

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Anne K. Temte for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in College Student Services Administration presented on June 3, 1997. Title: An Analysis of Change in Faculty Influence over Academic Issues in the Collective Bargaining Agreements of Selected Washington State Community and Technical Colleges.

Abstract approved: Signature redacted for privacy.

Charles Carpenter

The intent of the study was to determine if the language related to twenty academic variables in the faculty collective bargaining agreements at selected community and technical colleges in Washington State had shifted to favor faculty influence during the decade from 1985 to 1995. Additionally, speculation on the reasons for observed patterns of change in language in both individual academic variables and at individual colleges was sought. Longitudinal content analysis and interviews with individuals possessing long-term state-wide perspectives and knowledge of the colleges were employed as research methodologies.

Contract language did change toward greater levels of faculty influence. Those issues related to faculty employment and security increased the most; while issues related to teaching load increased negligibly. Five issues not reported in earlier content analysis research were prominent in these contracts. These issues were post-tenure evaluation, remediation of faculty performance, selection of part-time faculty, lecture/lab/credit equivalence, and academic calendar.

The degree of change was found to be dependent on circumstances both external and internal to the colleges. Statutory change relative to employment decisions

(tenure, post-tenure evaluation, and remediation of faculty performance) resulted in overall increases in faculty influence. The level of increase, however, was not uniform for all colleges. It appears that the variable levels of change were due to internal political, social, and historic factors.

Stability in the level of faculty influence in contract language was found in colleges that had both high and low levels of faculty influence in 1985. These colleges were generally described as having well-respected presidents who were at the colleges for a long time. Colleges where there was dramatic change toward faculty influence were generally described as having experienced turmoil, instability or negative faculty/administrative relations over the decade. Overall, the picture emerges that administrative style or the relationship between the administration and faculty over time influences the language that is negotiated for inclusion in collective bargaining contracts.

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An Analysis of Change in Faculty Influence  
over Academic Issues in the Collective Bargaining Agreements  
of Selected Washington State Community and Technical Colleges

by

Anne K. Temte

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Doctor of Philosophy thesis of Anne K. Temte presented on June 3, 1997

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Dean of Graduate School

I understand that my thesis will become part of the permanent collection of Oregon State University libraries. My signature below authorizes release of my thesis to any reader upon request.

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Anne K. Temte, author

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I dedicate this work and the futures it may open  
to my children. I hope they will believe that  
commitment and completion are rewards  
in and of themselves.

AN ANALYSIS OF CHANGE IN FACULTY INFLUENCE OVER  
ACADEMIC ISSUES IN THE COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENTS  
OF SELECTED WASHINGTON STATE COMMUNITY AND TECHNICAL COLLEGES

INTRODUCTION

Problem Definition

Collective bargaining in American higher education has had an active *history* in the past thirty years. Proponents believe that collective bargaining has provided faculty members economic security, academic freedom, and emancipation from arbitrary and capricious actions by administrators. Critics feel that the phenomenon has eroded the models of collegiality and shared governance upon which American higher education was built and threatens the ability of administrators to responsibly meet the changing needs of all of the colleges' constituents.

Extensive research has established that the issues negotiated for inclusion in collective bargaining agreements have evolved over time. Several researchers have utilized content analysis to study the evolution of the subjects of bargaining. Initially, economic issues dominated agreements; in fact, faculty desire for improved salary and benefits was the main impetus for the growth of membership in and influence of faculty unions (Cresswell, Murphy, and Kershner, 1980). When the economy declined, faculty sought security through other personnel-related issues such as procedures and rules for tenure and reappointment (Kemerer and Baldrige, 1980; Kemerer and Baldrige, 1981). Institutional governance was a third area of concern that appeared in collective bargaining agreements.

Particularly in community colleges, faculty sought greater guarantees of their participation in institutional decision making (Lofton, 1983).

Over the past two decades, academic issues have appeared in collective bargaining contracts with more frequency and with evidence of greater levels of faculty control (Goodwin and Andes, 1972; Kemerer and Baldrige, 1980; Ladd and Lipset, 1973; and Lee, 1979; Williams, 1989; Williams and Zirkel, 1988). Williams and Zirkel (1988) defined academic issues as "non-salary items which directly or substantially affect the faculty's ability to provide educational benefits and services to students (p.78)."

The possible consequences of the movement of academic issues into bargaining agreements and increasing control of these issues by faculty are profound. In many four-year colleges and universities, there is a clear distinction between the responsibilities of the bargaining agent to secure benefits for membership in areas of economics and conditions of employment and those of academic senates or other collegial deliberative bodies to establish academic standards, policies, and procedures. This distinction is rare in community colleges. Historically, community colleges grew out of or were administratively attached to public school districts where superintendents or principals wielded enormous power over the curriculum and other academic issues. Community colleges did not have the traditions of shared governance, peer evaluation, and academic senates that were the norm in American universities. Especially in these colleges, the influence of unions has recently expanded into academic issues that formerly were considered the exclusive turf of administrators. Many believe that collective bargaining has been the means by which community college faculties have finally

secured some control over the issues that are viewed as vital to faculty professionalism (Williams, 1989).

Legitimate concerns of conflict of interest arise when a single agent negotiates both the economic issues which clearly promote the interest of the union membership and the academic standards, policies, and procedures that are the interest of many constituencies, including students and the community. Though it seems that it would be easy to segregate the two sets of issues, this is not the case in community colleges where there are not long traditions of shared governance over academic issues. Hankin (1975) refers to the connection between economic and academic issues as a "headbone-connected-to-the-neckbone type of sequence (p.21)" in which an academic issue such as the pedagogical concerns over ideal class size becomes a instructional load issue. Instructional load is a condition of employment and is related to compensation, which is a mandatory subject of bargaining. Unions can make claims that nearly all academic issues are, at their roots, conditions of employment for faculty members.

There is probably good rationale for faculty to desire and seek a measure of control over academic issues. Bureaucratization of institutions of higher education have demanded more specialized managers who are unable to devote time to academic leadership. Academic deans arise less frequently from faculty ranks, and therefore may have less knowledge of and sensitivity to academic issues and the professional needs of faculty members (Kugler, 1973; Vredenburg, 1987).

Collective bargaining as it has been practiced in many American community colleges, however, may not be the best means through which faculty can secure

this authority. In many studies, it has been shown that the process exacerbates, or at least emphasizes, the adversarial relationship between faculty and administration (Baldrige and Kemerer, 1981; Dayal, 1984; Rabban, 1987).

The inclusion of academic issues becomes a vital concern of administrators when collectively bargained agreements limit the flexibility of management to respond to changing financial and market conditions. If a collective bargaining agreement specifies salaries and limits workload and has a retrenchment article that provides faculty members with maximum consideration in severance and/or retraining in the event of lay-off, management's hands are tied should a financial emergency or enrollment change occur. Administrators thus become unable to meet the needs and demands of their other constituents.

#### Statement of Purpose

It is indisputable that the subjects of collective bargaining have evolved over time and that faculty influence, as expressed in contract language, has increased. The research literature documents these phenomena thoroughly. The general reasons for these changes have been speculated upon by many.

This study was designed to provide a focused illustration of change in faculty influence over academic variables in selected two-year colleges in Washington State and to attempt to provide explanations for change noted in individual academic variables and individual colleges. There were three central research questions in this study: 1) Did the locus of control over academic variables in collective bargaining contracts of selected two-year public community and technical colleges in Washington State shift either toward or away from greater



faculty influence during the past decade? If so, did noted patterns of change for colleges and academic variables establish the ability to predict future trends? 2) Did historical, political, and social factors within the colleges and within the state, as related by individuals with long-term, state-wide perspectives, appear to be related to the outcomes? 3) Were the levels of faculty control over academic issues related to demographic characteristics and/or decisions of the college?

To minimize the variation in legislative, economic and governance conditions that would be found if contracts from colleges in several states were considered, this research focused only on the community and technical colleges of one state. The collective bargaining contracts of twenty-two of Washington State's community and technical colleges from 1985 and 1995 were analyzed to determine if the number of academic issues and the strength of language regarding faculty influence within collective bargaining agreements had changed during the decade.

Once these questions were answered quantitatively, qualitative processes were employed to provide more specific explanations for changes in faculty influence over academic variables and at individual colleges. Information on institutional demographic characteristics and institutional decisions related to the collective bargaining process was examined. The opinions of individuals with well-informed state-wide perspectives were solicited through interviews; these data were examined and utilized to formulate working hypotheses on external and internal conditions that may influence change in faculty influence over academic issues.

### Approach to the Problem

Longitudinal content analysis of agreements in force in 1985 and 1995 at the selected twenty-two colleges was employed. The language in each agreement relating to twenty academic issues was located and rated on a scale based on earlier contract analyses studies by Goodwin and Andes (1972), Kemerer and Baldrige (1980), Kemerer and Baldrige (1981), Ladd and Lipset (1973), Lee (1979), and Williams and Zirkel (1988). The scores assigned to each item ranged from "0" to "4," with "0" indicating that the item was not mentioned in the contract, "1" indicating full administrative control over the item, and "4" indicating full faculty control. Scores of "2" and "3" were intermediate between administrative and faculty control.

The issues were grouped into four categories. Employment decision variables included appointment, tenure, post-tenure evaluation, remediation of faculty performance, termination for cause, retrenchment, and selection of part-time faculty. Teaching load variables included class size, number of preparations, schedule of courses, course load, overload and summer school assignments, and lab/lecture/credit equivalencies. Non-teaching responsibility variables included advising and office hours. Academic function variables included academic freedom, curriculum, grade alteration, textbook selection, and academic calendar. Longitudinal trends were detected by examining the change in the number of contracts within which language on the twenty academic issues appeared in 1985 and 1995 and by measuring the change in level of control exercised by faculty over these issues at each of the twenty-two colleges.

From this analysis, the academic variables in which notable change in faculty influence had occurred were identified. Concurrently, patterns of change were noted among the colleges. A model was built to assist in determining whether change could be predicted based on the structure and level of faculty control found in the 1985 contracts. Based on likeness with respect to change patterns, colleges were categorized into one of five groups: 1) low sum of the scores for all twenty variables in 1985 with low change toward faculty control over the decade, 2) low summed 1985 score with high change toward faculty control over the decade, 3) high summed 1985 score with change away from faculty control in many variables over the decade, 4) high summed 1985 score with low change toward faculty control over the decade, and 5) high summed 1985 score with high change toward faculty control over the decade. There were no colleges with low summed scores in 1985 that demonstrated change away from faculty control in many variables.

Patterns of change in faculty influence in both academic variables and in colleges were investigated further through interviews with individuals possessing state-wide perspectives. Interviews focused on state-wide legislative or system changes and internal institutional variables that may have engendered the patterns of change that were noted. From these interviews, working hypotheses were formulated, implications for practice were suggested, and recommendations for further research were made.

Attempts were made to match trends with several demographic characteristics or decision patterns of the institutions. These characteristics were rural or urban location, annual student enrollment (expressed as full-time equivalents or FTE),

collective bargaining agent representing the faculty, the use or non-use of professional negotiators by the administration, and the leadership of the administrative bargaining team.

### Definition of Terms

Academic Issues Issues in collective bargaining agreements that affect the delivery of education to students. These issues are not concerned with economic issues such as compensation and benefits.

Academic Calendar The calendar that defines the start and end dates of each academic term, the number of instructional days, vacation and holiday periods, and examination periods.

Advising The responsibility of faculty for advising students in academic and vocational matters. This responsibility may include assisting students in determining course sequencing and reviewing quarterly schedules.

Appointment The process through which full-time faculty are selected and appointed to positions within colleges.

Bargaining Agent The labor association representing a faculty which is organized for purposes of collective bargaining. In Washington State, community and technical college faculties are represented by either the Association for Higher Education (AHE), an affiliate of the Washington Education Association (WEA) and the National Education Association (NEA) or the Washington Federation of Teachers (WFT), an affiliate of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). A few colleges have independent local associations.

Class Size The maximum number of students permitted to enroll for a specific section of an academic offering. This number is sometimes negotiated into collective bargaining contracts and may be considered in the definition of faculty work load.

Collaborative Bargaining A collective bargaining strategy in which labor and management define issues and solutions together in a cooperative, rather than adversarial, manner.

Collective Bargaining The process through which labor, organized for the purposes of negotiating compensation and working conditions, and management negotiate a contract. Other issues may, and often are, included as negotiated items in collective bargaining agreements.

Content Analysis A process through which the content of collective bargaining agreements may be analyzed and compared. Several researchers have defined and employed numerical rating scales to analyze contract content.

Course Load The number of courses assigned to a faculty member to teach in a given academic term or academic year. This load is often defined in collective bargaining agreements.

Curriculum The academic offering within a program of study or a college. The processes through which the curriculum is developed, modified, and adopted is frequently a topic of collective bargaining in community colleges where faculties seek greater influence over academic issues. In four-year colleges with traditions of shared governance or academic senates, curriculum development is usually a function and responsibility of the faculty.

Enabling Legislation State or federal legislation that allows public employees to organize for purposes of collective bargaining.

Faculty Load Those activities which comprise a faculty members full responsibilities. Besides the teaching load, the faculty load may include student advising, committee assignments, and other professional activities.

Funding Formulae The established procedures and calculations through which state allocations for higher education are determined.

Governance The process through which policies and practices of an institution are established and administered. Four-year colleges usually operate under a model of governance that is shared between the faculty and the administration. Community college faculties often seek to establish rights in governance through the process of collective bargaining.

Grade Alteration The process through which student grades for a course may be changed. Some collective bargaining agreements specify that this function is a sole right of the faculty, while others specify the rights of academic administrators to intervene.

Lecture/Lab/Credit Equivalencies Formulae which establish the number of student contact hours spent in various types of educational endeavors that equate to a credit. These equivalencies are related to teaching load in that instructors who teach in laboratory settings may be assigned more contact hours than are instructors who teach in a lecture mode for the same number of credits.

Longitudinal Content Analysis Analysis of the content of collective bargaining contracts to provide comparisons or information of trends over time.

Management Rights A clause included in many collective bargaining agreements that establishes the right of management or institutional administration to make decisions concerning all issues not specifically addressed in the agreements.

Mandatory Subjects of Bargaining The subjects labor and management are obligated to negotiate when they enter the process of collective bargaining. These include compensation, terms of employment, and working conditions.

Negotiations The formal process through which management and labor, or, in the case of higher education, the administration and the faculty, develop and agree to a collective bargaining agreement or contract.

Office Hours Those hours when faculty members are expected to be available in their offices to assist students. Some contracts have very specific language that indicates the number of hours and the schedule of such hours; other contracts leave scheduling to faculty discretion.

Overload Assignments Overloads are assignments in excess of what is normally considered a full load for an individual faculty member. When language relating to overloads is included in contracts, it usually specifies the order in which faculty have rights to claim such assignments, the limits to overloads, and compensation.

Permissive Subjects of Bargaining Subjects that labor and management may agree to negotiate within the process of collective bargaining, though they are not obligated to do so. In community colleges, faculty and administration often agree to include articles on personnel policies, institutional governance and academic issues in their negotiated contracts.

Post-tenure Evaluation Evaluation of faculty members who are permanent members of the faculty. Contracts usually included negotiated processes and criteria for evaluation.

Preparations The number of individual courses an instructor is assigned to teach within a given academic term or year. This is different from the number of class sections or course load, for a faculty member may be assigned to teach multiple sections of the same course. Multiple sections within an academic term are considered a single preparation.

Remediation of Performance The process that is followed to improve the performance of a faculty member when a pattern of unsatisfactory performance has been detected. Processes and criteria are usually defined in collective bargaining contracts that include such language.

Retrenchment The process of terminating an employee for reasons of lack of funds or lack of work. This term is synonymous with the term "layoff" in many contracts. Language in collective bargaining contracts usually includes any statutory regulations which may apply as well as institutional policies and procedures that have been negotiated.

Schedule of Courses The published schedule of academic offerings from which students prepare their academic plan for each term. Contract language usually addresses the processes through which schedules of classes are developed and defines the rights of faculty for input.

Selection of Part-time Faculty The process through which part-time or adjunct faculty are selected and appointed. Collective bargaining agreements often specify the rights of faculty to participate in the process.



Summer School Assignments Summer school assignments are assignments of faculty members to work during summer academic terms. When language relating to summer school assignments is included in contracts, it usually specifies the order in which faculty have rights to claim such assignments, the limits to such assignments, and compensation.

Teaching Load The definition of the assignment that can be made to a faculty member within an academic term or year. The definition often addresses the number of courses, the number of preparations, the number of students, and the number of total credits assignable.

Tenure A level of faculty status that indicates that the faculty member has achieved a permanent position with the institution. Collective bargaining language pertaining to tenure usually includes the process of evaluation leading to the granting of tenure and the level of involvement of peer faculty in the process.

Termination for Cause The process of terminating an academic employee for reasons other than lack of funds or lack of work. "Cause" may normally include unsatisfactory performance, neglect of duties, illegal behavior, inappropriate behavior, and other actions as defined in the collective bargaining agreement.

Textbook Selection The means through which textbooks for academic courses are chosen. Contract language often defines the rights of faculty to select materials they believe are appropriate to courses they are assigned to teach.

## Organization

The first chapter of this dissertation provides an overview of the study and defines terms that are used throughout the report. The second chapter reviews

relevant literature, focuses the scope of the study, and reviews research methods appropriate to this type of research. Methodologies that were employed and the implications for analysis posed by these methodologies are discussed in the third chapter.

Findings of the study are presented in the fourth chapter. The final chapter presents a summary of the research and conclusions arising from the findings. A discussion of the findings and conclusions in relation to literature and researcher experience as well as recommendations for future research are also included in the last chapter.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Brief History of Collective Bargaining in American Higher Education

The incidence of collective bargaining has grown dramatically in American higher education since the 1960s. Henry Ford Community College was the first unionized postsecondary institution; It began bargaining in 1966 (Maitland and Hendrickson, 1994). From that start to the present, when approximately one-third of American college teachers is represented by unions, the history of the emergence and persistence of collective bargaining has been well-studied.

### Early Industrial Unionism and its Growth into the Public Sector

The rapid industrialism of the American economy and associated poor working conditions in the mid-1800s created the conditions for unionism to assert itself as a major trend in labor. Through collective action workers found that they were able to wield greater influence on employers for the purposes of securing better economic benefits and working conditions (Reenstjerna and Andes, 1988).

During this period, the industrial style of labor relations was established. It builds upon the concept that there is an economic balance between company owners and company employees (Neal, 1985). Management has control of the money and has the right to deploy workers to serve the profit motive of the company. Workers, on the other hand, are the labor necessary to produce the goods or services the company needs to gain a profit. Each party has assets essential to the other. This is what the parties bring to the bargaining table. Labor

is not involved in the management of the company and, theoretically, doesn't care about the health of the company as long as its economic and working condition needs are met. On the other hand, management views labor as the means to an end and, again theoretically, doesn't care about labor's concerns as long as the company's profit motive is satisfied. Labor can wield work stoppages as a tool to get what it wants; management can wield plant closure, sale of the company, change in product or operation, or outsourcing of parts production and labor as tools to ameliorate labor demands (Holley, 1996; Byrne, 1996; "The year downsizing grew up," 1996).

In the early 1960s, President Kennedy signed Executive Order 10988 permitting federal employees to join unions for the purpose of collective bargaining. Unions spread quickly throughout the federal government (Cohen and Brawer, 1982; Hankin, 1975; Wong, 1981).

Bargaining rights of public employees were established, and therefore protected, by legislative statutes in many states. There is enabling legislation in force in twenty-seven states (Douglas, 1990). Many statutes have separate language for college and university faculty and designate the composition of faculty bargaining units. Often, public employees and academic employees are identified specifically as groups with the right to bargain.

The movement of unionism into the public sector has caused much concern. Lefkowitz (1979) and Neal (1985) discussed the difficulty of having a government agency bargain with a union representing a specific group over issues that concern or financially affect many constituencies. They argued that the economic balance

needed for effective collective bargaining in the private sector does not exist in the public sector.

Simultaneous with the development of labor unions in the United States was the establishment of education associations to provide professional networks for educators and forums for discussion of ideas. The National Education Association (NEA), the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) currently are the primary associations representing the interests of faculty (Sumner, 1975).

In 1955, the AFT began to recommend that its locals use collective bargaining to secure improvements in compensation and working conditions. The AFT showed an early willingness to use industrial labor tactics -- including strikes -- to leverage improvements for membership. When enabling legislation was passed in the early 1960s permitting collective bargaining by public employees, the AFT began to be a significant presence on college campuses (Sumner, 1975; Wong, 1981). Because the AFT began to recruit membership on campuses where the AAUP or NEA had established chapters, these organizations came reluctantly to the position that collective bargaining should be one of the services offered to their member institutions. (Sumner, 1975; "Collective Bargaining," 1989).

#### Factors Influencing the Growth of Unionism in Higher Education

Though there was discomfort over the fit of the industrial style of labor relations in the public sector, unions grew. Many factors have been identified as possible motivators for faculty willingness to associate for the purposes of collective bargaining. Tremendous social and economic changes had rocked the

United States following World War II. The GI Bill offered the opportunity to pursue college degrees to many people who otherwise might never have considered higher education. Women began to work outside of the home in large numbers. There was a tremendous economic boom; there was more money and more to spend money on. This period of expansion persisted into the mid-1960s (Cohen and Brawer, 1982).

An emphasis on open access to education was promoted through the development of affirmative action, federal financial aid, and civil rights legislation. The enormous growth of community colleges enhanced open access in both transfer and vocational fields, leading not only to growth in student numbers but also to many faculty vacancies. More faculty members with blue collar backgrounds entered higher education. Many of them had experience with labor unions. The demographic characteristics of these faculty members differed from those of traditional four-year faculty members (Cohen and Brawer, 1982; Hankin, 1975).

Established associations, especially the AFT, with its ties to the AFL-CIO, were aware of the tremendous potential for growth in membership. In the mid-1960s, there were close to 2,000,000 teachers. As the AFT began to make incursions into this fertile field, the NEA was not far behind. Soon the competition among unions for membership brought the presence of unions onto many campuses (Sumner, 1975).

### The Distinctive Nature of Community Colleges

The first community college was founded in 1901 in Joliet, Illinois. The major explosion of community colleges as a viable postsecondary option occurred in the 1960s and 1970s. Referred to as "democracy's colleges," three major forces stimulated their growth: the need for educated workers, the lengthening period of youth in America that demanded the custodial care that organized education could provide, and orientations toward social justice which mandated equal and easy access to higher education (Cohen and Brawer, 1982).

Community colleges started with the tradition of public school governance. Many early community college faculty members started in K-12 systems where the NEA and AFT had been active for many years. Many carried their memberships with them onto the college campuses. In the early 1960s there was an increase in younger, more liberal faculty and with it, a growth in militancy (Cresswell, 1980; Hankin, 1975).

Structural issues within the colleges also led to unionization. As cited earlier, community colleges embodied many of the management norms of the public school systems. Faculty were not considered to have authority over curricular matters or other academic policies and procedures. Many new college administrators did not honor the traditions of shared governance prevalent in senior institutions. This led faculty, particularly those from university backgrounds, to mistrust administrators. In the early 60s, there was a tremendous growth in both the numbers and sizes of community colleges. This rapid growth led to rapid

decision making, often on the corporate or bureaucratic model, rather than on a collegial model (Sumner, 1975; Wong, 1981).

### The Scope of Bargaining

Over the three decade history of collective bargaining in American higher education, there has been an evolution in the scope of issues that are brought to the bargaining table. The early impetus for collective bargaining was economic concern; later, personnel issues, governance issues, and academic issues also entered the bargaining arena.

The Borg-Warner doctrine separates subjects of bargaining into three categories: illegal (items such as bargaining rights or responsibilities that cannot be bargained because they are stipulated in law), mandatory (items such as wages, hours, other terms of employment that both labor and management must agree to negotiate), and permissive (items which may be negotiated and included in contractual language if both parties agree). States have taken widely different statutory approaches to what is allowed as subjects of bargaining. In California, collective bargaining is not allowed on issues that fall within the authority of academic senates. It is rare that statutes recognize this authority. New Jersey allows no collective bargaining on permissive subjects. Alternatively, Michigan law allows bargaining on almost all subjects; the rationale for this approach is that the elements, processes, and criteria involving evaluation for purposes of reappointment, retention, and promotion are "other terms of employment" because they are crucial to the employer/employee relationship. This type of legislation is



important, because it opens the collective bargaining door to almost any subject of interest to the union membership (Begin, 1979).

#### Faculty Welfare -- The Economic Issues

The economic conditions of faculty in the early 1960s is considered to be the major motivator for the acceptance of collective bargaining. Cresswell et al (1980) reviewed the salary status of teachers relative to other professions from 1929 to 1978. From 1929 to 1938, teachers' salaries exceeded those for other salaried professionals. From 1938 to 1948, salaries fell to below average. During the period after World War II, the nation's economy increased at a more rapid rate than did teacher's salaries, leading them to believe they were falling farther behind. In the seventies, the incomes of teachers declined slightly, but steadily, relative to other professionals and left them paid at rates only slightly higher than manufacturing employees who generally had less education and less social responsibility.

Carr and Van Eyck (1973) postulated that if faculty perceived that the salaries in other professions increased faster than those of faculty members, they might have readily believed that collective bargaining would provide the means for securing greater economic gains and thus, a greater recognition of their professional status. Indeed, there was more union activity at colleges where faculty salaries were below average for their profession (Carr and Van Eyck, 1973; Ladd and Lipsett, 1973).

Guthrie-Morse, Leslie and Hu (1981), assessed the impact of faculty unions on financial issues. They proffered several conclusions after studying matched pairs

of unionized and non-unionized institutions adjusted for other economic factors. Unionized faculties received moderately higher pay, although this advantage was not as prominent as in the early years of collective bargaining; cost of living adjustments made the salary advantage disappear. Unionized faculty achieved economic increases for several years and then "peaked." The economic advantages then decreased relative to non-unionized faculties. Unionism appeared to yield more benefit in private institutions and in the least complex colleges -- those offering no higher than baccalaureate degrees; these factors appeared to be synergistic. The greatest salary gains were seen for faculty with the highest and lowest ranks; unionism resulted in modest fringe benefit gains. Clearly, collective bargaining had a positive impact on faculty salary and benefits in the early years (Balkin, 1989; Birnbaum, 1977; Leslie and Hu, 1977; Mortimer, 1982).

#### Faculty Security -- The Personnel Issues

In the mid-1970s, colleges faced spiraling inflation, limited budgets, declining enrollments, and a shrinking faculty job market. As economic conditions declined, the ability of unions to secure advantages in this arena also declined (Guthrie-Morse et al, 1981). Unions had to turn their attention to other issues to continue to have the support of their constituencies. Personnel issues such as grievance procedures, protections from arbitrary administrative decisions, and faculty influence on appointment, tenure, promotion, and non-renewal rose to the forefront (Andes, 1982; Goodwin and Andes, 1972; Kemerer and Baldrige, 1980; Kemerer and Baldrige, 1981; Lee, 1979). Many observers believe that grievance procedures are the most fundamental change that collective bargaining brought to

institutional management (Begin, 1979, Kemerer and Baldrige, 1980; Kugler, 1973).

In a comprehensive study aimed at assessing the penetration of unions into management rights and the impact of unions on traditional faculty rights, Chandler and Julius (1985) and Julius and Chandler (1989) found very different contractual language related to personnel issues in four-year and two-year institutions, reflecting their different histories. In community colleges, management was responsible for decisions on appointment, tenure, promotion, and non-renewal; in four-year institutions, faculty had significant authority and responsibility. Most of the four year colleges and universities had strong language recognizing the faculty's pre-bargaining rights to peer review and authority in personnel decisions. Only one-third to one-half of community colleges had language on faculty rights in personnel issues; if unions were successful in getting such language into contracts, it strongly asserted faculty rights.

Julius and Chandler (1989) believed that the faculties of community colleges will continue to pattern themselves after four-year faculties and will seek greater influence in personnel decisions. It appears that unions are more successful in this arena in institutions with greater resources and with larger bargaining units.

Personnel issues are important to faculty. Rice (1985) found that personnel issues, as well as economic issues, dominated the negotiation processes in Massachusetts community colleges. Dayal (1986) asked faculty to rank ten professional and ten economic issues by their perceived importance as bargaining goals. Academic freedom and salaries were ranked one and two in a combined list. Class size was third. Personnel issues -- criteria for reappointment, tenure,

and promotion and procedures for reappointment, tenure, and promotion -- were ranked fourth and fifth, respectively.

Though language on faculty rights in these matters is a goal of collective bargaining, the research of Guthrie-Morse et al (1981) is interesting to note when assessing the impact of unionism. They found more faculty are hired into non-tenure track positions in unionized institutions, allowing administrators to retain flexibility in the size and composition of the faculty.

### Faculty Professionalism -- The Governance Issues

A third substantial area of influence is institutional governance. Collective bargaining emerged most forcefully at colleges and universities where long-established traditions of shared governance and collegiality were non-existent. Particularly in community colleges, built upon K-12 administrative models, faculty believed that they would gain a measure of influence on governance only through collective bargaining. Where strong faculty senates existed prior to unionization, a functional coexistence seemed to evolve, with senates retaining responsibility for influencing academic matters and unions bargaining for economic issues and conditions of employment (Kemerer and Baldrige, 1981).

In 1981, Kemerer and Baldrige found that 65% of community college faculty believed that their unions should seek greater concessions in governance and academic issues when economic issues are not forth-coming. Only 38% of the faculty at large multiversities felt this way. The authors believed that this difference was tied, in large part, to the different histories and traditions of four-year colleges and community colleges. Because they lacked traditions of shared

governance, the authors concluded that the faculties at community colleges were more likely to seek influence in governance through collective bargaining.

Recently, Beaulieu (1995) found that the leadership of both the faculty and administration in Washington State community colleges believed that faculty have greater influence over institutional governance than an analysis of contract language actually reveals. She found, further, that governance-related issues are present in all of the contracts of the twenty-three colleges she studied.

Because there is no clear demarcation between economic issues and conditions of employment, between conditions of employment and professionalism, between conditions of employment and academic issues, and between professionalism and academic issues, the arena of academic issues arose as the fourth focus for collective bargaining. These connections led faculties to bargain for such issues as class size, textbook selection, numbers of preparations, curricular development responsibilities, and course scheduling.

#### Academic Issues as Subjects of Bargaining

Bargaining over academic and curricular issues is most prevalent in community colleges. Williams (1989) summarized the conditions of community college faculty that motivate them to bargain for rights in this area. The faculty have less status as self-governing professionals; two-year colleges are subject to more outside influence due to their funding mechanisms; two year colleges generally do not have national or regional reputations for excellence and therefore cannot attract students from outside commuting distance; community colleges are teaching

institutions -- they receive few resources for research; few community colleges have endowments to help them weather economic difficulties.

Williams (1989) used the phrase "locus of control" to describe where, on the continuum from administration to faculty, control over bargained issues lies. She posited that community college faculties use collective bargaining to achieve a measure of control over academic issues -- to shift the "locus of control" from the administration. Williams believed that there are two motivating factors in this desire for control. First, faculties believe they are in the best position to promote academic excellence. They believe that financial constraints may lead to neglect of academic integrity if administrative managers are left to control curricular and academic arenas. Schermerhorn (1985) asserted also that faculty must negotiate the right for faculty to set curricular requirements and that academic excellence would be preserved only through faculty control of class size, course load, hiring of teaching professionals, and choice of teaching methods, text, and work pace.

A second motive is job security (Williams, 1989). If the work load for community college faculty is lowered through collective bargaining, more faculty are needed to teach the same number of sections. Also, through control of curricular decisions, faculty might wish to require that students take courses taught by tenured faculty, thus insuring adequate enrollment and preventing lay-off of senior faculty.

Schermerhorn (1985) argued for faculty control of academic and curricular decision making. This arrangement is the general rule in four-year colleges with strong faculty senates. Johnstone (1981) found that in many collective bargaining contracts in four-year institutions, curricular decision-making is included in a list of

primary or exclusive rights of faculty. What seems to be the current trend in community college collective bargaining, however, is that details of academic and curricular decisions related to individual faculty work load, rather than rights to control the decision-making process, are being bargained (J. Connor, personal communication, February, 1996).

An example of this occurred in the most recent round of community college negotiations in Minnesota, where the faculties of 22 community colleges are represented by one state-wide association (Minnesota Community College Faculty Association or MCCFA) in bargaining with the Minnesota State Colleges and Universities (MnSCU). Two prominent issues were the number of class preparations allowable per quarter and the traditional equivalence of two lab hours to one credit hour. The MCCFA wanted to limit the number of course preparations per faculty member to three per quarter and wanted a new equivalence of one hour of laboratory contact to one credit, rather than the former two to one ratio. While both of these items would benefit individual faculty members, such changes were viewed by MnSCU as potentially devastating to the curricular variety at small colleges, where enrollments and budgets limit the number of faculty in each discipline and preclude the hiring of additional laboratory instructors. Many local faculty did not agree with the direction the MCCFA took. They believed that local curriculum committees, working with instructional deans, could make curricular and load decisions to benefit both individual faculty members and academic quality (J. Harmon, personal communication, July, 1995).

The source of new items appearing in contracts, such as those cited above, may reflect conflicts not satisfactorily resolved prior to negotiations. Douglas,

Krause, and Winogora (1980) speculated that the increase of complex workload clauses in contracts suggested that numerous situations were not dealt with in previous contracts and thus led to grievance situations demanding future contractual language.

### Speculation on Future Subjects of Bargaining

Many early researchers assumed that there would be a shift in the subjects of bargaining toward academic and curricular issues (Hankin, 1975; Kemerer and Baldrige, 1981; Williams and Zirkel, 1988). Prediction of future subjects of bargaining continues. Several authors predicted that articles on faculty remediation would occur with greater frequency (Maeroff, 1988; Reilly, 1988). In general, it was thought that administrations would seek such language to allow them the ability to deal with poor faculty performance while conceding to the demands for greater faculty security in tenure and retrenchment articles. Some contracts already contain such language.

At the Community Colleges of Spokane, remediation language was negotiated into the 1991-94 agreement at the initiation of both the faculty association and the administration (Master Contract: The Community Colleges of Spokane Board of Trustees and the CCS Association of Higher Education, 1992). The faculty felt that an article providing for remediation of fellow instructors through a peer process demonstrated its stated commitment to self-regulation and academic quality (T. Fitzpatrick, personal communication, Dec., 1991).

Additional new items entering collective bargaining in the 1990s may focus on part-time faculty considerations. Some contracts include part-time and adjunct



faculty as members of the union; other do not. Faculty have long asserted that administrators use part-time faculty to circumvent many negotiated provisions. Administrators, limited in their ability to respond quickly to economic or enrollment changes, generally do preserve a percentage of faculty assignments for adjunct instructors. Undoubtedly, the rights of part-time instructors will be a focus of future negotiations (DiGiovanni, 1990; Swofford, 1984). Other researchers suggest that affirmative action (Bompey, 1985; Poisson, 1985; Reilly, 1988) and comparable worth (Bompey, 1985) may arise in bargaining.

Andes (1982) and Hankin (1975) provided extensive lists of potential future subjects of bargaining. These included provisions for complaints about instructors, assaults on instructors, mergers of institutions, spousal employment, child care, program evaluation, classroom disruption, affirmative action, computers, hiring and non-renewal decisions, administrative appointments, and involvement in the budgeting process. This list evinces the full spectrum of economic, personnel, governance, and academic issues that have dominated the evolution of the scope of bargaining.

#### Collective Bargaining and the Relationships Between Faculty and Administration

Though collective bargaining in higher education has delivered more rights to faculty associations in the areas of economic consideration, personnel policy, institutional governance and academic decision-making, concern has arisen over the impact these rights might have on the ability of college administrators to manage institutions in the best interests of all constituents. Additionally, the

attitudes of faculty and administrators toward each other and toward the collective bargaining process may have an impact on overall institutional morale.

#### Administrative Attitudes and Perceptions of the Impact of Collective Bargaining

Cooperation and appreciation were not sentiments universally felt by administrators entering into collective bargaining arrangements with faculty unions.

Most administrators believed that collective bargaining reduced their flexibility and autonomy in dealing with management situations. Garbarino and Aussieker (1975) found that contracts resulted in more rules and regulations. Indeed, Williams and Zirkel (1988) demonstrated that, nationwide, more and more items were the subjects of negotiations in 1985 than in 1975; fewer issues were left to be considered "management right." Though such formalization of policies and procedures can lessen the chances of inequities and capricious decision-making, it can also increase bureaucratic inefficiency.

Baldrige and Kemerer (1981) found that collective bargaining brought increased formality into the management of colleges and universities. Negotiated contracts usually provide more detailed records of decision-making, produce more clearly-articulated procedures, and specify personnel policies and formats for resolving implementation and interpretation differences.

In a survey of college presidents from institutions with collective bargaining, Jones (1986) found that 50% of presidents felt a loss of power; 50% did not. One third of the presidents -- most from community colleges -- believed that collective bargaining brought an increase of faculty influence in areas previously within the domain of administrators. Seventy percent believed that there was

more conflict in the college as presidential power was curtailed through collective bargaining.

In unionized situations, it was found that decision-making power rose to the highest level of the organization. The president, the board, or, in some states, the state board or the legislature make the final decisions on negotiated items (Baldrige, 1976). This reduces the authority of lower-level administrators and may detract from local governance (McDonnell and Pascal, 1979). Administrators who have little authority and autonomy may feel more and more like compliance agents and less like educational leaders.

In an early study of the impact of collective bargaining on management, Chandler (1975) reported that administrators felt that there were both positive and negative results. They felt that their autonomy and authority were constantly challenged, that grievance procedures made them mindful of potential future arbitration settlements and lawsuits, and that the need to meet and confer with faculty delayed decisions and sometimes detracted from common sense.

Alternatively, some administrators conceded that these same constraints were moving institutions toward better management in terms of planning, organizing and controlling. Some noted that "judgments must not be fuzzy (p. 115)" and others appreciated that so much decision-making could occur at one time at the bargaining table.

The attitude of administrators is vital to the bargaining relationship. Jones (1986) reported that administrative attitudes toward faculty governance seemed to be the major factor that influenced faculties to unionize. Negative administrative attitudes toward the existence of unions may be a self-fulfilling prophesy in the

arena of divisive relations (Wilson, Holley, and Martin, 1983). Maitland and Kerschner (1988) also speculated that administrative attitude toward the union, rather than the union's "win-loss" record at the bargaining table is a crucial factor in faculty support of the union.

Administrative attitude is not a static factor. Wilson et al (1983) conducted a longitudinal study of administrative attitudes toward collective bargaining both before and after unionization. Prior to unionization, most administrators viewed unions as divisive factors in the academic life of universities; they believed that unions would likely lead to mediocre faculty performance by protecting incompetent instructors and granting unearned security. Over time, these administrators moderated their beliefs and conceded -- after unionization -- that unions have a valid place in higher education. Julius and Chandler (1989) also found correlation between the length of the bargaining relationship and administrative comfort.

#### Faculty-Administrative Relations

In the summary to an extensive review of literature, Wong (1981) concluded that the impact of collective bargaining on faculty-administrative relations is situational, depending on the history, culture, and social forces of the institution; the length of time the collective bargaining relationship has existed; and the skill, experience, and attitudes of the union and administrative leadership. Though adversarial positions have resulted at many colleges, it is not universal. What seems to hold true in the results of many studies is that collective bargaining

processes can have great potential for positive impact as the bargaining relationship matures, as parties gain experience, and as attitudes change.

In issues of governance, there are many sources of tension between faculty and administrators. Colebrook and Dennison (1991) found that collective bargaining processes in Canadian community colleges became distinctly adversarial when faculty felt that they are not involved in decision-making processes, that they were denied access to institutional information and that there was a lack of trust between faculty and administrators. Many and Sloan (1990) surveyed both union leadership and management in a K-12 system to gain insight into their perceptions of the degree of competitive or adversarial and/or cooperative bargaining behaviors present during negotiations sessions. They found that labor tended to view bargaining as a more competitive process than did management.

Several authors viewed the evolution of grievance procedures as the most crucial element in defining faculty-management relationships. Such procedures allow faculty to file formal grievances when they believe that provisions of a negotiated contract have been violated. Such provisions can lead to defensiveness on the part of administrators when they are called upon to explain their actions (Chandler, 1975). It may also lead to lack of action by administrators in situations that demand it for fear that their actions will be grieved. Faculty believe that grievance procedures are their greatest protection from arbitrary and capricious actions on the part of administrators (Kemerer and Baldrige, 1980; Kugler, 1973). Begin (1979) noted that grievance procedures are permissive subjects of bargaining, yet most contracts have included them. The greatest impact on

traditional governance patterns comes when personnel procedures and grievance procedures have been negotiated.

Many aspects of the faculty-management relationship can affect institutional effectiveness. Rabban (1987) urged administrators to be willing to discuss all issues that are not regarded as illegal subjects of bargaining. He suggested that administrations have hidden behind the distinctions between mandatory and permissive subjects of bargaining to the detriment of communication and joint problem resolution. Lee (1982) also found that unions and management that avoid conflict over subjects of bargaining are more successful at cooperation.

One interesting approach to institutional relations suggested that administrators should view faculty and collective bargaining relations from an anthropological framework. Reenstjerna and Andes (1988) asserted that, from the time of Aristotle, philosophers and human behaviorists have recognized that humans need small group involvement. Dehumanization occurred during the growth of the industrial age. Unions became successful because they filled the need for small group association and reduced the complexities of industrialized society for the individual worker. Sometimes the elements needed for small group identification involve the identification of a common enemy; in unionized settings, the enemy is often management. The authors recommended that administrators define the interpersonal structures of their organizations, define the natural small group interactions, identify the critical value systems of these groups, and establish structures that will enhance the small group interactions. These actions will lead to less conflict and better collective bargaining.

## The Relationship of Institutional Characteristics to Academic Issues

Although the literature is replete with reports of studies that correlate demographic characteristics of individual faculty members with their inclination to favor union representation or with their satisfaction with the accomplishments of unions (Borstorff, Nye, and Field, 1994; Boulter, Leonard, and Williams, 1989; Decker, Hines, and Brickell, 1985; Graf, Hemmasi, Newgren, and Nielsen, 1994; Hill, 1982; Karim and Ali, 1993; Randles and Baum, 1985; Verdugo, 1990; Vornberg and Paschall, 1984), there is relatively little information relating institutional characteristics to collective bargaining issues. Except for the generalization that collective bargaining has been most common in two-year colleges and in four-year colleges without well-established traditions of shared governance and faculty senates, little else is prominent in the literature.

### Bargaining Agents

There are two major bargaining agents that represent the faculties of community colleges. The National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) represent most of the other two-year colleges that are unionized. Because of its ties with the AFL-CIO, the AFT has a reputation of being the most militant of the faculty unions, with the NEA less so (Pulhamus and Galvin, 1987; Hankin, 1975). Though college faculties associated with unions for various reasons, one of the most important for community colleges was the relative strength of the NEA and the AFT in the school districts out of which

colleges grew (Julius and Chandler, 1989). Some college faculties chose to bargain collectively through independent local associations.

Though the effectiveness of various bargaining representatives in securing greater faculty influence over academic issues has not been specifically reported, several researchers have attempted to determine their relative effectiveness on other issues. Pulhamus and Galvin (1987) examined the impact of the bargaining agent on grievance procedures at senior institutions nation-wide. Although the authors had predicted that they would find more formal and detailed grievance procedures among AFT contracts, they found no substantial differences in contracts negotiated by the various agents.

In research that spanned fifteen years (Chandler and Julius, 1985; Julius and Chandler, 1989), the bargaining agent was found to be strongly correlated with the strength of faculty rights language. The authors reviewed 65% of the existing four-year institution labor agreements and 80% of the two-year institution contracts. They found that the AFT had the best overall success in winning faculty influence in long-range planning; retrenchment; promotion, appointment, non-renewal, and tenure decisions; and lessening management rights.

Chandler and Julius (1985) and Julius and Chandler (1989) discussed the problem of "intervening variables" when attempting to reach conclusions on the most effective bargaining agent, noting that each agent operates in a different market. The AAUP (American Association of University Professors) is most frequently the representative of four-year university faculty who may not feel the need to bargain for rights that they already have due to traditional governance structures. The AFT is most active in the East, where support of unionism is



strong. The NEA, on the other hand, is most active in the less pro-union Midwest and West; it tends to be the bargaining agent at smaller colleges where compensation is lower and the authoritarian position of the administration is stronger.

### Institutional Size

Institutional size has been found to influence collective bargaining. Chandler and Julius (1985) reported that management rights clauses are weaker in larger institutions and in those that have bargaining units with more members. Many and Sloan (1990) reported that in primary and secondary schools in Illinois, the districts with the largest and smallest bargaining units tended to report the most competitive bargaining processes, while mid-sized units tended to have more cooperative behavior with administrative negotiators.

### Location

Urban location is generally correlated with large institutional size; conversely, most of the smallest community colleges are in rural locations. Though the urban/rural factor has not been specifically found in this review of literature, the impact of institutional size on the impact of collective bargaining may be inferred.

### Use or Non-use of Professional Negotiators

Colleges must make decisions as they approach negotiations. One of the most important is whether to field a negotiations team made up of administrative

personnel or to employ a "hired gun" as labor negotiators are sometimes referred to. Often college administrations hire professional negotiators when they know that the faculty team will be headed by professional union personnel rather than local faculty members. Also, if an administration senses that it is time to regain ground lost in previous negotiations, it will often turn to professionals who do not have to worry about day-to-day working relationships after negotiations (T. Brown, personal communication, Feb., 1993).

#### Leadership of the Administrative Bargaining Team

Newton (1979) asserted that the bargaining agent selected by faculty to represent them is not nearly as significant a factor in the outcome of negotiations as is the selection of representatives to sit at local negotiations tables. If the faculty is represented by union professionals who lack faculty credentials or who are more politically than professionally oriented, economic and personnel gains may be achieved at the expense of professional standards. He further wrote:

When the trustees or the administration select as their negotiators the institution's business officer, a personnel director, the development officer, the vice president of student affairs and a token dean, usually from the school of business, the institution's cost effectiveness may be protected but probably at the expense of its educational effectiveness. For certainly, where both parties hire as their spokesperson our modern day mercenaries, representatives of the legal profession, not only will academic jargon be replaced with legalese, but the settlement reached may well increase attendance in the halls of justice rather than the halls of learning (p.147).

Newton (1979) stressed that the "selection of the representatives who sit on opposite sides of the table, the conduct of the parties during negotiations, and the

contract bargained, all provide a mirror image of an institution....who is at the bargaining table is important for what it says of the values of the institution (p. 147)." If the administration selects low level administrators with no real supervisory power nor real authority to obligate the institution, faculty bargaining teams may regard this as a lack of respect. There is little research in the literature concerning the impact of the structure of the administrative bargaining team on negotiations outcomes.

## Research Methodology

### Content Analysis

Julius and Chandler (1989) succinctly summarized the difficulties of conducting definitive research on the effects of collective bargaining when they wrote: "determining the effect of intricate, interacting political and social stimuli on complex group behaviors inevitably involves an irreducible level of uncertainty. Students of industrial and labor relations have known for quite some time that certain aspects of the labor-management relationship cannot be quantified (p.11)". Despite this difficulty, many researchers have attempted to assess the impact of faculty collective bargaining on higher education and the emerging trends in subjects of bargaining.

In the early 1970s, Goodwin and Andes (1972) examined all available collective bargaining agreements from 1970-1971 to identify significant items, using key word and content analysis to identify items and detect the frequency with which they appeared in contracts. They found that only two academic items

-- teaching load and work load -- appeared in at least 50% of the contracts they examined.

Based on this research, Andes (1982) followed up with a reexamination of the contracts from the same institutions nine years later. This research was the first longitudinal study of change in contract content. Andes merely looked for key phrases, but found substantial change during the decade of the 1970s. There was great expansion in the number of contracts and the numbers of institutions and individuals covered. Contract language expanded in scope and specificity and there was an increase in the number of items related to academic and curricular issues. Where only teaching load and work load had appeared in the majority of contracts in 1970, Andes found that scheduling procedures; overload provisions; work week, work day, and work year definitions; summer school provisions; and professional improvement provisions appeared in the majority of contracts in 1979.

Julius and Chandler (1989) added further developments to the process of contract content analysis. Citing that content analysis is a valid and systematic method in the research of the social sciences for assessing the extent to which language, attitudes, or themes are present, they "devised a method of scaling labor agreements with respect to association influence and the extent of assertion of management rights (p.13)." Their five-point scale was applied to seven items that were typically the prerogative of management: long-range planning, retrenchment, promotion, appointment, non-renewal, tenure, and "management rights."

The research of Williams and Zirkel (1988) brought together the longitudinal approach of Andes (1982) with the measurement of relative influence of faculty

and administration used by Julius and Chandler (1989). In an analysis of 124 pairs of contracts at four-year and two-year colleges with at least a ten-year experience in collective bargaining, the researchers examined the shift in the "locus of control" from administration to faculty in contracts from 1975 and 1985 by rating eighteen academic items.

Using the ordinal codes from "0" to "4," where "0" indicated no mention and levels "1" through "4" indicating gradations from full administrative control to full faculty control, they analyzed the contract language from each college from both 1975 and 1985. They performed sign tests for matched pairs for the differences in the ratings between 1975 and 1985 to determine whether there had been a shift in the locus of control over academic issues.

Williams and Zirkel (1988) found that there was increase in the number of contracts that contained language relative to these eighteen items during the decade. Most significant, however, was the finding that faculty had managed to secure a greater level of control over each of the items from 1975 to 1985.

Williams and Zirkel (1988) speculated on the reasons for the shift of locus of control over academic issues. As faculty experience in collective bargaining increased, they became more assertive in securing faculty rights. Management found it difficult to counter faculty desire for influence in academic arenas and preferred giving in to labor demands that appeared to have little fiscal impact. Additionally, by the end of the decade examined, there were more agreements from which faculty negotiating teams could glean ideas and language for negotiation proposals.

In 1989, Williams excerpted the data on two-year colleges from the research of Williams and Zirkel (1988). She found strong movement during the 1975-1985 decade to greater faculty control over academic issues and predicted that the subsequent decade would reveal an even greater shift in the locus of control over academic items to faculty.

### Qualitative Research: Assumptions and Research Implications

Undoubtedly, the movement of collective bargaining into the higher education environment has been a major trend of the mid-Twentieth Century. How it has affected economic conditions for faculty, personnel procedures, institutional governance and academic processes in the nation's colleges has been the subject of much research and speculation. In discussing their research methodology, Julius and Chandler (1989) stated that the quantification they applied to the analysis of collective bargaining agreements increased the objectivity of observations made on the impact of collective bargaining.

To this point, this review of methodology has focused on research in which written words were transformed into numbers that could be subjected to the application of quantitative procedures to draw conclusions about collective bargaining. To get beyond the superficial nature of what is observable and quantifiable in a situation -- to attempt to answer the questions of "why" and "how" the situation exists -- a more descriptive, qualitative approach is required.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) outlined some of the major assumptions underlying qualitative research:

1. Realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic
2. Knower and known are interactive, inseparable
3. Only time- and context-bound working hypotheses (ideographic statements) are possible
4. All entities are in a state of mutual, simultaneous shaping, so that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects
5. Inquiry is value bound (p.37-38).

Qualitative research focuses on process, rather than product. Rather than seeking data to confirm or disprove *a priori* hypotheses, it formulates working hypotheses to fit accumulated data. Rather than having an end point, where the data have revealed a concrete answer, qualitative inquiry is an on-going process that reveals more and provides more illumination and insight as the research continues (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

In naturalistic inquiry, Bogdan and Biklin (1992) have asserted that the researcher is the key instrument in deriving meaning from a natural setting. In this form of non-experimental research, there is no manipulation or control of variables. Researchers must take steps to minimize their influence on settings.

Bogdan and Biklin (1992) further characterized qualitative research as using words or pictures, rather than numbers to convey rich descriptions. Miles and Huberman (1984) however, contended that transforming words to numbers, matrices, tables, and graphs is beneficial for verifying suspicions or seeing quickly what exists in a large accumulation of data.

Because qualitative research relies on rich descriptions to provide meaning and to answer the "why" and "how" questions, it is intensive and time-consuming. Consequently, small samples, or in-depth case studies are used. Sampling is rarely representative of the total population as it attempts to be in more quantitative studies. There, each unit has an equal chance of being within the sample

population. In qualitative research, sampling is purposeful (Merriam, 1988), with units selected for their ability to provide the most important, knowledgeable, or insightful information.

Because of these characteristics, qualitative research does not lead to generalizable conclusions. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define generalizations as "assertions of *enduring* value that are *context-free*. Their value lies in their ability to modulate efforts at prediction and control (p.110)." When observations are made of purposefully selected samples or populations, a researcher is not focusing on a random sample. Many of the research questions to which qualitative methods are most applicable are context-bound and situational. Conclusions from such research provide insight and perspectives from which other situations may be analyzed but cannot produce predictive or controlling tools.

Two of the primary tools of qualitative research are participant observation and interviewing. In the first, the researcher observes settings, programs, or people in the course of normal activities. The researcher is able to observe interactions between and among subjects. The contextual setting allows for speculation on meaning. Here, the researcher's impact on the subject and the subjects' impact on the researcher must be acknowledged (Bogdan and Biklin, 1992).

Interviewing is a form of purposeful communication in which the researcher elicits descriptive data in the subjects' own words. Taylor and Bogdan (1984) opined that careful interviewing gives the researcher the opportunity to understand in detail how the subject thinks and feels about situations under study. This research methodology must be undertaken thoughtfully and carefully. The researcher must be prepared for establishing a conversational tone while focusing



on key elements for discovery. Flexibility must be maintained so that newly revealed avenues may be explored.

Taylor and Bogdan (1984) define five conditions in which interviewing is an appropriate method of inquiry. If the "the research interests are relatively clear and well-defined (p.80)," a researcher may use interviewing to gather information on how or why certain observed phenomena occur. When "settings or people are not otherwise accessible (p.80)," in-depth interviewing can be utilized to gather information about past events and conditions affecting phenomena. If "the researcher has time constraints (p.80)," interviewing can provide information in a shorter period of time than would participant observation. In some cases, when events are in the past or participants are not available for observation, interviewing can recreate history. In cases where "the research depends on a broad range of settings or people (p.81)," an in-depth interview with one or two knowledgeable informants with generalizable perspectives may provide more depth of understanding than numerous interviews with individuals with more specific perspectives. Finally, when "the researcher wants to illuminate subjective human experience (p.81)," interviewing to produce life histories is a rich source of intimate information.

### Qualitative Data Analysis

The outcomes of qualitative inquiry are inductive and intuitive. Data lead researchers to refine hunches, research new avenues, revise ideas, and continue. They arise from careful analysis of gathered information. Miles and Huberman (1984) suggested that analysis is a process of three concurrent processes. Data

reduction is "the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the 'raw' data (p.21)." It "sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that 'final' conclusions can be drawn and verified (p.21)." This can be done through transformation of words into numbers, selection or paraphrasing of words that characterize a phenomena or population, or many other methods.

Data display is defined by Miles and Huberman (1984) as "an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking (p.21)."

Among the techniques that contribute to effective data display are graphing, matrices, charts, flow diagrams, and tables.

Conclusion drawing and verification are the third arena of data analysis. Miles and Huberman (1984) view these processes as constant partners that lead to refinement of conclusions that arise from data reduction and display. As conclusions are formulated, the researcher seeks to verify them through testing their plausibility. If conclusions fail these tests, new conclusions must be drawn.

#### Relating Institutional Characteristics to Influence over Academic Items

Many studies have correlated institutional characteristics with the likelihood that collective bargaining will occur within the institution (Chandler and Julius, 1985; Cohen and Brawer, 1982; Hankin, 1975; Wong, 1981) and with faculty attitude toward collective bargaining (Graf, et al, 1994; Hill, 1982; Karim and Ali, 1993; Ormsby and Watts, 1989). With the objective of developing predictors of contract language, Chandler and Julius (1985) and Julius and Chandler (1989)

studied the relationship between institutional characteristics and contract language negotiated to extend faculty influence or control over governance issues.

In their research, Julius and Chandler analyzed the language in 184 two-year (65% of extant) and 101 four-year (80% of extant) collective bargaining agreements. they applied a five-point scale as described in an earlier section. To determine the relationship of the dependent variables (faculty and administrative influence) to the independent institutional characteristics, they employed zero-order correlation, regression analysis and the analysis of Pearson product-moment statistics. These statistical manipulations allowed them to conclude that some institutional characteristics had statistically-significant correlations with contract language regarding governance items.

If, as was the case with Julius and Chandler (1989), research employs a sample of the entire population and if the sample is large enough, statistical methods can be employed to determine if variables are correlated and if the correlations are generalizable to the entire population. If, on the other hand, an entire population is being studied and if that population is relatively small, correlation statistics have little meaning. In these cases, descriptive statistics and examination of the data on institutional characteristics and related collective bargaining agreement language is more appropriate. Data display techniques such as graphing and matrices are appropriate to assist in the detection of relationships among the variables in the population (Miles and Huberman, 1984).

## Summary

The background of industrial unionism in the United States set the stage for the establishment of collective bargaining processes in the public sector. Starting in the early 1960s, federal and state statutes were passed that enabled public employees to organize for the purposes of collective bargaining. This movement caught on in public institutions of higher education, as well, with the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) now representing most of the organized faculties in community colleges.

The initial impetus for collective bargaining in American community colleges was the economic condition of faculty members relative to other professional employees. After economic advantages were secured through contract negotiations, unions turned their attention to personnel and governance issues as a means to continue to secure advantages for membership. The latest issues to enter the collective bargaining arena were academic issues that influence the delivery of education to students. These issues were particularly important to the faculties of community colleges, where traditions of shared governance and academic senates were not the norm and faculty were not necessarily included in academic decision-making.

Many researchers have predicted that collective bargaining will move into additional arenas. Issues surrounding part-time instructors, remediation of faculty performance, and institutional decision-making are likely to become important subjects of bargaining. As faculty contracts have evolved to encompass more areas of traditional management rights in community colleges, administrators reacted in one of two ways. Some administrators believed that collective

bargaining limited their flexibility to respond to change and reduced them to mere compliance officers. Others believed that negotiated contracts resulted in carefully deliberated and agreed to standards and practices that made administration more responsive and responsible.

The evolution of contract language at individual colleges is regarded by many researchers to be situational -- dependent on historical, political, and social factors present in the institution. The relationship between administrative leadership and the faculty has been speculated upon as a potent factor in collective bargaining.

Research on contract content and content change over time has employed a variety of content analysis techniques. Most prominent among these is the rating of language on defined numerical scales. Qualitative inquiry techniques such as direct observation and interviewing have also been employed to ascribe meaning to findings. Language has been related to demographic characteristics of faculty and/or institutions through correlation statistics or observation.

## METHODOLOGY

There were three central research questions in this study: 1) Did the locus of control over academic variables in collective bargaining contracts of selected two-year public community and technical colleges in Washington State shift either toward or away from greater faculty influence during the past decade? If so, did noted patterns of change for colleges and academic variables establish the ability to predict future trends? 2) Did historical, political, and social factors within the colleges and within the state, as related by individuals with long-term, state-wide perspectives, appear to be related to the outcomes? 3) Were the levels of faculty control over academic issues related to demographic characteristics and/or decisions of the colleges?

The study approached these questions with three distinct methodologies. Longitudinal content analysis, patterned after prominent research techniques in the field of collective bargaining in higher education, was employed to analyze twenty academic issues to detect if changes in contract language had occurred from 1985 to 1995. Issues that showed notable change over the decade were identified. Patterns of change in colleges over the decade were noted.

Because quantitative analysis is, at best, limited in its ability to ascribe effects to causes in dynamic social and political situations, qualitative inquiry was employed through interviewing individuals with state-wide perspectives on collectively bargained issues and long-term familiarity with individual colleges. Additionally, the processes of data reduction, data display, and forming and verifying conclusions were employed as all data were reviewed.

Because the selected colleges represented the population, not a sample, of the two year public colleges in Washington State, because that population was limited to twenty-two colleges, and because the range of the institutional variables was discreet and narrow, correlation statistics were not employed in analysis. Matrices, graphs, and careful observation of numerical data were utilized to examine the data.

## Longitudinal Content Analysis

### Selection of Population

Academic variables The work of Williams and Zirkel (1988) was used as the basis for the longitudinal content analysis portion of this study. Their specific research question centered on determining if there were meaningful differences between faculty collective bargaining agreements at institutions of higher education in 1975 and 1985 with respect to eighteen academic items. These items included employment decision variables (appointment, promotion, tenure, termination for cause, retrenchment); teaching load variables (class size, number of preparations, schedule of courses, course load, teaching overload and summer school courses); non-teaching responsibility variables (advising, office hours, registration duties, outside remunerated employment); and academic function variables (curriculum, grade alteration, textbook selection, academic freedom).

Additional academic variables that appeared in the Washington contracts were identified and analyzed for their appearance in the contracts from 1985 and 1995. The variables that were added to the Williams and Zirkel list were "faculty

remediation of faculty performance," "selection of part-time faculty," and "post-tenure evaluation" in the employment decisions category; "lecture/lab/credit equivalence" in the teaching load category; and "academic calendar" in the academic decisions category. Two items from the Williams and Zirkel list were not found within the Washington contracts; "registration duties" and "outside remunerated employment" were, therefore, not included in this analysis. Because community college instructors do not have academic rank in Washington, "promotion" was not analyzed.

The ordinally-scaled levels for each of the academic variables developed by Williams and Zirkel (1988) and based on the research of Goodwin and Andes (1972) and Andes (1982)) were employed in this study. To them were added scaled levels for remediation, selection of part-time faculty, post-tenure evaluation, academic calendar, and lecture/lab/credit ratios. General definitions of the scaled levels for the academic variables are presented in Table 1. Table 2 lists the twenty academic variables that were examined. Detailed definitions for the scaled levels for each of the twenty variables are included as Appendix 1 (p. 126).

Subject colleges Selected public community colleges and technical colleges in the State of Washington were used as the population for this study for several reasons. The population provided both consistency on crucial features such as enabling legislation, governing board structure, recent legislative actions and funding formulae and variety through such characteristics as local collective bargaining, various bargaining agents, and diversity in location and size. Institutional characteristics of the Washington State Community and Technical Colleges are presented in Appendix 2 (p. 131).



Table 1. General definitions for scaled levels for academic variables

VARIABLE	SCALE LEVEL	GENERAL DEFINITION OF LEVEL OF FACULTY INFLUENCE
1-20	0	No mention in the contract
	1	Brief mention, but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consults with faculty (committee or review panel), but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty influence -- e.g., multiple reviews, hearing, appeal process, grievance procedure -- if faculty recommendation is not followed
	4	Faculty control

Table 2. Categories of academic variables

CATEGORY	VARIABLE NAME
EMPLOYMENT DECISIONS	Appointment
	Tenure
	Termination for Cause
	Retrenchment (Lay-off)
	Remediation for faculty performance
	Selection of Part-Time Faculty
	Post-Tenure Evaluation
TEACHING LOAD	Class Size
	Schedule of Courses
	Number of Preparations
	Course Load
	Overload and Summer School
	Lecture/Lab/Credit Equivalence
NON-TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES	Advising
	Office Hours
ACADEMIC FUNCTIONS	Curriculum
	Grade Alteration
	Text Selection
	Academic Freedom
	Academic Calendar

Washington is one of four states where there exist separate statutes governing collective bargaining by faculty in community colleges; thus it offers faculty the maximum protection of its right to bargain (Douglas, 1990). Faculty are defined in the statutes to include all "academic employees," a broad-based definition including counselors, librarians, and department chairs. Administrators are specifically excluded from the definition. Local Boards of Trustees, appointed by the Governor, are defined in the statute as the "employer" (Washington State Senate Bill 5225, 1987).

The twenty-two colleges whose contracts were analyzed in this study were selected from the twenty-four community college districts and five technical colleges in Washington State. Among the twenty-four community college districts, three were not included in the analysis for a variety of reasons. The faculty at one college does not bargain collectively, and thus has no contract; one college that had a contract in 1995 did not collectively bargain in 1985; one college could not provide a complete contract for 1985. In sum, the 1985 and 1995 collective bargaining agreements of twenty-one community college districts were analyzed.

There are five technical colleges in Washington. Until 1992, these colleges were governed under local school districts. Legislation adopted in 1991 directed the technical colleges to merge into the community college system in 1992 under the organization of the State Board for Community and Technical Education. Only one of these colleges had an independently negotiated contract in 1985. For this reason, only this college was included in the analysis.

### Data Collection Methods

Data were collected through the human resources director at each college. As a past Vice President of the Community Colleges of Spokane, the researcher had close professional ties with these directors at all of the colleges. This assisted the process of data collection for the quantitative portions of the study and assured cooperation with qualitative aspects. Each director was asked to provide copies of collective bargaining contracts in effect during the years 1985 and 1995. In addition, each director was asked a series of questions about demographic characteristics of the college and about the recent history of collective bargaining.

The contracts that were in force in 1985 and 1995 for each college were examined. In each of the forty-four contracts, language relating to the twenty academic variables was located and analyzed using the ordinally-scaled levels from "0" to "4" for each variable defined in Tables 1 and 2 (p. 51). A rating of "0" indicated that the item was not found in the contract. A rating of "1" indicated administrative control or influence over the item, whereas a rating of "4" indicated a high level of faculty control or influence. Scores of "2" and "3" were intermediate on the scale from administrative to faculty control. The scored data were encoded in a computerized data base.

### Data Analysis

Academic variables Not all contracts addressed all variables. If a contract did not have language relating to a variable, the variable was scored with a "0" for that college. Variables for which there was language were scored "1," "2," "3," or

"4." The decision was made to include "0" data in the calculation of sums and means, because lack of language normally implies management right; non-inclusion of these scores might skew the data away from management influence to imply greater faculty influence. Mean scores for each of the academic variables in 1985 and 1995 were calculated from the data from all of the colleges. The frequency with which each of the twenty academic variables appeared in the twenty-two contracts was tabulated for both 1985 and 1995. The frequency of language found to be at each scaled level for each academic variable was also tabulated.

Subject colleges The number of academic variables appearing in the contracts for each college was counted for both 1985 and 1995. Total scores for each college were calculated by summing the scores from the twenty variables. Mean scores over all of the twenty academic variables for each college for 1985 and 1995 were also calculated. The colleges that had experienced notable change over the decade in total score, mean score, and number of variables addressed were determined. A variety of graphing techniques were utilized to detect patterns of change. Among these were frequency distributions, comparisons between total scores and means from the two years, and comparisons of change toward faculty influence and away from faculty influence.

## Interviewing -- Seeking Meaning

### Selection of Interview Subjects

Longitudinal content analysis revealed that several academic variables showed notable change over the decade. Several colleges also exhibited notable change over the decade. Additionally, the analysis revealed five distinct patterns of change among the twenty-two colleges analyzed.

To promote the formulation of hypotheses on why certain variables and certain colleges showed notable change over the decade, interviews were conducted with two individuals who possessed state-wide perspectives spanning the subject decade. A professional employee at the State Board for Community and Technical Colleges and a professional negotiator for colleges agreed to be interviewed regarding both academic variables and individual colleges. These individuals were carefully selected because of their comprehensive knowledge of the colleges, collective bargaining processes, and legislative changes and longevity in their positions; no other subjects with similar breadth of perspective were identified.

The selection of these individuals was supported by four of the five conditions Taylor and Bogdan (1984) cited as making in-depth interviewing a technique well-suited to eliciting meaning (discussed in Literature Review, p. 42-43): the research questions were clear and well-defined; because of the historical nature of conditions leading to measurable data, settings and people were not accessible to the researcher; the knowledge base of the two subjects selected for in-depth interviews provided the depth and breadth that numerous interviews with individuals with more specific perspectives could not provide; interviews provided

rich sources of "intimate information" that "illuminated subjective human experience". The fifth condition identified by Taylor and Bodgan (researcher's time constraints) was not relevant in making the methodological decision.

### Data Collection Methods

Interviews were conducted by telephone with the two identified individuals. Because there were pre-existing relationships between the researcher and the two subjects that were long-term, trusting, and professional, the researcher was confident that probing questions could be asked that would result in candid responses. Prior to the interview, each subject was provided with summary information and questions for review. This information is presented in Appendix 3 (p. 132). Each interview was extensive, lasting approximately two hours.

The intention of the interviews was to probe more deeply into the reasons for the changes of faculty influence over some academic items and at some colleges while others remained relatively stable over the decade. This was approached from both state-wide and individual institution perspectives.

Legislative, economic, and political factors were probed relative to the academic items. Furthermore, it was hoped that interviews would reveal whether relationships between the administration and the faculty at the colleges could be related to measured changes. This issue was approached through questions related to institutional history, bargaining history, administrative style and personality of administrators, administrative change, and relationships among faculties, boards of trustees, and administrations.

## Data Analysis

Academic variables The interviews offered insight into legislative, economic, and political activities in the state that might have affected any change in faculty influence over academic variables state-wide. The explanations offered by the two interview subjects were transcribed from detailed notes recorded during the interviews, with the comments of both subjects relating to each variable presented together.

Colleges Patterns of change over the decade in each of the twenty-two colleges were presented to the interview subjects. The interviewees were asked why they thought each college fell into the pattern demonstrated.

Although detailed explanations and speculation relating to conditions at individual colleges were shared with the researcher, guarantees of confidentiality required reduction of the qualitative data into more general terms for presentation. The interviewees' perceptions of what internal college factors influenced the measured change allowed hypotheses to be drawn on the impact of the relationships between the faculty and the college administration on change in collective bargaining language.

### Relationship of Content Change to Institutional Characteristics

When Julius and Chandler (1989) formulated objectives for their research on the impact of collective bargaining on contract language related to management rights, they sought predictors of the directions into which contract language might develop. Because the Washington State two-year public community and technical

colleges have such diversity of characteristics, this study sought to relate institutional characteristics with identified trends in academic variable language in collective bargaining agreements. If real differences exist, for instance, between rural and urban colleges on the level of faculty influence or control over academic items, location might predict language.

### Institutional Characteristics

Five institutional characteristics were identified for study: bargaining agent representing the faculty, institutional size (full year student equivalents), urban or rural location, the use or non-use of a professional negotiator by the administration, and the leadership of the administrative negotiating team. These items were chosen on the basis of personal observation, reports from human resources professionals of factors that appear to affect the negotiations process, or prominent mention in the literature.

Institutional size and location are clear demographic characteristics. On the other hand, the agent that represents the faculty and the administrative decisions related to the choice of bargaining team leadership and whether to use professional negotiators represent historical, social, and political factors at play in each college's unique context.

### Data Collection Methods

Demographic data were collected through personal telephone interviews with the human resources director at each of the subject colleges. Specific data



describing the five characteristics were recorded on data-base input forms. Additional information was gleaned from open-ended questions posed during brief discussions of the colleges' histories of collective bargaining.

### Data Analysis

Data gathered from content analysis using ordinally-scaled coding of twenty academic variables in the contracts of 1985 and 1995 produced measures of change in faculty influence. These measures were regarded as the dependent variables that might be related to the five independent institutional and demographic variables. Because the selected colleges represented the population, not a sample, of the two year public colleges in Washington State, because that population was limited to twenty-two colleges, and because the range of the institutional variables was discreet and narrow, correlation statistics were not employed in analysis. Matrices, graphs, and careful observation of numerical data were utilized to examine the data.

## FINDINGS

### Longitudinal Content Analysis

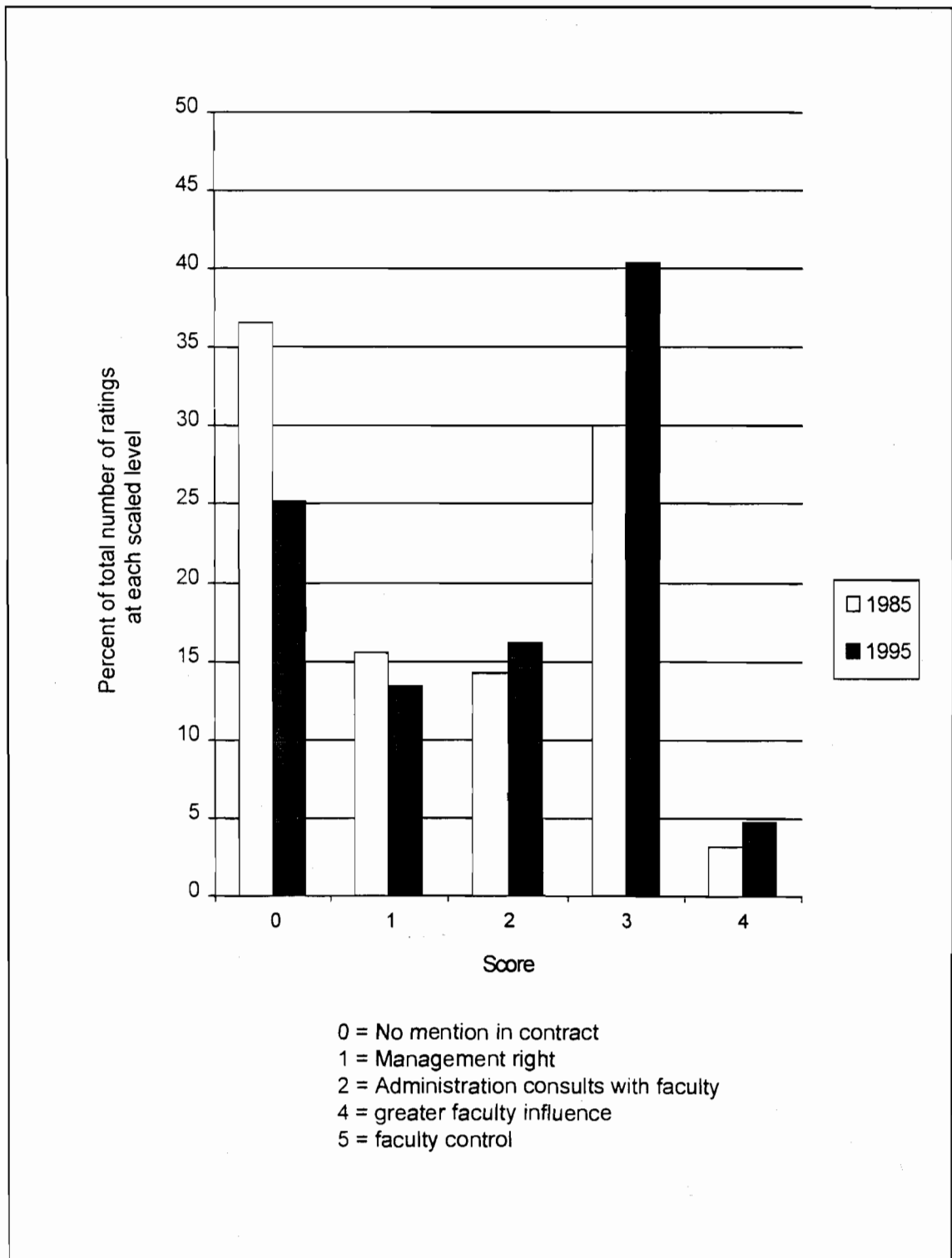
Analysis of the scaled data for the twenty academic variables from the collective bargaining contracts of twenty-two community and technical colleges for 1985 and 1995 yielded some note-worthy findings. Overall, control over academic items shifted somewhat from administration to faculty during the decade.

This shift is graphically represented in Figure 1. In 1985, 66.3% of all scores (twenty variables at twenty-two colleges) were rated at or below a "2," indicating either full administrative control or limited faculty participation at an advisory level. Nearly 37% of all scores were "0," indicating no mention in the contracts. By 1995, 54.7% of the scores were rated at or below a "2" and the portion of scores at "0" had declined to 25%. In 1985, 33.6% of all scores were "3" or "4," indicating strong statements of faculty rights; by 1995, 45.3% of all scores were at these levels.

#### Academic Variables

Following the basis laid by Williams and Zirkel (1988), the variables in this study were grouped into four categories: employment decision variables, teaching load variables, non-teaching responsibility variables, and academic function variables (see p. 38-40 of this study for definitions). For each variable, the mean of the scores (four-point scale of faculty influence where 0=no mention in the contract, 1 = administrative control over the variable, 4 = faculty control over the

Figure 1. Comparison of frequencies of contract language at each scaled level of 1985 and 1995. Twenty variables were rated on a scale of 0 - 4 from the faculty collective bargaining contacts of twenty-two community and technical colleges in Washington State



variable, and 2 and 3 = intermediate position between administrative and faculty control) from the twenty-two colleges were calculated for 1985 and 1995.

Change in the levels of faculty influence over variables was measured in several ways. The number of colleges where contracts had language relating to a variable in 1985 compared to 1995 yielded information on the universality of a variable within the population of twenty-two colleges. For all variables, save one, more colleges had related language in 1995 than in 1985. Only in the variable "class size" did the number of colleges with related language remain the same. Eleven contracts included class size language in both years.

Mean scores for the variables for 1985 and 1995 were calculated from the scores for that variable from each college from 1985 and 1995 data. Change in the mean scores from 1985 to 1995 of more than .35 points on the four-point scale was noted in nine of the twenty variables. These nine variables were tenure, termination, retrenchment, remediation, post-tenure evaluation, selection of part-time faculty, grade alteration, textbook selection, and academic freedom. All but one of the twenty variables showed increase in the mean scores from 1985 to 1995; course load language showed a slight shift away from faculty influence with the mean over all colleges declining from 2.18 to 2.14 out of a possible 4.0. Table 3 presents the summary of data for academic variables.

Examination of the mean scores for each variable over time revealed that, though most of the change was found to favor faculty influence, this effect was mixed. For thirteen variables, as many as five colleges showed decreases in scores, indicating a loss of faculty influence. The seven variables where there were not decreases in faculty influence at any of the colleges were tenure,

Table 3. Summary of data on change in faculty influence over academic variables

VARIABLE	# COLLEGES		# COLLEGES WITH CHANGE		MEAN SCORE (Scale of 0-4)		
	1985	1995	Toward faculty control	Away from faculty control	1985	1995	Change
EMPLOYMENT DECISIONS							
APPOINTMENT	14	15	6	2	1.36	1.64	0.28
TENURE	20	22	6	0	2.54	3.00	0.46
TERMINATION	20	22	4	0	2.59	2.95	0.36
RETRENCHMENT	21	22	5	0	2.64	3.00	0.36
REMEDICATION	6	17	14	0	0.54	1.95	1.41
POST-TENURE EVAL	16	22	11	0	1.50	2.54	1.04
SELECTION P-T FAC	8	10	7	2	0.68	1.14	0.46
TEACHING LOAD							
CLASS SIZE	11	11	4	2	0.68	0.91	0.23
COURSE LOAD	21	22	1	3	2.18	2.14	-0.04
# PREPARATIONS	4	6	2	0	0.27	0.50	0.23
SCHED COURSES	15	16	4	2	1.77	1.95	0.18
OL / SUMMER SCH	18	19	6	4	1.54	1.64	0.10
LECT/LAB/CR EQUIV	8	21	3	3	2.04	2.27	0.23
NON-TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES							
ADVISING	14	17	5	2	.14	1.36	1.22
OFFICE HOURS	18	20	4	1	1.86	2.14	0.28
ACADEMIC FUNCTIONS							
CURRICULUM	14	17	5	3	1.64	1.95	.31
GRADE ALTERATION	0	4	4	0	0.00	0.45	0.45
TEXT SELECTION	8	10	3	0	1.32	1.73	0.41
ACADEMIC FREEDOM	19	20	5	1	1.77	2.14	0.37
ACADEMIC CALENDAR	14	17	7	5	1.50	1.82	0.32

- SCALE:
- 0 = No mention in contract
  - 1 = Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
  - 2 = Administration consults with faculty (committee or review panel) but decision made by administration
  - 3 = Increased faculty control -- e.g., multiple reviews, hearing, appeal process, grievance process -- if faculty recommendation is not followed
  - 4 = Faculty control over variable

termination, retrenchment, remediation, post-tenure evaluation, number of preparations, grade alteration, and textbook selection.

Employment decisions variables In this research, six of the seven items in the employment clauses category changed by more than .35 points on the four-point scale. These variables were remediation of faculty performance, post-tenure evaluation, tenure, retrenchment, termination for cause, and selection of part-time instructors. Despite the fact that this group of variables had several with high mean scores in 1985, a high degree of increase in faculty influence occurred during the decade. This group of variables dominated the change during the decade.

Remediation of faculty performance was the variable with the greatest number (fourteen) of colleges showing change toward faculty influence. The mean score for this variable increased from 0.54, with six citations in 1985, to 1.95 with seventeen citations in 1995. Post-tenure evaluation appeared in sixteen contracts in 1985 and in twenty-two in 1995; its mean score rose from 1.50 to 2.54 as faculty influence increased at eleven colleges.

The three variables for which there is nearly unanimous appearance at a "3" level in all college contracts in 1995 share some interesting features. Tenure, termination for cause, and retrenchment are all governed by statute in Washington. Many of the colleges use identical language on these variables -- drawn directly from statute.

Tenure and retrenchment were found in every contract by 1995. All twenty-two colleges had scores of "3" for these items. Tenure had risen from appearance in twenty contracts in 1985 to twenty-two in 1995, while showing positive

change at six colleges. Its mean score rose from 2.54 to 3.0. Retrenchment appeared in twenty contracts in 1985 while moving into all twenty-two by 1995. Its scores increased to favor faculty influence at five colleges; its mean score rose from 2.64 to 3.0.

Termination for cause is another variable which, by 1995, had nearly unanimous scores at all twenty-two colleges. The frequency with which this variable appeared rose from twenty to twenty-two colleges; the score increased at four colleges. The mean score rose from 2.59 to 2.95, with only one college having a score below a "3."

Of the employment-related variables that showed notable change over the decade, only selection of part-time faculty appeared in a minority of colleges. In 1985, it appeared in eight college contracts with a mean score of 0.68; by 1995, it was in ten college contracts with a mean of 1.14. This variable showed an increase in level of faculty influence at seven colleges, but decreased at two. The level of faculty influence for the variable "appointment" increased at several colleges, while declining at one; the mean score increased from 1.36 to 1.64.

Teaching load variables Teaching load variables changed little over the decade. In fact, the scores of each of these items (class size, course load, number of preparations, schedule of courses, overload and summer school assignments, and lecture/lab/credit equivalencies) increased by 0.25 points or less on the four-point scale.

Overall change toward faculty influence in the mean scores is very low for these variables, in part because changes away from faculty influence in the same variables were recorded for the decade at several colleges. Each of the six

variables in this category increased in score at only six or fewer colleges. Of a total of one hundred thirty-two possible changes (six variables at twenty-two colleges), only twenty changes toward faculty influence occurred while fourteen negative changes were noted for the category as a group. When the employment variable category, on the other hand, is examined in this manner, of one hundred fifty-four possible shifts (seven variables from twenty-two colleges), sixty-seven changes toward faculty influence were noted while a total of only six changes away from faculty influence was noted.

Non-teaching responsibility variables Two items were included in this category. Advising of students and office hours showed little change over the decade in either number of colleges or level of faculty influence. In the latter item, higher scores implied that, though office hours were required, scheduling was at the discretion of faculty members without requiring approval of supervisors.

Academic functions variables Academic freedom, grade alteration, and text selection were the other variables whose mean scores changed by more than 0.35 points on the four-point scale over the decade. Academic freedom appeared in nineteen contracts with a mean score of 1.77 in 1985. In 1995, it was in twenty contracts with a mean score of 2.14. Faculty influence in academic freedom rose at five colleges and dropped at one. In statements that grant greater guarantees of academic freedom for faculty, rights extended to all aspects of the teaching endeavor and included activities outside of the college. More conservative language included parallel statements of responsibility in the presentation of classroom materials and other activities.



Grade alteration was not noted in any of the 1985 contracts; it appeared in four of the 1995 contracts. At three of these colleges, the level of faculty influence was measured at "3" on the four-point scale. Text selection appeared in eight contracts in 1985 and in ten in 1995. The language for this variable at the two colleges that added it indicated full faculty control, or a "4" on the four-point scale.

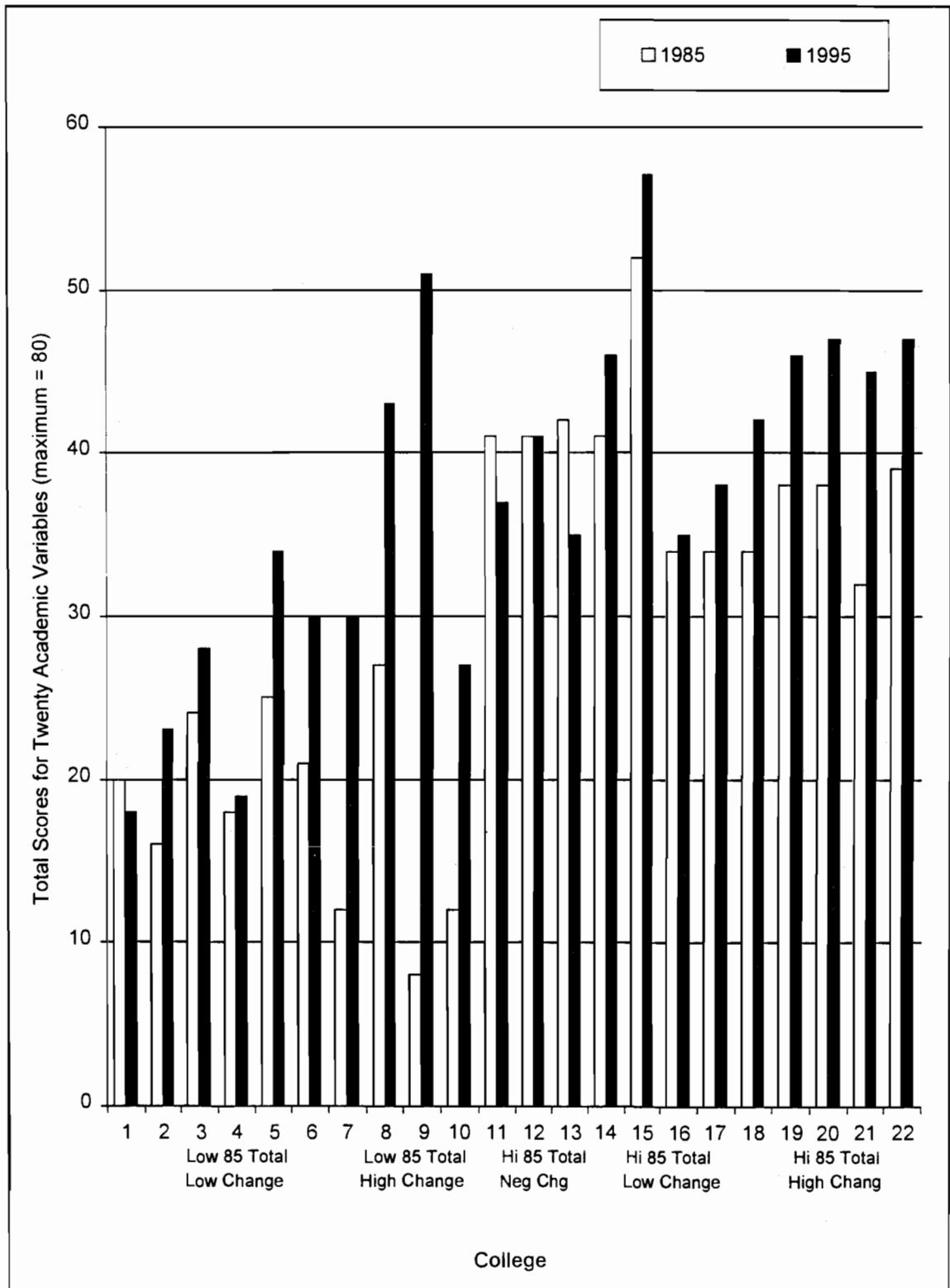
Other items in this category included participation in the development of the curriculum and the academic calendar. Curriculum processes and development of the academic calendar each appeared in seventeen contracts in 1995, rising from appearance in fourteen contracts each in 1985.

### Colleges

Total scores, calculated as the sum of the individual scaled levels from each variable, from 1985 and 1995 were compared for each college to determine at which colleges the greatest change in contract language had occurred. A score of "80" was the maximum possible if a contract had language giving the faculty full control over all twenty issues. A total of seventeen colleges had increases in their total scores. Two colleges, however, maintained a constant score across the decade for the academic variables and three colleges actually registered lower total scores in 1995 than in 1985. Figure 2 illustrates the change in total scores from 1985 to 1995 for each college.

Observation of the data led to clustering colleges into two groups in both 1985 and 1995. In 1985, ten colleges had total scores of 27 or lower. By 1995, only five colleges had total scores at or below 27. These colleges were considered to

Figure 2. Comparison of the sums of scores of twenty academic variables from 1985 and 1995 from the faculty contracts of twenty-two community and technical colleges in Washington State



have "low" total scores relative to the other colleges. At scores of 32 or higher, there were twelve colleges in 1985 and seventeen colleges in 1995. These colleges were considered to have "high" total scores relative to the other colleges. Figure 3 presents an illustration of the shifts in total scores during the decade.

Mean scores were also calculated for each college by averaging the scores for each of the twenty academic variables. Means fell along the four-point scale from "0" to "4," where higher scores indicated a greater level of faculty influence over the variables.

Data from the colleges were graphed in an array where the 1985 mean score was the vertical axis and the change in mean score was the horizontal axis. This technique led to the development of a model of five patterns of change evident in the colleges. This graph is presented in Figure 4.

In 1985, colleges could be categorized as having low total scores (below 27 of a possible 80) and low mean scores (below 1.35 of a possible 4.0) or high total scores (more than 32 of a possible 80) and high mean scores (greater than 1.5 of a possible 4.0). The totals represented both the number of variables for which there was negotiated language and the level of faculty influence expressed by the language. By 1995, this pattern crumbled. About half of the colleges with low scores in 1985 continued to have low scores; the other half experienced substantial change.

Likewise, of the twelve colleges with relatively high scores in 1985, four experienced little change from 1985 to 1995 while five changed substantially toward greater faculty influence. Three colleges with high scores in 1985 revealed declines in faculty influence in several variables during the decade. The reason for

Figure 3. Shifts in total scores of twenty academic variables from 1985 to 1995. Higher scores indicate language more favorable to faculty influence

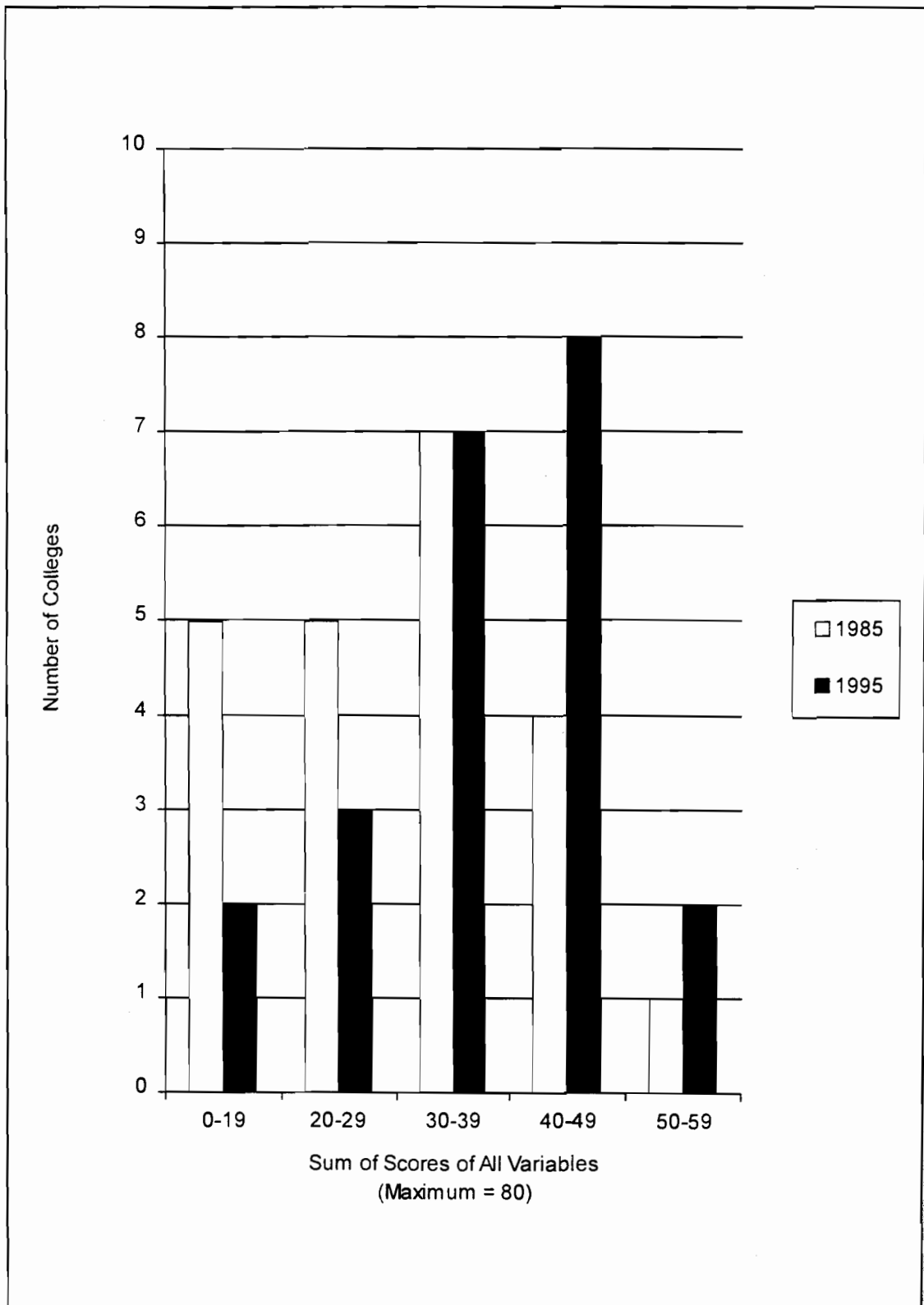
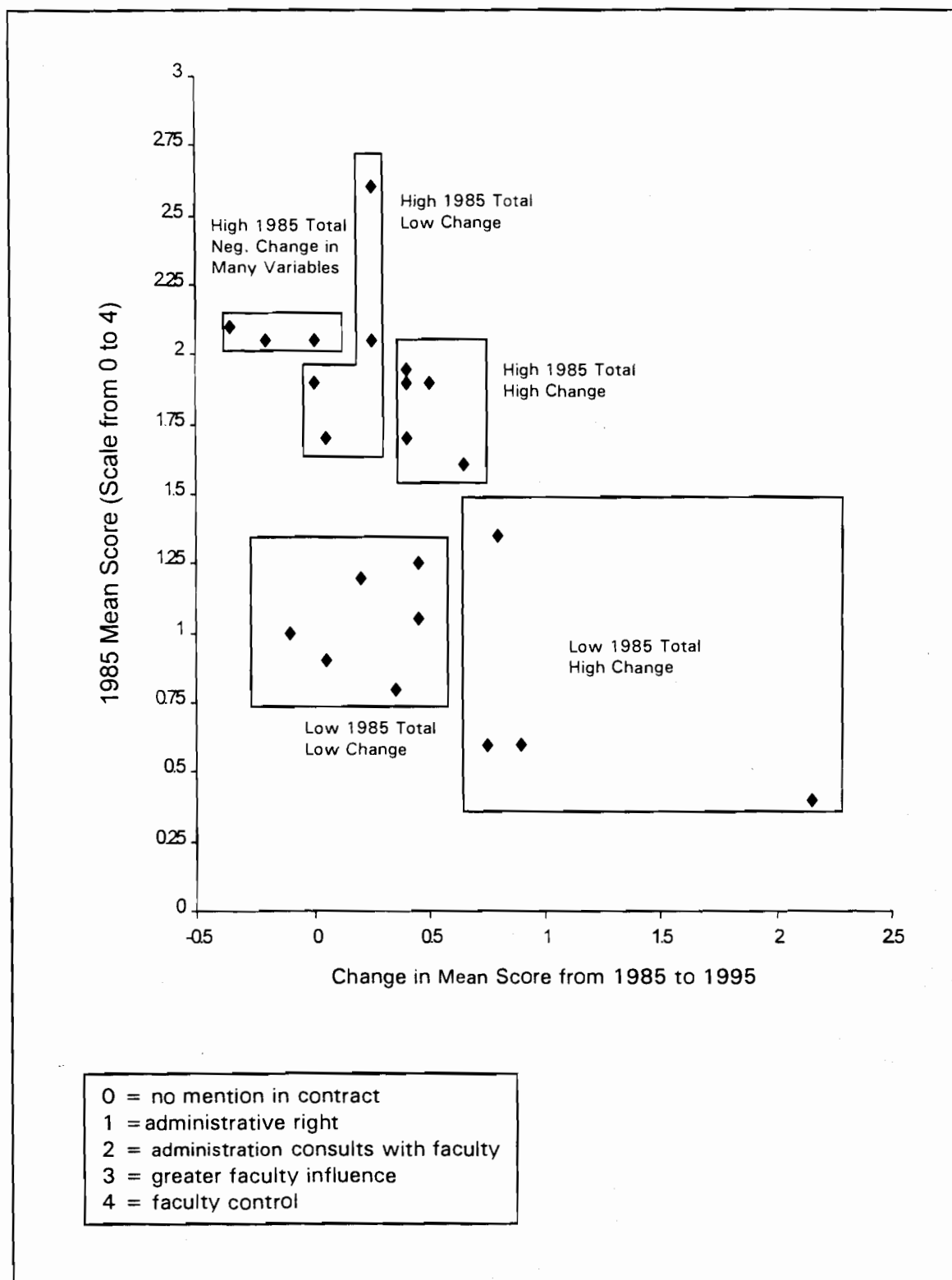


Figure 4. Array of colleges by 1985 mean scores of twenty academic variables and by changes in mean score from 1985 to 1995. Colleges are grouped by patterns of change.



the emergence of these patterns became a focus for later interviews. The data in Table 4 is organized into these five categories. It presents the summary data for college change over the decade. One notable finding was the tremendous range in the total scores for the twenty variables among the colleges.

Low 1985 total score, low change toward faculty influence Six colleges (Colleges 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) had low total scores (less than 27 of a possible 80) and few academic variables appearing in contracts in 1985 and experienced low change in these measures by 1995. The range in total score for these colleges in 1985 was from 16 to 25 out of a total possible score of 80. By 1995, scores ranged from 18 to 34. Language pertaining to between one and fourteen variables appeared in the 1985 versions of contracts in this group; in 1995, there was language relating to between eight and seventeen variables. Between one and eight variables increased in score to favor faculty influence. In each contract, zero, one, or two variables per contract decreased in score.

In this group, increases in faculty influence were found only in those variables where similar changes occurred at most of the other colleges; no changes occurred at these colleges that were not nearly universal to the population. Faculty influence over tenure language increased in score at three of the six colleges; remediation and retrenchment each increased at two of the colleges; academic freedom, termination for cause, and post-tenure evaluation increased at one college each.

Low 1985 total score, high change toward faculty influence The second group includes colleges (Colleges 7, 8, 9, 10) that had low total scores in 1985 but

Table 4. Summary of data on change in faculty influence at individual colleges

## A. Changes in total score

Group 1: Low 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	Total Score (Max = 80)		
	1985	1995	Change
1	20	18	-2
2	16	23	7
3	24	28	4
4	18	19	1
5	25	34	9
6	21	30	9

Group 4: High 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	Total Score (Max = 80)		
	1985	1995	Change
14	41	46	5
15	52	57	5
16	34	35	1
17	38	38	0

Group 2: Low 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	Total Score (Max = 80)		
	1985	1995	Change
7	12	30	18
8	27	43	16
9	8	51	43
10	12	27	15

Group 5: High 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	Total Score (Max = 80)		
	1985	1995	Change
18	34	42	8
19	38	46	8
20	38	48	10
21	32	45	13
22	39	47	8

Group 3: High 1985 Total Score,  
Negative Change in Many  
Variables

College	Total Score (Max = 80)		
	1985	1995	Change
11	41	37	-4
12	41	41	0
13	42	35	-7

Table 4. Summary of data on change in faculty influence at individual colleges  
(continued)  
B. Changes in the number of variables addressed in contract language

Group 1: Low 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	# Variables (Max = 20)		
	1985	1995	Change
1	10	8	-2
2	8	10	2
3	12	13	1
4	10	10	0
5	14	17	3
6	12	14	2

Group 4: High 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	# Variables (Max = 20)		
	1985	1995	Change
14	17	18	1
15	18	18	0
16	12	13	1
17	15	15	0

Group 2: Low 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	# Variables (Max = 20)		
	1985	1995	Change
7	6	13	7
8	13	18	5
9	4	19	15
10	6	11	5

Group 5: High 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	# Variables (Max = 20)		
	1985	1995	Change
18	16	17	1
19	15	18	3
20	14	17	3
21	14	17	3
22	17	17	0

Group 3: High 1985 Total Score,  
Negative Change in Many  
Variables

College	# Variables (Max = 20)		
	1985	1995	Change
11	15	13	-2
12	16	18	2
13	15	15	0



Table 4. Summary of data on change in faculty influence at individual colleges  
(continued)

C. Number of variables with change toward and away from faculty influence

Group 1: Low 1985 Total Score  
Low Level of Change

College	Number of Variables	
	Change Toward	Change Away
1	1	2
2	4	1
3	3	0
4	1	0
5	8	1
6	3	0

Group 4: High 1985 Total Score  
Low Level of Change

College	Number of Variables	
	Change Toward	Change Away
14	2	1
15	3	1
16	2	1
17	0	0

Group 2: Low 1985 Total Score  
High Level of Change

College	Number of Variables	
	Change Toward	Change Away
7	7	0
8	7	0
9	18	1
10	8	1

Group 5: High 1985 Total Score  
High Level of Change

College	Number of Variables	
	Change Toward	Change Away
18	7	1
19	5	1
20	3	0
21	7	1
22	7	7

Group 3: High 1985 Total Score  
Negative Change in Many Variables

College	Number of Variables	
	Change Toward	Change Away
11	1	4
12	4	7
13	3	7

Table 4. Summary of data on change in faculty influence at individual colleges (continued)

D. Change in the mean score where 0 = no mention in the contract, 1 = administrative control over variables, 2 = consultation by administration with faculty with control of item specifically in administration, 3 = greater level of faculty influence when faculty recommendations must be considered by administration, and 4 = full faculty control

Group 1: Low 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	Mean Score (Scale = 0 to 4)		
	1985	1995	Change
1	1.00	0.90	-0.10
2	0.80	1.15	0.35
3	1.20	1.40	0.20
4	0.90	0.95	0.05
5	1.25	1.70	0.45
6	1.05	1.50	0.45

Group 4: High 1985 Total Score,  
Low Level of Change

College	Mean Score (Scale = 0 to 4)		
	1985	1995	Change
14	2.05	2.30	0.25
15	2.60	2.85	0.25
16	1.70	1.75	0.05
17	1.90	1.90	0.00

Group 2: Low 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	Mean Score (Scale = 0 to 4)		
	1985	1995	Change
7	0.60	1.50	0.90
8	1.35	2.15	0.80
9	0.40	2.55	2.15
10	0.60	1.35	0.75

Group 5: High 1985 Total Score,  
High Level of Change

College	Mean Score (Scale = 0 to 4)		
	1985	1995	Change
18	1.70	2.10	0.40
19	1.90	2.30	0.40
20	1.90	2.40	0.50
21	1.60	2.25	0.65
22	1.95	2.35	0.40

Group 3: High 1985 Total Score,  
Negative Change in Many  
Variables

College	Mean Score (Scale = 0 to 4)		
	1985	1995	Change
11	2.05	1.85	-0.20
12	2.05	2.05	0.00
13	2.10	1.75	-0.35

changed substantially over the decade. Though the total score in 1985 ranged from 8 to 27 -- nearly the same as that of the first group -- the range of total scores rose to between 30 and 51 -- nearly doubling. The contracts had between four and fourteen academic items appearing in 1985; in 1995, there was a range from eleven to fourteen items. Between seven and eighteen variables increased in score from 1985 to 1995, while none or only one variable per college decreased.

In this group of four colleges, nineteen of the twenty factors showed an increase in level of faculty control in at least one college. This change pattern is expected when the contracts showed such a high level of change toward faculty influence. Change was not concentrated in the nine academic variables that experienced notable change (more than 0.35 points on a 4-point scale) toward faculty influence.

High 1985 total score, change away from faculty influence in several variables

This group is a curious one in that these colleges were the only ones that showed an overall decrease in faculty influence over academic variables. It is a common perception that once an administration gives away something in the collective bargaining process, the "something" can never be gotten back. It is interesting to note that in this group of colleges the administration apparently was able to get faculty to negotiate away previously held influence.

This group contains three colleges (Colleges 11, 12, 13) that had high total scores in 1985 but showed change away from faculty influence in several of academic variables. These colleges showed a decrease in faculty influence in four or seven variables each, while increases were noted in one, three or four variables in the three colleges' contracts. The total scores for these colleges ranged from

41 to 42 in 1985; that range dropped to between 35 and 41 in 1995. A range of fifteen or sixteen variables appeared in 1985 contracts; that range changed to between thirteen and eighteen variables in 1995. In this group, seven variables increased. There was no similarity in these changes occurring at the three colleges.

High 1985 total score, low change toward faculty influence Colleges with high 1985 total scores and low change from 1985 to 1995 comprise the fourth group (Colleges 14, 15, 16, 17). These four colleges had total scores ranging from 38 to 52 in 1985. By 1995, this range changed only slightly to 35 to 57. The range in the number of variables found in the contracts of each college remained unchanged. Between zero and three variables changed to favor faculty influence while zero or one variable decreased in score per contract.

At the four colleges with high 1985 totals and low change over the decade, only remediation and advising were found to have increased in two colleges each. Grade alteration, class size and retrenchment each increased in score at one college.

High 1985 total score, high change toward faculty influence Five colleges (Colleges 18, 19, 20, 21, 22) had relatively high total scores in 1985 and yet showed considerable change from 1985 to 1995. The average total score increased from a range of 32 to 38 to a range of 42 to 48 out of a possible total score of 80. Colleges in this group had language relating to between fourteen and seventeen variables in 1985; by 1995, the college contracts addressed between seventeen and eighteen variables each. Change favoring faculty occurred in

between three and seven variables per contract; change toward administrative control occurred in zero or only one variable per contract.

In a pattern similar to the colleges with low total score in 1985 and high change over the decade, this group of colleges included change toward faculty influence in many variables. Fourteen variables increased in at least one college. Remediation and post-tenure evaluation increased at all five colleges. Selection of part-time faculty and academic calendar increased at three colleges, while overload/summer school assignments and class size increased at two. Appointment, textbook selection, curriculum, office hours, schedule of classes, academic freedom, grade alteration, and termination for cause increased at one college each.

#### Interviews -- Seeking Meaning

Extensive interviews, conducted with two individuals who had state-wide perspectives that spanned the subject decade, revealed that there were strong underlying reasons for the changes in faculty influence noted for several academic variables. The interviewees provided general overviews of conditions that may have stimulated change in academic variables and provided a great deal of anecdotal data relating to political, social, and historic conditions at individual colleges that may have influenced change in collective bargaining agreements throughout the decade.

Further, they speculated on why the contract language of some variables and colleges showed increases in faculty influence while other did not. Interviewees also responded to questions regarding probable future subjects of bargaining in the

state and the strengths and approaches of the two prominent bargaining agents -- NEA and AFT.

The presentation of data on variables and colleges merges the opinions of the two interview subjects. Furthermore, comments have been generalized to assure the confidentiality of the interview subjects and of the individual colleges.

#### State-wide Perspectives on Variable Change

Interview subjects stated that there were several reasons for changes noted in the language of academic variables over the decade from 1985 to 1995. Within the employment decision variable category, tenure, post-tenure evaluation, and retrenchment are governed by statute in Washington State (RCW 28B.50.850 through 28B.50.669, RCW 28B.50.872, RCW 28B.50.873, respectively). Much of the contract language change in these variables reflected adjustment to legislative change. Remediation of faculty performance was tied to post-tenure evaluation and began to emerge as a bargained item when the evaluation statute was enacted.

In the teaching load variable category, the interview subjects regarded several variables as having the potential for tremendous impact on institutional finances if language changed toward greater faculty influence. Some issues, such as selection of part-time faculty and office hours, were regarded by the interview subjects as being related to the state-wide concern about part-time faculty issues. Table 5 displays the information gathered from the interview subjects that relates to academic variables.

Table 5. Perspectives on reasons for changes in language of academic variables in the faculty contracts of 22 Washington State community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995

A. Employment decisions variables

VARIABLE	COMMENTS
TENURE	<p>It is becoming a big issue again. Current statutes (RCW 28B.50.850 through 28B.50.869) call for nine consecutive quarters of review, regardless of when faculty are hired. Tenure review is taken very seriously. The statutes allow colleges to extend the probationary period if remediation plans are developed.</p> <p>When the system was established in 1967, a vast majority of the new faculty were brought in with their tenure grand-fathered from school districts. Now after thirty years, most of these faculty are retired. Some colleges have 20-30 faculty in probationary status, needing to go through tenure approval processes.</p> <p>The colleges are having a hard time making the processes work (committees must have a majority of tenured faculty) It is also taking too much administrative time because the legislation spells out processes that are procedure-heavy.</p>
EVALUATION (post-tenure)	<p>The legislative discussion of tenure precipitated the post-tenure review legislation. It is a different statute (RCW 28B.50.872) and was passed somewhat later.</p> <p>Evaluation is required to be done in accordance with the standards of the Northwest Association which accredits all of Washington's community and technical colleges. The Association handbook provides only general guidance.</p> <p>In urging this legislation, colleges used the lever that post-tenure evaluation was a requirement by the NW Association on at least a 3 year basis. Colleges must work out or negotiate procedures with the faculty. There is a wide variety of approaches.</p>
REMEDICATION OF FACULTY PERFORMANCE	<p>Remediation of faculty performance seems to be a natural outgrowth of tenure review statutes (RCW 28B.50.850 through RCW 28B.50.869) and the new requirement for post-tenure evaluation (RCW 28B.50.872).</p> <p>It puts faculty in the business of evaluation due to statute. Faculty-dominated committees are required.</p>
TERMINATION FOR CAUSE	<p>As colleges have grappled with this issue, language may have been honed by legal challenges. If language was agreed to at one college that allowed termination when necessary with procedural restrictions that protected the college and the rights of the faculty, this language would survive and spread to other colleges. It is in the interest of both the colleges and the faculties.</p>

Table 5. Perspectives on reasons for changes in language of academic variables in the faculty contracts of 22 Washington State community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995 (continued)

A. Employment decision variables (continued)

<p>RETRENCHMENT (LAYOFF)</p>	<p>The general increase in this variable may reflect anxiety over feared cuts in federally-funded programs. Many faculty position are funded by Carl Perkins and Literacy programs. Increases here are probably moves to stabilize positions.</p>
<p>SELECTION OF PART-TIME FACULTY</p>	<p>Selection of part-time faculty has been and will continue to be a huge concern. The bottom line is that the legislature is just nibbling around the edges. It is now easier for them to collect unemployment. The problem is that the system is dependent on part-timers. Salary parity is what they want, but no one can afford it. Almost ½ of the instructional effort in the state's community colleges is by part-timers at half the pay of full-time faculty.</p> <p>There are many more part-time faculty now than before. Their power as an influence block is growing and more contracts are addressing part-time issues specifically. If part-time faculty bargain as a total group with the full-time faculty, the full-time interests get more because the full-time faculty dominate.</p> <p>Selection of part-time faculty is an issue in bargaining because there are more part-timers and full-time faculty may perceive a lack of quality. Budgets have not kept up with the growth of enrollment. Colleges are using more part-time faculty. They are not selected through the same procedures -- thus it may be a quality issue.</p> <p>Alternatively, it may be that there is a patronage system at work. Sometimes part-time selection is done at the last minute. Selection is done by "who do you know" or "who is whose friend" Perhaps putting part-time selection more in the hands of the faculty is more an attempt to help friends, rather than a quality issue.</p> <p>Another issue is the growth of contract instruction for business and industry. The faculty feel that this is discounted instruction, with no tenure provisions attached. Fringe benefits are not attached and there is a higher work load. In negotiations, some college faculties have prevailed in making the case that contract faculty are part of the bargaining unit -- but separate from the main faculty; they are addressed in an appendix as part of the contract.</p>



Table 5. Perspectives on reasons for changes in language of academic variables in the faculty contracts of 22 Washington State community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995 (continued)

B. Teaching load variables

VARIABLE	COMMENTS
CLASS SIZE	<p>Few districts deal with class size in their contracts -- those that do are the exception to the rule. That's where the control is -- by design. You can express teaching load in one dimension such as contact hours. If an additional dimension is defined, it becomes too liberal. For districts, the gold mine is in putting more students in class. The student/faculty ratio generates money. As an example, one college has an economics instructor with 15 contact hours and 18 students per class. Another college has an economics instructor with 15 contact hours and 90 students per class. Which instructor has greater productivity (in terms of FTE generated per dollars spent)?</p> <p>At one college there is an appendix to the contract that specifies maximum class sizes -- but including this in the contract has not really been to the benefit of the faculty -- there is not a district in the state that wouldn't die to get these class sizes. Recently, some maximums in this district were lowered to 48 students with the caveat that this size does not apply if the discipline is not meeting or exceeding the discipline model. The discipline model is the system's state-wide expectation of FTE generated per full-time instructor for each discipline.</p>
LECTURE/LAB CREDIT EQUIVALENCE	<p>The state system model is limiting in terms of generating FTE. An FTE (full-time equivalence) is 15 credits with a 2:1 lab/lecture ratio and a 3:1 clinical/lecture ratio. Colleges must stay close to the model or be killed.</p>
OVERLOAD and SUMMER ASSIGNMENTS	<p>When these issues come up, there is always debate about quality. The faculty don't want to do "more ditch" -- as they put it at one college -- for the same salary. Management's riposte is that if quality is so important then "moonlighting" (overload) should be banned. There seem to be many extra contractual agreements made in English and Developmental Ed. Many colleges have math labs and English labs and calculate contact time differently.</p> <p>Most districts pay overload work the same as part-time. There is some variation in summer school compensation, however. Some summer schedules are richer for full-time faculty. The trend, however, is to pay full-time faculty on overload the same as adjunct. There is the potential for an equal pay lawsuit following the 14th Amendment - equal pay for equal work concerns. Right now there is a threatened lawsuit at one of the colleges.</p>

Table 5. Perspectives on reasons for changes in language of academic variables in the faculty contracts of 22 Washington State community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995 (continued)

C. Non-teaching responsibilities variables

VARIABLE	COMMENTS
OFFICE HOURS	Speculation that the increase in this variable is due to the on-going state-wide discussion of part-time faculty. One distinction between part-time and full-time faculty is the requirement for full-time faculty to have office hours.

D. Academic functions variables

VARIABLE	COMMENTS
ACADEMIC FREEDOM	There is no specific legislation that might have prompted a change in this variable. This may be an area where faculties are talking with each other and developing language that they like. It doesn't appear to have financial impact on the colleges, so management may give on this.
CALENDAR	<p>At the beginning of the community college system, there were uniform state standards for calendar. Calendars are not the exclusive purview of the faculty - classified staff, administrators, and students are also affected. Colleges will and do negotiate instructional days. Most colleges moved to calendar committees with representatives of all employee groups and students. Then some districts started to spell out calendars like K-12 systems.</p> <p>Since 1981 -- in an Attorney General's opinion arising from a case from Spokane-- there has not been one day reduction in community college calendars -- any decrease is counted against salary increases coming to a district. Now, most calendar committees just work on the details such as the number of instructional days, the schedule of in-service days, holidays, etc. There is more attention to this than before. There is wide range. At the extremes, one college has 150 instructional days in the academic year, while another has 167. The average is three 55 day quarters <math>\pm</math> two days.</p> <p>Uniserve (the professional staff serving WEA - NEA) is most active in K-12 where the calendar is the most important thing to negotiate. In K-12, the calendar is held out as the last thing to be negotiated before the school year starts. The WFT has a different approach. Their calendars indicates the number of days, start and end dates, and the length of quarters. The details are not negotiated.</p>

### Future Trends in Bargaining

The interview subjects speculated on trends that they believed would emerge within the next decade of collective bargaining in Washington's community and technical colleges. Table 6 displays this information.

Table 6. Perspectives on future subjects for collective bargaining within the community and technical colleges of Washington State

ISSUE	COMMENTS
INCREMENT FUNDING	The issue of how to fund increments (salary increases due to seniority), as opposed to cost-of-living increases within salary schedules will not go away. The fact that turn-over savings (the difference between the salaries of a resigning or retiring faculty members and new faculty members) can be applied to increments may be creating unfunded salary obligations within the budgets of colleges.
PART-TIME SALARY PARITY	Though many more incidental issues regarding part-time faculty have been negotiated or legislated, this central issue has not been adequately resolved.
HARD AND SOFT MONEY	The distinction between hard money and soft money keeps being debated. The same guarantees of security and tenure cannot be provided to instructors in the milieu of contract instruction if colleges hope to make entrepreneurial ventures cost-effective.
DISTANCE LEARNING	Telecourses, delivery methods, determination of the value of the work, workload and ownership will all be discussed
OWNERSHIP	Negotiations will grapple with questions of who owns the stuff -- especially in Internet applications. Copyright issues are becoming huge.
TENURE	Tenure is becoming a big issue again. Some colleges have 20-30 probationers. They're having a hard time making the processes work (committees must have a majority of tenured faculty). In the next few years, there will be tons of new people coming in -- the issues are being re-raised.

Distinctions between AFT (WFT) and NEA (WEA) as Bargaining Agents

The two interview subjects had perspectives to share on the differences between the two unions representing the majority of the Washington colleges. Though notable differences in contract language were not found between NEA-represented and AFT-represented colleges, these comments give some interesting information. Table 7 displays these opinions.

Table 7. Perspectives on the distinctions between bargaining agents as representatives of the faculty within the community and technical colleges of Washington State

ISSUE	COMMENTS
NEGOTIATORS	<p>WFT schools use their own in-house faculty negotiators. State-wide, WFT has only three employees. Most of the NEA schools, on the other hand, now use Uniserve representatives to sit in on or conduct their negotiations.</p> <p>WFT negotiators, because they are not backed by a professional representative assigned to their colleges, are a lot less knowledgeable than those for NEA. WFT members who are not really familiar with the state-wide issues are often used as negotiators. Sometimes there is benefit in using professional Uniserve representatives as does AHE/WEA. They can calm things down, keep them professional. On the other hand, professional representatives can also stir things up if they believe it is in the interests of the membership.</p>
COMMUNICATION	<p>WFT schools are getting more similar faster. Their faculty reps meet five to six times per year to talk to each other and plan strategy. There is more of a pattern in these schools. In NEA schools, a Uniserve representative typically works with one community college and twenty K-12 districts. Ninety percent of the membership is K-12. Community college faculty are the tail on the dog -- they don't get as much involvement from the rep.</p>
PART-TIME FACULTY	<p>WFT tends to give more attention and less lip-service to part-time issues. WFT has most of its strength in the greater Seattle area where there are a vast number of part-time faculty.</p>

### State-wide Perspectives on College Change

Through a process of graphing and data reduction, colleges were grouped into one of five categories defined by the pattern of change occurring over the decade. Colleges in two of the categories had low total scores (less than 27 of 80 possible points) and low mean scores (less than 1.2 on a scale of 0 to 4) based on the number of variables found in the contracts and the ratings of each variable relative to faculty influence. Six of these colleges demonstrated slight change toward faculty influence over the decade while four showed notable change in total scores over the decade.

Three other groups had relatively high total scores in 1985 (greater than 32 of the total 80 points). Four of these colleges showed little change toward faculty influence; five showed notable change toward faculty influence; three showed change away from faculty influence in several variables.

Interviews with the two subjects sought to determine their perspectives on the reasons that colleges fell into the patterns of change that they did. Did colleges with similar patterns of change have similarities in internal social, political, or historical conditions during the decade? Interview data relating to college change are presented in these categories with the data reduced to short, descriptive phrases to preserve the anonymity of the colleges. Table 8 displays this information.

Table 8. Perspectives on reasons for changes in faculty influence from 1985 to 1995 in selected Washington State community and technical colleges

A. Colleges with low total scores in 1985 and low levels of change

COLLEGE	COMMENTS
1	Current president there 5-6 years; Administration stable, long-term employees; Strong president
2	Same leadership on a continuous basis; Good faculty-administration relationship; Strong president
3	Former president there for a long time; Some recent turmoil, but college is back under control; Faculty apathy
4	Same president throughout the decade; President autocratic, but respected; Faculty accept authoritarian decision-making
5	Long-term president; split from another college within decade; Contract may reflect language from other contracts and may say more than is actually in practice
6	Quiet and stable; College outgrowing casualness; Past negotiation style was one-on-one; now more complicated

B. Colleges with low total scores in 1985 and high levels of changes

COLLEGE	COMMENTS
7	Former president autocratic and high-handed; fired by Board; Had a strike early in its experience with collective bargaining; When president fired, the flood gate on faculty demands went down
8	Tough president; well-liked by faculty, had problems with Board; President retired, gave concessions to faculty
9	Split from another college within the decade; Management is looser with faculty rights since split
10	Same president throughout decade; faculty got militant over non-negotiable demands and struck; contract language may be borrowed from other NEA colleges or may be codification of prevailing practice

Table 8. Perspectives on reasons for changes in faculty influence from 1985 to 1995 in selected Washington State community and technical colleges of (continued)

C. Colleges with high total scores 1985 and negative change in many variables

COLLEGE	COMMENTS
11	Former president asked to resign; Administration is faculty-friendly; highest salaries in state; Faculty acknowledge management's right to manage; Strong administration
12	Apparent stability seems strange; On-going turmoil on campus; Faculty and administrators don't always do what's negotiated
13	Pretty stable; Former president well-respected; retired; Current president well-respected

D. Colleges with high total scores in 1985 and low levels of change

COLLEGE	COMMENTS
14	Strong, well-respected president for a long time
15	President there throughout decade, though many faculty attempts to dislodge; Faculty control the curriculum through a strong division chair system; Highest total score; not much more to gain
16	Long-time president; Stable campus
17	President there many years; nice guy; Faculty seem satisfied

Table 8. Perspectives on reasons for changes in faculty influence from 1985 to 1995 in selected Washington State community and technical colleges (continued)

E. Colleges with high total scores in 1985 and high levels of change

COLLEGE	COMMENTS
18	Long time president retired mid-decade. Two presidents since; No real revolts or protests; handle their problems in house; External programs may have enriched college to level it could afford faculty demands
19	Serious turmoil at beginning of decade; president fired; New president needed to secure the survival of college; Contract language may have won faculty support
20	Multi-college district -- very different perspective; More prone to legal action Numbers could be misleading; may be codification of lowest practice in district
21	Multi-college district -- very different perspective; Four presidents during decade at one of the colleges; Votes of no-confidence toward some administrators; Numbers could be misleading; may be codification of lowest practice in district
22	Some turn-over Some acrimony at beginning of decade; President let the contract get out of hand



## Relationship of Content Change to Institutional Characteristics

The population size of twenty-two college was too small and the range in the institutional characteristics was too narrow for correlation statistics to yield meaningful information (Borg and Gall, 1989). Instead, qualitative techniques were used to reveal speculated relationships between institutional characteristics and noted change. Each of the twenty-two colleges was categorized into one of the five change patterns described previously. These groupings contained institutions that were alike with respect to the total scores for both 1985 and 1995 and with respect to the amount of change over the decade.

Information about the demographic characteristics had been gathered from the human resources directors at each college. The faculties at ten of the two-year colleges analyzed in this study are represented by the Washington Federation of Teachers (WFT), an affiliate of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT); eleven are represented by the Association of Higher Education (AHE) of the Washington Education Association (WEA), an affiliate of the National Education Association. One college has an independent association.

The population of Washington is not dispersed evenly. A large percentage of the population of the state is concentrated along the "I-5 Corridor" that runs from the Portland OR / Vancouver WA area in the south to the Bellingham, WA / Vancouver, BC area to the north. The two-thirds of the state to the east of the Cascade Mountain Range is sparsely populated with the exception of Spokane, in the northeast. Eighteen of the two-year colleges (fifteen districts) are in urban areas of the state. Fourteen colleges are in rural locations. Of the colleges analyzed for this study, thirteen are in urban settings; nine are rural. Consistent

with their surroundings, the urban colleges tend to have the highest enrollments. Consequently, the larger colleges are clustered in urban areas and the smaller colleges are spread through the rest of the state. This information was plotted on a matrix against the five change patterns. Table 9 presents this matrix.

#### Collective Bargaining Agent

No relationship between the bargaining agents and the pattern of change from 1985 to 1995 was detected. The matrix presented in Table 9 does not reveal any association between bargaining agent and the five change patterns into which the colleges have been grouped. In this population, eleven of the colleges are represented by the Washington Education Association, an affiliate of the National Education Association (NEA), ten are represented by the Washington Federation of Teachers, an affiliate of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), and one has an independent association.

#### Institutional Size

Although it was anticipated that institutional size would be related to higher scores on faculty influence over academic variables (Chandler and Julius, 1985), this was not revealed through examination of the data. Each group of colleges shows wide variation in institutional size that does not appear to have ties to change patterns.

Table 9. Matrix of institutional characteristics and patterns of change noted from selected Washington State community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995

GROUP	1 Bargaining Agent (# colleges)	2 Enrollment (1995 FTEs)	3 Location (# colleges)	4 Negotiation Style, 1995 (# Colleges)	5 Admin Team Leadership
Low 85 Total Low Change	NEA (4) AFT (2)	4000 3500 2200 1750 5100 4100	Rural (4) Urban (2)	1-on-1 (1) Comm (5) Prof Neg (0)	Pres (5) Bus Mgr (1)
Low 85 Total High Change	NEA (2) AFT (2)	2200 2200 3100 3700	Rural (2) Urban (2)	1-on-1 (0) Comm (3) Prof Neg (1)	Pres (1) Bus Mgr (3)
High 85 Total Negative Chg	NEA (2) AFT (1)	6100 4160 2000	Rural (1) Urban (2)	1-on-1 (0) Comm (0) Prof Neg (3)	Pres (1) Bus Mgr (2)
High 85 Total Low Change	NEA (0) AFT (3) IND (1)	6500 4800 5460 2300	Rural (1) Urban (3)	1-on-1 (1) Comm (1) Prof Neg (2)	Pres (2) Bus Mgr (1)
High 85 Total High Change	NEA (2) AFT (3)	1200 3920 10000 9000 5000	Rural (1) Urban (4)	1-on-1 (0) Comm (3) Prof Neg (2)	Pres (3) Bus Mgr (1)

KEY: Column 1 Bargaining Agent:

- NEA = National Education Association
- AFT = American Federation of Teachers
- IND = Independent Association

Column 2 Enrollment: Numbers are 1995 full time equivalents (FTEs)

Column 3 Location: College location as described by human resources director

Column 4 Negotiations Style:

- 1-on-1 = One representative from the administration (usually the president) negotiates directly with one representative from the faculty (usually the faculty association president)
- Comm = Committees representing both sides negotiate
- Prof Neg = Each side is represented in negotiations by a professional negotiator

Column 5 Admin Team Leadership: administrator who leads the bargaining team

- Pres = President or Academic Dean
- Bus Mgr = Business Manager or Personnel Manager

### Location

Many of the colleges are clustered in what is known as the "I-5 Corridor" near the Seattle metropolitan area. Others are scattered widely throughout the state. Examination of location data through the perspective of the five change pattern groups reveals some relationship between location and change. In the groups that had low total scores in 1985, most were rural colleges (six of ten). On the other hand, nine of twelve of the colleges that had high total scores in 1985 were in urban locations.

### Use or Non-use of a Professional Negotiator

Eight of the twenty-two colleges utilized the services of a professional negotiator during the negotiation of at least the 1995 contract. Analysis of the use of professional negotiators through the perspective of the five change patterns reveals some interesting associations. Table 10 summarizes the bargaining process of the colleges in 1985 and 1995.

In 1985, four of the colleges conducted contract negotiations on a one-on-one process between the college president and the faculty association president. As described by the human resources directors, bargaining was not a major, time-consuming event. "College 6" in the group characterized by low 1985 total scores and low change toward faculty influence, and "College 18," in the group characterized by high 1985 total scores and high change toward faculty influence both utilized this strategy in 1985 but abandoned it by 1995. "College 6" now utilizes the service of a professional negotiator; "College 18" employs an in-house

Table 10. Summary of bargaining processes utilized by selected community and technical colleges in Washington State in 1985 and 1995

Change Pattern	1985			1995		
	1-on-1	Committee	Prof Neg	1-on-1	Committee	Prof Neg
Low 1985 total Low Change	2	1	2	1	5	
Low 1985 Total High Change		3	1		3	1
High 1985 Total Negative Change		1	2			3
High 1985 Total Low Change	1	1	3	1	1	2
High 1985 Total High Change	1	1	3		3	2
TOTALS	4	7	11	2	12	8

KEY: 1-on-1 = One representative from the administration (usually the president) negotiates directly with one representative from the faculty (usually the faculty association president)

Comm = Committees representing both sides negotiate

Prof Neg = Each side is represented in negotiations by a professional negotiator

negotiations committee headed by the president. The human resources director at "College 6" reported that, in the past, negotiations were very amenable with the presidents of the college and the faculty association meeting casually. She further reported that in the last couple of years there are more issues and the college seems to have outgrown its casualness.

It appears that the use of a professional negotiator is more concentrated in the colleges that had high total scores in 1985. Usually, when colleges hire a negotiator there is also an in-house team of administrators who works with the professional. In 1985, eight of the eleven colleges employing a professional had high scores. In 1995, seven of the eight colleges using a professional had high scores; the one college that had a low score in 1985 and used a professional

negotiator was "College 9." This college witnessed the most drastic shift toward faculty influence during the decade so that, by 1995, it was a college with a high score. It is interesting to note that more colleges are using in-house negotiations committees in 1995 than in 1985. The number of colleges negotiating in this manner has increased from seven to twelve, with four of them reporting the adoption of "collaborative" bargaining strategies.

#### Leadership of the Administrative Bargaining Team

In prior experience, the researcher had observed that if the president meets with the faculty at the bargaining table, decisions seem to be made more quickly. If, on the other hand, a lower level administrator is in the leadership position, many recesses may need to be taken to confer with the president or the board prior to making institutional commitments. Though this perspective is limited, the opinions of Newton (1979) reinforced it and led to suspicions of correlation between administrative team leadership and bargaining outcomes. Newton stressed that the leadership of a president or dean demonstrates greater respect for faculty and their educational perspective. If the business manager or personnel director are at the table in place of the president or dean, faculty may perceive that the institution is more interested in fiscal constraints than in educational quality.

The president or academic dean leads the administrative bargaining team in 13 of the twenty-two colleges. In the remaining nine, the business manager or personnel director takes this key role. Examination of data through the matrix in Table 8 did not reveal any connection between administrative bargaining team leadership and bargaining outcomes for academic variables.

## CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The three central research questions in this study were: 1) Did the locus of control over academic variables in collective bargaining contracts of selected two-year public community and technical colleges in Washington State shift either toward or away from greater faculty influence during the past decade? If so, did noted patterns of change for colleges and academic variables establish the ability to predict future trends? 2) Did historical, political, and social factors within the colleges and within the state, as related by individuals with long-term, state-wide perspectives, appear to be related to the outcomes? 3) Were the levels of faculty control over academic issues related to demographic characteristics and/or decisions of the colleges?

### Summary and Conclusions

#### Shift in Level of Faculty Influence over Academic Variables

Based on the findings of this study, the first question is answered affirmatively; overall there was a shift toward greater faculty influence over academic items in the collective bargaining contracts from 1985 to 1995. However, a notable shift away from faculty influence over these items was detected at some of the colleges. As to the ability to predict future trends, it appears that there was a greater shift toward faculty influence in those colleges where there was turmoil at the highest administrative levels. In those colleges where the language on faculty

influence over academic items remained stable or shifted away from faculty, there was not detectable turmoil. The following conclusions were drawn from the longitudinal analysis of contract language relating to academic issues:

1. An overall increase of faculty influence over the academic variables in collective bargaining agreements was detected. For nineteen of the twenty variables examined, the number of contracts that contained related language increased. The mean score drawn from the scores of all of the colleges increased for nineteen of twenty variables. And the total score, based on a possible total of 80 (four points for each of twenty variables) increased at seventeen of the twenty-two colleges.
2. Most of the increase in faculty influence through the decade was concentrated in the employment decisions category of variables (defined on p. 49 of this study). Notable increases in faculty influence were found in nine academic variables, six of which were within this category. These variables were tenure, termination for cause, retrenchment, remediation of performance, selection of part-time faculty, and post-tenure evaluation. Scaled levels for these variables are defined in Appendix 1 (p.126).
3. Academic variables in the teaching load category (defined on p. 49 of this study) did not increase to favor faculty influence. Because of the impact these variables (class size, schedule of courses, number of preparations, course load, and overload and summer school assignments) may have on the financial resources of institutions, it is believed that administrative negotiators "held the line" on these issues during the decade.



4. Change away from faculty influence was noted in several variables and at several colleges which may portend a reversal of the trend toward expansion in the level of faculty influence over academic issues may be emerging in the contracts of the selected Washington State community and technical colleges. This trend was not reported from earlier longitudinal contract analysis research.
5. The range of academic issues that are brought through the collective bargaining process continues to expand. Five issues (remediation of faculty performance, post-tenure evaluation, selection of part-time faculty, lecture/lab/credit equivalence, and academic calendar) were identified as new or emerging issues. These issues had not been mentioned in the research findings of previous researchers conducting content analyses of community college collective bargaining agreements (Andes, 1982; Williams, 1989; Williams and Zirkel, 1988).
6. The emergence of five distinct patterns of change among the twenty-two colleges revealed that the level of faculty influence and the number of academic variables for which there was contract language in 1985 could not be used as predictors of contract change over the decade.

#### Relating Internal and External Factors to Changes in Level of Faculty Influence

The findings on the shifts in the level of faculty influence over academic issues from administration to faculty and the five patterns of change found in the colleges were summarized and shared with two individuals possessing state-wide perspectives and long-term familiarity with collective bargaining issues and

colleges. Interviews with these individuals revealed a great deal about the underlying reasons for changes in faculty influence over academic variables and the social, historical, and political forces within colleges that may be related to the changes that were detected.

Academic variables Qualitative analysis of the data from the interviews led to the following tentative conclusions:

1. Employment decisions variables

- A. Changes in legislative statutes affected the process of collective bargaining bargaining. Statutes related to tenure (RCW 28B.50.850 through RCW 28B.50.869), post-tenure evaluation (RCW 28B.50.872), and their implied expectations of remediation of faculty performance created the necessity for colleges to negotiate new language during the decade
- B. Concerns for economic security may motivate negotiations. Faculty influence over language related to termination for cause and retrenchment (layoff) increased and was believed to be related to faculty concern in the face of economically-insecure times.
- C. The increase in faculty influence over the selection of part-time faculty may reflect that colleges and the legislature of Washington State have only dealt with peripheral issues concerning part-time faculty. It is believed that salary parity will be a major issue in future local negotiations and state legislative sessions.

2. Teaching load variables
  - A. These variables showed very little change in the level of faculty influence during the decade. Comments from interviewees indicated that the relative stability in teaching load language found in contracts from 1985 and 1995 reflects administrative resistance to the unaffordable economic impact that more liberal language might cause.
  - B. The language relating to lecture/lab/credit equivalence is affected by a Washington community and technical college system model that defines what an FTE (full time equivalence) is. Colleges cannot afford to get out of alignment with this model by agreeing to more liberal language.
  - C. In the matter of overload and summer school assignments, affordability is again the major factor that limits language that is more favorable to faculty.
3. Non-teaching responsibilities variables. Interviewees speculated that increased faculty influence over scheduling of office hours may be related to the fact that only full-time faculty must post such hours and thus want to exercise greater control.
4. Academic functions variables. Comments from interviewees led to no speculation on the reasons for the increase in faculty influence over academic freedom. However, they felt that increases in faculty influence over academic calendars was related to evolution from uniform calendars at the beginning of the state community college system to wide variety at present.

Colleges In exploring the relationship of conditions internal to the college to patterns of change, the perspectives of the interview subjects led to several tentative conclusions:

1. Colleges that had low total scores in 1985 (less than 27 out of a possible 80 points) and experienced little change over the decade tended to be stable, with little turnover in the position of president. These colleges probably had no reason to codify practice or to negotiate changes. Faculty at these colleges were characterized as "satisfied."
2. The four colleges where there were low total scores in 1985, but a high level of change toward faculty influence over the decade demonstrated instability (one president fired, one president who had difficulties with the Board, one college that split from another, militant faculties, and a strike). Because of this instability, it was believed by the interview subjects that the faculty and administration either needed to codify standing practices or needed to negotiate significant changes in collective bargaining agreements.
3. Three colleges that had total scores in 1985 that were high relative to other colleges in this population (32 or higher out of a possible total of 80 points) demonstrated a pattern of change away from faculty influence in many variables. Two of the three were described as having strong, efficient, well-respected administrations. Faculty appear to acknowledge management rights and have won liberal salary and benefits packages. Interviewees stated that the apparent stability at the third college seemed strange, since there had been turmoil at the college and a president had recently been dismissed by the Board. In a conversation with the personnel director at this college,

subsequent to the system-wide discussion with the interviewees, the researcher discovered that the college's faculty contract negotiated for the years 1995-99 reveals tremendous change in faculty influence over academic variables. Longitudinal extension of this research may confirm this.

4. Three of the colleges in which there were high total scores in 1985 with low change during the decade were described as stable with strong presidents. One college had experienced a great deal of turmoil but had the highest total scores in both 1985 and 1995; it was speculated that there was not much discretionary room left within which to negotiate, hence the relatively low level of change toward faculty influence.
5. The colleges with high total scores in 1985 which experienced a high degree of change over the decade included the two multi-college districts in the state, where it was noted that more legal activity occurs. Language changes in these colleges may have actually reflected codification of the lowest level of practice within the districts; this may, in fact reflect "holding the line" by administrations. For the other three colleges, instability was described with words like "serious turmoil," "shaky," "high turn-over," "survival," "contract got out of hand."

#### Institutional Characteristics

It appeared that only two of the five institutional characteristics that were examined may be related to patterns of change in contract language over the decade.

1. In 1985, colleges with less complex contracts -- those with fewer variables addressed or with lower total scores -- were concentrated in rural areas of the state. By 1995, this pattern had broken down as internal conditions stimulated extreme changes in the level of faculty influence at many rural colleges. These college may have borrowed language from colleges with more complicated contracts.
2. The choice of college administrations to use professional negotiators seemed concentrated in colleges that had higher total scores. The use of professionals appears to be declining in favor of college committees, many of which are choosing collaborative approaches.

#### Summary of Conclusions

The degree of change in the language relating to academic variables in the contracts of twenty-two two-year colleges in Washington State is dependent on circumstances both internal and external to the colleges. Statutory change relative to employment decision regarding tenure, post-tenure evaluation, and remediation of faculty performance resulted in overall increases in the influence of faculty. The level of increase, however, was not uniform for all colleges. It appears that the measured levels of change among the colleges were due to internal political, social, and historic factors.

Stability in contract language was found in colleges that had both high and low levels of faculty influence in 1985 and in those where language decreased relative to faculty influence in many variables. These colleges were generally described as having well-respected presidents who were at the colleges for a long time.

Colleges where there was dramatic change toward faculty influence were generally described as having experienced turmoil, instability, or negative faculty/administrative relations over the decade. Overall, the picture emerges that administrative style or the relationship between the administration and faculty over time influences the language that is negotiated for inclusion in collective bargaining contracts.

## Discussion

### Findings on Change in Faculty Influence over Academic Variables

The subjects of collective bargaining and the level of influence of faculty over academic issues in the community and technical colleges of Washington State changed during the decade from 1985 to 1995. These findings reveal a trend consistent with the earlier research of Williams and Zirkel (1988), Williams (1989), and Andes (1982). Their research reported that the subjects of collective bargaining had evolved from economic issues that provided the early stimuli for the growth of collective bargaining in higher education to personnel issues, governance issues, and academic issues. Williams and Zirkel (1988) demonstrated that academic issues had penetrated collective bargaining agreements with a change in locus of control from administration to faculty during the decade 1975 to 1985.

As well as confirming that academic issues continue to be a part of community college collective bargaining agreements and that faculty influence over them continues to grow, this study revealed five issues appearing with frequency in the Washington contracts that had not been reported in earlier studies. Remediation of

faculty performance, post-tenure evaluation, selection of part-time faculty, lecture/lab/credit equivalence, and academic calendar all appeared in at least half of the contracts in 1995.

These findings were in accord with the predictions of other researchers. DiGiovanni (1990) and Swofford (1984) speculated that part-time faculty issues would move into the forefront of collective bargaining. Reilly (1988) insisted that the selection of part-time faculty must follow the same procedures and standards as used for full-time faculty and should become a focus of bargaining. Maeroff (1988) predicted that realistic lay-off and retraining processes, remediation of faculty performance, and curricular change would become important in bargaining. Reilly (1988) also predicted that remediation would become a prominent issue.

During interviews, individuals with long-term, state-wide perspectives predicted that there are several issues looming on the collective bargaining horizon in Washington State. Tenure issues, part-time faculty issues, and salary increment funding are concerns that are currently and continually before the Washington State legislature. If statutes are enacted, all colleges will have to address these issues with their faculty, probably through negotiations. Other issues that seem to be of great concern in the state are distance learning, ownership of intellectual property -- especially that developed for Internet use, and faculty rights for those faculty employed in entrepreneurial ventures funded by "soft" money.

The population in this study was much smaller and more homogenous than those examined by Andes (1982), Chandler and Julius (1985), or Williams and Zirkel (1988). Because all of the colleges examined in this study were within one state, they were similar in governing statutes, legislation enabling public collective



bargaining, governing board structure, and funding formulae. This similarity allowed for strong conclusions on the factors that prompted changes in faculty influence over some academic variables. Earlier research did not attempt to explain specific reasons for change.

In this study, it was determined that notable changes in three employment-related variables were the outgrowth of legislative action during the decade that required colleges to address these issues with the faculty. Contractual language on tenure, evaluation of tenured faculty, and remediation of faculty performance are heavily influenced by statute (RCW 28B.50.850 through RCW 28B.50.869 applies to tenure, RCW 28B.50.872 applies to post-tenure evaluation). The language relating to retrenchment is also dictated by statute (RCW 28B.50.873); this language did not change from 1985 to 1995; several colleges, however, included new language to reflect the statute.

Other issues that demonstrated notable change were related to faculty security. The language on termination for cause strengthened faculty rights statewide and is related to faculty needs for enhanced security. It was noted that almost every contract employs the same language on this issue.

Williams and Zirkel (1988) found that language relating to tenure, discipline, due process, and termination was nearly universal in the contracts they examined. Their findings, as well as those of this study conform with the observations of Kemerer and Baldrige (1980) that unionized institutions tend to have formalized and standardized language on personnel issues. The language on selection of part-time faculty and office hours was reported to be related to the constant debate in Washington State over the utilization of part-time faculty and the desire

of full-time faculty and faculty associations to control these issues. Though explanations of the increases in the levels of faculty influence over academic freedom were not forthcoming from the interview subjects in this research, the importance of academic freedom to faculty is not surprising. To the extent that we can generalize from four-year to two-year institutions, Dayal (1984, 1986) found that academic freedom is cited by university faculty as the bargaining goal of first importance, exceeding even economic goals.

#### Findings on Change in Faculty Influence over Academic Issues within Colleges

Few relationships were found between levels of faculty influence or change in levels of faculty influence, and demographic characteristics of institutions. Although this may be ascribed to small population size or the narrowness of demographic characteristics, it may also be a real finding. It may be that factors such as college size, location, faculty bargaining agent, use or non-use of professional negotiators, and leadership of the administrative bargaining team do not affect the outcome of collective bargaining. Perhaps, the latter three factors are, rather, outgrowths of the internal political, social, and historical conditions of institutions. Those three factors, as well as the language of collective bargaining agreements, may be outcomes of faculty-administrative relationships, administrative style, or administrative-board relationships.

Several researchers have concluded that the language of collective bargaining agreements is situational (Wong , 1981); Garbarino and Aussieker, 1975). Beaulieu (1995), in a study also focused on the Washington State community

colleges, found that faculty and administrative perceptions of faculty influence over college governance was situational. Baldrige and Kemerer (1981) reported that conflict between faculty and administrations seemed to increase as presidential power was curtailed through collective bargaining. On the other hand, Colebrook and Dennison (1991) noted that the relationships between faculty and administrations were distinctly adversarial when faculty felt that they were not involved in decision-making processes and when there was a lack of trust in the administration. This research appears to collaborate these findings.

In this research, colleges that showed little change in the level of faculty influence over the twenty academic variables from 1985 to 1995, whether they had high or low total scores in 1985, were described by interview subjects as stable colleges with well-respected presidents. The phrase "strong administration" was also frequently used, indicating an administration that is in control of the college. In general, presidential succession in these colleges followed retirement or voluntary departure of the preceding president.

Alternatively, colleges where there were high levels of change toward faculty influence or control during the decade were described by interview subjects as having turmoil or acrimony in the relations between faculty and administration. Administrations were described as being "looser" with the faculty or letting the contract "get out of hand." More often, in these colleges, presidential succession followed involuntary termination or poor relations between the president and the governing board.

### Collective Bargaining for Faculty Influence over Academic Issues

On its face, the faculty argument for greater influence over academic processes seems to be reasonable. If community college faculty had a greater role in the decision-making processes that influence academic offerings, community colleges would more closely resemble the collegial governance models of four-year colleges and universities. Why wouldn't administrators and faculty welcome this time-honored traditional approach? Shouldn't the faculty, who are the academic experts of the colleges, have a voice in academic decision making?

Research has demonstrated that the collective bargaining agreements of four-year colleges differ from those of two year community colleges. Chandler and Julius (1985) and Julius and Chandler (1989) found that in four-year institutions, the faculty had both the responsibility for and authority over the academic decision-making processes. They had rights to peer review that were recognized by the administration and the boards of trustees. In two-year colleges, however, the management maintained control over the academically-related issues of appointment, tenure, promotion, and non-renewal. These researchers believed that the faculty of two-year colleges would continue to seek to pattern themselves after the faculty of four-year colleges. Williams (1989) concurred with this belief. She found that bargaining over academic and curricular issues was most prevalent at community colleges and that community college faculties would use collective bargaining to achieve a measure of control over these issues.

The four-year models of faculty senates and collegial decision-making are, however, built on a different series of premises than those that motivate collective bargaining in community colleges. The faculty of four-year institutions where

shared governance over academic issues is the norm have not only the right to participate, but the responsibility to do so. Alternately, collective bargaining, as observed in community colleges, has the net effect of securing "rights" for faculty which are tied to economic and security issues. In the experience of this researcher, faculty unions rarely seek responsibility over issues.

The class size argument is a case in point. Faculty often couch this item as a quality issue, claiming that student learning is enhanced by small class sizes. If faculty sought the right to set class sizes while also assuming the responsibility for staying within college resources, this argument might be more reasonable to administrations held accountable by governing boards and tax-payers. This combination of rights and responsibilities has occurred in at least one of the collective bargaining agreements within the community colleges of Washington State, however. At one college, maximum class sizes are negotiated, set and adhered to as long as the average student-to-faculty ratio within a discipline is maintained. If the average ratio is not maintained, maximum class sizes can be exceeded (Agreement Between the Board of Trustees of Community College District VIII and Bellevue Community College Association of Higher Education, 1993).

Another example of the rights/responsibilities combination is found in the remediation language of another Washington State community college contract. In this college, if a pattern of poor performance is detected by an administrative supervisor, a review panel -- composed of supervisors, faculty peers, and union representatives -- is convened to consider the problems (The Community Colleges of Spokane Board of Trustees and the CCS Association of Higher Education,

1992). Without cooperation between the faculty union and the administration, this language could be used to obfuscate the ability of an administrative supervisor to address the performance problems of a faculty member. However, the spirit with which this language was negotiated has led to effective remediation in several instances. During the time the researcher was the Vice President of Human Resources at this institution, these faculty members faced the united concern of administrative and faculty participants during the review process and quickly understood that change was required.

The effectiveness of such language is intimately tied to cooperation. If the relationship between administrators and the faculty union is good, any language is workable. For example, the interview subjects in this study related that at one of the community college in Washington, there is very liberal language granting power to faculty department chairs. This language was written at a time when there was a powerful and well-respected academic dean and the application of the language was kept in balance by the dean. However, when the dean retired, the balance of power shifted. New deans were not able to control the influence of the faculty department chairs.

Administrations that have good relations with faculty must be careful to not be too generous in relinquishing management rights contractually. Players may change and the balance between management rights and faculty rights can shift dramatically. Most college collective bargaining agreements contain "management rights" language that specifies administrative flexibility over issues for which there is a lack of language in the contract. This flexibility is noted in most "management rights" clauses, of which the following is an example:

Employer Rights. The management of the district and the direction of the work force is vested exclusively with the Employer subject to the terms of this Agreement. All matters not specifically and expressly covered by the language of this Agreement shall be administered for its duration by the Employer in accordance with such policies, regulations and procedures as it from time to time may determine, provided, the Employer has placed items that deal with wages, hours, and other mandatory terms and conditions of employment on the agenda to be discussed at a regular District Contract Administration Committee meeting (The Board of Trustees of Washington Community College District 23 and the Edmonds Community College Federation of Teachers, Local 4254, AFT, AFL/CIO, 1995, p. 47).

Because contract language does not always fully or accurately reflect campus operations, it was impossible in this research to conclude that absence of language on academic issues implied no faculty influence or control. Such lack of language may, in fact, reflect satisfaction with the level of faculty influence over academic matters or satisfaction with the manner in which administrators make decisions. Nonetheless, lack of language typically preserves administrative flexibility.

Influence over issues that are ultimately within management purview to decide can be shared in informal ways. Wise administrators consult faculty on important institutional decisions and use their recommendations unless there is compelling contrary rationale. Then, administrators should be prepared and willing to explain why recommendations are not being followed. Without this approach, faculty may feel that they are being patronized, that they are put on committees to be placated, or that their opinions are not valued or honored.

### Implications for Practice

It may seem difficult to build trusting relationships within a collective bargaining environment. The advice of Reenstjerna and Andes (1988) bears reiterating. They suggested that administrators observe and work within the interpersonal structures of their organizations. The value systems and cultural norms of the organization can be enhancements, rather than detriments, to structures and processes established by administrators.

The following suggestions for administrators desirous of building workable and positive relations with faculty associations are offered. They were developed from the researcher's own experience and observations, from perspectives shared by the two subjects interviewed for this research, and from the opinions of many colleagues in the human resources field.

1. Foster the trust of faculty through respect for and scrupulous following of the negotiated contract. If interpretation needs to be checked or implementation difficulties arise, confer with the faculty leadership.
2. Nothing disarms a tense situation faster than the honest, prompt admission of mistakes. To hide or to deny mistakes made in the administration of the contract destroys trust and makes future negotiations more difficult.
3. Cultivate a lack of defensiveness in discussing grievances. The grievance process is one to which both the faculty and the administration agreed in prior negotiations. Administrators make a grave error if they react to grievances or threats of grievances as though they regard them as personal affronts. An



open -- almost inviting -- attitude toward grievances minimizes their potential to become crystallizing issues.

4. Establish clearly what arenas are to be regarded as management rights. There are many permissive subjects of bargaining that insinuate themselves into the negotiations process. Once included in the contract document, they should be considered near-permanent fixtures. It is better to have the fight over inclusion before the negotiations process begins.
5. Establish what constitutes past practice. There are three elements that legally establish a past practice:
  - a. Was the existence of the practice known to affected parties?
  - b. Was there consistency in the application of the practice?
  - c. Had a durable pattern of practice been established? (N. Sloane, personal communication, January, 1993).

It is important to test claims of past practice prior to agreeing to incorporate such a practice into a negotiated document. Often past practice claims are used in grievances that lead to mediation or arbitration. If the claim is countered effectively, expensive consequences arising from contractual inclusion of the practice for application to all bargaining unit members can be avoided.

6. If it is obvious that there are administrators in the institution who do not follow the contract in interpretation or implementation, they must be educated and/or disciplined. If the senior administrators of an institution do not take the contract seriously enough to insist that subordinate administrators apply the

contract appropriately, it demonstrates disregard for the collective bargaining process and for negotiated agreements.

7. Administrators should be trained in the intent, interpretation, and implementation of clauses for which they have responsibility. Understanding how language was arrived at helps administrators to implement correctly. Assure that they understand who to go to for assistance in interpretation or implementation.
8. Immediately after completing the negotiations process, begin to prepare for the next round. Target key sections for revision during subsequent negotiations. Keep documentation of problem areas and analyze them financially in preparation for negotiations.
9. Develop and use communications councils. One of the Washington community college districts with which the researcher has personal experience utilizes a five-member administrative contract compliance team that discusses contract issues that arise throughout the district. It is the charge of the team to assure that all issues are handled consistently across the district. This team becomes the negotiations team for the administration because of its familiarity with the contract and with problem areas. Additionally, this district holds bi-weekly joint executive meetings where the faculty association leadership meets with the college president and top administrative staff. These discussions focus on problems, pending grievances, faculty concerns with governance, and administrative airing of college initiatives.

### Recommendations for Future Research

The issue of the impact of presidential leadership on administrative-faculty relationships and on contract language is a fascinating one. Future research may reveal more information on this topic through analysis of all contracts in force during a period of time from several colleges and correlation of this information with institutional histories. Such intensive case studies would require access to institutional records and interviews with many current and former employees.

Some states in the United States do not allow collective bargaining for public employees, including community college faculty. The ease or difficulty with which presidents achieve rapport with the faculty in colleges with collective bargaining may be related to the presidents' prior experience with collective bargaining. Identifying presidents who have moved from states without collective bargaining to states where it is allowed, surveying the presidents and their constituencies, and analyzing contract language from the years prior to and following the presidents' appointments may reveal some interesting information.

This research focused on academic issues in collective bargaining. The research of Ann Beaulieu (1995) focused on governance issues in the same colleges of Washington State. Several opinions relate the reluctance of administrators to grant faculty more influence over teaching load issues because of the effect such change may have on economic issues. A comprehensive examination of all contract issues from a selected group of colleges might be conducted to determine if there is interplay among contractual variables.

In most forms of collective bargaining, both the faculty and the administration come to the bargaining table with initial proposals. Analyses of proposal language relative to final language might reveal levels of compromise required of both parties. Relating this to administrative/faculty relationships might reveal further information on the impact of administrative leadership on the collective bargaining process.

Ultimately, the impact that collective bargaining processes may have on the quality of education is a most important question. There are already many opinions on this issue. Research would require a definition of quality and the means to measure it. These details challenge all of higher education.

#### Summary of Research

Faculty collective bargaining agreement language related to twenty academic variables shifted to favor faculty influence during the decade from 1985 to 1995 at selected community and technical colleges in Washington State. The reasons for observed patterns of change in language in both individual academic variables and at individual colleges was sought. Longitudinal content analysis and interviewing of individuals with long-term, state-wide perspectives and knowledge of the colleges were employed as research methodologies.

Faculty influence over issues related to faculty employment and security increased the most; while faculty influence over issues related to teaching load increased negligibly. Five issues not reported in earlier content analysis research were prominent in these contracts. These issues were post-tenure evaluation,

remediation of faculty performance, selection of part-time faculty, lecture/lab/credit equivalence, and academic calendar.

The degree of change was found to be dependent on circumstances both internal and external to the colleges. Statutory change relative to employment decisions (tenure, post-tenure evaluation, and remediation of faculty performance) resulted in overall increases. The level of increase, however, was not uniform for all colleges. It appears that the various levels of change were due to internal political, social, and historic factors.

Stability in contract language was found in colleges that had both high and low levels of faculty influence over academic issues in 1985. These colleges were generally described by interview subjects as having well-respected presidents who were at the colleges for a long time. Colleges where there was dramatic change toward faculty influence during the decade were generally described as having experienced turmoil, instability, or negative faculty-administrative relations over the decade. Overall, the picture emerged that administrative style or the relationship between the administration and faculty over time influenced the language that is negotiated for inclusion in collective bargaining contracts of these Washington State community and technical colleges.

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Appendix 1. Definitions of scaled levels for academic variables (modified from Williams, 1989)

EMPLOYMENT DECISIONS VARIABLES		
APPOINTMENT	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consults with faculty (committee or review panel) but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., multiple reviews; hearing; appeal process; grievance procedure, if faculty recommendation is not followed
	4	Faculty control over promotion; related strictly to appointment
TENURE	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty (committee or review panel) but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., multiple reviews; hearing; appeal process; grievance procedure, if faculty recommendation is not followed
	4	Faculty control over appointment
TERMINATION FOR CAUSE	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consults with faculty (committee or review panel) but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., multiple reviews; hearing; appeal process; grievance procedure, if faculty recommendation is not followed
	4	Faculty control over termination for cause
RETRENCHMENT (LAY-OFF)	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration; seniority rank system required to be followed
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., specified faculty right in identifying need for retrenchment criteria; right to a hearing if faculty member is retrenched
	4	Faculty control over retrenchment; faculty responsibility for implementing reductions

Appendix 1. Definitions of scaled levels for academic variables.  
Employment decisions variables (continued)

REMEDICATION	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consults faculty; decision to require remediation made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., faculty committee reviews recommendation of administration for faculty remediation; faculty peer participation in remediation process
	4	Faculty controls; faculty responsibility for specifying remediation activities
SELECTION OF PART-TIME FACULTY	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consults with faculty but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., specified process or review committee; department chair recommendation to administration
	4	Faculty control over selection of part-time faculty
POST-TENURE EVALUATION	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consults with faculty but decision made by admin; faculty rights defined
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., specified process or review committee; department chair recommendation to administration; faculty involved as peer evaluators; faculty set standards
	4	Faculty control over post-tenure evaluation
TEACHING LOAD VARIABLES		
CLASS SIZE	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention that is vague, general, without mention of faculty input
	2	Administration consults with faculty but decision made by administration; faculty rights defined
	3	Unspecified number but generally "reasonable or equitable standard"; specified but low minimum; maximum but no minimum number
	4	Faculty determines class size; policy subject to faculty approval

Appendix 1. Definitions of scaled levels for academic variables  
Teaching load variables (continued)

SCHEDULE OF CLASSES	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., faculty schedule subject to administration approval; chairperson decides without faculty assertion
	4	faculty decides with administration resolving coordination conflicts
NUMBER OF PREPARATIONS	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., limits stated; limits can be exceeded if administration determines it is in the best interest of the institution
	4	Faculty control over policy of preparations
COURSE LOAD	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention that is vague, non-specific; specific but with a high minimum; administrative control
	2	Administration consultation with faculty
	3	Specified but low minimum; unspecified number but generally "reasonable or equitable standard"; maximum but no minimum number of credit hours or courses
	4	Faculty determines number of credit hours or courses; subject to faculty approval
OVERLOAD and SUMMER SCHOOL ASSIGNMENTS	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration; restriction placed on number of courses
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., department or committee decision; full-time faculty get priority; appeal process
	4	Faculty control over overload and summer school teaching load

Appendix 1. Definitions of scaled levels for academic variables  
Teaching load variables (continued)

LECTURE/LAB/ CREDIT EQUIVALENCE	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Load tied to department mode; preponderance of lecture or lab in mode determines load
	3	Equivalencies specified in contract; changes or deviation requires negotiation or memorandum of agreement
	4	Faculty controls assignment of courses to mode; faculty control over equivalencies
NON-TEACHING RESPONSIBILITY CLAUSES		
ADVISING	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention; assignment of advisees is administrative prerogative
	2	Number of hours and/or number of students determined in consultation with faculty
	3	Specified but low minimum; unspecified number but generally "reasonable or equitable standard"; maximum but no minimum number of hours or students
	4	Faculty determines advising policy; advising policy subject to faculty approval
OFFICE HOURS	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention; specific minimum with or without distribution across days within the week subject to administration approval
	2	Specific minimum with distribution
	3	Specific minimum without distribution
	4	Maintain but at faculty discretion
ACADEMIC FUNCTIONS VARIABLES		
CURRICULUM	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicitly a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty with decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., committee ; appeal process; grievance procedure, if faculty recommendation is not followed
	4	Faculty control over curriculum

Appendix 1. Definitions of scaled levels for academic variables  
Academic functions variables (continued)

GRADE ALTERATION	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., grade is subject to college's or department's policies; committee decision final
	4	Faculty control over grade alterations; grade alterations made only with approval of faculty
TEXT SELECTION	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Administration consultation with faculty but decision made by administration
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., faculty decision subject to administration approval; faculty members teaching multiple sections of a course must agree
	4	Faculty control over textbook selection
ACADEMIC FREEDOM	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention
	2	Parallel statement of academic freedom and responsibility
	3	Incorporation of the 1940 Statement of Academic Freedom and Tenure
	4	Lengthy presentation incorporating 1940 AAUP statement; additional statements
ACADEMIC CALENDAR	0	No mention in contract
	1	Brief mention but no specification of faculty rights or control; explicit reservation as a management right
	2	Joint committee of administrators and faculty prepare and propose academic calendar
	3	Increased faculty control - e.g., faculty-prepared calendar subject to administration approval; academic calendar a negotiable issue
	4	Faculty control over academic calendar



Appendix 2. Demographic characteristics of selected community and technical colleges of Washington State, 1995

College	Size (FTEs)	Agent			Location		Professional Negotiator		Administrative Team Leadership	
		NEA	AFT	IND	R	U	YES	NO	PRES	BUS
1	4000	X			X			X	X	
2	3500	X			X			X		X
3	2200		X			X		X	X	
4	1750		X		X			X	X	
5	5100	X				X		X	X	
6	4100	X			X			X	X	
7	2200		X		X			X		X
8	2200	X			X		X			X
9	3100		X			X		X	X	
10	3700	X				X		X		X
11	6100	X				X	X		X	
12	2000	X			X			X		X
13	4160		X			X		X		X
14	6500		X			X		X	X	
15	4800			X	X		X			X
16	5460		X			X	X			X
17	2300		X			X		X		X
18	1200	X			X			X	X	
19	3920		X			X		X	X	
20	10000		X			X		X	X	
21	9000	X				X	X			X
22	5000		X		X		X		X	

Legend: FTEs - Full-time student equivalencies (45 credits)

NEA - National Education Association

AFT - American Federation of Teachers

IND - Independent Association

R - Rural

U - Urban

Professional Negotiator - College utilizes professional negotiator

Administrative Team Leadership - Leadership of administrative bargaining team

Pres - President or Dean

Bus - Business Manager or Personnel Director

Appendix 3. Background information and interview outline provided to two interview subjects prior to interview

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

Thanks so much for being willing to review this information. This has been an interesting project - but one I am eager to be done with - at least in the dissertation form. Somehow, I'm sure I'll work with collective bargaining issues for the rest of my career.

This study was designed to analyze the penetration of academic issues into the collective bargaining agreements of Washington's two-year public community and technical colleges from 1985 to 1995. I located and reviewed the language on 20 academic items in both the 1985 and 1995 contracts from each college. I rated each item on a scale from "0" to "4." "0" meant that the item did not appear, "1" meant control over the item in the hands of the administration, "2" and "3" were intermediate ratings, and "4" meant total control by the faculty. The definition of the ratings for each item are included in Table 1.

I calculated sums, means, and level of change for each item and for each college I was able to identify those items that changed most to favor faculty over the decade and those colleges that had changed most or least. I am sending you two tables that summarize this information. I am also sending you tables that show which items changed at which college and which colleges changed relative to each item.

Some of the things I want to discuss with you are:

Why did some items or groups of items change so much? Alternatively, why did some items or groups of items change so little?

What was going on state-wide to influence so much language change in those variables where there was notable change (academic freedom, evaluation, retrenchment, office hours, salary promotion, selection of part-time faculty, remediation of faculty performance, tenure, and termination for cause)?

I had expected to see greater faculty influence in teaching load issues. Why so little movement? Did administrations decide to "hold the line?"

Does some group decision-making occur among presidents on priority issues?  
Why did some colleges show so much change toward faculty influence over academic issues?  
Why did some change so little?

Were there any similarities among the colleges in each of the five groups I have identified relative to patterns of change during the decade?

Does administrative change and the manner of administrative change (termination as opposed to retirement) have any impact on collective bargaining?

Are there events that occur at colleges that you feel are predictive of change?

What are the current bargaining priorities of the unions?

Are there any future research questions you would be interested in?

Again, I sincerely appreciate your willingness to spend time with me. I will assure you whatever level of confidentiality you desire. I plan not to identify the colleges by name when I prepare my dissertation. At this point, I am not sure if I will attempt any publications; if so, sources of information can be obscured. We can discuss this on Wednesday.