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California State University

San Bernardino

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS: THE KEY TO EFFECTIVE
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION


A Project Submitted to
The Faculty of the School of Education
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree of
Master of Arts
in
Education: School Administration Option

By


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1988

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter

1. INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND EFFECTIVE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION 1
 - Administrative Interpersonal Relations Delineated
 - Limitations on Administrative Interpersonal Relations
 - Inferences

2. THEORIES AFFECTING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION 14
 - Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation
 - Jung's Theory of Personality
 - The Concept of Power
 - Leadership Styles and Their Affect on Interpersonal Relations
 - Summary

3. IMPLEMENTING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS SKILLS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION 33
 - Creating a Personal Support System by Building Trust and Motivating People
 - Interpersonal Attractiveness
 - Dealing With Conflict
 - Group Process and Conflict Resolution
 - Understanding Change and Resistance
 - Types and Causes of Resistance
 - Dealing With Resistance
 - Change Through The Back Door
 - Conclusion

BIBLIOGRAPHY 63

CHAPTER 1

Interpersonal Relations And Effective School Administration

Research indicates that the perception of the roles of school administrators varies among educators. What one educator considers to be most important, another may consider insignificant. Yet, regardless of the various views, the research has indicated that some school administrators are effective while others are ineffective in performing these tasks. The quality that consistently emerges as being most significant in the effectiveness of an administrator is the administrator's skill in working with people in everyday situations (Krajewski, 1979). The National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators both assert that the success of school administrators is closely related to their knowledge and skill in interpersonal and group relations (Savage, 1968).

A study by Terry A. Thomas (1971) demonstrated that a significant relationship existed between human relations training and a principal's effectiveness. The study indicated that principals who were trained in human relations techniques became more aware of the individual needs of staff members and dealt with staff in a more tactful manner, resulting in a higher degree of staff morale. Principals who were trained in

human relations techniques viewed teachers who assumed responsibility to be an asset to their schools rather than a threat to their authority and consequently used democratic decision making strategies rather than autocratic strategies in dealing with problems. The study also indicated that when principals utilize human relations techniques in teacher supervision, teacher performance improved. Savage (1968, p.7) in a similar vein elaborates:

The school administrator must understand his own behavior and the behavior of pupils, teachers, other staff members, parents, and all citizens of the community who influence educational policy in any way. He must understand the group dynamics not only of school boards, school-related organizations such as the parent teacher association, and groups of school personnel but also of the many other groups in the community which can or do affect the operation, strength, and qualities of schools. Unlike the executive in business or industry, the school administrator is responsible not only to a superior and/or controlling school board but also the community in general. Therefore, his perspective of interpersonal and group behavior must be broader. The retention of his position is dependent on this perspective, and certainly the quality of education provided for the children enrolled in the school or schools for which he is responsible is dependent on his knowledge and skills in human relations.

The key element underlying effective school administration is an administrators ability to communicate with, understand, and influence the people with whom he comes in contact. Ability in interpersonal skills affects the implementation of the entire spectrum of administrative tasks. In order to influence change and promote a climate of cooperation and growth, an administrator must be capable of recognizing, internalizing, and applying these skills.

This paper, then, focuses attention on the importance of interpersonal relations skills in school administration. It provides a general overview of the scope of human relations in effective school

administration; it looks at human behavior theory and administrative styles; and it explores ways to implement human relations techniques in various administrative situations. As a whole, this paper is a concise informative look at interpersonal relations as applied to school administration.

Administrative Interpersonal Relations Delineated

Educational researchers discuss interpersonal relations utilizing various appellations. Decades ago researchers referred to the subject as "human relations." Human relations gave way to "individual and group dynamics." More recently researchers refer to the subject as either "interpersonal relations or "interpersonal and group relations (Savage, 1968, p. 5)." As researchers discard one title for another, those writing about the relationship between school administration and interpersonal relations approach the subject from many directions. Topics, such as conflict, power, and morale contain insight into the interpersonal skills a school administrator needs in order to influence and guide his staff. Research on effective schools and leadership includes discussions about the importance and need for interpersonal skills among school leaders. A selected review of recent writings will help delineate the scope of interpersonal relations as it relates to school administration.

Sava (1986) discusses the need for principals to treat teachers

with respect. One third of all teachers teaching in our public schools perform their jobs with a minimum amount of self satisfaction and gratification. They attain no pleasure from teaching and feel that their presence in the classroom makes little or no difference. Seventy-four percent of these dissatisfied teachers who had marketable skills left teaching whereas eight percent of the dissatisfied teachers without a marketable skill left the profession. In this age of accountability, if for no other reason than self preservation, the site administrator must minimize the effects of stress on teacher burn out. Respect calms the effect of stress on teachers and minimizes the threat of teacher burnout.

Similarly, Blase (1984) states that stress exerted by principals and how teachers cope with it relates to teacher effectiveness, involvement, and how principals respond to teachers. Teachers by themselves are only moderately effective in coping with stress related to principal behavior. As teachers try to cope with this stress they actually contribute to additional stress because of the short termed adaptive coping behavior they rely upon does not deal with the source (the principal) in most cases. Over the long term the effect of negative principal behavior undermines teacher effectiveness reducing teacher involvement and motivation.

Principals are positioned, more than anyone else in the school system to aid teachers in dealing with stress and dissatisfaction. Sava (1986) cites a recent study by Dworking involving 291 unionized teachers. The results of the study indicated that teachers who work

for a supportive principal were less likely to report burnout or the desire to quit teaching than teachers who worked for a non-supportive principal. Even when the supportive principal was perceived to lack the power to eliminate the causes of stress, teachers were still less stressful and less likely to leave the profession. Dworkin describes a supportive administrator attitude:

...even if the students are not as committed to their education as you might have been led to believe in teacher college, I am committed to education and my teachers. Even if others don't care, I care (cited in Sava, 1986, p. 72).

Krajewski (1979) discusses the "cultivation of a harmonious relationship between people" as "rapport nurturance." He states that the amount of success a school administrator has in creating an effective school depends on his knowledge of administrative theory, the "building block foundations for role effectiveness," and rapport nurturance, "the mortar that binds these foundation blocks together." Rapport nurturance is based on the positive feelings one has towards oneself, how good you feel about your work and personal life, and is a method of fostering cooperation among people so they can accomplish specific goals. The author asserts that rapport nurturing is the key to effective schools and is an extremely important ingredient in an administrators repertoire of skills.

Giammatteo and Giammatteo (1981) discuss interpersonal skills in the context of leadership. They explain that leaders are those who best know how to motivate and involve those with whom they work with and the skills associated with effective leadership are all related to interpersonal relations skills. The skills of leadership include:

1) Skills of personal behavior-- where the leader is sensitive to the needs of the group, listens attentively, and refrains from ridiculing or criticizing members' suggestions; 2) skills of communication -- the leader effectively communicates why things are done as a matter of routine; 3) skills of equality -- the leader recognizes that everyone is important and shares leadership because he recognizes that leadership cannot be monopolized; 4) skills of self-examination -- the leader is aware of the motives and action guiding his behavior and counters hostilities by being tolerant of member's views helping them become aware of their own forces, attitudes, and values. These interpersonal skills are eminently learnable and can be honed through practice, diligence, and study.

The methods administrators use to establish and enforce rules (described as "rule administration") and how teachers react to these methods are examined in a study by Johnston and Venable (1986). In their study the relationship between the rule administration behavior of principals and teacher loyalty to their principal was examined. Rule administration in a school setting was described as: 1) Representative Rule Administration-- the principal elicits cooperation and acceptance in rule enforcement by his staff through explanation and joint rule; 2) Punishment-Centered rule administration-- rules are enforced by punishment resulting in conflict and tension between the staff and the principal; 3) Mock Rule -- the principal doesn't enforce rules nor do teachers obey them.

The Johnston and Venable study indicated that significant

relationships existed between representative rule behavior and teacher loyalty and between punishment-centered rule administration and teacher loyalty. Mock rule was an insignificant factor in the study. Generally, the less punishment-centered the principal's style was the more loyal teachers were towards that principal. The more the principal shared responsibility, asked for teacher input, and explained why things were being done, the better able that principal was influencing and guiding his staff.

An article by Herlihy and Herlihy (1985) describes how knowledge of and the skillful use of power can make a principal an effective leader. The authors cite, from a French and Ryan (1959) study, that it is essential that principals understand that in any interpersonal situation five types of power exist: legitimate (or assigned) power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, and referent (or charismatic) power. Although all principals use each of these types at times, those who rely on expert and referent power are more effective leaders than those principals who rely on legitimate or coercive power. Teachers prefer to work for principals who employ expert or referent power.

Teachers also possess the same five powers as principals and can exert pressure, more subtly but equally as harmful, on principals. Therefore, principals must recognize that teachers possess these powers in order to avoid power struggles that can lead to teacher resistance. Principals can, by relying on a combination of expert and referent power, become truly effective leaders by sharing power with teachers.

Speaking in terms of managerial excellence, Krovets (1984) describes several interpersonal practices that effective administrators actively pursue. He states that it is essential for administrators to realize the importance of developing strong and honest relations with his staff. Quality employees must be told that they are appreciated and valued as integral members of the school. One purpose of teacher observations and evaluations is to provide the administrator the opportunity to let teachers know that they are doing a good job. Administrators must also be able to advise teachers that they have high expectations of their performance, honestly evaluate their teaching, and be willing to help those teachers attain those expectations. When, in rare cases, a teacher is unable to improve, the administrator must compassionately counsel the teacher out of the profession. Administrators must, however, realize that counseling teachers out of the profession may cause resentment and/or retaliation from other teachers if it is perceived to be unwarranted (Bridges, 1985, p. 64). It is therefore very important that any action taken towards an incompetent teacher be carefully planned and documented.

The effective manager does not let his ego get in the way of performing his job. He recognizes that ideas and contributions are not his sole domain and that everyone on his staff can contribute. He involves his staff in the formulation and implementation of school goals and objectives. He must sincerely demonstrate an interest in their various disciplines, help teachers become the best teachers they can be by acquiring the necessary materials they need to perform their

job, and must serve as a support system for teachers. By doing this, the effective administrator builds an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect (Krovets, 1984).

Essentially the importance of interpersonal relations in school administration is that the primary responsibility of the administrator is to mobilize and manage the material and human resources needed to facilitate the education of our children. In order to be effective in this mission he must be skilled in working with people. Conflicts between staff and administration often distort the mission and the ultimate losers are the very people we wish to help -- our children (Savage, 1968). The school administrator who can implement interpersonal skills commands as well as gives respect, is sensitive to the needs of others, recognizes that varying views exist among people, and shares responsibility in an appropriate manner with his staff. The administrator who effectively implements interpersonal skills is an effective leader who ultimately creates an effective school.

Limitations on Administrative Interpersonal Relations

Although most educators agree that interpersonal relations skills are of great importance to effective school administration, there are certain limitations to their effective use and implementation.

Regardless of the degree and amount of training an administrator may have in human relations, the actual use of these skills and techniques takes a great deal of skill and a certain degree of character that not

all people have. Administrators who are unable to assess their own strengths and weaknesses or are unable to evaluate their own attitudes and values are not able to recognize strength and diversity in others (Thomas, 1971). They often suffer from the need to always be right, missing the opportunities of considering others views or of the value mistakes can contribute to individual or group growth (Kelly, 1971). Human relations skills must be an integral part of an administrator's personality and genuinely emerge in his daily interactions (Thomas, 1971).

Savage (1968) discusses in detail the limitations on the potential and purpose of interpersonal and group relations. As an administrator you must realize that it is impossible to make everyone happy. The nature of leadership places the administrator in positions that demand that he say "no" in various situations. At times this may frustrate the "felt needs" of people and often result in conflict between individual needs and organizational needs. The administrator's task is to minimize these situations and emphasize and balance all the "no's" with "yes's."

Developing effective interpersonal skills and implementing them in a school setting does not mean that administrators are not responsible for insisting on a high level of staff performance. Administrators are responsible to take appropriate action when an individual's performance does not meet the expectations of the district or the administrator. In these cases an administrator must be more than someone who is sensitive to people's needs--he must also be a leader, willing to take

risks and make decisions which he feels will benefit the overall good of the school. Being trained to recognize and understand human behavior does not make it easier to make these decisions. Human relations training will, however, add to the skill administrators need in predicting outcomes, choosing among alternatives and helps in the problem solving process (Savage, 1968).

Administrators must realize that even though disagreement may occur, it is still possible to work with people. It would be very unusual for everyone on a staff to agree fully on every matter with the administrator. If they did, little diversity or creativity would occur resulting in the fostering of mediocrity and conformity. Agreement, of course, must exist within a staff on basic principles, but seeking full unanimity results in ineffective administration that prevents progress (Savage, 1968).

As important as interpersonal relation skills are to an administrator, other skills are important as well. Administrators are responsible for implementing and planning educational programs, solving problems concerned with instruction, developing curriculum, school finance, school operation and maintenance, teacher recruitment, personnel administration, to list the obvious. Administrators must prepare themselves for these tasks as diligently as they do in developing their interpersonal skills. Knowledge in human relations is far from being enough to make an administrator an effective leader (Savage, 1968).

School administrators must be aware of the limitations that exist

in interpersonal relations. Practicing effective interpersonal relations does not mean that administrators acquiesce to every individual's whim, but that they take responsibility and make decisions that are based on the needs of the entire organization rather than any particular individual. Utilizing effective human relations techniques does not negate the need to encourage varying views in a quest for harmony or conformity. Instead, administrators must recognize that diversity begets innovation and stimulates creativity.

Inferences

The importance of interpersonal relations skills in school administration can be most appreciated by describing an administrator who lacks such skills. Imagine working for a principal who totally keeps to himself and mistrusts everyone except a few close friends. Imagine that this principal lacks a vision and unilaterally imposes his will on teachers with no apparent reason let alone an educationally sound reason. Imagine working for a principal whose idea of justice is revenge. Imagine working for a principal who has a "that's your problem" attitude when it comes to personal problems of his staff. Imagine working for a principal with whom you are afraid to talk. As obviously drastic this example is, it does highlight the importance of human relations training in school administration.

Administrators who effectively practice human relations in their every day interaction with their staff, students, and parents behave in

a manner that sets them apart from administrators that do not possess such skills. These effective administrators are aware of the affect that they exert on their staff and take care to project themselves as trustworthy, objective, and fair. They accept feedback on other's perceptions of their behavior establishing a "climate of mutual trust," one that is open, honest, and satisfying to those with whom they work (Thomas, 1971). They authentically care about people in social as well as professional situations. They recognize that treating people with dignity and respect elicits reciprocal treatment. George M. Gazda (1974, p. 3), in Human Relations Development, adds insight:

In large part, we create the world we live in by what we take and what we give. In human relations, as in life, we largely reap what we sow. One of the lines in a recent recording is, "They're only puttin' in a nickle and they want a dollar song." All too frequently, this is true of our human relations; we give a little but we expect a lot. There is a vast potential for human growth within each of us; we are all capable of giving more.

CHAPTER 2

Theories Affecting Interpersonal Relations In School Administration

Effective school administrators must be aware of the various behavior and leadership theories that are available to them and the effect these theories have on their perceptions of the way people feel about and perform their jobs. They must familiarize themselves with these theories in order to build the intellectual foundation needed to develop their ability to promote cooperation, gain trust, and accomplish school or district goals. Theory provides a foundation that makes administrators more astute in predicting and understanding human interactions as well as providing them with the skill and knowledge they need in order to minimize personal conflict while maximizing productivity and achievement. Those administrators able to internalize and apply these theories are more likely to succeed in dealing with their staffs than those administrators who lack such a background.

This chapter looks at several different leadership and human relations theories. Each of these theories will add insight into the extremely complex task of working with and understanding human behavior

in the educational setting. Although this discussion is far from an exhaustive treatment of the topic, a general overview of the theoretical foundations, as discussed in current and relevant literature, will be explored.

Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation

People are motivated by different things. In business, for example, extrinsic rewards, such as high salaries, company cars, or stock options, often provide some workers with the impetus to excel. Intrinsic rewards, such as prestige, pride, and self-satisfaction motivate others. In education, where the extrinsic rewards of business are limited or do not exist, school administration must depend more on intrinsic rewards to motivate their staffs. Utilizing intrinsic rewards effectively requires an understanding of human motivation theory. Abraham Maslow's theory of human motivation, which is the cornerstone of modern motivation theory, helps to provide school administrators with the appropriate background to gain such an understanding.

The basic premise behind Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation is that man is motivated by certain basic needs. These basic needs are arranged in a hierarchy from basic survival needs, such as hunger, to the need of self-fulfillment, rising to one's potential. As man satisfies needs low in the hierarchy, he becomes dominated by the next successive need and thus becomes motivated by that need. Maslow

describes this hierarchy of dependence on basic needs as "relative prepotency"; the special need that dominates an individual is that individual's prepotent need or driving force.

The most prepotent of all the needs on Maslow's hierarchy, and the area generally considered as the starting point of motivation theory by scholars, are the physiological needs. Physiological needs are those basic needs required for survival; the necessities of life. People, for example, lacking food, love, self-esteem and safety would most likely be motivated by their need for food (hunger). In fact people motivated by hunger would not even realize that they are lacking other basic needs. Only when the hunger need is satisfied can other needs emerge as motivators (Maslow, 1943).

When all physiological needs are relatively well satisfied, safety needs then emerge. These needs motivate man just as strongly as physiological needs. If a man chronically feels that his life is in danger, he may arrange his life solely for survival and suppress all other needs. He becomes dominated just as much for survival as the man who is hungry is dominated by the need for food (Maslow, 1943).

When both physiological and safety needs are satisfied within an individual, love needs will then emerge. Love needs can be described as man's need for affection and man's need to belong. A person dominated by this need craves for affectionate relationships with a the opposite sex, children, or friends. He has a strong need to belong and be accepted in a group. Thwarting the love need can often lead to maladjustment and, more severly, psychopathic behavior. Love needs

require that people give as well as receive love.

As the cycle continues, and we satisfy all the needs previously mentioned, the esteem needs then emerge to dominate and motivate man. Esteem needs are man's' desire for respect, adequacy, and achievement. Satisfaction of the esteem needs leads man to feelings of self-worth, confidence, and being a useful and necessary person to society. Inhibiting or thwarting the esteem need causes feelings of inferiority, helplessness, and discouragement (Maslow, 1943).

The last of Maslow's basic needs are self-actualization needs. When man has gratified all the other needs, self-actualization needs will dominate and motivate him. In order to satisfy self-actualization needs man must be doing what he was meant to do. In order to be happy an artist must paint and a mechanic must fix cars; what man is capable of being he must be (Maslow, 1943).

Understanding Maslow's human motivation theory helps school administrators identify those characteristics that motivate the people on their staff and it helps them to become aware of those factors that make a particular individual want to do a good job. For the teacher rewards such as increased responsibility or being selected as a master teacher could be strong motivators. Yet, administrators must also become aware of those motivating forces that can cause a good teacher's performance to decline; forces such as a divorce or death in the family. By understanding Maslow's theory, administrators will be able to identify and develop intelligent informed strategies to deal with staff motivation and motivation problems.

Jung's Theory of Personality

Just as important as understanding the factors that motivate people, school administrators must also be aware of how individual personalities affect how we deal with people. Roberds - Baxter (1986) relates Carl Jung's theory of personality to school administration; which is based upon the premise that human behavior can be categorized by type. The author accomplishes this by demonstrating how principals can utilize Jung's behavior theory in trying to predict how individuals will perform various tasks, ultimately getting people of diverse personalities motivated to work towards common goals.

Essentially Jung's theory consists of three modes: perceiving functions, judging functions, and orientation to the environment. People are born with tendencies towards preferring one mode over the others. As people grow they become more proficient in their preferred mode forming clusters that can be identified as personality types. When school administrators are able to identify personality types, they can differentiate between people and use each individual's talents to increase team cooperation and efficiency. A brief description of the three modes follows:

1. Perceiving Function -- People use two methods of perceiving information about people, things, and events:
 - a. Sensing - directly perceived through five senses. Sensors are realistic, interested in facts, and concentrate on details.
 - b. Intuitive - use information from subconscious to enhance their perceptions from the five senses. Intuitives are visionaries, creative, and like working with abstracts.
2. Judging Function -- People use two methods to judge what they perceive:

- a. Thinking - thinkers view the world objectively and are logical and make decisions by analyzing facts.
 - b. Feelers - Base their decisions on their personal value system.
3. Orientation to Environment -- There are two methods people choose from in dealing with their environment:
- a. Extroverted - extroverts naturally draw from their environment for stimulation and energy. They use awareness, action, and verbalization to gather information about what is occurring in order to respond appropriately to situations.
 - b. Introverted - introverts perceive themselves as distinct from their environment and appear more like observers than participators of the world (Roberds - Baxter, 1986).

By outlining Jung's theory and relating it to effective school administration Roberds-Baxter demonstrates how an effective principal can create a sense of oneness among his staff. The team concept can actually be described as good staff morale which motivates teachers to work towards common goals.

The Concept of Power

Power exists in almost every aspect of life, yet it is a very uncomfortable concept to most people. Mention power and visions of dominance, control, and manipulation come to mind (Herlihy and Herlihy, 1985). To some educational leaders power is a concept to be avoided. The word itself connotes "dominance and submission, control and acquiescence or one person's will over another's." Yet others view power as a legitimate exercise of authority. "Power, like any human attribute, can be benevolent or malicious, used or abused, inspiring or stifling, but it is a force within most systems (Giammatteo and Giammatteo, 1981, p. 48)."

Effectively utilizing the concept of power as a school administrator is essentially a human relations problem. Administrators must first be aware of the various types of power that exist in the organization, then understand the dynamics of using power. They must first be aware that imposing power may result in getting what they want in the short run only to sacrifice overall school climate or teacher morale. Herlihy and Herlihy (1985, p. 96) explain further:

Principals who take this authoritarian position (imposing power) neglect to realize that their teachers, like themselves, have needs for power. Thus, an approach is needed to meet the power needs of both principals and teachers, this premise is basic to an empowering approach--giving principals power with, rather than power over, their teachers. It requires an understanding of the types of power available in principal/teacher relationships, and methods by which these powers can be shared rather than imposed.

Herlihy and Herlihy (1985, p. 96) cite a 1959 French and Rivera study which describes the various types of power which exist in organizations:

- 1) Legitimate Power is the power attained by virtue of accepting a position in an organization. For example, the superintendent is granted certain responsibilities and the powers to exercise these responsibilities by a school board. Principals in turn are granted various powers by the superintendent such as enforcement of district policy, teacher assignments, etc.
- 2) Reward Power are those powers exercised by an administrator such as informal notes of appreciation or telling teachers that they are doing a good job to formal teacher evaluations or making a teacher a department head or master teacher.
- 3) Coercive Power is a punishment-centered power. Administrators often do this unconsciously by neglecting to reward teachers for a job well done or they consciously exercise this type of power by not writing a teacher a letter of reprimand.
- 4) Expert Power is an earned power based upon knowledge or expertise. Administrators gain this power through schooling and professional growth in both management and instructional

leadership.

- 5) Referent Power is also described as characteristic power. Administrators gain this power when teachers respect and admire that administrator. Teachers feel a psychological closeness with and want to be like the leader.

Administrators generally use each of the various types of power in their careers. Yet those who rely on legitimate or coercive powers are generally less effective administrators than those who rely on expert and referent powers (Gross and Herrod, 1965, cited in Herlihy and Herlihy, 1985). Referent powers can also be demonstrated as administrators develop "hostile, defensive personality patterns illustrating that administration power patterns often change. Changing power patterns can also work in the opposite direction --as an administrator grows professionally he elicits more respect from his staff (Giammatteo and Giammatteo, 1981, p. 52)."

The appropriate way for administrators to use power is to share power. Although being authoritarian and dictatorial can immediately solve a pressing problem, in long run this approach is essentially self-destructive. Teachers, for example, as do administrators have certain powers. Legitimate powers such as class size limitations and academic freedom are ascribed to them in negotiated contracts and education codes. Teachers also possess expert powers, in the form of specialized knowledge, and referent power in their respect from principals and fellow teachers. Consequently, "Principals cannot impose what they do not solely possess" (Herlihy and Herlihy, 1985, p. 97). When a principal tries to impose something on teachers which teachers feel is within their powers, they will rightly view the

administrator's actions as a violation of their own power which may result in power struggles.

Power struggles between teacher and administrators can be avoided by the sharing of power. Administrators can realize the sharing of power by recognizing that teachers do indeed have these powers and by taking advantage of their expertise. Principals can provide teachers with the opportunity to grow by providing time and resources for teacher inservice and encouraging a collegial sharing of innovative and creative approaches to teaching. Teachers often will respond to this professional trust by appreciating the recognition of their abilities and by becoming more motivated, consequently improving the overall school climate (Herlihy and Herlihy, 1985).

The concept of power, then, is often viewed with unwarranted suspicion in organizations. As we have seen, this is not the view that administrators should embrace. When conducted and intelligently employed, power serves not to intimidate or coerce, but to help an organization grow and fulfill its goals. By mutually sharing this concept, teachers and administrators create a positive school climate that ultimately benefits students.

Leadership Styles and Their Effect on Interpersonal Relations

The attitudes that school administrators have towards subordinates has a great deal of effect on their leadership styles. Previous experience with other administrators or employees, personality traits,

and predominate leadership theories all influence an individual's management style (Brockman, 1972). Few administrators rely on one style or another. Most borrow bits and pieces from various styles and apply them in a situational way (employing a style of leadership that fits a particular employee or set of circumstances), while other educational leaders develop an eclectic approach (combining several theories into a style that reflects their own personalities). The leadership style an administrator employs, therefore, can be an important ingredient to the formulation of his interpersonal relations style.

Traditional Versus the Human Relations Theory of Management

Traditional management theory (described by McGregor as Theory X and by Swift as Classical Management) emerged during the early nineteenth century as a result of the industrial revolution. Management, mesmerized by the machine age, logically compared the efficiency of machines to human productivity. If two identical machines, designed to produce a specific item functioned for that purpose, then two men asked to perform the identical task should go about that task exactly the same way. In other words, there is only one correct way for man to perform a specific job (Swift, 1971).

Executives believed that the best way to implement the traditional management theory was to form organizational structures that controlled all aspects of the organization, including workers (Swift, 1971).

McGregor (1960) illustrates the traditional managers view of workers by

what he describes as Theory X. People, by their very nature, dislike work and will avoid it if at all possible. Management must coerce, threaten with punishment, direct and control them to achieve the goals of the organization. Workers, management rationalized, prefer direction because they lack ambition and wish to avoid responsibility. Above all they want security and their primary motivation is their paycheck.

Traditional management, by its very nature, "demands submissiveness, passivity, dependency, short time perspective, and repetitive, shallow abilities (Brockman, 1972, p. 14)." The result of such a management style is that managers attitudes towards workers are self-fulfilling. Management actually creates workers who are frustrated with the mundane aspect of their jobs, feel that they are not accomplishing anything important, and develop a care less attitude towards the organization as its goals (Argyris, 1957, cited in Brockman, 1972). Consequently, traditional management perpetuates a workplace of malcontents and malingerers.

During the 1930's and 1940's the traditional style of management began to break down. Labor no longer accepted the totalitarian management style earlier employed and rebelled with strikes and work stoppages. Management reacted to the rise of organized labor by hiring strike breakers resulting in years of violent labor/management conflict. With the outbreak of World War II, however, management, finding itself with a depleted labor force, began to seek ways to entice workers into staying on the job. Businessmen turned to the

human relations approach to solve their management problems (Swift, 1971).

The human relations movement was much more optimistic about the nature of the worker. Managers, recognizing that workers are motivated by more than extrinsic means, especially threat or coercion, began to realize that workers can be motivated by the intrinsic rewards implicit in self development and professional growth. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (mentioned earlier in this chapter) was accepted as valid requirements of workers and that employees, given the chance, will integrate personal goals with the goals of the organization (Swift, 1971).

McGregor's (1960) Theory Y, formulated as a more realistic view of the nature of the worker than his Theory X, outlines the human relations assessment of people:

1. Work is a natural activity that man pursues just as recreation or rest is.
2. Man has the capability of directing himself and developing self control.
3. Man will work towards objectives for self-satisfaction and achievement of goals.
4. Man, if allowed to, will accept and even seek responsibility.
5. Man is an essentially creative being and will exercise a high level of ingenuity to solve problems.

The contrast that exists between the human relations approach as opposed to the traditional style of management manifests itself in the way administrators view the workers. Traditional management relies basically on a top to bottom directive hierarchy. Workers are expected

to do what they are told and to conform to established practices. Little, if any, room exists for active participation in the advancement of company goals. Managers who follow the human relations school of management, instead, seek involvement and participation from workers as a means to meet organizational goals. Workers are viewed as integral creative members of the organization and are respected for their unique contributions. These contrasting views of the nature of the worker can have an effect on administrator's methods of dealing with people.

Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership theory developed as a result of the conflict between traditional and human relations theories. Administration, for years, was thought of as either being directive (traditional theory) or supportive (human relations theory). Research has shown that most administrators vary their leadership styles as needed to handle a particular situation. They may be directive to one individual, supportive to another, and perhaps directive and supportive to a third individual. In essence, situational leadership provides managers the means to diagnose the level of competence an individual has accumulated to accomplish a specific task. It then allows that manager to select a specific leadership pattern to facilitate that individual's completion of the task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976).

Blanchard, Zigarmie, and Zigarmie (1987) discuss the components of situational leadership theory. Managers at one time or other display

four basic leadership patterns. These four patterns display a combination of management styles from directive to supportive behavior.

Below is an outline of these styles:

1. high directive/low supportive--Roles and tasks are defined by the leader. Communications are one way where solutions and decision are announced and supervised by the administrator.
2. high directive/high supportive--Although the leader still directs and makes final decisions, interaction with subordinates is encouraged to gain ideas and suggestions for solutions to problems.
3. high supportive/low directive--The leader facilitates problem solving/decision making since the subordinate has the ability to accomplish the task.
4. low supportive/low directive--The leader delegates as responsibility for decision making to subordinates. Subordinates have the confidence and ability to accomplish their task.

Managers adjust their supervision of workers as workers build their competence and develop a commitment to achieving their task. The ultimate goal is to increase the maturity level of workers so they can perform their task with a minimum amount of direction. Hersey and Blanchard (1976, p. 1) describe worker maturity as:

Maturity is defined in situational leadership theory as the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement-motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual group. These variables of maturity should be considered in relation to a specific task to be performed. That is to say, an individual or a group is not mature or immature in any total sense. People tend to have varying degrees of maturity depending on the specific task, function, or objective that the leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.

Consequently, in situational leadership, managers must match the correct management pattern with the correct maturity level of a group or individual. The more a worker lacks the knowledge and confidence to

perform a task, the more directive that manager must be. As the worker develops the necessary knowledge and acquires the confidence needed, the manager can be less directive and more supportive.

The concepts behind situational leadership can also be useful in understanding the needs of a worker. For example, a new teacher may need the structure of clinical supervision to help build instructional skills. Clinical supervision, being a more structured and directive method of teacher supervision, is well suited to this situation. On the other hand, an experienced master teacher would probably resent the close scrutiny and structure of clinical supervision and would be best suited to a self-directed method of teacher supervision since confidence and experience can be readily observed in this situation. In other words, situational leadership can be used as a tool for professional growth as well as a guide to determine how to deal interpersonally with specific workers.

Theory Z

Recently, American educational researchers have been studying William Ouchi's Theory Z management style. This style of management has been extremely successful in Japan and has been adapted by many American businesses. Theory Z is based on the creation of impelling incentives for workers. These incentives, such as lifetime employment and seniority based wage structure, creates an unusual sense of loyalty which binds management and employee in a family like structure.

Management trusts employees to do the right things, whereas employees trust management to look after their interests. The team or clan type of organizational structure fosters a sense of community, security, and job satisfaction which eventually leads to increased productivity. (Sullivan, 1983).

Critics point out that Theory Z is not based upon humanism nor is it an extension of the human relations theory of management. Humanism is based on the premise that the organization strives for the satisfaction of individual needs. Theory Z is primarily structured for the benefit of the organization and not individual needs. Individuals must conform to the values established by the corporation. "The attractiveness of theory Z lies not in the fact that it will democratize the workplace, but in the fact that it will provide a mechanism for enhancing managerial control." (Sethi, Namiki, and Swanson, 1984, p. 270).

Rodgers, Cook, and Green (1984) have formulated style of leadership applicable to educational supervision by incorporating the team concept fostered by Ouchi's Theory Z and the effectiveness of Bandura's behavior modeling. The key to being a successful supervisor is having a "honed set of interpersonal skills." Supervisors want to create and encourage professional growth among teachers, not defensiveness. They can accomplish this by clarifying their attitude towards workers utilizing behavior modeling and creating a Theory Z team feeling among their staffs.

The application of the Theory Z approach requires that a team (or

clan) relationship be established among the whole staff. The instructional leader would facilitate schoolwide goals to which all teachers and administrators were committed. A more collaborative relationship between teachers and staff would be established and a collegial approach to teacher improvement would be established to help individual teacher performance (Green, et al, 1984).

In order to provide supervisors with the skills necessary to accomplish the theory Z approach, Behavior Modeling (B.M.) based upon Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, is suggested by the authors. B. M. provides the administrator/supervisor with a way to change their attitudes towards teachers. Key aspects of B. M. are: 1) it provides guidelines on motivation; 2) it demonstrates communication skills; and 3) it shows how to carry out other aspects of leadership required in a teacher and supervisor situation. (cited in Green, et al, 1984).

The authors presented an interesting overview of Theory Z and behavior modeling. They showed how Ouchi's theory Z stresses the collaborative approach to supervision and stressed the premise that teachers, if involved and respected, will buy into the process. They suggest that teachers will be motivated to achieve the common objectives of the school because they all helped establish these objectives. Coupled with behavior modification training for supervisors, the authors outline a modern humanistic approach to motivating teachers.

Theory Z will not be applied to educational management as a pure theory. The current structure of American education can not offer the

lifetime incentives necessary to develop the deep loyalty observed in Japanese companies. Instead, Green, Cook, and Rogers have borrowed parts of Ouchi's theory, the team concept, and incorporated it with behavior modeling. In the process they have actually developed a new theory which is far more humanistic than Ouchi's original theory Z.

Summary

The various theories and leadership styles discussed in this chapter provide school administrators with the background and rationale needed to deal with and understand human interaction in an educational setting. As they internalize and apply these ideas they become more adept at avoiding conflict and encouraging growth and productivity with their staffs.

Understanding Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation, Jung's Theory of Personality, and the concept of power, equips administrators with the necessary background to understand why people do things and what factors motivate the people they work with and supervise. Maslow's and Jung's theories provide the basic information needed to formulate strategies useful in creating trustworthy and productive climates. Power, when responsibly employed and understood, is a positive and productive organizational force and helps organizations meet their goals.

Leadership styles reflect various views of the nature of the worker. Traditional management theory views the worker as lazy,

undisciplined and needing strict and pointed supervision. Humanist management theory is more optimistic, viewing employees as self disciplined, creative, and willing to seek out responsibility. Supervision is consequently more participative where managers seek input from worker in the decision making process.

Situational leadership and Ouchi's Theory Z as applied by Green et al combine different leadership techniques. In situational leadership administrators fit the management style to the professional maturity of the worker. Situational leadership helps administrators select the best method of working with individual teachers. In Green et al's version of Theory Z, Bandura's behavior modification is combined with the Theory Z team concept. The result is a humanistic version of Theory Z.

As school administrators become more knowledgeable and competent in applying human relations and leadership theories, they become more effective leaders. They become more skillful in working with people rather than around them. They create a trusting organization where everyone is working towards common goals.

CHAPTER 3

Implementing Interpersonal Relations Skills In School Administration

Bill Stone is the principal of Pearly Gate Junior High school, the ideal school. Students never miss a day of school for fear of missing some educationally important detail. Each student achieves his or her maximum potential mainly due to a teaching staff that is extremely competent, dedicated, and professional. In fact every teacher is a highly motivated master teacher.

Teachers and students are extremely energetic, creative, and unusually cooperative. A mutual concern exists for everyone's well-being and people genuinely extend themselves to help one another. There is not an envious or jealous relationship within the school and everyone is sincere with praise for one another.

Parents are supportive without meddling and often contribute both time and money for the benefit of school programs. There has never been a parent complaint about the school, teachers, or administrators.

Of course Bill Stone lives in that great school house in the sky, the place old administrators go after years of dealing with reality. Whenever we enter organizational situations with people things rarely go ideally. Not all children are motivated; teachers, being the

diversified individuals they are, often deal with situations with minds of their own; and many parents would rather exert their wills over school staff than work with them.

School administrators must develop the skills necessary to pull parents, students and teachers together to create an effective learning environment. They are charged with the task of focusing teachers attention on instruction and must manage people to minimize aggressive behavior, conflict, and resistance. Above all, they must secure an atmosphere of trust, open communication, and cooperation among their staffs, students, and parents. The question is: How do school administrators do this? This chapter addresses this question. Specific methods, techniques, and processes that facilitate the implementation of interpersonal relations skills in several of the more critical areas of school administration will be explored.

Creating a Personal Support System by Building Trust and Motivating People

All too often the relationship between teachers and administrators is more a "them versus us" arrangement rather than one of cooperation and collegiality. Teachers often mistrust administrators' motives and openly lament the way they have lost touch with the classroom. Administrators, isolated by their positions, driven by directions from the central office, and resentful of teacher antagonism may develop an "I'll show them" attitude. Often as a result of this situation an atmosphere of uneasiness, mistrust, and non-productivity seems to

perpetuate itself. In such situations the primary mission of the school, providing a quality education for the students, is buried under an air of unreasonable behavior, suspicion, and antagonism (Hassenpflug, 1986).

Attempts to create a positive learning environment in such schools fails because the primary emphasis on human relations is between the student and the teacher. Building adult relationships seem to have been neglected in such situations, stunting innovation and articulation which, in turn, creates an environment conducive to interpersonal abuses by both teachers against administrators and administrators against teachers. However, the building of positive and productive human relations among the adults in a school setting proves just as important, if not more so, than student-teacher relationships. A faculty psychologically at war with its administration, for example, can often destroy the good things that exist in the classroom. If school administrators wish to build an effective educational program within their schools, or just to survive as an administrators, it is essential that they build a trusting working relationship with their staffs (Hirst, 1980).

Trust does not occur automatically. It is not something passed down from one administrator to another, nor is it in an administrator's genes. Trust is a condition administrators achieve by hard work, and it begins by being open, honest, and sincere with people. Trust thrives when administrators show their staff that they are important as individuals. It is a two way street where everyone feels comfortable

dealing with each other in everyday situations. Essentially, administrators acquire the trust of others when they trust and make others feel good about themselves (Hirst, 1980).

Another important aspect in the trust building process is the establishment of a need for trust. Administrators do not necessarily have to develop trust with everyone they come in contact with. They need not build trust with the postman, for example. They do, however, need the trust of those who are participants in the organizational goals they are responsible for. In a school setting this means everyone from secretaries and custodian to students, parents, central office personnel, and teachers. It means that administrators must carry the message; "if we want to create an effective school, we must cooperate towards that goal." Implicit in cooperation is trusting one another (Sanchez, 1988).

The interpersonal skills and techniques needed to build trust also help motivate people. The same techniques one utilizes for one contributes to the other and many researchers do not distinguish between them. Robert Conklin (1979), for example, states that "to the degree you give others what they need, they will give you what you need." Meet the physical and emotional needs of your staff and your staff will reciprocate by contributing ideas, being cooperative, and by working hard to meet the organization's goals.

Conklin (1979) specifically discusses a "three-legged pedestal" of needs administrators must meet in order to build trust and motivate people: acceptance, approval, and appreciation. Trust and motivation

occur by accepting people as they are, demonstrating to them that their unique qualities are important and respected. Acceptance is showing keen interest in your staffs thoughts and opinions. Acceptance breeds happiness and contentment because you say to individuals, welcome into the human race, I'm glad your here.

Accepting also means tolerating. When we speak about accepting people we mean we must tolerate the fact that all of us make mistakes and that we all have faults. We must understand that however badly a person behaves there is always a reason for that person's actions. Tolerance is simply accepting those qualities in people that are not like us; those behaviors which appear to us as absurd and appreciating the differences in people. Tolerance and acceptance requires that we choose not to hate, criticize, or condemn, but that we enjoy the uniqueness of everyone at face value (Conklin, 1979).

However unique we perceive others, we must remember that deep down most people have the same basic needs; to be appreciated, loved, and rewarded. Consequently, self knowledge helps administrators understand others as well (Savage, 1968). When administrators realize that people have the same basic needs, they become equipped to exert tolerance and understanding to those they work with. Arthur J. Jersild (1965) adds insight:

The voice of self, usually silent and yet sometimes audible to the inner ear, speaks a universal language. The closer any human comes to a knowledge of himself the more he is in touch with a core of humanity which he shares with all others.

Everyone works for approval in our society. Give it and people thrive. Withhold it and you will breed discontentment and low morale.

Openly communicate approval to your staff and the relationship you will build will stand up against most problems you may encounter. In any human interaction it is important to show people that you appreciate what they have accomplished or have done. Being recognized can influence a persons life.

Withholding appreciation or recognition can demoralize individuals and cause people to "burn out" more quickly than if you fostered encouragement and recognition. This means that you must pay attention to what people are doing in your school. You must be sincere and specific in your praise. Do not say "you've done a great job", say "the display of student artwork demonstrates that a great deal of learning is taking place in your classroom. You should be proud." You must remember... "praise is a reward people work for. It shapes and stimulates behavior (Conklin, p.45)." It is a means by which a trusting relationship can be built and continue to thrive between an administrator and his staff. B. C. Forbes once wrote in Forbes Magazine of the importance of acceptance and praise:

No human being can be genuinely happy unless he or she stands well in the esteem of fellow mortals. He who would deal successfully with us must never forget that we possess and are possessed by this ego. A word of appreciation often can accomplish what nothing else could accomplish (in Conklin, p. 35).

Building trust is the cornerstone of the effective use of interpersonal relation techniques in any organization. Administrators need to build trusting relationships with the individuals on his staff in order to develop the atmosphere necessary to accomplish

organizational goals. They must garner the trust of his staff in order to acquire the respect needed to lead and he must develop trust to insure that all the staff's energy is focused on the instructional goals of the school rather than adult infighting. If a trusting relationship exists within a staff, major problems can be dealt with with minimal harm to the overall ambiance of the school. Figure 1 contains a checklist of practical tips administrators can use during the trust and motivation building process.

Interpersonal Attractiveness

Interpersonal attractiveness deals with how people perceive one another. Its effect determines whether or not people like, trust, or respect each other. Understanding interpersonal attractiveness helps us recognize why we are drawn to some people and repelled by others. School administrators, especially if they wish to exercise the tolerance and acceptance needed to build trust and motivate, must be aware of the various aspects of interpersonal attractiveness.

Physical appearance, grooming, hygiene, and personality shape the way people interact with each other. If people neglect their appearance or are unkempt or unclean, other people will tend to avoid contact with them. A boisterous and obnoxious individual may also face isolation and disrespect. Carry these negative traits to an administrative position and you will find it difficult to garner the respect needed to lead (Sanchez, 1987).

Figure 1Practical Tips to Use While Building Trust and Motivating Staff

1. Accept people for what they are. Do not try to change them. Most human relations problems stem from everyone trying to change everyone else (Conklin, 1979).
2. Make people feel welcome in your presence. Do not barricade yourself behind a desk, be warm, and use small talk to make people comfortable (Hirst, 1980).
4. Demonstrate that you believe in the worth and potential of other people by being aware of their duties and accomplishments and telling them so. (Gazda, 1974).
5. Empathize with people about their problems and, if you can, help them alleviate their problems (Gazda, 1974). This is true of both personal and professional problems. Personal problems often affect the way people perform their job, so it is not only a moral thing to do but a practical thing as well.
6. Smile a lot. People respond positively to people who smile. They trust people who smile. (Gazda, 1974).
7. Show people that you approve of them as people as well as professionals (Hirst, 1980).
8. Praise people, but be sincere in your praise. Do not use false flattery; people will see through it and it will not be accepted (Conklin, 1979).
9. Be specific in your praise. Praise what a person does not the person (Gazda, 1974).
10. Do not be afraid to tell people about yourself. Appropriate self-disclosure communicates a closeness and deeper understanding between people and thus builds trust (Gazda, 1974). Appropriate self-disclosure doesn't mean telling everyone every detail about your life, it means talking about family, hobbies, trips, etc.
11. Be honest in your gripes as well as your praise. If a person is doing something wrong, irresponsible, or inappropriate deal with the situation openly and honestly (Hennigan, 1988).
12. Use active listening skills when communicating with people. Show people you are listening by nodding, paraphrasing, smiling, etc. (Hirst, 1980).
13. Treat all staff members the same way (Burgess, 1978). Do not play favorites or create an inner circle. Provide the same service and support to all staff members.
14. Trust means caring and responding to all people's concerns, not just those you like (Hirst, 1980).
15. "Clearly define and interpret expectation to staff members" (Burgess, 1978).
16. "Remain calm and poised in difficult situations" (Burgess, 1978).
17. Take the time to build trust with your staff (Savage,). Do not rush the process and do not attempt to change anything major before the trust building process is complete.
18. If you want to be trusted, trust others (Conklin, 1979).

Interpersonal attractiveness, however, goes beyond physical appearance and hygiene. It is also an attitude. It is how we perceive people in relation to ourselves. People, basically, tend to like others who are similar to themselves. It is rewarding for people to see similar traits in others because it reinforces their beliefs, lifestyles, decisions, and social worth. Especially during initial contact, we develop positive first impressions to those like us and negative impressions of those who are different (Kiesler, 1978).

People are also influenced by a person's status or social desirability. We tend to have positive feelings towards those who are educated, wealthy, powerful, and physically attractive. This phenomenon occurs among children and adults. The cute, adorable child often is perceived by others, even teachers, as being smarter and better behaved. A physically attractive person may be deemed more capable than an obese person when in fact he is not. An individual, then, may garner more initial respect and admiration just because he has more socially desirable traits than another person (Kiesler, 1978).

The implications of interpersonal attractiveness to school administration has two parts. As mentioned earlier, an administrator who is obnoxious or unclean stands little chance of winning the respect and trust of staff, students, and parents. Second, mistakes and misjudgements about people, especially during first meetings or employment interviews, can occur if administrators explore no further than the socially desirable traits of individuals. Administrators, therefore, must be cognizant of the tendency of being favorably

impressed by those displaying socially desirable traits and those who are similar to themselves. Misjudgements and lack of diversity among those he works with will occur if an administrator neglects or does not understand interpersonal attractiveness.

Dealing With Conflict

One of the most important interpersonal skills administrators need to master is the techniques used in conflict resolution. Any time the needs of one person differ from the needs of another person conflict is apt to arise. Some conflict is minor and easily resolved, while other conflict can be extremely disruptive and difficult to resolve. Administrators must be capable of diffusing conflict no matter how extreme (Stepsis, 1974).

Although the theory and techniques of conflict resolution can be learned, there are few places that formally offer such coursework. Therefore, those interested in school administration must learn these skills on their own. Often this occurs during a person's first administrative position on the job (Stepsis, 1974). Yet, conflict resolution skills can be learned and practiced by prospective school administrators while still in the classroom. Teachers deal with conflict daily. Students who do not get along with each other, parents at odds with the teachers discipline or grading policies, and teacher/administrator disputes all are common examples of the conflicts teacher confront. The nature of the conflicts may be different than

those conflicts administrators must resolve, but the process of resolution is the same. The techniques and strategies discussed in this section, although viewed from an administrative standpoint, are often applicable to many areas of life.

Essentially, school administrators have a responsibility to work towards and facilitate positive solutions to conflicts between people. This means that administrators must rise above the fray and mediate amicable solutions to problems. The manner in which he does this can have a great deal of impact upon the quality of the resolution and its effectiveness (Doyle and Straus, 1986).

Before conflict can be resolved, administrators must understand the nature of conflict. Conflict can be disruptive in the school setting, yet it is by no means a totally negative concept. Without it people do not think or interact with other people, and they avoid looking at alternatives (Kiesler, 1978). Conflict provides people with the opportunity to present their concerns and recommendations (Savage, 1968). We need everyday conflicts to test, receive feedback, and hear different ideas. Problems with conflict arise when it is not managed. Consequently, administrators must develop the skills necessary to control conflicts by resolving them in a manner which doesn't thwart thinking, testing, and innovating (Kiesler, 1978).

Some conflicts can be resolved by using a simple straight forward approach. For example, just sitting down and talking through a problem is often enough to take care of the difficulty. Equally effective is the "if I'm pleasant, you'll be pleasant" approach for minor conflicts.

Here the administrator tries to prevent the disagreement from growing into a full blown conflict (Savage, 1968). This can be effective with conflicts between teachers by having each teacher relate their side of the story so that the other person can see why the other felt a particular way. Yet administrators must be aware of the side effects of these simple approaches. If you capitulate or, however innocently, manipulate others into capitulating, the conflict will not go away (Kiesler, 1978).

At times a more sophisticated approach is required to solve conflicts. The more sophisticated conflict resolution strategies can be classified into three categories: 1) avoidance, 2) diffusion, and 3) confrontation. Avoidance is when people avoid conflict altogether. They make-believe it doesn't exist and hope that it will go away (Stepsis, 1974). A school administrator may use this technique if he doesn't want to escalate the problem by giving it more attention that it deserves. On the other hand, if an administrator avoids a conflict because he just doesn't want to get involved, he may find himself with a minor problem that has grown into a major one.

Administrators must also be aware of how individuals who are involved in a conflict use avoidance. Some people keep things inside. No matter how irritating a situation may be they repress their emotional reaction, look the other way, or tune out the situation. These people just can't handle any type of conflict. They would rather drop out of a situation than go through unpleasant experiences. Conflict avoiders either cannot face up to the situation or they do not

possess the skills needed to resolve the conflict (Stepsis, 1974).

When administrators are confronted with this type of person they must try to get that person to open up. This can occur if the administrator has successfully built a trusting atmosphere in his school.

Diffusion is another conflict resolution technique that can be useful to an administrator. Essentially diffusion is a tactic that is used to delay any resolution of a conflict. Administrators use it to cool a situation temporarily and it only works when delay is possible. It would not work, for example, if a student disputes an "F" grade given by a teacher when he needs a "C" to graduate the next day. This problem needs an immediate resolution.

However, diffusion can be effective in dealing with certain conflicts. The administrator, for example, may delay action by resolving minor points before major ones, hoping that the major points will dissipate before he gets to them. He may also postpone a confrontation until a time that would be more suitable and conducive to an orderly resolution process; or he may avoid clarifying any major issue which may cause strife in order to get the conflicting parties to work together. The administrator must, however, be aware that the use of diffusion may result in feelings of dissatisfaction, anxiety about the future, and concern among participants (Stepsis, 1974).

The third technique of conflict resolution is confrontation. During this process administrators actually confront the issues and the people involved in the conflict. Most confrontations involve either a win/win or win/lose resolution. Win/lose remedies usually are attained

by voting on a problem, appointing one person to decide on the the solution, or worst of all no decision at all (everyone loses) (Doyle and Straus, 1986).

Coercion and the use of power also create win/lose resolutions of conflict. This type of brokerage can be physical force, bribery, or punishment. Using this method is great for the winner, but leaves the loser full of resentment, hostility, and anxiety; all of which can keep a conflict simmering. Coercing people may solve the problem in the short run but will also guarantee that it will resurface, often more aggressively with greater intensity (Stepsis, 1974).

Win/win solutions have just the opposite effect. During this process everyone feels that they have received something. It is a process where everyone may think there was a better solution but its a solution that everyone can live with and one that doesn't compromise anyone's values or convictions. It is a consensus building process not a negotiation. Negotiating implies that there are trade-offs. Consensus is not trading off--everyone must agree on a solution. (Doyle and Straus, 1986). The win/win consensus building technique provides the most positive and least negative results of all conflict resolution strategies (Stepsis, 1974).

Solving conflicts using a win/win consensus building process takes great skill. Administrators must learn to distinguish the nature of the conflict, become effective in initiating confrontations, develop the ability to listen to all viewpoints, and internalize and be able to implement a problem solving process. Initially administrators must

diagnose the nature of the conflict needing resolution. He must determine whether the conflict is ideological, based upon personal values, if the conflict is real and tangible, or if it is a combination of both. Ideological value type conflicts are almost impossible to resolve. These are those issues in which people become emotionally entrenched. The textbook issue between right wing fundamentalists and the educational establishment is an example of such an ideological conflict. Resolution of such conflict is beyond the scope of normal school administrators and must be settled in our courts (Stepsis, 1974).

Equally as difficult are those value conflicts that do exist within the scope of an administrators authority to resolve. For example, staff members may have different views of how student discipline should be handled based upon their personal value system. In this situation, even though people are interested in the development of a discipline policy, conflict of an ideological nature arises due to differences of opinion. In this case administrators must be capable of reaching a workable consensus among conflicting parties because it affects the entire school. He must get people to focus on the real and tangible problems which will allow them to devise realistic solutions. In this case, getting staff members to agree on various methods of school discipline with which everyone can live. If value conflicts do not pose a threat to organizational goals, there is no need to resolve the conflict (Stepsis, 1974).

The manner in which school administrators initially approach

conflict can also have an effect on whether or not the conflict will be resolved. It is extremely important that both sides in the conflict are given the same status. Demeaning or attacking one side will only result in defensiveness that can thwart an easy or quick resolution of the problem. Getting people to open up and express themselves as to how the conflict has effected them is the best way to approach the conflict. Confronting the issue is not attacking or belittling anyone's position (Stepsis, 1974).

Once the confrontation of the problem has been initiated, the confronter must insure that people really hear what everyone is saying. It is important that the individual facilitating the confrontation of issues himself have a desire to listen objectively and examine both sides of an issue. At times this can be difficult because one party may have an indefensible, selfish, or irrational position (Savage, 1968). Arguing or provoking people only serves to make a conflict worse and should be avoided. Instead the confronter must engage in the art of "reflection or active listening" (Stepsis, 1974).

Active listening skills help people feel that they are important because their views are being heard. People begin to feel confident when they feel that they are finally being heard. This often leads to a lessening of tension and begins to break through the emotional aspect of conflicts. Usually, when the confronter actually listens to the other person's point of view that person lowers his defenses and in turn is more ready to listen to opposing views (Stepsis, 1974).

The administrator skilled in the art of active listening has

equipped himself with a tremendous problem solving tool. Active listening skills assure that you are truly paying attention to the other person. It keeps your mind from wandering and increases your chances for accurately receiving the other persons message. Active listening also helps you to get at hidden messages because people often express their problems or feelings in "strangely coded ways." Active listening also helps build trust and people will be more likely to share themselves with you if you listen to them. Active listening can in itself be a problem solver. Just the fact that someone listens to the problem may help a person accept a situation because they know that someone understands his problem (Adler and Towne, 1984).

Group Process and Conflict Resolution

When conflicts are so complex that they cannot be resolved by simple methods, it is necessary to utilize a problem solving process. There are many problem solving models available to school administrators, but most consist of essentially the same components, although they may be labeled or classified differently. The value in using a process is that it provides a means to manage and resolve conflict by building consensus among the individuals or groups involved. The following is an outline of a basic problem solving sequence (Morris and Sashkin, 1978):

- I. Problem Definition -- Explaining the problem situation, generating information, clarifying, and defining the problem.
- II. Problem-Solution Generation -- Brainstorming solution alternatives, reviewing, revising, elaborating, and recombining solution ideas.
- III. Ideas to Action -- Evaluating alternatives, examining probable effects and comparing them with desired outcomes; revising ideas; developing a list of final action alternatives and selecting one for trial.
- IV. Solution-Action Planning -- Preparing a lists of action steps, with the names of persons who will be responsible for each step; developing a coordination plan.
- V. Solution-Evaluation Planning -- Reviewing desired outcomes and development of measures of effectiveness, creating a monitoring plan for gathering evaluation data as the solution is put into action; developing contingency plans; assigning responsibilities.
- VI. Evaluation of the Product and the Process -- Assembling data to determine the effects of actions and the effectiveness of the group's problem solving process.

The key to the effectiveness of the use of a problem solving process is the skill of the facilitator. Every group process needs a facilitator who is skilled in group processes and interpersonal skills. Essentially the facilitator is responsible to get the group focused on a common problem, ensure that everyone can express their ideas without being attacked or intimidated, and to build trust within the group (Doyle and Straus, 1986). In addition the facilitator is responsible to guide the group through the process and ensure that all group members have the opportunity to practice the interaction process skills important for effective group problem solving (Morris and Sashkin, 1978). Group processes take practice. The more experienced and skilled any particular group is in the process, the more easily the process works.

Understanding Change and Resistance

The school administrator is increasingly becoming more accountable for the effectiveness of his school. He is expected to be a strong educational leader with expertise in curriculum, instruction, human relations, and organization to mention just a few. He is also expected to have a vision, either formulated by himself or with the aid of his staff, as to where he wants his school to go and is expected to possess the skills necessary to implement that vision. Implicit in the implementation of any vision are the skills necessary to effect change and minimize resistance.

Change is important to effective leadership because without it we cannot grow or ever be sure that the status quo is the best we can be. Although change doesn't necessarily mean that there will be improvement, without the attempt growth will never occur. In other words, we must propose and try out an innovation in order to find out if it will work. Just the attempt at change gets people thinking and creating. At best change improves the school, at worst, if the old procedure is in fact superior, you retain the status quo (Gorton, 1984).

Yet change is not necessarily met with accolades by those affected by it. Every administrator has been confronted with people who just do not see the purpose in any change. In fact, as far as change goes, there are two camps: 1) those who say "if its new its therefore better," and 2) those who say "this is old, therefore good (Gorton,

1984)."

Resistance can be found in every type of organization. It can grow within communities over desegregation of schools or over the closing of a branch of a public school library. It can occur within church groups where parishioners disagree with church leaders. In the school settings resistance may come from parents, students or the staff over a variety of things. Resistance to change should be expected and must be managed by the school administrator if he wishes to see his vision become a reality (Savage, 1968).

As with any area which affects the way people relate to one another, understanding the nature of resistance is essential to school administration. First of all it is natural for people to resist each other. People do not enjoy being told what to do, how to act, or that their preferences and attitudes need to be altered. Second, understanding why people or groups resist can be very complex. Even individuals within a group that is opposed to the same thing will have different reasons for resisting (Savage, 1968). As complex as resistance is to understand it is clear, however, that unmanaged or controlled it can be an extremely destructive force within a school.

Left unchecked, resistance can destroy the ability of people to work together. It can destroy creativity and severely limits the individual potential within organizations. Resistance often causes people to play it safe avoiding risks which in turn can stunt professional growth. It can be a monster that builds upon itself (resistance begetting resistance) and is often built without people

knowing it. Yet, if an administrator wants to be successful he must learn to cope with, understand, and manage resistance. He must remember that the opportunity for meaningful change, achievement, or new ideas can only be made when people interact and exchange views. As difficult as resistance can be in implementing an innovation, administrators should expect it and view it as a positive force in the change process (Conklin, 1979).

Types and Causes of Resistance

Whenever a situation is introduced to a group that involves some type of change there will be those people who will help facilitate it and those who will resist it. People who resist do so for many reasons and an astute administrator, capable of reading and understanding what is making a person resist, can often reduce or even eliminate much of the resistance that may emerge during change (Gorton, 1984).

Therefore, understanding the "whys" of resistance is fundamental to an administrator's effective implementation of educational innovation.

People often signal that they are not too keen on an idea by their verbal expressions. Administrators must learn to listen for these verbal signals and not shrug them off. As mentioned in the trust building section of this chapter, listening to what a person is saying reflects that you feel that that person is important and respected. During periods of change you need to listen and understand people all the more -- if a person trusts you and knows that his views are being

considered, he will be more likely to cooperate, or at least, give change a try. The following is a list of verbal comments that may signal that a person has a problem with a proposed change:

1. I'm not interested (Conklin, 1979).
2. I'm too busy (Conklin, 1979).
3. I can't talk now (Conklin, 1979).
4. I didn't have time (Conklin, 1979).
5. People aren't ready for change (Gorton, 1984).
6. If it isn't broke, don't fix it (Gorton, 1984).
7. This won't work here at this school (Gorton, 1984).
8. It sounds good, but we do not have enough time to do it (Gorton, 1984)
9. I'm surprised you would suggest something like that (Conklin, 1979).
10. That change is too drastic (Conklin, 1979).
11. That's not the way we have always done it (Gorton, 1984).
12. Has anyone else ever tried this before (Gorton, 1984).
13. It will cost too much (Gorton, 1984).

In addition to verbal expressions people signal their resistance in other ways. Administrators should look for signs of impatience; looking at one's watch, wiggling, shaking or tapping one's foot, or wandering attention to mention a few. Constant interruptions also signal that the interrupting party really isn't interested in what is going on. For example if a person at a meeting excuses himself several times to take phone calls or handle other matters, he really isn't involved in the program. If he really cared and wanted the meeting to work he would eliminate any distractions (Conklin, 1979).

After the administrator becomes aware that resistance exists to a proposed change, and remember it is more likely to exist than not, he must be aware of the many reasons why people resist. Groups or individuals who think that a proposed innovation is not well advised or that the change in some way will threaten a person's status within an

organization will often try to scuttle change. A person may, for example, fight tooth and nail over a curriculum change that he feels will be detrimental to the educational well being of his students. Or a person may resist because his department chairmanship would be eliminated under a proposed reorganization of departments, feeling a loss of prestige and power. In both situations the person resisting feels that something will be lost if the change is successful (Savage, 1968).

Robert Conklin (1979) outlines eight basic types of resistance that administrators should be aware of:

1. "Rule Resistance" -- People will resist a change because of the person who presents it. Our values often cause us to judge people or look at them in a stereotypical manner which often stimulates resistance.
2. "Don't Change Me Resistance" -- Tell a person to change their habits, lifestyles, job performance, or behavior and most of the time they will resist. Generally people resist any idea that might threaten who they are. We accuse people who resist this way of being uncooperative or insubordinate if it is an employee.
3. "Lousy Mood Resistance" -- When a person is tired, ill, or depressed they will resist anything. It is probably best to wait till they're feeling better to press for change.
4. "What is Mine Resistance" -- Conklin describes this type of resistance as biological resistance. Every person needs a bit of space, something of their own. A person denied privacy will resist.
5. "You Bug Me Resistance" -- A person will resist something just because they do not like or are annoyed by the person who is presenting the change. People may resist because they do not agree with the basic philosophy of the presenter or because the presenter doesn't show them respect or listen to what they are saying. An administrator who has negative interpersonal attractiveness may experience this type of resistance.
6. "I'm Against It Resistance" -- People who are negative, fault finding, at odds with the world will probably resist anything.
7. "I'm Scared Resistance" -- When a person is afraid of something they will resist. Often not understanding the proposed change causes people to fear it consequently resisting it.
8. "Rational Resistance" -- Some people resist things for all the

reasons stated above. They use these reasons as a rationale to resist the proposed change giving little chance for successful innovation.

People resist for a variety of reasons. At times people resist for noble and sincere reasons and at other times they resist out of fear or self interest. Whatever the cause, the school administrator must be able to understand and analyze resistance in order to deal with it.

Dealing with Resistance

As mentioned earlier, resistance is not necessarily a negative circumstance during the change process. Without it organizations stagnate from the lack of new ideas, divergence of opinions, or varying options. Yet to an ambitious administrator who wants to implement a vision or educational innovations, those who resist often appear as the ones frustrating progress. The administrative key, then, is to maximize the positive aspects of resistance while minimizing the negative aspects.

According to Savage (1968) changes or innovations within a school are more likely to occur if there is a strong site administrator leading the way. Essentially the site administrator is in a position to see the entire organizational picture and has the power to affect change. Yet the site administrator must also be aware that the effective implementation of change takes a cooperative effort by the group that will be or is affected by the change. Change can be said to be successful only when it is viewed by the group involved as "our"

change. Consequently, in order to get the necessary support to sustain an innovation, administrators must not only lead the way in support of a change, but also involve as many people, who will be affected by the change, during the planning and implementation process. When this occurs, those involved in the planned change will develop a deep understanding of why the change is needed, will feel they have had a voice in the plan, which will, in turn, foster ownership and cooperation.

During the change process the site administrator and those participants involved in the planning should try to anticipate areas of possible resistance. The group should address the following questions: 1. How will people be affected by the change? 2. How will they feel about it? 3. Why is change necessary? 4. What ways will the group be affected? 5. What can be done to alleviate any real or imagined threat to the status, security, traditions, responsibilities or work load of those involved in the change (Savage, 1968).

Administrators should be careful to insure that the change is fair to everyone, that the timing of the change is appropriate, and to be sure to express that the change proposed is expressed initially as an experiment. Any change should be based upon the needs of the organization and not what may benefit a favored teacher or group. If the administrator implements too much change too soon, he will find himself in a position of having people resist the change just because it is another change rather than evaluating the change on its own merits. It is also wise for the administrator to emphasize that the

proposed change or innovation is initially an experiment. The proposed change should go through a process of development where it either gains the support and enthusiasm of the group involved or it is decided that it is not the right solution, procedure, or answer for the situation. In the latter case it should be emphasized that alternatives will be examined.

Another method of reducing or eliminating a persons resistance is to give something to the resistor in return for his cooperation. For example, in the school setting a principal could change the school schedule to accommodate a certain teacher's habits who would be affected by the change. This is referred to as the "concept of exchange" (Lortie, 1964). This concept can be valuable in eliminating the minor problems that may impede progress in implementing a desired change.

Conklin (1979) also lists eight practical rules administrators should heed when dealing with resistance:

1. "Watch Your Language" -- Avoid words or language that dictates to people what they should do. Instead ask for agreement. (Avoid; you should, must, ought to. Use; do you mind, lets consider, we, and us). Never refer to objections a objections or resistance as resistance. Talk about ideas, opinions, viewpoints or questions.
2. "Be Likable" -- It is hard to resist those who you like, yet easy to resist those you despise.
3. "Give Resistance Status" -- Resistance should be viewed as another persons opinion and thus respected. Be genuine in telling people that you respect their viewpoint. This will make the person feel important and set the tone when people's views differ. Never demean a person's view because it will create greater resistance.
4. "Don't Hassle" -- Avoid fighting, arguing, struggling and train yourself not to show any hostility in your behavior or voice. Always be agreeable rather than argumentative. Arguments breed rebellion not cooperation.

5. "Don't Force Resistance to be Defended" -- Forcing a person to defend their resistance increases the importance of their view. In order to neutralize resistance you must replace it with a different view. When a person is arguing their view it is not being replaced.
6. "Don't Make the Other Person Wrong" -- Proving a person is wrong is the biggest mistake people make in dealing with resistance. It forces a win/lose situation where the losing party will resist all the more. Correcting people should only be done if it is absolutely necessary.
7. "Don't Be Afraid to Lose to Win" -- Just because a person resists something doesn't mean that he will not go along with the change in the end. Let people express their differences, then forget it and move along.
8. "Use Patience, Ask Questions, and Listen" -- train yourself to be patient. You can neutralize resistance by listening and asking questions. Avoid the urge, that most people have, to debate issues. It is not necessary to set people straight.

Change Through The Back Door

Much has been recently written of the effectiveness of Japanese management and the differences it has with American management styles. Some of the rhetoric has been exaggerated in favor of a perceived superiority in the Japanese way, yet much can be learned from examining different approaches to management problems. This is true in the differences exhibited between the cultures in their management of change and resistance.

The basic difference between the way the Japanese handle change and the way Americans handle it is that Japanese management chooses to implement a change quietly and gradually, announcing it only after it has become part of the organizations procedures. American management, on the other hand, announces change before hand, then sets out to implement it (Pascale, 1978). The differences in style are interesting

to examine.

The rationale behind the Japanese method is that quietly instituting change allows the "informal organization" to accustom itself to the change. Achieving gradual change, a tradition in Japanese culture, provides a context for managers to deal with obstacles that may block a change. For example, when a particular change is introduced gradually, management can monitor, adjust, or drop the change if necessary with a minimum of fuss. When the process introduced finally takes shape, the change is announced to confirm what has already happened (Pascale, 1978).

In contrast, announcing change beforehand, as is done in American management, automatically creates a situation where some people will resist the change. The announcement often stirs things up, rumors fly, and people will become threatened. Announcing the change in advance causes American management to make statements about situations of which they are not certain. They may make claims, for example, as to how much better an innovation will be for improving a particular working condition only to be proven wrong after the change is implemented and tried (Pascale, 1978). This could result in disgruntled employees and a lowering of morale.

The notion of a gradual change may be viewed by some as manipulation, an idea that is contrary to current American management theory. Yet it can be applied, especially in an educational setting, in many situations. In matters that do not involve instruction it may not be necessary to invoke a problem-solving process asking for input

from the staff. A quiet implementation of a procedure may be easier and more efficient. For example, it is not essential, or may not even be expected by the staff, to create a committee to improve a fire drill procedure. This can be gradually achieved by the site administrator by his observance of the existing procedure over a period of time. He can cite in memos or at faculty meetings needed changes to the staff. Feedback can be solicited informally in the faculty lounge without making a fuss. The result will be an improved fire drill procedure without creating a major production in the process.

The gradual implementation of a change can be a useful tool to the school administrator. If the change is not something the staff needs to be involved with or if the change requires minimal involvement of others, administrators can avoid the resistance that is sure to emerge during a group process.

Conclusion

Acquiring and knowing how to implement interpersonal skills is perhaps the most important ingredient in effective school administration. This chapter examined several critical areas of an administrators responsibility and discussed the interpersonal techniques and processes needed to overcome and manage them. The importance of building trust and motivation, the consequences of interpersonal attractiveness, how to understand as well as resolve conflict, and how to neutralize resistance to change while encouraging

creativity and innovation have been examined as well. The author has explored the need for tolerance, patience, empathy, and control by administrators when dealing with people and has discussed methods used to develop these skills. Dealing with parents, students, teachers, and the central office affords the school administrator many challenges. The discussions in this chapter provide an outline of the methods effective administrators use to meet those challenges.

School administration is essentially a people job. How the administrator interacts with his staff, central office, students, parents, and the community will determine his effectiveness as an educational leader. In this paper the author has expressed what the research says about interpersonal skills in the educational setting, has looked at the theories affecting interpersonal skills, and, in this chapter, has discussed how to implement these skills in several of the more critical areas of school administration. Essentially, this paper is a document that concisely reviews the topics in an informative manner. It is not a definitive study, but rather a review of the major aspects of the topic and a launching pad for further exploration.

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