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A study of the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of vice presidents of technical institutes in the state of Georgia

Rose Virginia Vann
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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PREFERENCE OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES, DEMOGRAPHICS, AND SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

ATLANTA, GEORGIA
MAY, 1993
The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia using a correlational research design. Statistical analysis based on the responses from eighty-seven (87) Vice Presidents, found no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected variables. However, a significant relationship was found between leadership style and conflict management styles at the .01 level. A significant relationship was found with leadership style and age at the .05 level. These findings have significant implications for further situational leadership development for these leaders.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Conflict is a natural and inevitable part of human social relationships. Conflict occurs at all levels of society—intrapsychic, interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup, intranational and international. At all levels of human social systems, conflict is ubiquitous (Sandole and Sandole-Staroste 1987). The very nature of the roles that school administrators must play makes conflict inevitable. Because conflict plays a recurring role in the lives of school leaders, those who hold these positions must learn to manage conflict effectively and turn it toward constructive ends. To do this, they must understand conflict—what it is, where it comes from, and how it develops and dissipates. They must also possess the skills necessary to manage conflict effectively (Lindelow and Scott 1989).

According to the literature on conflict management, conflict is the active striving for one’s own preferred outcome. The attainment of this outcome could prevent the attainment by others of their own preferred outcome. This behavior eventually produces hostility (Likert and Likert 1976).

Bisno (1988) suggests that conflict is a process of social interaction. This social interaction involves a struggle over claims to resources, power and status, beliefs, and other preferences and desires.
Conflict is an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties. These individuals perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals (Wilmot and Wilmot 1978).

Pneuman and Bruehl (1982) indicate that conflict is that condition which always exists when two or more interdependent parties interact. Often, they note, conflict is an apparent incompatibility when it enters the awareness of at least one party.

Another theorist, Baron (1983), refers to conflict as a process arising in situations when one or more persons perceive that one or more others have inhibited or are about to inhibit their major concerns. These impediments usually produce conflict.

Sandole and Sandole-Staroste (1987) see conflict as escalated, natural competition. One can usually find this competition among two or more parties about scarce resources, power, and prestige.

Cribben (1981) suggests the key terms in defining conflict are incompatibility and simultaneity. He contends that conflict exists when individuals seek incompatible goals, resources, and rewards simultaneously.

According to conflict management theorists, every conflict, other than internal conflict of a particular individual, involves an interaction among persons, groups, organizations, or larger entities. They purport that conflict occurs within a social system. The constructive resolution of a conflict depends directly upon
the effectiveness of the social system used during the conflict (Likert and Likert 1976).

Robbins (1982) concludes that conflict is any kind of opposition. This opposition includes antagonistic interaction among two or more parties.

Jandt (1973) sees conflict as realistic or non-realistic. The characteristics of realistic conflict include opposed means and ends and incompatibility of values and interests. Non-realistic conflict arises from the need for tension release, from deflected hostility, from historical tradition, and from ignorance or error. Realistic and non-realistic conflicts differ in origin and in the ultimate motivation behind opposed action. He further notes that realistic conflicts have their origin primarily in interaction factors. Non-realistic conflicts are responsible for non-interaction factors.

Finally Maurer (1990) explains that conflict is a disagreement among two or more individuals or groups over an issue or issues. He suggests that the process of disagreement can be either formal or informal. In a formal conflict, the parties involved have specifically stated their disagreements about an issue. An informal conflict occurs when there is disagreement over an issue but neither party has yet explicitly communicated its position to the other. He further notes that conflict resolution is a process where the parties work out their disagreements to bring the conflict to a successful conclusion.

These definitions of conflict suggest a specific meaning of conflict depending upon the theorist. All the definitions, however, lead to the point that
conflict does exist. This usually means a disagreement between individuals that
eviably could lead to organizational disharmony that will have a direct impact
on organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

Blue (1988) denotes that conflict can manifest itself in many ways. These
include (1) factual material, which can easily be resolved because research will
provide the needed information, (2) methodology, which involves how to deal
with a particular issue, (3) goals in which the specific activity or task, not the
approach causes the conflict, and (4) values, which often produce troublesome
conflict because scales of values can vary significantly.

Matejko (1986) recognizes that the sources of conflict are in a particular
pattern of resources, goals, and striving of partners and not so much within the
sphere of human attitudes. He further notes that conflicts experienced by
individuals have institutional background. He purports that the pressures
arising from incompatibilities within the institutional structure affect individuals
ennested in a network of institutional social ties and exposed to the conflicting
demands of various institutions. Quite often, he notes, persons are not aware
that their individually unfortunate experiences have a deeply rooted structural
background.

Bisno (1988) also supports the issue that organizational structures carry
many sources of conflict also cultural and ideological sources. He suggests
biosocial sources, which are often framed in "frustration-aggression"
constructs, and personality and interaction sources are directly related to
conflict within the organization. Bisno notes that the social psychological
dynamics interact with organizational and structural elements, thus providing the
complex context in which much conflict occurs.

Lindelow and Scott (1989) also identify four similar sources of conflict: (1)
communication problems, (2) organizational structure, (3) human factors, and
(4) limited resources. Organizations usually encounter conflict from one or all
four sources during an organization's existence.

Educational leaders who provide guidance in fulfilling the institution's
mission encounter many factors that are foreseen and unforeseen that
obviously causes conflict. Managing conflict effectively, then, is an essential
part of the leader's job.

Katz and Lawyer (1983) focus on conflict management as a process of
diagnosing a conflict situation. After diagnosing a conflict situation, the leader
employs the appropriate problem-solving approach to generate a solution that
satisfies the interests of all parties involved.

Lindelow and Scott (1989) see conflict management as an art. This
concept of conflict management involves maximizing constructive conflict and
minimizing destructive conflict.

Pneuman and Bruehl (1982) define conflict management as a process of
maintaining active awareness and data flow concerning conflict; it is a process
of monitoring the system for trends and taking appropriate action to manage
conflict by intervening to reduce or resolve some conflict situation. This process
also involves taking no action, or maintaining watchfulness over some conflict situation. Another element involved is intervention to identify conflict situations.

Rahim (1986) sees the management of organizational conflict as a process of diagnosis and intervention in conflict. He suggests that effective interpersonal conflict management allow the organizational members to learn the five styles of handling conflict. Rahim indicates that this process implies that conflict management does not suggest reduction or elimination of conflict.

Besides the crucial role effective conflict management plays in interpersonal relations, it is pivotal in a broader sense to organizational effectiveness. Leadership, creativity, effective management, goal setting, planning problem solving, teamwork, and organizational renewal all depend upon managing conflict for excellence (Mayer 1990).

Tushman, O'Reilly, and Nadler (1989) view organizations as composed of four basic components: (1) the task, (2) the individual, (3) the formal organization arrangements, and (4) the informal organization. The emphasis in the task component is on the specific work activities or functions that need completing and their inherent characteristics. Second, there are the individuals who perform organizational tasks. Tushman, O'Reilly and Nadler purport that the most crucial aspects to consider include the nature of individual knowledge and skills, the different needs or preferences that individuals have, the perceptions of expectancies that they develop, and other background factors (such as demographics) that may potentially influence individual behavior. The
third component is the formal organizational arrangements. These include the range of structures, processes, methods, and procedures, which are explicitly and formally developed to allow individuals to perform tasks consistent with organizational strategy. The final component is the informal organization that is usually implicit and unwritten, but influence a good deal of behavior.

Under the classical theory of organization, Scott and Mitchell (1972) view the formal organization as consisting of four basic elements: (1) A system of coordinated activities, (2) a group of people, (3) cooperation toward a goal, and (4) authority and leadership. They further define a formal organization as a system of coordinated activities where people work cooperatively toward a common goal under authority and leadership.

Baron (1983) sees organizations as highly complexed entities that consist of several dimensions. These dimensions are (1) job specialization, (2) departmentalization, (3) chain of command, (4) span of control, (5) centralization, (6) formalization, and (7) complexity.

Tjosvold and Johnson (1983) contend that organizations make up a network of interpersonal relationships structured to facilitate the achievement of established goals. Major concerns within any organization, they further purport, are how effectively its inputs transform themselves into outputs, how effectively the organization maintains constructive working relationships and appropriate interaction among its members, and how effectively it adapts to its external environment. To be effective, they suggest that organizational
members not only need the technical knowledge and competencies necessary for transforming inputs into outputs, they also need the interpersonal and group competencies to work effectively with their colleagues, superiors, subordinates, and clients. Tjosvold and Johnson note that inevitably conflicts arise within organizations between members who have power and authority and those who do not. The complexity and uncertainty inherent in organizations result in ambiguous communications and initiate conflicts.

Wenrich, Wenrich, and Galloway (1988) also indicate that the structure of each organization should facilitate the achievement of specific goals. They also note several characteristics of the organization: (1) the formal organization which is designed by those in authority and consists of roles, relationships of persons in the organization as prescribed by management, (2) an informal organization which refers to the unplanned, informal set of groups: friendships, and attachments that inevitably develop when people are placed in proximity to one another, (3) the social system which they define as a structure of events or happenings other than of physical parts and, therefore, it has no structure apart from its functioning, and (4) authority systems which ensure orderliness and predictability in the organization. They see authority as the right of a person to decide, or influence what others in the organization will do. An individual acquires authority through formal action such as laws and board policies or the conferring of authority by the organization through the position or office which one occupies.
Organizational characteristics play an important part in conflict management. The interaction among these elements determines to a large extent how effectively the leader will perform his or her job in fulfilling the mission of the institution.

**The Structure of Technical and Adult Education in Georgia**

In the State of Georgia, there are thirty-two (32) Technical Institutes. At the time of this study, twenty-eight (28) Technical Institutes were under State governance, and four (4) Technical Institutes were under State and Local Boards of Education governance.

Figure 1 shows the line of authority for Technical and Adult Education in the State of Georgia.
Figure 1. Line of Authority
The State Department of Technical and Adult Education is governed by a 15-member Board of Directors appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Department of Technical and Adult Education.

According to The Georgia State Board of Technical and Adult Institutional Standards (1988):

The State Board provides overall policies and management of Postsecondary Technical and Adult Education to ensure that the needs of the citizenry, business, and industry are met to the highest possible degree and in the most cost-effective and efficient manner.

The Commissioner is responsible to the Board for the planning, development, and internal management of the Department's staff, organization, and other resources to ensure the optimal development, planning, evaluation, and management of technical education programs. The Commissioner reports to and serves at the pleasure of the Board (Georgia State Board of Technical and Adult Education Policy Manual 1988).

A Deputy Commissioner assists the Commissioner in the operation of the State Department of Technical and Adult Education. There are two assistant commissioners--one assistant commissioner is responsible for Technical Education and the other commissioner is responsible for Adult Education. These commissioners oversee the operations of the Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.


The president of each institution shall be the executive head of the institution and of all its departments, and shall exercise such supervision and direction as will promote the efficient operation of the
The president shall be responsible to the Commissioner for the operation and management of the institution and for the execution of all directives of the State Board and the Commissioner.

Vice Presidents are responsible for assisting the Presidents in carrying out State Board Policies in facilitating the instructional process. The Vice Presidents’ role is the center of the communication process in upward and downward communications within the organization.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to ascertain if statistical significant relationships exist between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes are in the ultimate line of authority when there is conflict in the organization. The preferred conflict management styles used by these leaders can have a profound impact on leadership effectiveness and thus organizational effectiveness. The preference of conflict management styles used by Vice Presidents could be related to certain demographic factors as well as other characteristics of the leaders.

**Background of the Study**

According to the literature, a major task of a leader is to deal effectively with constituents to achieve the goals of an institution. Therefore, of the many
responsibilities of the leader, dealing effectively with conflict is vital. Several authorities on conflict management agree that managing conflict is a vital part of a leader's job. How the leader handles conflicts by selecting the appropriate conflict management style in various situations will determine his or her effectiveness as a leader.

In addition, the literature on organizational behavior explicitly suggests that organizational processes or conditions such as leadership, conflict, communication, structure, and technology influence the effectiveness of an organization (Rahim 1986).

According to Robbins (1982), the development of conflict thought, as professed by academics, has gone through three distinct stages—traditional, behavioral, and interactionist. The abolishment of conflict was the traditionalists' perspective toward conflict. All conflicts were destructive and it was management's role to rid the organization of them.

Robbins (1982) indicates that the transition from the traditional view to a behavioral approach took place in the late 1940s and early 1950s. Those who studied organizations began to recognize that all organizations had built-in conflicts. Since conflict was inevitable, the behavioral approach prescribed acceptance of conflict. According to Robbins, they rationalized its existence. However, as with the traditionalists, the behavioralist approach to managing conflict was to resolve it. Robbins argues there was a need for a third philosophy—the interactionist, which recognizes the absolute necessity of
functional conflict, explicitly encourages functional opposition, defines conflict management to include stimulation and solution techniques, and considers the management of conflict as a major responsibility of all managers.

Statement of the Problem

This study seeks to determine the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Significance of the Study

A review of the literature shows few studies on conflict management styles of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia and even fewer studies done on these leaders in this country. Determining the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in Georgia will (a) raise the awareness of the impact of these variables on effective leadership and organizational effectiveness in Technical and Adult Education in the State of Georgia, (b) provide information regarding conflict management styles and techniques, and (c) an awareness of how the association of certain demographic characteristics of the Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes will affect the preference of a particular conflict management style.
Conflict theorists believe that it is important to study interpersonal conflict styles for two primary reasons: (1) to understand the affects of the various style interaction patterns, and (2) to develop a flexibility of style use as a management strategy (Farmer 1987).

**Research Questions**

The purpose of this study is to determine if statistical significant relationships exist between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. This study specifically seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and perceived needs of superior of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

2. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and perceived needs of subordinates of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

3. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and gender of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

5. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management style and the educational attainment level of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

6. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the years of experience in the position of Vice Presidents of a Technical Institute in the State of Georgia?

7. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the leadership experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

8. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the geographical location of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

9. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the number of subordinates supervised by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

10. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?
11. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and conflict management experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

12. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and the tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

13. Is there a significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and leadership style of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

14. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style and age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia?

Summary

This chapter introduced conflict and conflict management. The chapter discussed sources of conflict, organizational characteristics, and the structure of Technical and Adult Education in the State of Georgia. The chapter also presented the purpose and background of the study, the significance of the study, and the research questions for this study.

Chapter 2 will present a review of the literature on empirical research on conflict management styles, demographics, conflict management training, and perception and needs.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of selected literature on the empirical research on conflict management. The review of the literature is divided into four sections. The first section discusses selected studies on conflict management styles. The second section presents demographic related studies. The third section discusses conflict management training issues, and the fourth section present studies on perception and needs.

Conflict Management Styles

The literature depicts several studies on conflict management about certain styles of handling conflict. Sternberg and Soriano (1984) conducted a study to ascertain whether individuals exhibit consistent cross-situational styles of conflict resolution and whether any styles identified could be predicted from intellectual and personality characteristics. The design of the study divided subjects between the sexes (male and female). The researchers presented the subjects with nine stories involving conflict situations in three different domains: interpersonal, interorganizational, and international. The researchers asked the subjects to evaluate the quality of the seven possible methods for resolving
each conflict. Each method represented one of the seven different modes of conflict resolution; namely, physical action, economic action, wait and see, accept the situation, step down, third-party interventions, and undermine esteem.

The study found that individuals were consistent in their modes of conflict resolution, both within and across content domains. The findings further suggested that the predictability of the modes of conflict resolution were from certain intellectual and personality attributes.

Sternberg and Dobson (1987) attempted to extend the Sternberg and Soriano (1984) study by investigating consistency in preferences for real rather than hypothetical conflicts. The studies investigated discrepancies between actual styles of conflict resolution reported by the subjects, and the style of conflict resolution the subjects ideally would have used, again as reported by the subjects.

In three experiments, the researchers examined people's consistency in their styles of resolving interpersonal conflicts. In the first experiment, the researchers found that individuals exhibited strong preferences for certain styles of conflict resolution over other styles. The findings indicated that these preferences were consistent across different interpersonal relationships, and there was a strong relationship between patterns of preference for real and ideal styles. The findings further indicated that the preference for certain specifiable styles was associated with the preference for other specifiable styles. The
findings showed that predictability of style preference from ability and personality scales was low, and the patterns of preference for styles in real described conflicts were similar to those found in previous research for hypothetical conflicts.

In the second experiment, with an expanded set of conflicts and styles, the researchers found that patterns of resolution as well as mean ratings of styles of resolution were similar for real and hypothetical conflicts. Four main factors of conflict resolution emerged: active-mitigating, passive-mitigating, active-intensifying, and passive-intensifying.

In the third experiment, the researchers found that although subjects perceived ideal styles of conflict resolution as practically identical for the two parties in a conflict, actual perceived styles may differ widely. The results of the three studies confirmed those of Sternberg and Soriano (1984) in suggesting there are consistent styles of conflict resolution.

Daves and Holland (1989) conducted research to provide increased clarity in understanding statistical and behavioral relationships related to conflict management. They suggest that the most previous treatments of conflict management styles focused upon five strategies: avoiding (withdrawing), forcing (competing), smoothing (accommodating), compromising, and confronting (collaborating), purported to lie in a two-dimensional (assertion and cooperation) space. The researchers determined the factor structure of conflict management styles in self-reports by one hundred fifty-eight (158)
administrators and in reports by their subordinates (927) on twenty-five (25) behavioral statements. The questions related to the dimensional structure underlying the strategies used in conflict management. These researchers made the assumption that a clear picture of this structure is necessary for the development of effective means for assessing conflict tendencies in individuals, which are necessary for understanding and productive management of conflict behavior. The study examined the individuals who assessed the conflict management style, the actor or the acted upon. The instructions for completing the instruments varied depending upon whether the administrator completed the instrument on him or herself, or whether the subordinates completed the instruments on the administrator. The findings resulted in a low correlation between self-reports and subordinates' reports. The data indicated a three-dimensional structure which was essentially the same for self-reports and subordinate reports, i.e., openness, distribution, and control. Concern for the interest of both parties was a component of both openness and distribution. The findings of this study suggest the need for rethinking of the factors underlying differences in conflict management styles. A three-dimensional rather than a two-dimensional space proved necessary to account for the data.

Neff (1986) conducted a study to compare the conflict management styles used with supervisors by women administrators in the twelve (12) state universities in Ohio with those chosen by males in the same or similar posts. This study examined the use of five styles of conflict management of superiors.
The results of this study indicated that women in academia used the compromising style significantly more when in conflict with their superiors than did men. Further, factor analysis indicated that the women in the study exhibited a significant variance in attitude in the interpretation of the questions in the survey, which could have reflected a difference in male and female value structures. When comparing the mean scores with the national group of business-industrial managers used to norm the instrument, the entire academic group differed significantly.

Espinosa (1987) conducted a study to compare conflict management styles of sixty-six (66) Anglo and sixty-nine (69) Latino Community College administrators. There were also comparisons based on management level and self-identification of Latinos about the name with which they identify. There was an identification of alternatives for managing conflict: synergistic, compromising, yield-lose, win-lose, and lose-leave. The findings of this study indicated that the synergistic style was the most preferred by all subjects. There were no significant differences among upper-middle, and lower-level administrators in their use of the synergistic style and the lose-leave style. There was no difference in how Latinos managed conflict among Latinos about different self-identification terms. The findings showed that California Community College administrators favored using a different approach in handling conflict compared to other studies. The use of the socialization process explained why there was no difference in how Anglos and Latinos or different groups of Latinos managed
conflict. The findings of the study revealed that the least effective administrators in managing conflict were the Lower-level administrators.

**Demographic and Related Studies**

In the literature, researchers cite several demographic related studies on conflict management. Baxter and Shepherd (1978) did a study to assess behavior differences in interpersonal conflict of one hundred forty-three (143) subjects using the BEM Sex Inventory and questionnaire data. The results of the study implied that feminine persons disapprove of competition more than persons of masculine and androgynous sex-role identification. The results further suggested that masculine persons may differentiate less between liked and disliked others in their competitive behavior than do feminine and androgynous persons. Additionally, the results suggested that the management of conflicts with liked, as opposed to disliked, others are managed with less competition and more accommodation, collaboration, and compromise for all sex-role identity groups.

Research conducted by Berryman-Fink and Brunner (1987) investigated the effects of subject sex and target sex on reported conflict management styles. The researchers instructed One hundred forty-seven (147) subjects to think of either a person of the same or opposite sex when completing the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The results suggested that males
were more likely than females to report using a competing style while females were more likely than males to report using a compromising style.

A study conducted by Duane (1989) compared the conflict management styles of sixty-three (63) men and seven (7) women responsible for resolving employees' grievances. The study assessed the subjects on how they used five methods of conflict management when resolving such grievances. The methods were competing, avoiding, compromising, accommodating, and collaborating. Each conflict management style was measured using the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The results of the study suggested that female grievance officials were less inclined to avoid grievance-related issues than their male peers. Furthermore, women were more competitive than men. Male grievance officials were more willing to accommodate their opponents' demands than were the female officials. However, the findings suggested that women and men did not differ significantly in using a collaborative or a compromising mode of conflict management.

Figueroa (1989) completed a study of sex and gender differences in interpersonal conflict management behavior in an academic and commercial research setting. The study examined biological sex and psychological gender differences of twenty-seven (27) males, and forty-two (42) females in interpersonal conflict management behavior. The researcher administered the BEM Sex-Role Inventory, the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, and Situational Dimensions Questionnaire to the subjects. As a result of the study,
there were no sex differences found in conflict management behavior style preference. However, the researcher found gender-related differences in interpersonal conflict management behavioral style preference. Feminine individuals showed their strongest preference for the accommodating conflict management behavior style, while masculine individuals showed their strongest preference for the competitive conflict management behavioral style. There was no occupational trend evidenced when the researcher investigated the conflict management style preference of individuals in people-oriented and technically-oriented occupations. Both occupational groups preferred the accommodating style.

A study done by Pritchard (1985) investigated differences in the conflict management styles of men and women managers, specifically of men and women administrators in two-year Community Colleges across the United States. The researcher used the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument to measure conflict management styles on five modes determined by the dimensions of cooperation and assertiveness. These modes were identified as competing, collaborating, compromising, accommodating and avoiding. The findings of the study showed no significant differences between men and women, among levels of supervisory experience, or because of the interaction of these two variables. The findings also indicated that no significant relationship existed between the conflict management styles of women administrators and the female administrative staff.
Dietrich (1991) conducted a study to determine the relationship of conflict management styles, psychological androgyny and selected characteristics of school leaders. The results of the study showed no significant differences between the conflict management style scores and sex-role identity scores of two school district leaders at the .05 level of significance. Collaborating was the only conflict management style found significant with the communities' perceptions of the leaders' success. There were significant relationships identified between the leaders' age, educational level, tenure and geographical location, and the preference of the collaborating conflict management style.

Research conducted by Brady (1985) to determine the impact of professional education and other demographic factors (sex, years of experience, age, type of institution, and locale of institution where an administrator functions) on the choice of a conflict management style by one hundred thirty (130) academic deans in two-year colleges nationwide found that a significant relationship existed between two types of professional education--doctoral degree and in-service experience--and selection of the collaborative style of conflict management. The researcher observed similar indicators for relationships between female deans, older deans, deans in private institutions, and urban deans of the east and west coasts; however, these relationships were not strong enough to be statistically significant. No relationship existed for deans holding administrative degrees below the Ph.D. educational level nor deans with experience, and the choice of collaborative style.
Kim (1989) completed a study to explore relationships between conflict management and demographic and organizational variables of academic department chairpersons. The subjects were one thousand five-hundred six (1,506) department chairpersons in higher education institutions in the Republic of Korea. The data collected on sources of department conflict, frequency and intensity of conflict, perceived effectiveness of conflict management strategies, and job satisfaction as a chairperson indicated that the aggression of management positively related to the department chairpersons' job satisfaction, perceived effectiveness of conflict management strategies employed, democratic mode of departmental operations, and perceived conflict utilities such as innovation promotion or problem-solving. Aggressiveness of conflict management strategies negatively related to frequency or intensity of conflict, and level of agreement on sources of conflict.

Conflict Management Training

According to Schultz and Anderson (1984), the goal of conflict management training is to develop individuals who can withstand and perform well under varying amounts of conflict. They indicate that training in conflict and methods for managing it are often expressed needs. They suggest that the first step in training of conflict management is to determine how one responds to conflict situations. A second step is to provide cognitive materials stressing the disabling effect of refusing to engage in conflict.
Bass (1981) presents research related to training and organizational development. A research study conducted to demonstrate the effectiveness of training using problem-solving discussions compared the performance of one hundred seventy-six (176) trained supervisors with one hundred forty-four (144) untrained supervisors. The findings of the study suggest that the supervisors with eight (8) hours of training in group decision-making were more likely to cause acceptance of change in their groups. In another research study, the researcher used lectures and case discussions in the laboratory training of senior executives. No significant change followed the lectures but some measure of skill in interpersonal relations improved after the case discussion. Role Playing also appeared to add to leadership skills in dealing with human relations problems.

Warehim (1980) gives a cognitive, behavioral approach in conflict management training. This approach to conflict management training provides systematic training in coping skills. Trainees are encouraged to look at conflict from the viewpoint of management of personal reactions (thoughts, feelings, and behavior) than solely from the problem-solving perspective. This orientation involves conceptual input and feedback interwoven with trainee self-examination and practice of new behavior in the structured human relations training context.

The literature also depicts several methods used to train leaders. Bass (1981) indicates that training for leadership in any organizational context is
provided in many different ways. He suggests that individuals may receive training on or near their jobs. Their immediate superior may coach give guided or job experience on a planned basis. These individuals may train as an understudy, "assistant to" a higher position, serve a formal management apprenticeship, or leadership internship. They may rotate through a variety of jobs by planned transfers, or by being placed in a special trainee position or given special project assignments. Bass also suggests that by participating in trade and professional associations, civic projects, and formal classrooms or workshops, leaders can obtain off-the-job training. Within these didactic, the trainer may use lecture, case or problem discussion group, and role playing. Simulations using "in baskets" and games can be employed along with less structured sensitivity training, stimulated by social learning theory, behavior role modeling which integrates didactically with experiential techniques has become increasingly popular.

Researchers have investigated several factors that influence the outcome of leadership training. Personal attributes of a trainee, composition of the training group, follow-up strategies, behavior of the trainer, and congeniality of the environment to which the person returns (Bass 1981).

T-Group theorists have recognized several facets of cognition, including sensitivity to the needs of others. In a research evaluation, Bunker (1965) found that T-Group participants showed significantly increased improvement in sensitivity to others' feelings. Valiquet (1964) also found an increase in the
sensitivity to others' feelings. Greiner (1965) found a 12 percent increase in the
number of subordinates rating their superiors as aware of others. There was
an increase of 17 percent in the number of subordinates who felt informed by
their superiors. Fifty-five percent of the participants in the training group felt they
had gained clearer understanding of how other people viewed different
situations.

**Perception and Needs**

In their research, Zalkind and Costello (1974) present some findings on
perception as developed through both laboratory and organizational research.
They suggest some administrative and managerial implications on perception.
They also indicate some research studies conclude that the whole process of
interpersonal perception is, at least in part, a function of the group (or
interpersonal) context in which the perception occurs. Zalkind and Costello
purport that the organization, and one's place in it, may be viewed as the
context in which perceptions takes place.

Dearborn and Simon (1958) support this view in their research on
perception. Their findings support the hypothesis that often the limitation of the
administrator's perceptions is to those aspects of a situation which relates
specifically to his or her own department, despite an attempt to influence the
administrator away from such selectivity.
Perception of self among populations at different levels in the hierarchy also offers an opportunity to judge the influence of organizational context on perceptual activity (Zalkind and Costello 1974).

A study done by Porter (1958) of the self-descriptions of managers and line workers supports this concept. The results of Porter's study indicated that both groups saw themselves in different terms, which corresponded to their positions in the organization's hierarchy.

Pinkley (1988) designed a study to determine the dimensions necessary to describe mediator and disputant cognitive interpretations of conflict. Pinkley purports that decision-makers interpret the behaviors and statements of others as consistent with their own evoked set. Pinkley suggests that decision-makers assume that friend and foe alike, share their perceptions and goals. The findings of this research indicated that on average, mediators perceive the conflict as relationship problems and compromise solutions more readily than do disputants.

Schneer and Chanin (1987) conducted a study to examine manifest needs (affiliation, dominance, achievement, and autonomy) as personality predispositions to conflict-handling behavior. The research used a large heterogeneous sample within a controlled context of conflict introduced via a computerized business simulation. The research findings revealed a relationship between the need for dominance and affiliation and conflict-handling mode preference. The study revealed that the needs for dominance and affiliation
were personality predispositions to conflict-handling behavior. Individuals with high need for dominance and low need for affiliation chose to compete, while individuals with low need for dominance and high need for affiliation chose to accommodate.

McClelland (1961) investigated the notion of an achievement drive in people. McClelland found a significant relationship between the need to achieve and how people performed tasks. In McClelland's research study, people who had a high need to achieve were frustrated when jobs did not allow for personal responsibility for task accomplishment, did not provide opportunity to set moderately difficult goals and take calculated risks, and contained no constant feedback on performance. Conversely, he concluded that the placement of individuals in jobs where these conditions are present and who had a low need to achieve would be counter-productive.

Miles (1975) conducted a study at Stanford University of managers' theories about people and their views toward management policies and the impact of these policies. His studies involved more than one thousand subjects from a diverse section of managers. The findings indicated that managers hold two theories of management--one theory concerning how they should behave with and manage those below them, and a second theory concerning their management by superiors. In the Stanford studies, most managers indicated agreement with statements emphasizing the desirability of subordinate participation in decision-making. In a Berkeley study, Miles cites that most of
the managers indicated that they agreed with such concepts as sharing information with subordinates and increasing subordinate influence and self-control. Similarly, in Miles' recent studies, managers endorsed participative policies. The managers showed strongest agreement with policies that advocated sharing information and discussing objectives with subordinates. However, they were less enamored with policies which suggest increasing subordinate self-direction and self-control.

Miles (1975) examined managers' views toward their relationship with their own superiors. His findings revealed that managers saw little, if any, difference between their capabilities and those of their superiors. Also, Miles reported they rated themselves equal to, if not higher than, their superiors on such traits as creativity, ingenuity, flexibility, and willingness to change.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on empirical research of conflict management, conflict management styles, demographic related studies, conflict management training, and perception and needs.

Studies conducted on conflict management in this chapter revealed that males are more likely than females to use the competing style to handle conflict (Neff 1986, Berryman-Fink 1987, Baxter and Shepherd 1978, Figueroa 1989) and females prefer compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management than males (Neff 1986, Figueroa 1989). Daune (1989) also
suggests that females are less inclined to avoid grievance-related issues than their male peers. He found that women and men did not differ significantly in using a collaborative or a compromising mode of conflict management. Also the findings in Brady's study (1985) revealed a relationship between professional education and selection of the collaborative style of conflict management.

Research on conflict management training proves the effectiveness of training using problem-solving discussions, case discussions, and role playing. A study on the amount of hours of training in group decision-making found that supervisors were more likely to cause acceptance of change in their group. This suggests that the length of training has a positive influence on the decision-making and thus the management of conflict (Bass 1981).

Research findings on perception and needs suggest that the needs for dominance and affiliation are personality predispositions to conflict-handling behavior (Schneer and Chanin 1987). Further research findings by McClelland (1961) suggest that the relationship of need for achievement is significant in the performance of a task by individuals.

Miles (1975) also suggests that managers perceive little, if any difference between their capabilities and those of their superiors. His findings imply that leaders hold two theories of management--one theory concerning how they should behave with and manage those below them, and a second theory concerning management by their superiors.
Chapter 3 will present the theoretical framework for this study, the definitions of the variables, the relationship among the variables, the null hypotheses, and the limitations of the study.
CHAPTER 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents the theoretical and conceptual framework for this study. The chapter includes the operational definitions of the variables, the relationship among the variables, the null hypotheses, and the limitations of the study.

Figure 2 shows the independent and dependent variables identified with this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Avoid</td>
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<td>Demographics</td>
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<td>Conflict Management Training</td>
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<td>Tasks</td>
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Figure 2. Independent and Dependent Variables

The basic theory of this research study is that the preference of conflict management styles is related to perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographics (gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), the number
There are several organizational behavior theories that support the theoretical framework of this study: The managerial or conflict grid theory, social behavior theory, needs theory, and cognitive theory. These theories relate to the total organization in fulfilling its goals.

According to Van De Vliert and Kabanoff (1990), the theoretical model of the conflict grid specifies the relationships among the five types of conflict behavior as geometrical distances. These five styles are smoothing, problem-solving, compromising, suppressing, neutral.

Blake and Mouton (1973) theoretically specified the similarities and differences among five styles of conflict management, proposing that the styles varied on two dimensions -- concern for people and concern for production. They devised 0-point dimensions, with one (1) representing minimum concern and nine (9) maximum concern. Blake and Mouton defined the respective styles as avoiding, one (1) on people concern, one (1) on production concern; The second style is accommodating, nine (9) on people concern, one (1) on production concern; The third style is competing, one (1) on people concern, nine (9) on production concern; The fourth style is collaborating, nine (9) on people concern, nine (9) on production concern.

According to Blake and Mouton (1973), the conflict grid is a way of identifying basic assumptions when individuals act in situations where
differences are present, whether disagreement is openly or silently expressed. Blake and Mouton also suggest that whenever an individual meets a situation of conflict, he or she has at least two basic considerations in mind. One of these is the person with whom he or she is in disagreement. Another is production of results, or getting a resolution to the disagreement.

Other scholars who emphasized the explanatory dimensions saw, in each of the five types, a tendency to display specific conflict behavior. According to Rahim, basic attitudes toward the interests of oneself and those of the opposite party are factors that influence these five types of behavior (Rahim 1989).

Thomas-Kilmann further developed this model using the dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness to assess conflict. Within these dimensions are five modes, or ways of managing differences to satisfy one's own and others’ concerns located on the assertiveness and cooperativeness axes. These five modes are collaborating, compromising, competing, accommodating, and avoiding. Assertiveness refers to an attempt to satisfy one’s own concerns, while cooperativeness is an attempt to satisfy the concerns of the other individual (Womack 1988; Thomas-Kilmann 1974).

Motivational theories on organizational behavior also support the framework for this study. Two theorists, Maslow and Herzberg, provide a basis for understanding the needs of individuals in an organizational setting.

Maslow (1970) speaks of the needs individuals have in terms of higher and lower order needs. The lower order needs are physiological needs, security
needs, and social needs. The higher order needs are self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs. Maslow suggests that the hierarchy of needs is the basis upon which people progress. These needs, he notes, have a major influence on an individual's behavior.

Hunt and Hill (1974) further explain that Maslow's theory suggests five broad classes of needs arranged in hierarchical levels of prepotency so when one need level is satisfied, the next level begins. Hunt and Hill also indicate that Porter (1958) provides the most empirical data concerning Maslow's model. Porter's research measured all except the physiological needs. His samples were managers covering different managerial levels in a wide range of organizations in the United States and thirteen other countries. The findings of the study suggest there is a hierarchical satisfaction of needs as Maslow suggested.

Hunt and Hill (1974) also explain that a second research study correlates satisfaction and managers' needs (except physiological) with rankings of their performance by superiors and peers. According to Hunt and Hill, the study concluded that satisfaction of higher order needs is more closely related to performance than satisfaction of lower order needs.

Herzberg offers a two-factor theory of motivational behavior of individuals in the organization. His theory separates intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence an individual's behavior into two categories: hygiene factors which include pay and environmental conditions, and motivators which include
achievement, recognition, and responsibility. Herzberg suggests that the motivators of achievement, recognition, and responsibility are the fulfillment of the need for job satisfaction.

Social system theorists see need motivation as a determinant of cognitive, perceptual, and other forms of behavior. According to Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968), need-disposition refers to tendencies to achieve some end state. It influences the goals an individual will try to attain in a particular environment, also the way he or she will perceive and cognize the environment itself. The influence of need-dispositions on perception and cognition is crucial in understanding role behavior according to Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell. They purport that a person assigned to any role will tend consciously or unconsciously to perceive, cognize, and order it, at least partially, according to his need-dispositions.

Deutsch (1973) explains the theory of cognitive perception with a psychological principle. His theory is that individuals determine the perception of any act by the perception of the act itself and by their perception of the context in which the act occurs. The context of social acts, he further notes, is often not immediately given in perception and often they are not obvious. Since both the present situations and past experiences of the actor and perceiver may be different, they will probably interpret the same act quite differently.

The theories on motivation and perception are helpful in suggesting the
kinds of needs and cognitive processes that are important in understanding organizational behavior and the process by which these needs relate to one's behavior.

**Definition of Variables**

The following variables are operationally defined to acquaint the reader with the terminology associated with this research study. Some definitions have been assimilated and paraphrased from terminology established by Thomas-Kilmann (1974).

1. **Conflict management style.** This variable is defined as the extent to which a preferred approach is selected by the leader to handle conflict.

   (a) **Avoiding.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader defers or withdraws from an undesirable problem. It is further defined as unassertive and uncooperative behavior.

   (b) **Competing.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader tries to win or force his own position at the other person's expense. It is further defined as assertive and uncooperative behavior.

   (c) **Compromising.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader shares or trades concessions. It is further defined as intermediate in both assertive and cooperative behavior.

   (d) **Accommodating.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader fulfills the other party's intent. It is further defined as unassertive and
cooperative behavior.

(e) **Collaborating.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader strives for common problem solving to fulfill both parties' needs. It is further defined as assertive and cooperative behavior.

2. **Perceived needs of superior.** This variable is defined as the leader's view of the most important need (requirement) of his or her immediate superior which may influence the preference of a particular conflict management style.

3. **Perceived needs of subordinates.** This variable is defined as the leader's view of the most important need (requirement) of his or her employees reporting directly to the leader which may influence the preference of a particular conflict management style.

4. **Demographic characteristics.** This variable is defined as the personal characteristics of the leader that may influence the preference of a particular conflict management style.

   (a) **Gender.** This variable is defined as the sex of the leader (female - coded 1 or male - coded 2).

   (b) **Age.** This variable is defined as the leaders' chronological age (20-30 years of age, 31-40 years of age, 41-50 years of age, 51-60 years of age, and over 60 years of age).

   (c) **Educational attainment level.** This variable is defined as the highest educational degree obtained by Vice Presidents (Baccalaureate, Masters, Educational Specialist, Doctorate).
(d) **Vice President experience.** This variable is defined as the number of years employed in the present position as Vice President of a Technical Institute (less than 1 year, 1 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, over 10 years).

(e) **Leadership experience.** This variable is defined as the number of years in an educational leadership capacity (less than 1 year, 1 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, more than 10 years).

(f) **Geographical location.** This variable is defined as the six (6) regional sites of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia (northwest, northeast, west central, east central, southeast, southwest).

5. **Tasks.** This variable is defined as the leadership responsibilities assigned to Vice Presidents.

6. **Number of subordinates supervised.** This variable is defined as the number of employees reporting directly to the leader (1 to 3 subordinates, 4 to 6 subordinates, 7 to 9 subordinates, 10 or more).

7. **Conflict management training.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader is given formal instruction in managing conflict including the form of conflict management training, and the number of hours received in conflict management training.

8. **Conflict management experience.** This variable is defined as the extent to which the leader has dealt with conflict in his or her current position as vice president and any past educational leadership positions.
9. **Leadership style.** This variable is defined as the behavior exhibited by the leader as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument: avoiding, competing, compromising, accommodating and collaborating.

**Relationship Among Variables**

The empirical research studies in the literature on conflict management suggest that the gender of the leader is an important factor in the selection of a particular conflict management style. The studies indicate that women use more compromising and accommodating styles than do their male counterpart and this is largely due to their gender. Women supposedly (or have been stereotyped) lack the strength, toughness, and objectivity needed to face difficult situations, particularly those involving differences and disagreement. Compared to the assertiveness ascribed to men, women are described in terms of their regard to authority and their willingness to yield their positions than hurt others' feelings (Loring and Well 1972). While Papa, Natalie, and Dellinger 1988; Renwick 1977; Shockley-Zalabak 1981; Sternberg and Soriano 1984 found no sex-related differences in conflict styles more found that females exhibit passive or compromising styles more often (Rahim 1983; Roloff and Greenberg 1979; Schockley-Zalabah and Morely, 1984) and that males prefer forcing styles (Berryman-Fink and Brunner 1987). Others found complex relationships among subordinates sex, supervisor sex, supervisor self-confidence, commitment to the jobs, and orientations to conflict (Conrad 1983; Zammuto, London, and
Rowland 1979). While females are seen as less aggressive and men more aggressive in conflict management and while these images are congruent with differential societal expectations for males and female behavior (Hilgard and Atkinson 1967; Miner 1965; Tyler 1965), the extent to which they accurately reflect the responses of men and women to superior-subordinate conflict has not been systematically examined (Renwick 1977).

The amount of conflict management experience the leader brings to a conflict situation may also influence his choice of conflict management style. In a study by Burke (1970), the researcher asked administrators to describe their experiences in particularly good and particularly bad conflict resolution attempts. An analysis of the findings suggests that where the administrators perceived the resolutions of conflict effective, problem solving was the most common method used by the administrators. When the administrators perceived resolution as ineffective, forcing was most common style used by the administrator (Burke 1970).

The preference of conflict management styles selected by educational leaders has a profound impact on their ability to lead effectively and create a productive and effective organization. Presumably, factors affecting such selection of conflict management styles are interrelated and influenced by the perceived needs of the leader's superior and how the leader perceives the needs of his or her subordinates. Studies conducted and cited by researchers (Zalkind and Costello 1974; Schneer and Chanin 1987) support this relationship
among perception of needs and preference of conflict management styles. Another factor that may influence the preference of conflict management style is the amount of conflict management training and conflict management experience the leader brings to a conflict situation. Studies (Brady 1985: Figueroa 1989) also suggest that the gender, age, educational background, and administrative experience are significant factors influencing a leader's preference of conflict management style.

Research investigating organizational variables show those with higher positions, more power, and broader spans of control choose modes that reflect higher concern for self. Managers were significantly more competitive than support personnel or supervisory (Morley and Shockley-Zalabak 1986). Top managers were significantly more collaborative than those in middle management positions (Noto 1979). These studies support the idea that the number of subordinates supervised has an influence on the preference of conflict management style.

To integrate the dimensions and modes of managing conflict in the organization, Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, (1966) suggest that people within the organization view administration as functioning within a social system framework.

They conceive this social system as involving two classes of phenomena, one normative, the other individual. Figure 3 illustrates this concept.
Normative (Nomothetic) Dimension

Institution $\rightarrow$ Role $\rightarrow$ Expectation

Social System $\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$ Social Behavior

Individual $\rightarrow$ Personality $\rightarrow$ Need-Disposition

Personal (Idiographic) Dimension

Figure 3. Nomothetic and Idiographic Dimensions of Social Behavior

This model indicates that a given act is conceived as deriving simultaneously from the normative and the personal dimensions, and performance in a social system as a function of the interaction between role and personality. That is, a social act may be understood as resulting from the individual's attempts to cope with an environment composed of patterns of expectations for his behavior in ways consistent with his own pattern of needs and dispositions (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968).

Halpin (1966) indicates that the model points to three primary sources of conflict in the administrative setting: role-personality conflict, role conflict, and personality conflict. He indicates that role-personality conflicts occur as a function of discrepancies between the pattern of expectations attached to a given role and the pattern of need-disposition characteristics of the incumbent of the role. Role conflicts, he contends, occur whenever a role incumbent must conform simultaneously to several expectations which are mutually exclusive,
contradictory, or inconsistent, so adjustment to one set of requirements adjusts to the other impossible or at least difficult. Role conflicts in this sense, he concludes, are situational given and independent of the personality role incumbent. The disharmony in the nomothetic dimension may arise from disagreement within the referent group defining the role, from disagreement among several referent groups, each having a right to define expectations for the same role, and from contradiction in the expectations of two of more roles which an individual is occupying simultaneously (Haplin 1966).

Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968) indicate there are certain mechanisms in the social system to keep this type of conflict and its impact at a minimum. They contend that no role is ever so closely defined that it requires only one kind of personality for satisfactory performance. They suggest selection procedures assure a better than chance matching of role and personality and that avenues should be available for redistribution of personnel in cases of a mismatch; in-service, and other training and retraining programs should also exist.

Disagreement among complementary role incumbents such as between superordinates and subordinates in the administrative setting—as to their mutual rights and obligations is not a result of solely or primarily of personality disorder. Differences in personality underlies differences in perception, and there is selective perception of expectations as there is of other objects and events in the environments. The administrative relationship, like any
complementary role relationship, always functions at two levels of interaction. One level derives from the particular offices or statuses in the social system determined by the nature of the roles involved in the interaction. The other level derives from the particular people in the roles determined by the personalities involved in the interaction (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell 1968).

Research conducted by Segal, Campbell, and Herskovits (1966) shows that a relationship exists between one's environment and his or her perceptions. They present evidence that a person living in situations or cultures called carpentered (many structures with right angles) have different perceptions of two-dimensional representations and of three-dimensional objects than those who live in non-carpentered environments. They also present data supporting the idea that people who live on plains have different perceptions about the representation of vertical lines than do people living in environments where views of distant territory are absent. In summary, what one perceives depends on both his past experiences and his immediate environment.

Scott and Mitchell (1972) point out that perception of both people and objects depend on some historical factors, some current factors, and some situational factors. The experiences of the individual, culture, and learning influence judgments as do the current needs and feelings and the physical and social environment. These relationships, they indicate, are important in understanding why people behave the way they do. They also suggest that
these relationships are important for areas of organizational behavior such as leadership, selection, and training.

Whatever the kind of conflict, according to Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968), the proper functioning of certain role relationships in the educational setting, as elsewhere, depends on the degree of overlap in the perception of expectations by the several complementary role incumbents in the given interaction.

The individual and personality (idiographic dimensions) of the social behavior model explicitly suggest the influence that the characteristics of the individual have on social behavior within the organization. The gender, age, educational background, leadership experience, number of subordinates supervised all could also influence the conflict management behavior of the leader, whether the leader will select a management style of competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, or accommodating. Presumably, the amount of conflict management training and conflict management experience the leaders bring to a conflict situation will influence the style they select for managing the conflict.

**Null Hypotheses**

The researcher formulated the following null hypotheses to test for statistical significant relationships between the variables.
$H_1$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and perceived needs of superior of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_2$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and perceived needs of subordinates of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_3$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the gender of Vice Presidents of Technical institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_4$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_5$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the educational attainment level of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_6$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode
Instrument and the years of experience in the position of Vice President of a Technical Institute in the State of Georgia.

$H_7$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the leadership experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_8$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and geographical location of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_9$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the number of subordinates supervised by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_{10}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_{11}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
$H_{12}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

$H_{13}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and leadership style of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument.

$H_{14}$: There is no significant relationship between leadership style as measured by the Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Limitations of the Study

This study utilized the correlation coefficients to determine statistical significant relationships between the variables. Coefficients are expressed as decimals. They should not be confused with percentages. The coefficient is a mathematical way of expressing the degree to which the variables covary, not an indication of the degree to which the variables share common properties or characteristics. To show an estimate of the proportion of the variance that the two measures share or have in common, one should square the coefficient (McMillan and Schumacher, 1989).
Another limitation of this study is the use of a self-reporting technique by respondents to identify conflict management styles and related variables. A limitation of this technique is that the obtained data relies on the accuracy (honesty) of the respondents.

Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical and conceptual framework for this study. The chapter included definitions of the variables associated with this study, the relationship among these variables, the null hypotheses, and the limitations of the study.

Chapter 4 will present the research design of the study and the data collection methodology.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research design and methodology used in conducting this study. The chapter includes the description of the setting, sampling procedures, description of the instruments, data collection procedures, and statistical application.

Research Design

A quantitative research approach was used for this study. The researcher employed a correlational design using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient to determine the existence of statistical significant relationships between the preference of conflict management styles (dependent variables) of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia and the independent variables: perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), the number of subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience, and the tasks of the Vice Presidents.
Description of the Setting

The researcher conducted the study on the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents in thirty-two (32) Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. (See Appendix A) These Technical Institutes are located in six geographical regions in the State (Northwest Region, Northeast Region, West Central Region, East Central Region, Southeast Region, and Southwest Region). At the time of this study, twenty-eight (28) Technical Institutes were under State governance and four Technical Institutes were under State and Local governance.

Sampling Procedures

The population for this study consisted of one hundred fourteen (114) Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The researcher received eighty-seven (87) responses representing a seventy-six percent (76%) response rate which represented the sample for this study.

Description of the Instruments

Research Instruments used in this study were the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode (Management-of-Difference Exercise) Instrument, by Kenneth W.
Thomas and Ralph H. Kilmann and a conflict management questionnaire designed by the researcher.

The questionnaire consists of questions on the perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographics (gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), number of subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience.

The researcher developed the questionnaire items from adaption of the generally accepted characteristics of conflict management, demographics, and needs concepts. The researcher placed the questionnaire items and conflict management styles on an interval scale arranged from low to high. The Doctoral Committee reviewed the questionnaire, and a Panel of Experts Technique established the instrument's validity. The Panel of Experts consisted of ten percent (10%) of the population. Based on the tasks of the Vice Presidents, the researcher used a stratified random sampling procedure to select these individuals for the Georgia State Directory of Technical and Adult Education. Using this process, the instrument was revised and edited for distribution.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument consists of thirty (30) pairs of items, making a total of sixty (60) statements. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument describes a person's behavior in handling conflicts along two basic dimensions: (1) assertiveness, the extent to which the individual
attempts to satisfy his own concerns, and (2) cooperativeness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy the other person’s concerns. These dimensions (assertiveness and cooperative) are used to define five styles of handling conflicts: competing, accommodating, avoiding, compromising, and collaborating. Respondents may graph their scores and compare them to norms from a sample of three hundred ninety-nine (399) middle- and upper-level managers in business and government (Womack 1988).

Respondents are asked to choose the response from each pair which best describes the way they usually behave in conflict situations. When neither response is typical of their behavior, respondents are asked to select the response they would be more likely to use. An individual’s score is determined by the number of times the individual selected statements reflecting a particular mode (Kilmann and Thomas 1977).

Studies have been conducted to establish the validity and reliability of the Mode Instrument. Thomas and Kilmann (1978) conducted a study to assess test-retest reliabilities, internal consistencies, and the inter-correlations of convergent test validities of four instruments for measuring behavior in handling conflict. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, compared to other instruments, had a higher test-retest reliability. "The average test-retest coefficient for the Conflict Mode Instrument is .64, while the average for three other instruments used to measure conflict management behavior were .50, .39, and .55" (Kilmann and Thomas 1977). Validity of the Mode Instrument was also
established in the Kilmann-Thomas study with respect to its ability to control for overall population tendencies in social desirability. The researchers found that only four percent (4%) of the variance in the sample’s aggregate self-ratings on the Conflict Mode Instrument could be accounted for by the social desirability value of the items, while three other instruments used to measure conflict management behavior averaged more than eighty percent (80%) (Kilmann and Thomas 1977).

With respect to internal consistency, the Conflict Mode Instrument compared well with other conflict management style assessment instruments. Internal consistency coefficients reported in the study done by Kilmann and Thomas (1977) showed a range of .71 for competing (N=86) to .43 for accommodating. Except for the accommodating mode, the other modes compared well to those of three other instruments. The average alpha coefficient for the Mode Instrument is .60 while the average for two other instruments used to measure conflict management behavior was .45 and .55 (Kilmann and Thomas 1977).

With respect to the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, the instrument correlated across all five modes. The Thomas-Kilmann Instrument indicated higher reliabilities and some degree of convergent test validity across all five modes of conflict than the other instruments (Thomas and Kilmann 1978).
Data Collection Procedures

The procedures used in executing this study were obtaining permission from the Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education to conduct the study in Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia, the selection of the subjects identified from the State Directory of Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, selection and construction of appropriate instruments, and a numerical coding system established to code each instrument by tasks and geographical location of the Vice Presidents.

After obtaining permission from the Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education, the Deputy Commissioner informed presidents of each Technical Institute of the study to be conducted in the State of Georgia. The researcher mailed a cover letter seeking voluntary participation in the study and explaining the study along with the questionnaire and Conflict Mode Instrument to one hundred fourteen (114) Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. Also, included in the mailing was a self-addressed return envelope. The researcher sent a follow-up letter after the initial mailing to remind Vice Presidents to complete and return the instruments.

Statistical Application

This study used the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficients to determine the statistical relationships between the dependent
variables - conflict management styles (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, accommodating) of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes, and the independent variables of perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographics (gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), number of subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience, and tasks.

The use of factor analysis examined the communal relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables.

Tables 1-15 present the frequency distribution and percentages of the variables in the study.

Table 1 presents the frequency distribution and percentages of the preference of conflict management styles of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia by categories.
Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia had an overall preference for the collaborating style of managing conflict (28.7%).

Table 2 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the most important need perceived of the superior by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES
THE MOST IMPORTANT PERCEIVED NEED OF SUPERIOR
BY VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES
IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA.

(N = 86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Important Perceived Need of Superior</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need for control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for personal job satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for recognition by colleagues</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for competence</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forty three percent (43%) of Vice Presidents identified the need for competence as the most important need of their superior.

Table 3 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the most important need perceived of subordinates by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 3

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES
THE MOST IMPORTANT PERCEIVED NEED OF SUBORDINATES
BY VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES
IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA.

(N = 85)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Important Perceived Need of Subordinates</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need for job security</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for acceptance by superior</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for expressing ideas</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for getting ideas accepted</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for knowing subordinates are influencing decision-making within the organization</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for achievement</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forty one percent (48.2%) of Vice Presidents identified the need for knowing that subordinates are influencing decision-making within the organization as the most important need of their subordinates.

Table 4 presents the frequency distribution and percentages of the number of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes participating in the study by geographical regions in the State of Georgia.
Table 4 shows that most of the participants in this study were from Technical Institutes in the Northeast (18.4%) and Southeast (18.4%) regions in the State of Georgia.

Table 5 presents the frequency distribution and percentages of Vice Presidents participating in this study by gender.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>24 (coded 1)</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>63 (coded 2)</td>
<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subjects participating in the study included twenty-four (24) females (27.6%) and sixty-three (63) males (72.4%).

Table 6 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the age ranges of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia participating in the study.
### TABLE 6

**FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES**  
**AGE OF VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES**  
**IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA**  

(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 to 30 years of age</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 to 40 years of age</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 to 50 years of age</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 to 60 years of age</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60 years of age</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age ranges of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia indicate that the majority of Vice Presidents participating in this study (49.4%) are between forty-one (41) and fifty (50) years of age.

Table 7 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the educational attainment levels of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 7

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT LEVELS OF VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational attainment level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baccalaureate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Specialist</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that most Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia participating in this study hold Masters Degrees (36.8%).

Table 8 presents the frequency distribution and percentages of the leadership experience as a Vice President of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 8 shows that most of the Vice Presidents participating in this study had between 1 to 5 years experience (44.8%) in their present position as Vice President of a Technical Institute.

Table 9 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the total years experience in an educational leadership capacity.
TABLE 9
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES
TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE IN AN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP POSITION
(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Years Experience in an Educational Leadership Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 5 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 10 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 shows that most of the Vice Presidents participating in the study had more than 10 years experience in an educational leadership capacity. This represents 69.0% of the Vice Presidents.

Table 10 shows frequency distribution and percentages of the number of subordinates reporting to Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 10

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES
NUMBER OF SUBORDINATES REPORTING TO
VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN
THE STATE OF GEORGIA.

(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Subordinates Reporting to Vice Presidents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3 subordinates</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 6 subordinates</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 9 subordinates</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 or more</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows that most of the Vice Presidents (43.7%) supervise ten or more subordinates.

Table 11 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the forms of conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 11

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES FORMS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING OF VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA.

(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of Conflict Management Training</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended Seminars</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses as part of a program of study</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the job training</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All forms of training</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows that the majority of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia have no conflict management training (24.1%).

Table 12 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the hours of conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 12 shows that the majority of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia have more than fifteen (15) hours of training in conflict management (36.8%).

Table 13 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the extent of managing conflicts as Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
TABLE 13

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES
EXTENT OF MANAGING CONFLICTS AS
VICE PRESIDENTS OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES
IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

(N = 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of Managing Conflicts as a Vice President</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least once a day</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several times per week</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of Vice Presidents participating in this study (52.9%) indicated that they managed conflict several times per week.

Table 14 gives the frequency distribution and percentages of the extent of managing conflicts in past educational leadership positions.
Table 14 shows that most of the Vice Presidents experienced conflicts several times per week (46.0 %).

Table 15 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 15 shows that the majority of Vice Presidents participating in this study were from Student Development Services (29.9%) in Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

**Summary**

This chapter presented the research design, description of the setting, sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and statistical application.

Chapter 5 will present the analysis of the data.
CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This study was conducted to determine if statistical significant relationships existed between the preference of conflict management styles, perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), number of subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience, and tasks of the Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

This chapter presents the analysis of data for this study. The chapter presents the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients used to measure statistical relationships between the variables. The chapter also includes a factor analysis to determine the communality among the variables.

The data are presented in the order of hypotheses. The data suggest overall there is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management style scores as measured and scored by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the selected variables. The scores were reduced
to categories and correlated with the other variables. However, the adding of
each item on conflict management formed a leadership style scale and the
variables conflict style and leadership style were significantly correlated at the
.01 level of significance. Leadership style and age correlated significantly at the
.05 level of significance.

In a factor analysis, variables were placed in five factors to show the
communality of the variables. The variables age and leadership style showed
a strong communal relationship among the variables.

Data in Relation to Null Hypotheses

The correlational analysis of the data in relation to the null hypotheses is
presented in Tables 16-29. Also, presented in each table is the mean showing
the average of the responses, and the standard deviations showing variability
of the responses. The variables were tested for statistical significance using the
.05 level of significance.

H₄: There is no significant relationship between the preference of
conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode
Instrument and perceived needs of superior of Vice Presidents of Technical
Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 16 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and perceived needs of superior. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .0678$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_2$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the perceived needs of subordinates.
Table 17 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and perceived needs of subordinates. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .1772$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_3$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the gender of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 18 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and gender. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -0.0211$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

**H₄**: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 19 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and age of Vice Presidents. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .0267$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_5$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the educational attainment level of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 20 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and educational attainment level of Vice Presidents. The coefficient yield a value of \( r = .0254 \) which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

**H\(_6\):** There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the leadership experience as Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 21 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and Vice President experience. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .1193$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_7$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the leadership experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
### TABLE 22

**PEARSON R CORRELATION COEFFICIENT**  
**CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES AND LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONFSTYL</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3.9425</td>
<td>1.6937</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>-.0298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>87</td>
<td>3.5402</td>
<td>.7595</td>
<td>85</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and leadership experience. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0298$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_0$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and geographical location of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 23 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and geographical location. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -0.0645$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_0$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the number of subordinates supervised by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 23 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and subordinates supervised. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0725$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_{10}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 24 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and conflict management training. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -0.0998$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_{11}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 25 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and conflict management experience. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0366$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

$H_{12}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONFSTYL</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3.9425</td>
<td>1.6937</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>-.0366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONFLEXP</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>3.1279</td>
<td>.8014</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 26 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Linear Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles and vice president task. The coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0522$ which is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating there is no significant relationship.

**Data in Relation to Leadership Style and Other Variables**

An alternative method of scoring was used in the analysis of the data. Leadership style as a variable was created by adding each item on conflict management. Leadership style was then correlated with the other variables.

**H₁₃:** There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and leadership style of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument.
Table 28 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between conflict management styles (scores reduced to categories and correlated) and leadership style (each conflict style score added and correlated) of Vice Presidents. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .3219$ which is significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating there is a significant relationship.

$H_{14}$: There is no significant relationship between leadership style as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
Table 29 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient indicating the relationship between leadership style (each conflict style score added and correlated) of Vice Presidents. The coefficient yield a value of $r = .2266$ which is significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating there is a significant relationship.

No other significant relationship is observed. This indicates that younger Vice Presidents are low on leadership style, and are less collaborating and cooperative in managing conflict. While older Vice Presidents who are high on leadership style are more collaborative and cooperative in managing conflicts within the organization.

The adding of the scores probably allow for more variation in leadership style compared to conflict management styles which were reduced into
categories. This probably accounts for the difference in relationships found among leadership style and conflict management style with the variables.

**The Results of Factor Analysis**

To further examine the relationship between the variables, a factor analysis was conducted to determine communal relationship among the variables. The results appear in Table 30 - Rotated Factor Correlation Matrix.
TABLE 30
ROTATED FACTOR CORRELATION MATRIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR 1</th>
<th>FACTOR 2</th>
<th>FACTOR 3</th>
<th>FACTOR 4</th>
<th>FACTOR 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VPTASK</td>
<td>.80934</td>
<td>-.00680</td>
<td>-.21617</td>
<td>.08302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.73558</td>
<td>.04246</td>
<td>.08517</td>
<td>.03971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBSUPER</td>
<td>.59627</td>
<td>.13188</td>
<td>.47320</td>
<td>-.18925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.0829</td>
<td>.76851</td>
<td>.04881</td>
<td>.04807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEADEXP</td>
<td>.35611</td>
<td>.60976</td>
<td>.15176</td>
<td>.20817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPEXP</td>
<td>.13407</td>
<td>.50877</td>
<td>-.15711</td>
<td>-.29154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONFLTRN</td>
<td>-.17829</td>
<td>.35676</td>
<td>.68565</td>
<td>.07757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBNEED</td>
<td>-.01395</td>
<td>.13488</td>
<td>-.59236</td>
<td>.16022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONFLEX</td>
<td>.30008</td>
<td>-.27033</td>
<td>.53048</td>
<td>.30556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>.02211</td>
<td>.37813</td>
<td>.04610</td>
<td>.71262</td>
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<tr>
<td>LEADSTYL</td>
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<td>SUPNEED</td>
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<td>.15421</td>
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<tr>
<td>GEOGRAPH</td>
<td>-.03515</td>
<td>-.06950</td>
<td>-.17462</td>
<td>-.01427</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:

- VPTASK - Vice President Task
- EDUC - Education
- SUBSUPER - Subordinates Supervised
- GENDER - Male or Female
- LEADEXP - Leadership Experience
- VPEXP - Vice President Experience
- CONFLTRN - Conflict Management Training
- SUBNEED - Subordinates’ Needs
- CONFLEX - Conflict Management Experience
- AGE - Age
- LEADSTYLE - Leadership Style
- SUPNEED - Superior’s Needs
- GEOGRAPH - Geographical Location
Factor loadings in Table 30 grouped each variable into five (5) factors to show the communality of the variables.

Factor 1 consists of Vice President task (.80934), education (.73558), and subordinates supervised (.59627). As shown in the Factor Analysis Matrix, the factor loadings are highest in Factor 1 and not significant in the other factors. In Factor 1 Vice President task initiates the influence among the variables in the commune.

Factor 2 consists of gender (.76851), leadership experience (.60976), and Vice President experience (.50877). In Factor 2, gender initiates the influence among the variables in the commune.

Factor 3 consists of conflict management training (.68565), subordinates' needs (-.59236), and conflict management experience (.53048). This indicates that the higher the perceived needs of subordinates, the more conflict management training and conflict management experience the Vice Presidents possess.

Factor 4 consists of age (.71262) and leadership style (.71116) as shown in the factor analysis matrix and shows a strong relationship (.71262 and .71116) between these two variables. This indicates that Vice Presidents in a higher age level range had more of a higher leadership style on the leadership style scale. This infers that the Vice Presidents were high on collaborative, cooperative behavior in managing conflict.
Factor 5 consists of the variables superior's needs (.71916) and geographical location (-.68930). The geographical location of Vice Presidents indicates an inverse relationship meaning that the higher the Vice Presidents placed on the geographical scale, the lower the perceived needs of the superior as indicated on the perceived needs of superior scale.

Summary

This chapter presented the data analysis for the study. The analysis accepted twelve (12) of the fourteen (14) null hypotheses tested in the study using conflict management style preferences, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia; and the leadership style variable, where the scores were added rather than placed in categories, showing a significant relationship between conflict management styles and leadership style and leadership style and the age of Vice Presidents. Further communal relationships were examined in the factor analysis where leadership style and age were placed in Factor 4 indicating a strong communality between these variables.

Chapter 6 will present the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER 6
FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for the study. The study was conducted to determine the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Findings

This study was conducted to test the following null hypotheses to determine if statistical significant relationships existed between the preference of conflict management styles, perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, demographics (age, gender, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location), number of subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience, and tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

H₁: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode
Instrument and perceived needs of superior of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 16. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = .0678$ with conflict management styles and perceived needs of superior. This value is less than the critical value $r = .217$ at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

$H_2$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and perceived needs of subordinates of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 17. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = .1772$ with conflict management styles and perceived needs of subordinates. This value is less than the critical value $r = .217$ at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

$H_3$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the gender of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 18. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0211$ with conflict
management styles and the gender of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

\( H_4: \) There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 19. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = .0267 \) with conflict management styles and the age of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

\( H_5: \) There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the educational attainment level of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 20. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = .0254 \) with conflict management styles and educational attainment level age of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.
H₆: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the years of experience in the position of vice president of a Technical Institute in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 21. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = .1193 \) with conflict management styles and the years of experience of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

H₇: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the leadership experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 22. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = -.0298 \) with conflict management styles and the leadership experience of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

H₈: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and geographical location of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.
The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 23. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0645$ with conflict management styles and the geographical location of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value $r = .217$ at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

$H_9$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the number of subordinates supervised by Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 24. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0725$ with conflict management styles and the subordinates supervised. This value is less than the critical value $r = .217$ at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

$H_{10}$: There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management training of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 25. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = -.0998$ with conflict management styles and conflict management training of Vice Presidents. This
value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

**\( H_{11} \):** There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and conflict management experience of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 26. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = -.0366 \) with conflict management styles and conflict management experience of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

**\( H_{12} \):** There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 27. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of \( r = -.0522 \) with conflict management styles and the tasks of Vice Presidents. This value is less than the critical value \( r = .217 \) at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

**\( H_{13} \):** There is no significant relationship between the preference of conflict management styles and leadership style as measured by the Thomas-
Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 28. In this table the correlation coefficient yield a value of $r = .3219$ with conflict management style and leadership style. This value is greater than the critical value $r = .283$ at the .01 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

$H_{14}$: There is no significant relationship between leadership style as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and the age of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

The data with respect to this hypothesis are shown in Table 29. In this table leadership style yield a value of $r = .2266$ with leadership style and the age of Vice Presidents. This value is greater than the critical value $r = .217$ at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Conclusions**

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, the researcher concluded that perceived needs of superior, perceived needs of subordinates, gender, age, educational attainment level, vice president experience, leadership experience, geographical location, subordinates supervised, conflict management training, conflict management experience, and the tasks of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia does not influence their preference of conflict management styles.
Since these variables had no significant influence on the preference of conflict management styles, it is further concluded that Vice Presidents presumably rely more on the situation of conflict matters when selecting a conflict management style.

Because the age variable showed a significant relationship with the leadership style variable, the conclusion is that the older the Vice Presidents the more collaborative, cooperative behavior he or she exhibits in managing conflict as shown by the overall preference of the collaborating conflict management style. The younger the Vice Presidents the more competing, assertive behavior he or she exhibits in managing conflicts.

**Implications**

The implications of the findings suggest that Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia are presumably influenced by conflict situations in selecting a particular style of managing conflicts in the organization. The findings of this study have managerial implications for Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. First, the performance of the Vice Presidents in managing conflict could depend upon their motivational bases, the conflict situation, and the maturity level of the parties involved in the conflict. This implication is supported by behavioralists such as Thomas (1977) who logically contends that the appropriate conflict-handling mode is contingent upon the context or type of situation encountered. Thomas suggests that confrontation may be most appropriate when issues are critical, when there is
a desire that the conflict remain resolved rather than re-emerge, and where time is not particularly critical. He also suggests that the forcing mode may be most appropriate when time is of essence, understanding of decision is not strongly related to the motivation of behavioral compliance, and negative behavioral consequences are predicted to be minimum. He further explains that one should use the compromising style when the conflict has reached a high emotional state and should be defused. The compromising style should also be used where the issue is not sufficiently consequential (Thomas 1977).

Further implications of the findings suggest that an awareness of people and different situations requires adaptive behavior, by the leaders. It implies, too, that the Vice Presidents are sufficiently confident within themselves to modify his or her behavior to meet the demands of a conflict situation.

Because leadership style and age were significant variables in this study, suggest that Vice Presidents who were high on the age range scale had a higher leadership style on the leadership style scale. This infers that as the age of the Vice Presidents increases the more collaborating, cooperative behavior they exhibit toward managing conflicts in the organization. The issue of older Vice Presidents using more collaborative, cooperative behavior when handling conflicts probably could be attributed to their knowledge and experience in dealing with constituents in past employer-employee relationships. Also, the conflict matter, and the leader's authority to handle conflicts could be contributing factors in preferring collaborative, cooperative behavior.
Because the findings indicated a significant relationship between leadership style and age, younger Vice Presidents who were low on the age scale were low on leadership style indicating competing, assertive conflict management behavior. This could be attributed to a feeling of insecurity in a conflict situation or a lack of authority to deal effectively with conflict matters. On the other hand, this conflict management behavior could be an effective way to manage a conflict at a given time. If the Vice Presidents are involved in conflict situations where the maturity level of the parties warrants competing behavior, or the situation justifies such behavior to resolve the conflict, then the competing, assertive behavior of conflict management should be an effective method of managing conflicts. The major implication, therefore, is that the leader must assess the conflict situation to apply the appropriate style. The leader must also consider the maturity level of the individuals involved in the conflict situation as well as his or her own maturity level.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusion that Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia are presumably influenced by the conflict situations in their preference of conflict management styles, a recommendation is for further development of these leaders in situational leadership development for managing conflict in the organization. Since the variables leadership style and age showed a significant relationship, the researcher recommends further
study to determine the impact of the age of female and male Vice Presidents on the preference of conflict management styles and leadership effectiveness.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations of the study. The findings indicated there were no significant relationships between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. However, leadership style correlated significantly with the age of the Vice Presidents. Implications and conclusions are that Vice Presidents' preference of conflict management styles is presumably influenced more by the situation of the conflicts than any of the variables in the study other than age. The researcher recommendations further situational leadership development in managing conflicts in Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. Another recommendation is for further study to determine the impact of the age of male and female Vice Presidents on the preference of conflict management styles and leadership effectiveness.
APPENDIX A

Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia
TECHNICAL INSTITUTES IN THE STATE OF GEORGIA

Albany Tech
Albany, Georgia

Altamaha Tech
Jesup, Georgia

Athens Area Tech
Athens, Georgia

Atlanta Area Tech
Atlanta, Georgia

Augusta Tech
Augusta, Georgia

Ben Hill-Irwin Tech
Fitzgerald, Georgia

Carroll Tech
Carrollton, Georgia

Chattahoochee Tech
Marietta, Georgia

Columbus Tech
Columbus, Georgia

Coosa Valley Tech
Rome, Georgia

DeKalb Tech
Clarkston, Georgia

Flint River Tech
Thomaston, Georgia

Griffin Tech
Griffin, Georgia

Gwinnett Tech
Lawrenceville, Georgia

Heart of Georgia Tech
Dublin, Georgia

Lanier Tech
Oakwood, Georgia

Macon Tech
Macon, Georgia

Middle Georgia Tech
Warner Robins, Georgia

Moultrie Area Tech
Moultrie, Georgia

North Georgia Tech
Clarkesville, Georgia

North Metro Tech
Acworth, Georgia

Ogeechee Tech
Statesboro, Georgia

Okfuskeee Tech
Waycross, Georgia

Pickens Tech
Jasper, Georgia

Savannah Tech
Savannah, Georgia

South Georgia Tech
Americus, Georgia

Southeastern Tech
Vidalia, Georgia

Swainsboro Tech
Swainsboro, Georgia
Thomas Tech
Thomasville, Georgia

Valdosta Tech
Valdosta, Georgia

Walker Tech
Rock Spring, Georgia

West Georgia Tech
LaGrange, Georgia
APPENDIX B

Letter Requesting Permission to Conduct Study
P. O. Box 491314
Atlanta, Georgia 30349
June 25, 1992

Dr. Kenneth H. Breeden, Commissioner
Department of Technical and Adult Education
One CNN Center, 660 South Tower
Atlanta, Georgia 30303-2705

Dear Dr. Breeden:

I am a student in the Doctoral Program in the Department of Educational Leadership at Clark Atlanta University where Dr. Trevor Turner is the Department Chairperson.

This letter comes to request permission to conduct a study on Conflict Management Styles of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia. The purpose of this study is to ascertain if a relationship exist between the preference of conflict management styles and certain demographic and other characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Please be assured that the confidentiality of these individuals will be maintained in this study.

If you have questions or need further information, you may contact me at the above address or Dr. Turner in the Department of Educational Leadership at Clark Atlanta University at 880-8000.

Thank you for your assistance in this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Rose V. Vann
APPENDIX C

Letter of Permission to Conduct Study
Ms. Rose V. Vann  
320 Pointer Court  
College Park, Georgia  

Dear Ms. Vann:

Commissioner Breeden has asked that I respond to your letter of June 25, 1992, concerning your study of Conflict Management Styles of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Without making any judgement regarding the relative merit of this study, the Commissioner gives his approval and will support your efforts in the conduct of the study.

Congratulations on having reached this milestone in your professional preparation.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Robert R. Mabry  
Deputy Commissioner

RKM:ebw

Working for Georgia's Future
APPENDIX D

Letter to Participants
Dear Vice President:

Your help is needed in responding to the enclosed research instruments. I am conducting doctoral research to determine the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Will you please volunteer to participate in this study by reading the instructions on the enclosed research instruments, and returning them in the enclosed postage-paid envelope by October 15, 1992. This will only take a few minutes of your time.

When completing the Conflict Mode Instrument, consider situations in your role as Vice President. The questionnaire consists of questions that can be answered with a check mark. Please do not write your name or school on the research instruments, as responses will only be matched by code numbers.

Please take a few minutes today to complete the research instruments. Your prompt cooperation and participation is appreciated. Please be assured that confidentiality of individual responses will be maintained in this study.

I sincerely thank you for your help in this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Rose V. Vann
APPENDIX E

Follow-up Letter to Participants
Dear Vice President:

Your help is needed!! A few weeks ago you were mailed research instruments to complete for a study of the relationship between the preference of conflict management styles, demographics, and selected characteristics of Vice Presidents of Technical Institutes in the State of Georgia.

Your response is vital to the completion of this study. Will you please take a few minutes to complete the instruments and return by October 25, 1992.

I sincerely appreciate you taking time out of your busy schedule to help in this endeavor.

Sincerely yours,

Rose V. Vann
APPENDIX F

Research Instruments
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Think about the predominant need of your supervisor. Which one of the following do you perceive as the most important need of your superior? (Please check only one)
   - The need for control - ensuring there is a task for everyone and everyone is on his or her task on time.
   - The need for personal job satisfaction.
   - The need for recognition by colleagues.
   - The need for competence - knowing how to lead, organize, plan, implement and evaluate so that the goals and objectives of the organization will be accomplished.

2. Think about the predominant need of your subordinates. Which one of the following do you perceive as the most important need of your immediate subordinates? (Please check only one)
   - A need for job security.
   - A need for acceptance by their superior.
   - A need for expressing their ideas.
   - A need for getting their ideas accepted.
   - A need for knowing they are influencing decision-making within the organization.
   - A need for achievement.

3. What is your gender?
   - Female
   - Male

4. Which one of the following ranges includes your age?
   - 20 to 30 years of age
   - 31 to 40 years of age
   - 41 to 50 years of age
   - 51 to 60 years of age
   - Over 60 years of age

5. What is the highest educational degree you have obtained?
   - Baccalaureate (B.S., B.A., etc)
   - Masters (M.A., M.B.A., M.S., M.Ed, etc.)
   - Educational Specialist (Ed.S., etc.)
   - Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)
6. How many years have you held your present position as vice president?

____ Less than 1 year
____ 1 to 5 years
____ 6 to 10 years
____ over 10 years

7. How many years total have you served in an educational leadership capacity?

____ Less than 1 year
____ 1 to 5 years
____ 6 to 10 years
____ over 10 years

8. How many immediate subordinates report directly to you?

____ 1 to 3 subordinates
____ 4 to 6 subordinates
____ 7 to 9 subordinates
____ 10 or more

9. What form of conflict management training have you received?

____ None
____ Attended seminar(s) on conflict management
____ In-service Training
____ Conflict management courses as part of a program of study
____ On the job training

10. How many hours of conflict management training have you received?

____ None
____ 1-5 hours
____ 6-10 hours
____ 11-15 hours
____ Over 15 hours
11. To what extent have you dealt with managing conflicts in your current position as vice president?

- Never
- Seldom
- At least once a day
- Several times per week

12. To what extent have you dealt with managing conflicts in any past educational leadership positions held?

- Never
- Seldom
- At least once a day
- Several times per week
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