relationship. Fifty-nine percent of the principals (mean - 2.493) believed that "teachers had begun to rely heavily on the contract" as stated by item 12. For item 6, "fewer conflicts would occur without collective bargaining," the principals revealed a moderate agreement (43%). In addition, they disagreed with the idea that "the contract has had a positive effect on the relationship of principal and staff" (item 6). Finally, there was strong disagreement (65%, mean = 3.657)

TABLE 11

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE SCORES OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
3,6,12,13,17:
STUDY GROUP I

Questionnaire Item (summary phrase)	Response Frequency and Percentages										Mean	Rank
	SA[a]		A		N		D		SD			
	#	%[b]	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%		
3. "less constrained in handling staff without contract"	1	1	11	16	13	18	33	47	13	18	3.657	5
6. "staff relations would cause less conflict without contract"	9	13	21	30	20	27	17	24	4	6	2.800	2
12. "staff relies on contract"	10	14	32	45	16	23	10	14	3	4	2.493	1
13. "positive effect on staff/principal relationship"	1	1	12	17	25	35	31	43	2	3	3.296	4
17. "teachers hide behind contract"	5	7	26	37	8	11	27	38	5	7	3.014	3

[a]Code - SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

[b]All percentages rounded off.

that "the principal would feel less constrained in handling staff re-
lated matters" as proposed in item 3.

Ranking of response by mean scores: the effect on the principal's
ability to handle conflict.   The four items listed in Table 12 indicate
that the principals generally agreed with the statements concerning
conflict and conflict management.   Item 22 ("the contract permits con-
flicts to be resolved or settled") received the highest rank with 61%
of the principals either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the state-
ment.   Conversely, fifty-five percent of them believed that "the process
of conflict resolution has become more difficult" as stated by item 20.
The response to item 19 ("conflicts have not increased due to collective
bargaining") indicates that the principals believe no significant
changes have occurred regarding the existence of conflict prior to the
contract.   There was also evidence (43% agreement) that suggested prin-
cipals had begun to notice the use of unions as mentioned in item 21
("teachers turn to the union rather than the principal to settle con-
flicts").

Ranking of responses by mean scores: the effect on the educational pro-
cess.   Table 13 reports the results of the two items which focused on
the contract's general influence on the educational process.   Item 16
("there has been a positive effect on improving education in the class-
room") received a moderate negative attitude with 47% of the principals
either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing.   The final item (23) had a
neutral score of 3.0000 indicating that the principals were evenly

TABLE 12

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE SCORES OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
19,20,21,22:
STUDY GROUP I

Questionnaire Item (summary phrase)	Response Frequencies and Percentages											Mean	Rank
	SA[a]		A		N		D		SD				
	#	%[b]	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%			
19. "conflicts not increased"	7	10	35	50	8	11	17	24	4	5		2.662	3
20. "conflict resolution has become difficult"	5	7	34	48	14	20	17	24	1	1		2.648	2
21. "teachers turn to union to resolve conflicts"	4	6	26	37	17	24	18	25	6	8		2.944	4
22. "contract allows for conflict settlement"	4	5	40	56	16	23	10	14	1	1		2.493	1

[a]Code – SA-Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

[b]All percentages rounded off.

TABLE 13

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE SCORES OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
16,23
STUDY GROUP I

Questionnaire Item (summary phrase)	Response Frequencies and Percentages											
	SA[a]		A		N		D		SD		Mean	Rank
	#	%[b]	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%		
16. "positive effect on improving education in classroom"	2	3	8	11	27	38	28	39	6	8	3.394	1
23. "negatives outnumber the positives"	6	8	17	24	22	31	23	32	3	4	3.000	2

[a] Code - SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neutral, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

[b] All percentages rounded off.

divided concerning the concepts that "the negatives had outnumbered the positives when considering the contributions that the collective bargaining agreement had made to the educational process."

Analysis of responses for effects on role, function and power: positive vs. negative sub-groups. Table 14 presents the data relating to role, function, and power as perceived by the members of the second study group who have been categorized as exhibiting positive or negative attitudes. The data are analyzed by a "T-Test" to determine the difference in the mean of both groups. The positive group members' mean score was calculated at 2.4182 while the negative group score equalled 3.8545. The probability score of .000 was significant at the $p < .01$ level with 18 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 14

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF ITEMS:
1,2,3,5,7,8,9,10,14,15,18 FOR
POSITIVE GROUP AND NEGATIVE GROUP

Positive	10	2.4182	.405				
				1.57	-7.00	.18	.000[a]
Negative	10	3.8545	.507				

[a]Significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Analysis of response for effect on staff/principal relationship: positive vs. negative sub-groups. Table 15 presents the data depicting the difference of attitudes concerning the effects of collective bargaining

on the principal's relationship with staff. The compared means of 2.000 and 4.1000 result in a probability score of .000 which is significant at the $p < .01$ level.

TABLE 15

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF ITEMS:
3,6,12,13,17 FOR
POSITIVE GROUP AND NEGATIVE GROUP

Group	N	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
Positive	10	2.0000	.411	1.86	-9.56	18	.000[a]
Negative	10	4.1000	.560				

[a]Significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Analysis of responses for effects on the principal's ability to handle conflict: positive vs. negative sub-groups. The data in Table 16 depict attitudes as to the principal and the conflict management process. The means of 1.8250 and 3.5000 indicate a probability score of .000 which is significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Analysis of the response to the complete questionnaire: positive vs. negative sub-groups. Table 17 presents the mean scores of both groups from the entire questionnaire. The mean scores of 2.1684 and 3.9105 are significant at the $p < .01$ level.

TABLE 16

T-Test Analysis of Items:
19,20,21,22 for
Positive Group and Negative Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
Positive	10	1.8250	.442				
				1.78	-7.19	18	.000[a]
Negative	10	3.5000	.589				

[a]Significant at the p< .01 level.

TABLE 17

T-Test Analysis of All Questionnaire Items
for Positive Group and Negative Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
Positive	10	2.1684	.318				
				1.53	-10.90	18	.000[a]
Negative	10	3.9105	.393				

[a]Significant at the p< .01 level.

Demographic analysis. The questionnaire contained seven items relative
to the study population's demographics: sex, teachers under contract,
school setting, size, principals in a separate bargaining unit, years
as a principal, and educational level. Four items were considered to
have a possible effect on the responses: sex, school setting, school
size and years as a principal. Since all of the principals worked with

teachers under the contract, a research criterion for participation,
analysis of the item was not considered valid. Only four (5.6%) prin-
cipals did not belong to a separate bargaining unit in the study group;
therefore, a comparison of the item was also judged to be invalid. The
educational level of the group was balanced equally between masters' and
CAGS degrees. Had the group exhibited a more divergent set of responses
involving all four categories, a test on the item would have been con-
ducted.

The tests performed on the other four variables are presented in
Tables 18 and 19. Table 18 illustrates the results from the T-Tests
with sex and school settings as variables. The results indicate that
no significant differences existed between male and female respondents
or between those who worked in urban and suburban school systems.

TABLE 18

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES:
SEX AND SCHOOL SETTING

Demographic Group	N	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
SEX							
Male	55	3.0179	.617				
				1.20	.62	69	.540
Female	16	3.1349	.676				
SCHOOL SETTING							
Urban	26	2.9693	.719				
				1.53	-.70	69	.514
Suburban	45	3.0799	.587				

An analysis of variance was conducted on the variables of school size and years of service because each item contained multiple responses. Table 19 depicts the results of the test. Again, no significant differences existed in either variable. School size and years of service did not significantly influence the response scores of the principals from the large study group. The variables of the second study group of principals were not examined due to the small sample size of twenty.

TABLE 19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF TOTAL QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES:
DEMOGRAPHICS-SCHOOL SIZE AND YEARS OF SERVICE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-Value
Between school size	.087	2	.043	.107
Within school size	27.189	67	.406	
Between years of service	.684	2	.342	.938
Within years of service	24.433	67	.365	

Summary of tables 14-19. The results of the statistical analysis of the questionnaire were presented in Tables 14-19. The questionnaire was treated as a whole instrument and was also sub-divided according to the principals' three critical areas: a) role, function, and power; b) the relationship with staff members; and c) involvement in the

conflict management process. The differences in attitudes expressed by the principals were calculated at significant levels. Therefore, the following null hypotheses are rejcted:

1) Elementary school principals do not perceive an effect upon their role, functions, and power from the collective bargaining agreement of teachers.

2) The contract has not affected the relationship of the principal and staff as it relates to supervision and conflict resolution as perceived by elementary school principals.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument

The data gathered by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument served two useful purposes. First, the data indicated a preferred or dominant mode of conflict management for each subject. Second, the data depicted the frequencies with which mode was selected by the principals.

The analysis of the data included several tests that compared both the dominant mode and frequencies by sub-group; positive vs. negative, and effective vs. less effective. The positive and negative group were determined by contract attitudes. The effectiveness group was categorized by the dominant conflict mode: collaborative and compromise = effective; competing, avoiding, and accommodating = less effective.

Table 20 depicts the results of the positive group. Eight principals were categorized as exhibiting effective dominant styles. In two cases, effective and less effective modes were used an equal number of times. Prior to administering the instrument, the researcher had

TABLE 20

FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSE TO FIVE CONFLICT MODES
FROM THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT
POSITIVE GROUP MEMBERS

Modes and Frequencies

Subject	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating	Style Category (effectiveness)
P-1	3	7	6	9^a	5	--
P-2	3	7	10^a	6	4	+
P-3	9^a	8	3	7	3	--
P-4	2	4	9^a	6	9 (tie)	+
P-5	7	11^a	4	4	4	+
P-6	2	8^a	7	8 (tie)	5	+
P-7	1	9^a	6	7	7	+
P-8	1	8	9^a	5	7	+
P-9	5	8^a	7	6	4	+
P-10	2	5	9^a	7	7	+
Total	35	75	70	65	55	

[a] Indicates dominant or preferred mode.

[b] Categorized as effective (+) or less effective (--) by dominant mode.

determined that such cases would be categorized as effective. Table 21
represents the scores of the negative group. The data indicates that
seven principals were categorized as employing less effective conflict
modes. Analysis of both tables illustrates that by total response the
positive group favored the effective modes while the negative group had
more responses in less effective modes. By rank the positive group
scores were: 1-collaborating, 2-compromising, 3-avoiding, 4-accommo-
dating, and 5-competing. The negative group employed the modes in this
order: 1-avoiding, 2-accommodating, 3-collaborating, 4-compromising,
and 5-competing.

Analysis of response means for the "mode" instrument. Tables 22, 23,
24, 25, and 26 present the analysis of the response mean scores from
the "Mode" instrument. The data are analyzed by both contract attitude
and effectiveness style groups. Table 22 indicates that no significant
differences exist in the mean scores of the positive and negative group.
The collaborative scores, however, indicate a tendency toward the
significant level at $p = < .1$.

Table 23 compares the mean scores for the effectiveness style
groups. Scores for both the compromising and avoiding modes were suf-
ficiently different to be calculated at significant levels. The com-
promising mode was significant at the $p < .05$ level with the effective
group utilizing the mode more frequently. The avoiding mode, which was
employed by the negative group, was significant at the $p < .01$ level.

TABLE 21

FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSE TO FIVE CONFLICT MODES
FROM THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT
NEGATIVE GROUP MEMBERS

Mode and Frequencies

Subject	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating	Style Category (effectiveness)
N-1	2	6	2	12^a	8	$--^b$
N-2	0	7	5	10^a	8	--
N-3	5	10^a	5	5	5	+
N-4	6	3	9^a	4	8	+
N-5	1	8^a(tie)	8^a	7	6	+
N-6	8^a	5	3	6	7	--
N-7	2	7	7	9^a	5	--
N-8	9^a	3	8	5	5	--
N-9	1	6	8	9^a	6	--
N-10	10^a	5	3	9	4	--
Total	44	60	58	76	62	

[a]Indicates dominant or preferred mode.

[b]Categorized as effective (+) or less effective (--) by
dominant mode.

TABLE 22

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF RESPONSE MEANS FROM THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT FOR POSITIVE VS.
NEGATIVE PRINCIPALS

Conflict Mode	Number		Mean	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
Competing							
Positive	10	3.5000	2.677	1.76	-.95	18	.355
Negative	10	4.8889	3.551				
Collaborating							
Positive	10	7.5000	1.958	1.22	1.63	18	.121
Negative	10	6.0000	2.160				
Compromising							
Positive	10	7.0000	2.309	1.20	1.11	18	.283
Negative	10	5.8000	2.530				
Avoiding							
Positive	10	6.5000	1.434	3.26	-1.17	18	.260
Negative	10	7.6000	2.591				
Accommodating							
Positive	10	5.5000	1.900	1.66	-.92	18	.370
Negative	10	6.2000	1.476				

TABLE   23

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF RESPONSE MEANS FROM THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT FOR EFFECTIVE VS.
LESS EFFECTIVE PRINCIPALS

Conflict Mode	Number	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
<u>Competing</u>							
Effective	11	3.1818	2.183	3.06	-1.54	18	.154
Less-effective	9	5.5000	3.817				
<u>Collaborating</u>							
Effective	11	7.3636	2.461	2.69	1.52	18	.146
Less-effective	9	6.0000	1.500				
<u>Compromising</u>							
Effective	11	7.5455	1.916	1.50	2.62	18	.019[a]
Less-effective	9	5.0000	2.345				
<u>Avoiding</u>							
Effective	11	5.9091	1.300	2.68	-3.13	18	.008[b]
Less-effective	9	8.4444	2.128				
<u>Accommodating</u>							
Effective	11	6.0000	1.732	1.00	.43	18	.674
Less-effective	9	5.667	1.732				

[a]Significant at the $p < .05$ level

[b]significant at the $p < .01$ level

The T-Test presented in Table 24 depicts the difference in mean scores for the effective and less effective group with regard to the questionnaire items. Significant at the $p < .05$ level, the data indicate that the effective group tends to exhibit a more positive attitude toward the contract. (The table is placed in this section due to its relationship to the effective/less effective groups.)

TABLE 24

T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR ALL QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
EFFECTIVE VS. LESS-EFFECTIVE GROUP

Group	N	Mean	SD	F-Value	T-Value	df	p
Effective	11	2.6747	1.018				
				2.16	-2.11	18	.049[a]
Less-Effective	9	3.4854	.694				

[a]Significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 25 presents a chi-square conducted to determine the significance of the principal's dominant style in relation to the conflict attitude. Based on "equal probability," the chi-square score of 5.0000 was sufficiently large to be significant at the $p < .05$ level. The test indicates the ratio of 15 to 20 principals (styles matched to attitudes) was significant.

TABLE 25

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS TO DETERMINE RELATIONSHIP
OF CONTRACT ATTITUDES TO CONFLICT DOMINANT
STYLE FOR STUDY GROUP II PRINCIPALS

	Style Corresponds to Attitude			
Number	Yes	No	df	Chi-Square
20	15 (observed)	5 (observed)		
	10 (expected)	10 (expected)	1	5.0000[a]

[a]Significant at the $p < .01$ level.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was used to determine
whether a response significantly changed in frequency from the negative
to the positive. Table 26 depicts the results of the data which show
that the scores are not sufficiently large to be significant. The col-
laborative mode, however, indicates a tendency to prove that a difference
existed between the negative and positive groups. The coefficient fac-
tor is not large enough at the $\pm$ 4.000 and the $p < .05$ levels.

Analysis of ranked mean responses and frequencies of the "mode" instru-
ment. Tables 27 and 28 depict the results of the Mann-Whitney U-Tests
used to analyze the ranked means and frequencies from the "Mode" instru-
ment. The group analysis is by both positive and negative as well as
effective and less effective sub-groups.

Table 27 presents the data comparing the positive and negative
group. Each subject's score has been ranked from lowest to highest.
The ranks are combined within both groups and then calculated to

TABLE 26

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR
FREQUENCY RESPONSE TO THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT
FOR STUDY GROUP II

N=20 df=18	Compe- ting	Collabora- tive	Compro- mising	Avoid- ing	Accommo- dating
Coefficient	.2288	-.3581	-.2526	.2669	.2119
p =	.173	.061	.141	.128	.185

determine whether a difference exists. The U score is a measure dif-
ference and is determined by the numbers of scores used in the test.

Only the collaborating mode indicated a tendency to be significant.
The U score of 28 was significant at the $<$ .1 level.

Table 28 indicates that within the effective and less effective
groups significant differences did occur in both the compromise and
avoiding groups. For the compromising mode, the U of 13 is sufficient-
ly small to be significant at the $<$ .05 level. Similarly, the U of 16
for the avoiding mode is also small enough to be significant at the
$<$ .05 level. For both modes, a U score smaller than 23 was needed to
be statistically significant.

Summary of analysis of Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The
results of the statistical analysis of the "Mode" instrument were pre-
sented in Tables 20-28. The analysis included several different tests
and was conducted on two sub-groups divided by contract attitude and
dominant conflict style.

TABLE 27

MANN-WHITNEY U-TEST ANALYSIS OF RESPONSE TO
THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT
FOR POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE GROUP MEMBERS

	Competing		Collaborating		Compromising		Avoiding		Accommodating	
	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank
Negative (N=10)										
N-1	2	8	6	7.5	2	1	12	19	8	17
N-2	0	1	7	10.5	5	6.5	10	18	8	17
N-3	5	13.5	10	19	5	6.5	5	4	5	8
N-4	6	15	3	1.5	9	10.5	4	1.5	8	17
N-5	1	3.5	8	15	8	15	7	11.5	6	11.5
N-6	8	17	5	5	3	3	6	7.5	7	14.5
N-7	2	8	7	10.5	7	11	9	16.5	5	8
N-8	9	17.5	3	1.5	8	15	5	4	5	8
N-9	1	3.5	6	7.5	8	15	9	16.5	6	11.5
N-10	10	20	5	5	3	3	9	16.5	4	3.5
Positive (N=10)										
P-1	3	11.5	7	10.5	6	8.5	9	16.5	5	8
P-2	3	11.5	7	10.5	10	21	6	7.5	4	3.5
P-3	9	17.5	8	15	3	3	7	11.5	3	1
P-4	2	8	4	3	9	18.5	6	7.5	9	19
P-5	7	16	11	20	4	5	4	1.5	4	3.5
P-6	2	8	8	15	7	11	8	14	5	8
P-7	1	3.5	9	18	6	8.5	7	11.5	7	14.5
P-8	1	3.5	8	15	9	18.5	5	4	7	14.5
P-9	5	13.5	8	15	7	11	6	7.5	4	3.5
P-10	2	8	5	5	9	18.5	7	11.5	7	14.5
	U = 37		U = 28		U = 35.5		U = 38		U = 36	
	z = .6629		z = 1.6860		z = 1.1061		z = .9193		z = -1.0767	
	p = .5074		p = .0918[a]		p = .2687		p = .3579		p = .2816	

[a]Significant at the < .1 level.

TABLE 28

MANN-WHITNEY U-TEST ANALYSIS OF RESPONSE TO
THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT
FOR EFFECTIVE VS. LESS EFFECTIVE GROUP

	Competing		Collaborating		Compromising		Avoiding		Accommodating	
	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank	#	Rank
Less effective (N=9)										
N-13	2	8	6	7.5	2	1	12	19	8	17
N-2	0	1	7	10.5	5	6.5	10	18	8	17
N-6	8	17	5	5	3	3	6	7.5	7	14.5
N-7	2	8	7	10.5	7	11	9	16.5	5	8
N-8	9	17.5	3	1.5	8	15	5	4	5	8
N-9	1	3.5	6	7.5	8	15	9	16.5	6	11.5
N-10	10	20	5	5	3	3	9	16.5	4	3.5
P-1	3	11.5	7	10.5	6	8.5	9	16.5	5	8
P-3	9	17.5	8	15	3	3	7	11.5	3	1
Effective (N=11)										
P-2	3	11.5	7	10.5	10	21	6	17.5	4	3.5
P-4	2	8	4	3	9	18.5	6	7.5	9	19
P-5	7	16	11	20	4	5	4	1.5	4	3.5
P-6	2	8	8	15	7	11	8	14	5	8
P-7	1	3.5	9	18	6	8.5	7	11.5	7	14.5
P-8	1	3.5	8	15	9	18.5	5	4	7	14.5
P-9	5	13.5	8	15	7	11	6	7.5	4	3.5
P-10	2	8	5	5	9	18.5	7	11.5	7	14.5
N-3	5	13.5	10	19	5	6.5	5	4	5	8
N-4	6	15	3	1.5	9	18.5	4	1.5	8	17
N-5	1	3.5	8	15	8	15	7	11.5	6	11.5
	U = 27		U = 28		U = 19		U = 16		U = 45.5	
	z = 4245		z = 1.6560		z = 2.3384		z = 2.5793		z = .3092	
	p = .1543		p = .0977[c]		p = .0194[b]		p = .0099[a]		p = .7572	

[a]Significant at the < .01 level.   [c]Significant at the < .1 level.

[b]Significant at the < .05 level.

The analysis was concerned with two null hypotheses:

1) Attitudes and perceptions toward the collective bargaining
   unit have no relationship to the conflict management styles
   utilized by elementary school principals, and

2) Principals who can be categorized as effective handlers of
   conflict, as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode
   Instrument, do not exhibit positive attitudes toward the
   contract.

The data indicate that both hypotheses are rejected by the following:

1) Table 23 - a significant difference existed concerning the
   compromising and avoiding modes as utilized by effective
   and less effective principals.

2) Table 24 - a significant difference existed between the
   questionnaire mean scores of the effective and less effec-
   tive group members, indicating that the effective members
   tended to be more positive in attitude toward the contract.

3) Table 25 - a significant difference existed between the
   observed and expected correspondence of conflict style
   and contract attitudes of the twenty principals.

4) Table 28 - a significant difference existed in the ranked
   means of two modes; avoiding and compromising. The fre-
   quencies and ranked means indicate that the effective group
   utilized compromise more often while the less effective
   group employed avoiding to a greater degree.

5) Tables 27 and 28 - in both tables the collaborative scores
   were significant at the $< .1$ level. In experimental studies
   using small samples, such as this study, the results in both
   tables in the collaborating mode are termed significant.
   The data therefore indicate that positive and effective
   principals utilize collaborating more frequently.

The Interview

The interview procedure of the study was designed to a) find out
how principals felt about their role as contract administrator in the
school building, and b) provide an in-depth investigation of the five
questionnaire items used to select the second group. Data obtained
during the interviews are analyzed both quantitatively and qualitative-
ly.

In the first part of the interview, each subject was asked to
respond to three standardized open-ended questions. The questions dealt
with the topic of contract administration and were used to accept or
reject Hypothesis Three: "Elementary school principals do not perceive
themselves as being comfortable within the role of contract administra-
tor." Question 1 asked, "What is your role in the administration of your
school system's collective bargaining agreement?" A follow-up came in
Question 2: "Are you comfortable with this role?" The purpose of Ques-
tion 3 was to determine the influence of the contract upon conflict
resolution: "Do you feel that your role as contract administrator has
increased the possibility for conflict to occur between you and your
staff?"

Question 1: "What is your role in the administration of your school system's collective bargaining agreement?" Principals in the study agreed with the definition of contract administration provided by the researcher: "Contract administration is the principal's responsibility to interpret, implement, and enforce contract language by his own initiative, by superintendent directive, or by school board policy."

Discussing their roles, several principals said that they had to be knowledgeable about the contract to assist teachers or avoid grievances. One principal stated that he was "a broker" between the school board and the teacher union. Conversely, another pointed out that he had no input into the collective bargaining process; consequently, after he made an interpretation, the matter became a "problem" for the superintendent to solve.

Attitudes of some principals in the negative group clearly differed from those of principals in the positive group. One in the positive group said that he hadn't given contract administration "much thought." He believed that his treating staff members as professionals obviated the need to consult the contract other than for contractual matters such as sick days or leaves of absence.

Disliking his role of contract administrator, a negative principal felt that teachers were always holding him accountable for interpretations and that his directives were often challenged. He stated:

> If anything comes up, they're the first ones to
> throw it (the contract) at you and say: 'Hey,
> look! I can't do that because the contract says
> I'm not supposed to do it.'

Question 2: "Are you comfortable with this role?" The principals ex-
pressed similar opinions concerning their role as contract administrator
within their respective sub-groups. The principals from the positive
group were unanimous in feeling comfortable in the role, while most of
the negative principals felt the opposite. The evidence indicates that
two factors contributed to the divergent attitudes. First, many princi-
pals of the positive group stressed the importance of developing and
maintaining a strong relationship with staff. By doing so, each party
was able to understand the limitations imposed upon it by the contract.
Problems were not blamed on any individual, and mutually acceptable so-
lutions could then be reached. Referring to the implementation of a
release time clause in the contract, one principal stated:

> It was not easy in terms of implementation. We
> had to be a little more creative than the ordin-
> ary. You have to sit down with teachers and
> everyone has to answer the same question--How
> do we do this so it is in the best interest of
> the kids?

Second, many principals in the negative group blamed their role
difficulty on a decline in teacher dedication that had paralleled both
the growth of collective bargaining and the advent of contract adminis-
tration. One principal echoed the beliefs of others that the contract
had determined a level of performance that people viewed as the maximum
but somehow had become the minimum. Another added:

> Times have changed in the last 10-15 years
> since the contract has become part of our
> life. I think we have to realize that work
> dedication comes after teacher contract and
> we have to accept it.

Table 29 depicts the results of a chi-square analysis of the responses to Question 2. The computed chi-square of 10.768 is sufficiently large to be significant at the p <.01 level at one degree of freedom.

TABLE 29

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW QUESTION 2 -
POSITIVE GROUP VS. NEGATIVE GROUP

Group	Response Yes	No	df	Chi-Square
Positive	10 (observed) 6.5 (expected)	0 (observed) 3.5 (expected)		
			1	10.786[a]
Negative	3 (Observed) 6.5 (expected)	7 (observed) 3.5 (expected		

[a]Significant at the p <.01 level.

Table 30 depicts the results of a chi-square based on equal probability of the responses to Question 2. The computed chi-square of 1.8000 is not significant at the < .05 level at one degree of freedom. The responses were considered as a whole group rather than by attitude subgroup.

Question 3: "Do you feel that your role as contract administrator has increased the possibility for conflict to occur between you and your staff?" A majority of positive group members acknowledged that the principal's role in contract administration could create conflict situations. Considering the response to the other questions, this finding

TABLE 30

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW QUESTION 2 -
STUDY GROUP II PRINCIPALS AS A GROUP

Subjects N=20	Response		df	Chi-Square
	Yes	No		
	13 (observed) 10 (expected)	7 (observed) 10 (expected)	1	1.8000

was unexpected. Some remarked that the contract "set up" the possibili-
ty for conflict but that whether or not it occurred depended on either
the principal's reaction to a situation or the relationship that existed
with staff members. One principal stated that as long as people were
treated fairly and the administrator was not arbitrary, few conflicts
relating to the contract would occur. Another mentioned that, while the
contract gave principals the opportunity to look for violations, enforce-
ment was a matter of choice.

Two principals who cited the strength of contract language as a
factor affecting conflict made contrasting observations. One said that
his staff had a strong contract clarifying many ambiguous areas that
previously had caused conflicts. The other foresaw the tendency for
teachers to seek more rigid language as an unfortunate circumstance for
the future.

> I have not run into conflict. I'm not naive
> enough to say that I'm not going to. I think
> that as our contract becomes more rigid this
> will happen.

Some principals from the positive group said that their role in contract administration would not create conflict because they believed that conflict was inevitable. They added, however, that conflict could arise from a variety of school-related factors, not just from the contract.

The negative group expressed opinions much more vehemently. The initial response from several principals to the question of possible conflicts was clear: "Definitely, definitely, definitely!" "No ifs, ands, buts about it!" and "Certainly, no question about it!" Several also stated that the contract was an interference in such matters as promotion, evaluation, and supervision. Some said that the contract put the principal on the defensive, a position that in turn caused conflicts. One principal proposed the idea that conflict was always present but never open until the principal was asked to make an interpretation. If the decision was acceptable to the teachers, all was fine; but if the teachers disagreed, then the principal was to blame.

Referring to the middle-management role, a principal indicated that he could no longer blame the central office when the contract interpretation caused conflicts with the staff. He was now held accountable for contract decisions unlike in the past. As he reluctantly recounted: "Those days are gone forever."

Table 31 presents a chi-square analysis of the response to the third question. The computed chi-square of .95234 is not sufficiently large to exceed the level of significance at one degree of freedom.

TABLE 31

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW QUESTION 3 -
POSITIVE GROUP VS. NEGATIVE GROUP

Group	Response Yes	No	df	Chi-Square
Positive	6 (observed) 7 (expected)	4 (observed) 3 (expected)		
			1	.95234
Negative	8 (observed) 7 (expected)	2 (observed) 3 (expected)		

Table 32 presents the results of a chi-square based on equal probability on response to Question 3. The responses were treated as a group rather than by contract attitudes. The chi-square of 3.2000 is nearly significant but not sufficiently large to reject the assumption.

TABLE 32

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW QUESTION 3 -
STUDY GROUP II PRINCIPALS AS A GROUP

Subjects N=20	Response Yes	No	df	Chi-Square
	14 (observed) 10 (expected)	6 (observed) 10 (expected)	1	3.2000

Summary: contract administration. Contract administration was accepted by most principals within the study group, however, the results were not statistically significant to reject the hypothesis. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted: Elementary school principals do not perceive

themselves as being comfortable within the role of contract administra-
tor. Further examination of the results indicates that principals who
perceive a positive influence from the contract do accept contract ad-
ministration as an expected role and are comfortable with it (Table 29).

Tables 31 and 32 presented data regarding the perception that the
role of contract administrator has resulted in increased conflict between
staff and principal. The results indicate that, although a majority of
principals feel that additional conflict occurred, statistically signif-
icant scores did not exist to reject the assumption. Therefore, the
principals in the study group did not accept the notion that contract
administration increased conflicts between the principal and staff.

Principal Profile Case Studies

The final analysis of the interviews describes the elementary
school principal from two angles. First, two profiles summarize the
responses from both the positive and negative sub-groups and illustrate
the attitudes of these two types of principals toward the collective
bargaining agreement. Five questionnaire items were discussed in the
interview as a basis for the summaries: 3, 4, 11, 13, and 20 (see
Appendix C). A third profile then follows based on the demographic in-
formation gathered in the study. The principal described in this pro-
file typifies all twenty people who particiated in the interview pro-
cedure.

Principals Profile #1: the typical positive group member. To the prin-
cipal who regards the contract in a positive light, the advent of

collective bargaining has meant only an added responsibility similar to such factors as school board policies, state board of education regulations, education legislation, and court-ordered mandates. While his functions have expanded, this principal perceives little change in personal goals and administrative style.

> I don't think my job has really changed that much since collective bargaining...I have read the contract and I make sure that if it says I must do this, I do it, but that really hasn't altered my style too much at all.

The principal who considers the contract to have caused very little change also perceives that it 1) has had a positive influence on the principal's role, 2) has created difficulty only when a weak relationship exists between principal and staff, and 3) is a poor excuse to explain one's administrative problems.

One positive function of the contract is, according to this group, its delineation of roles for both the principal and teachers. The guidelines and rules in the contract are looked upon to clarify procedures and reduce or prevent conflict. In fact, since expectations of both parties are understood, contract stipulations can at times be placed aside.

> There have been instances where I violated the contract, and, if I thought it was flagrant, I would go to the individual or group involved and speak with them. Very frequently, 90% of the time, they were willing to set the contract aside and do what I was asking them to do with the understanding that it was only temporary until we could work the problem out.

The positive nature of the contract also assists in the development of a strong relationship between staff and principal, which is necessary

for stability within the school building. Good rapport is also essential because the principal puts a high priority on his role as instructional leader. Shared decision-making, mutual problem-solving, and cooperative planning are reflected in the concept that, "We work together for the best interests of the child."

Finally, the principal knows that fellow administrators are experiencing conflict with staff members. When, at meetings with colleagues, the contract is blamed for problem situations, this principal holds a different opinion. He views the contract not as a cause of lost authority but merely as a means of placing limits and expectations upon all parties. Since everyone understands his role, the contract neither permits authoritarian leadership nor condones laissez-faire leadership. What exists, then, is a cooperative atmosphere allowing each party the opportunity to influence the daily functioning of the school. As stated simply: "I can't do it because of the contract, is a cop-out; everyone still has a job to do."

Principal profile #2: the typical negative group member. The principal who considers the contract to have a negative impact is concerned with several interlocking issues: loss of authority, added pressure, difficulty in resolving conflicts, restrictive contract language, and a decline in teacher dedication. Frustrated, the principal adopts a "learn to live with it" attitude as the best method for coping with the plight of the principalship.

The loss of power and authority is mentioned as the basic component of change experienced by the principal. Since teachers have "found

strength through togetherness," the principal can no longer give direc-
tives or ask the staff to extend working conditions without some nega-
tive feedback. The fact that teachers are "not willing to accept things
as they were before" shows that accountability imposes distinct limita-
tions on the administrator. Recalling personal teaching experiences,
the principal muses over what the teacher/principal relationship used to
be and how it could still be:

> If the principal made suggestions, naturally I
> followed. It would be like, 'Would you be will-
> ing to...?' and of course I would! Never once
> did it cross my mind that I could have answered
> no!

The issue of accountability has created additional pressure. This
principal thinks the contract plays too large a role in the staff/
principal relationship. His actions are inhibited by the need to check
contract language, be careful of what is said, hesitate before making
interpretations, and be constantly aware of consequences before he acts.
Since he doesn't intend to take advantage of teachers or "ask them to do
anything I wouldn't do," he regards the contract as generally doing more
harm than good.

> Today the principal has to look at the contract
> before doing anything to make sure he is within
> his rights. You have to determine if you haven't
> gone over the limits of what your teachers be-
> lieve is expected of them.

The principal who senses a loss of power and authority also re-
gards the contract as being too restrictive. Important responsibilities
such as evaluations and supervision are hampered by the contract. The
principal also perceives the contract as not allowing for individual
differences among school buildings. For example, schools experiencing

student discipline problems may require additional supervision by
teachers; however, the contract may prohibit staff utilization by lim-
iting the number and length of duties a teacher can perform. Further,
because of restrictive contract language, the principal feels he has
lost the freedom to use discretion in rewarding conscientious efforts
by teachers--such as granting requests for time off or allowing early
departure for an appointment.

> You would like to do more than what you can at
> times, but your hands are tied. In this type
> of situation, the contract works more against
> than for people.

The principal has also experienced problems attempting to resolve
conflicts with staff members since loss of authority has inhibited the
art of compromise. From the principal's perspective, teachers have
been "less responsive" to suggestions than they were in the past. The
grievance procedure, with its formality and invitation to a third party,
has caused additional pressures. The principal states: "The grievance
procedure makes for an easy avenue to hide behind the contract rather
than to deal with conflict face to face." The perception is that a
favored method of handling conflicts, "sitting down and working things
out," no longer exists.

As authority was lost and the ability to administrate became more
restricted, conflicts grew too difficult to resolve and pressure mounted.
All of these factors led, according to the principal, to a loss of ded-
ication among teachers. Prior to the advent of collective bargaining,
the dedicated teacher was evident throughout the building. The idea

today that "teachers just don't give as much" has made the job of being principal less rewarding.

> When I first became principal here, which is about 14 years ago, we didn't have a contract. Anything I wanted, anything that I would ask them to do, we worked together. If I asked them to stay after school to work on several projects, I was right there with them, working out objectives, planning our learning centers, what we would use for materials, where we would buy them. I was happiest then, I'm not happy now.

Principal profile #3: the demographic data. The final profile of the principals in study group II is based upon the demographic information gathered by the questionnaire. The data suggest a difficulty in identifying specific factors that influenced the positive and negative attitudes toward the contract.

The principals represented eleven different school systems throughout the Western Massachusetts area. Three systems had principals in both the negative and positive groups. Based on representation, working in a suburban or urban setting had little significance between the two groups. Similarly, there was a balance of principals in both groups involving the variables of years of service, school size, principal under contract and teachers employed by contract. Due to the small sample size involved in the study, sex as a significant variable is difficult to ascertain. The absence of a significant number of females is more illustrative of the decline of women in administrative roles than of their attitudes toward the contract. Finally, the variable of educational level, although not statistically significant, indicated the only identifiable difference between the two groups. The negative group

members had a slightly higher level of education than the positive group; eighty percent of the negative principals held the advanced CAGS degree while only fifty percent of the positive group had reached that level.

Evaluating the data by percentages and considering the principals as a whole rather than by attitude group, the typical principal interviewed: 1) was from an urban school system, 2) administered a building with a student enrollment of 200-400, 3) had been a principal for over fifteen years, 4) had obtained an advanced degree (CAGS), 5) worked with staff members employed by a contract, 6) was also a member of a bargaining unit, and 7) was a male.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

The purpose of the chapter has been to present the data gathered in the field study. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods was used to analyze the procedures of the study: a questionnaire, The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, and an interview. A presentation of data in qualitative form provided an in-depth view of both positive and negative attitudes expressed by a group of selected principals. The results of the analysis were used to reject or accept the hypotheses of the study. Chapter V presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations based on the findings.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The main focus of the study was to determine what relationship, if

any, existed between a principal's attitude toward the teacher collec-

tive bargaining agreement and his method of handling conflict. An exam-

ination of the literature indicated that principals had perceived changes

in their role, function, and administrative authority since the advent

of collective bargaining. Evidence further suggests that principals do

not concur as to the effects of the changes; they saw different effects--

some positive, some negative. Yet, according to the literature, princi-

pals do agree that they were more closely aligned with management be-

cause of collective bargaining.

In the literature, the principal was regarded as the key leadership

figure within the school building. It was widely held that his ability

to lead was directly related to the success and effectiveness of pro-

grams (Knezevich, 1976; Lipham, 1982; Hencley, McCleary and McGrath,

1970). Effective schools were administered by effective principals who

could lead people. Collective bargaining had not changed that belief.

The literature also presented evidence of a relationship between

leadership and the ability to manage conflict. The conflict management

process was significantly influenced by two added dimensions--the new

managerial role of the principal and the growth of collective bargaining.

Viewed as an essential skill for the principal was the ability to employ

conflict management strategies that maintained a strong relationship
between him and his staff (Blake and Mouton, 1965; Sebring, 1976-1977;
Hencley, McCleary and McGrath, 1970). In short, if successful schools
were dependent upon a principal's ability to lead, then the nature of
his principalship was critically dependent upon his developing effective
conflict management skills.

Procedures. To determine the relationship between contract attitudes
and conflict-handling methods, the study had two specific purposes:
1) to identify and assess both the attitudes and perceptions of elemen-
tary school principals regarding the influence of the collective bargain-
ing agreement for teachers upon the principal's role, function, and
power; 2) to determine the conflict-handling modes utilized by princi-
pals who held either positive or negative attitudes towards the agree-
ment. Five null hypotheses were designed to reflect the issues regard-
ing contract attitudes and conflict methodology. Three research pro-
cedures were used to gather data from a group of elementary principals:
a questionnaire, a conflict management survey instrument, and an inter-
view. Analysis of the data was performed utilizing several statistical
procedures including chi-square tests, T-tests, the Mann-Whitney U-Test,
Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Test, and an analysis of variance
test. Data from the interview were examined by use of qualitative case
study profiles.

There were seventy-one elementary school principals who responded
to the research questionnaire. The responses of the principals were
analyzed and scored to determine the degree of positive or negative

attitudes based on a 5-point agree/disagree scale. Twenty principals
who exhibited significant positive and negative scores were then asked
to further participate in the study.

The group of twenty principals became the primary source for data.
Each principal was interviewed and asked to complete a conflict survey
instrument, The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The "Mode"
instrument elicits responses based on five conflict-handling methods.
After analyzing the results of the instrument, each principal was cate-
gorized as employing effective conflict-handling modes, collaboration or
compromise; or less effective modes, avoidance, competing, or accommo-
dating. The modes were categorized as effective or less effective based
on several sources examined in the literature review. A comparative
analysis of contract attitudes and conflict-handling modes was conducted
by sub-dividing the twenty principals in groups based on a) positive and
negative attitudes, and b) effective/less effective modes.

Summary of Findings

The five null hypotheses were rejected or accepted based on analy-
sis of data from the three research procedures.

1) Hypothesis #1 - Rejected:

> Elementary school principals do not perceive an
> effect upon their role, functions, and power from
> the collective bargaining agreement for teachers.

The principals in the study expressed varied opinions regarding the
contract's effect on the principalship. They did agree, however, that
significant changes had occurred. Those who held positive attitudes
felt that the contract had clarified many procedures that were often

left to the discretion of the principal. They believed that since both the teachers and principal clearly understood each other's roles, they were able to put the contract aside and work together to provide meaningful programs for the students. The negative attitude group, however, perceived that the contract had placed too many restrictions on the principalship. Limitations regarding length of day, required duties, and release time had made administration more difficult and were viewed as significant changes from past years. Data that compared questionnaire responses showed statistically significant differences between the positive and negative members.

2) Hypothesis #2 - Rejected:

> The contract has not affected the relationship of principals and staff as it relates to supervision and conflict resolution as perceived by elementary school principals.

The opinions expressed by both groups were again significantly different. The positive group principals believed the contract had either improved the relationship between principal and teachers or had created no significant changes. They stated that effective human relation skills and treatment of the teachers as professionals were important regardless of the contract's presence. The principals also believed that the provisions outlining grievance procedures had defined the conflict resolution process for both parties.

The negative group members, however, expressed opinions that the contract had altered the relationship of principal and teacher. Many felt the contract had come between the two parties and the grievance procedure had inhibited conflict resolution because of its formalities

and inclusion of a third party. Comparative analysis of questionnaire responses indicated that statistically significant data were evident.

3) Hypothesis #3 - <u>Accepted</u>:

> Elementary school principals do not perceive them-
> selves as being comfortable within their role as
> contract administrator.

Although all of the positive group members felt comfortable within the role as contract administrator, analysis of the twenty principals as a group was not statistically significant according to a chi-square test. The positive group members believed that since their role was clearly defined, they had no problem meeting daily objectives or following school board policies. The negative group members (70%) felt that the contract had strained the staff-principal relationship and made administration more difficult. A related question indicated that as a group there were not sufficient data to prove that the principal's role as contract administrator resulted in more conflict.

4) Hypothesis #4 - <u>Rejected</u>:

> Attitudes and perceptions toward the collective
> bargaining agreement have no relationship to the
> conflict management styles utilized by elementary
> school principals.

Analysis of the data indicated that a relationship did exist between contract attitudes and conflict modes. A chi-square test based on equal probability produced statistically significant results. Treating the principals as a total group, the attitudes of fifteen of the twenty principals corresponded to their conflict modes categorized as effective or less effective. Within the positive group the ratio of

contract attitudes to conflict modes was 8 to 10; in the negative group the results were 7 to 10.

5) Hypothesis #5 - <u>Rejected</u>:

> Principals who can be categorized as effective handlers of conflict, as measured by <u>The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument</u>, do not exhibit positive attitudes toward the contract.

Data from two groups were examined by positive vs. negative and effective vs. less effective. Both the positive and effective groups had significantly more positive responses toward the contract than the negative and less effective groups. The conflict "Mode" data indicated that a) collaboration was utilized more by the positive group than by the negative group members, b) collaboration was utilized more by the effective group than by less effective members, c) compromise was utilized more by the effective group than by the less effective members, and d) avoidance was used more by less effective group members than by effective members.

Conclusions

From the results of the hypotheses and the additional data gathered by the study procedures, the following conclusions are presented:

1) Elementary school principals who participated in the study perceive the following to be true:

   a) The collective bargaining agreement has affected their role, functions, and power. However, some view the effects as positive and others view them as negative.

    b) The collective bargaining agreement has affected their

relationship with staff members. They disagreed, how-

ever, as to what these effects are.

    c) The collective bargaining agreement has affected the

conflict resolution process. Again, both positive and

negative effects have been seen.

2) Sex, educational level, school setting, school enrollment

size, years of service, membership in administrative bar-

gaining unit, and working with teachers employed by a con-

tract appear to have little influence on a principal's

attitude toward the contract.

3) Elementary school principals who participated in the study

perceive the following to be true:

    a) They are not comfortable within their role as contract

administrator, however, the positive members were more

comfortable than the negative group members.

    b) They do not believe that their role as contract admin-

istrator has led to increased conflicts with staff

members.

4) Attitudes and perceptions toward the collective bargaining

agreement tend to be related to conflict-handling styles

utilized by elementary school principals who participated

in the study.

5) Elementary school principals who participated in the study

and exhibited a more positive attitude toward the contract

show certain tendencies:

a) They tend to utilize compromise as a conflict-handling style more often than principals who perceive a negative influence from the contract.

b) They tend to utilize collaboration as a conflict-handling style more often than principals who perceive a negative influence from the contract.

6) Elementary school principals who participated in the study and exhibited a more negative attitude toward the contract tend to utilize avoidance as a conflict-handling style more often than principals who perceive a positive influence from the contract.

Recommendations

The recommendations of the study fall into two categories:

1) Suggestions aimed at assisting elementary school principals to a) become aware of implications of the contract for their effectiveness as principals, and b) develop or improve skills necessary to manage conflict effectively.

2) Suggestions for further research to examine the relationship between attitudes toward contracts and conflict-handling strategies used by elementary school principals.

Recommendations for the elementary school principal. Based on the conclusions reached in the study, it is recommended that individuals, such as school board members, superintendents, and directors who are

involved in developing policies, regulations, and programs that affect
the principal do the following:

1) solicit principals to determine the current status of per-
   ceptions and attitudes towards the contract in order that
   future development of policies, regulations and programs
   reflect the needs of the principals with regard to contract
   problems and difficulties;

2) examine specific contract provisions that are perceived as
   having a significant influence on the administrator at the
   building level;

3) seek input from the principals prior to the negotiation
   process with teachers so that the needs of the principal
   will be addressed at the bargaining table;

4) conduct programs and seminars designed to develop or improve
   skills in contract administration and conflict management.

Recommendations for future research. Based on the observations of the
researcher further studies are warranted in several areas related to
contract attitudes and conflict-handling styles. It is recommended
that:

1) a study be conducted involving more participants from a
   larger geographical area;

2) a study be undertaken that examines attitudes toward
   specific contract provisions such as grievance procedures,
   evaluations, and staff utilization;

3) a study be conducted to investigate more thoroughly the influence of the contract on a) role, function, and power, b) relationship between staff and principal, and c) the conflict management process. The study should concentrate on each area separately;

4) a study be conducted among staff members and/or superiors who are asked to select principals who utilize effective conflict strategies. The study would then examine whether a relationship exists between how a principal is perceived by others, his attitudes towards the contract, and his conflict management styles as measured by The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument;

5) a study be conducted with principals who work in unionized districts vs. principals who work in non-union situations to determine the effect of the work environment on the principal's conflict management style.

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APPENDIX A

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTRACT QUESTIONNAIRE

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTRACT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS - The following statements are designed to elicit your
attitudes and perceptions of the effects of teacher collective bargain-
ing on the role, function, and responsibility of the elementary school
principal. You are asked to respond to each statement by rating your
degree of agreement or disagreement. You should attempt to respond
quickly, avoiding any desire to explain your answer. Your answers are
scaled as follows: SA - strongly agree; A - agree; N - neither agree/
or disagree; D - disagree; SD - strongly disagree. Please circle your
responses.

STATEMENTS

1. The growth of collective bargaining has changed the function of
   my job.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

2. Due to collective bargaining agreements, personnel management is
   best handled by central office administration.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

3. Without collective bargaining, the administrator would feel less
   constrained in handling staff-related matters.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

4. Prior to, or in the early stages of collective bargaining, my job
   was much easier.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

5. Under the collective bargaining agreement, I feel that my role in
   the decision-making process has remained unchanged.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

6. Staff relations would cause less conflict if the bargaining
   agreement did not exist.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

7. The growth of collective bargaining has placed my position within
   a managerial role.

   SA   A   N   D   SD

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8. State laws, the Constitution, and school policy protect teachers adequately, therefore, negates the need for a contract that deals with issues other than salaries and monetary benefits.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

9. Administration in general would be less difficult if the bargaining agreement did not exist.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

10. As teachers become more aware of their power under the contract, I am forced to acquire new skills to deal with the complexities of staff-related problems.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

11. Collective bargaining has had a positive effect on my functions as chief administrator of the school building.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

12. Staff members in my school rely too heavily on the contract for protection and as a means of questioning authority.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

13. There has been a positive effect on the relationship of staff and principal since the growth of collective bargaining.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

14. It is helpful for a principal to consult with the building representative before making decisions relating to the contract.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

15. The contract inhibits my attempts to improve staff supervision which promotes continued growth as classroom teachers.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

16. The contract has had a positive effect on improving education within the classroom.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

17. The number of teachers who "hide behind" the contract has increased during the past years.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

18. Collective bargaining agreements have had a negative effect on my power base.

    SA   A   N   D   SD

19. Collective bargaining has not increased the number of conflict situations between principal and staff.

SA   A   N   D   SD

20. The collective bargaining agreement has made resolution of conflict (staff/principal) difficult.

SA   A   N   D   SD

21. When conflicts occur, teachers turn toward the union rather than to their principal.

SA   A   N   D   SD

22. The contract provides an arena to settle conflicts and find acceptable solutions.

SA   A   N   D   SD

23. In general, the negatives outnumber the positives, when considering the contributions that the collective bargaining movement has made to the educational process.

SA   A   N   D   SD

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION   (Subject Number _____)

Please place an (X) next to the appropriate space.

SEX: Female ___   YEARS AS PRINCIPAL: 0 - 4 ___
      Male   ___   5 - 9 ___
                                                11 - 14 ___
TEACHERS UNDER CONTRACT: Yes ___   Above 15 ___
                          No ___

SCHOOL SETTING: Urban   ___   EDUCATION: Bachelors ___
                 Suburban ___   Masters   ___
                                               C.A.G.S.   ___
SIZE OF SCHOOL: Less than 200 ___   Doctorate ___
                 200 - 400   ___
                 Above 400   ___

PRESENTLY UNDER PRINCIPAL'S CONTRACT: Yes ___
   (Separate bargaining unit)   No ___

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A P P E N D I X   B

THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

1. A. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

   B. Rather than negotiate the things on which we disagree, I try to stress those things upon which we both agree.

2. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

   B. I attempt to deal with all of his and my concerns.

3. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

   B. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

4. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

   B. I sometimes sacrifice my own wishes for the wishes of the other person.

5. A. I consistently seek the other's help in working out a solution.

   B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.

6. A. I try to avoid creating unpleasantness for myself.

   B. I try to win my position.

7. A. I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.

   B. I give up some points in exchange for others.

8. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

   B. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

9. A. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

    B. I make some effort to get my way.

10. A. I am firm in pursuing my goals.

     B. I try to find a compromise solution.

11. A. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

     B. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

12. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy.

     B. I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.

13. A. I propose a middle ground.

     B. I press to get my points made.

14. A. I tell him my ideas and ask him for his.

     B. I try to show him the logic and benefits of my position.

15. A. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

     B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid tensions.

16. A. I try not to hurt the other's feelings.

     B. I try to convince the other person of the merits of my position.

17. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

     B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.

18. A. If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain his views.

     B. I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.

19. A. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

     B. I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.

20. A. I attempt to immediately work through our differences.

     B. I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for both of us.

21. A. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.

     B. I always lean toward a direct discussion of the problem.

22. A. I try to find a position that is intermediate between his and mine.

     B. I assert my wishes.

23. A. I am very often concerned with satisfying all our wishes.

     B. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

24. A. If the other's position seems very important to him, I would try to meet his wishes.

     B. I try to get him to settle for a compromise.

25. A. I try to show him the logic and benefit of my position.

     B. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.

26. A. I propose a middle ground.

    B. I am nearly always concerned with satisfying all our wishes.

27. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions that would create
       controversy.

    B. If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain
       his views.

28. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

    B. I usually seek the other's help in working out a solution.

29. A. I propose a middle ground.

    B. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

30. A. I try not to hurt the other's feelings.

    B. I always share the problem with the other person so that
       we can work it out.

A P P E N D I X   C

INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO STUDY GROUP I

Paul C. Gagliarducci
75 Kelly Drive
West Springfield, MA 01089
October 6, 1982

Dear

I am soliciting your assistance in gathering data for my doctoral
dissertation. My study is entitled, "The Relationship of Contract
Attitudes to Conflict-Handling Modes of Elementary School Principals."
I hope to show that methods of handling conflict are related to a
principal's attitudes of the effects that teacher collective bargaining
has had on his/her role function, and responsibilities as an adminis-
trator.

The study is composed of three research components. The enclosed
questionnaire represents the first instrument which will aid in assess-
ing attitudes, as either positive or negative. The results will also
be utilized to determine a more select group of subjects who will be
asked to respond to a conflict-management survey, and participate in a
personal interview process. All responses and demographic information
will be kept confidential with subjects classified by number or alias.
This study has been approved by my committee and the Graduate School of
Education at the University of Massachusetts.

As a teacher and former elementary school administrator, I realize that
the school day is often hectic and that time is a valuable commodity.
In my present role as a graduate student, however, I understand the im-
portance of participating in current research studies. Your completion
of the questionnaire will be greatly appreciated, and also extremely
helpful for the study. I believe that the results will provide inter-
esting data for current and future principals.

Thank you for your time in the matter. The questionnaire should be
completed and returned within ten working days. Best wishes for a
successful school year.

Sincerely,

Paul C. Gagliarducci

A P P E N D I X   D

REQUEST FOR CONTINUED PARTICIPATION IN PROJECT:
STUDY GROUP II

Paul C. Gagliarducci
75 Kelly Drive
West Springfield, MA 01089
November 29, 1982

Dear

A short time ago, you participated in the first stage of my research project concerning the impact of collective bargaining on the elementary school principal. With a sincere willingness displayed by principals such as yourself, I received a return rate of 76%. Such results indicate that there is a true concern for the future of the principalship and illustrates a high caliber of professionalism among principals in the Western Massachusetts area.

The data from the initial questionnaire has been tabulated so that the final phase of the field research can now be completed. Once again I am asking you to participate in the project. This phase is composed of a brief conflict management survey in conjunction with a personal interview. The total time involved is estimated at approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour, and as before, anonymity is assured throughout the process.

I will contact you within the next few days to confirm an agreement, and to answer any questions of concern. Hopefully, we will be able to arrange a meeting soon to complete the research. I am confident that you will find the experience enjoyable and worthwhile.

Thank you for your time and consideration. I look forward to meeting with you during this most important phase of the project.

Sincerely,

Paul C. Gagliarducci