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# SCHOOL-BASED DECISION MAKING: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' DECISION INVOLVEMENT AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

By

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ABSTRACT

SCHOOL-BASED DECISION MAKING: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' DECISION INVOLVEMENT AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

By

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This study was designed to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in Michigan elementary schools and their job satisfaction. A secondary purpose was to examine variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise, levels of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement. The theoretical and conceptual basis for the study was social systems theory, decision theory, and literature pertaining to cooperation in organizations and job satisfaction.

To investigate these issues, sample survey methodology was used to gather data from randomly selected public elementary school teachers in Oakland County, Michigan. Data from self-reports of 217 teachers were obtained through a three-part survey. Part I of the survey included three decision involvement questions concerning the extent of teachers' involvement, desired involvement, and expertise in 20 decision issues. In Part II, respondents indicated how satisfied they were regarding 27 areas. Part III consisted of personal and situational variables related

to demographics, the organizational structure of the school, and the extent to which respondents believed their participation was influential.

A significant, positive relationship was found between teachers' involvement and their job satisfaction. That is, teachers who were highly involved in decision making in their schools were more satisfied with their jobs than those who were not as involved. A significant relationship also was found between respondents' levels of influence and their job satisfaction. Teachers who thought they had a high level of influence in the decision-making process in their schools had a higher level of job satisfaction than those who thought they had a lower level of influence.

Another significant relationship was found between teachers' school organization and their job satisfaction. Survey items related to school organization included teamwork to set goals; setting goals that are clear, specific, measurable, and accountability based; adequacy of materials to achieve goals; and funding, training, and establishing timelines to achieve goals. In schools with a high level of organization, as identified on those survey items, teachers were more satisfied. No relationship was found between teachers' levels of expertise and their job satisfaction. Likewise, the variable of desired involvement was not related to job satisfaction. Based on these findings, several implications for practice and recommendations for further research were presented.

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# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

## Introduction

Teachers' involvement in school decision making has been a topic of discussion since the turn of the century and a persistent theme in the American educational reform movement during the past several decades. Beginning in the early 1960s, researchers reported that teachers wished to have a greater share in the decision-making process in public school systems (Robinson, 1991). In 1986, the Carnegie Commission called for "giving teachers a greater voice in decisions that affect the school" (p. 57). This theme was repeated in the National Governors' Association (1986) statement that teachers should become "involved integrally in making [school] decisions" (p. 6). In the 1991 publication America 2000, Lamar Alexander stated:

> The surest way to reform education is to give schools and their leaders the freedom and authority to make important decisions about what happens, while being held accountable for making well-conceived efforts at improvement and for achieving desired results. (p. 37)

Many reform initiatives have since surfaced under a variety of names, such as restructuring, participatory management, site-based management, school improvement planning, systemic reform, and decentralized management. One

common theme that all of these initiatives share is collaboration at the building level around the central goal of improving education for students. Collaboration by teachers has been referred to in the literature by a variety of terms, including participative decision making, collaborative decision making, and building-level decision making. Involving teachers in the decision-making process means creating ownership of the outcomes among those responsible for carrying out decisions by having them take part in the decision-making process. Specifically, involvement is aimed at granting teachers greater power or authority in the areas affecting their professional lives, such as curriculum selection, budget decisions, hiring, and so on.

In a comprehensive review of literature, Wood (1984) found a significant body of research from business and industry confirming the contribution of site-based decision making to improved organizational effectiveness and employee job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was defined as the sum of 27 selected facets of a teacher's job. Research on decision making and job satisfaction in education, however, has been limited (Malen, Ogawa, & Krantz, 1989). Some researchers have found that when teachers participate in making decisions that affect their work, their job satisfaction increases (Rice, 1993; Thierbach, 1980; Weiss, 1993). Yet, although there appears to be general agreement about the importance of involvement, there is less consensus about the nature of that involvement and its relationship to job satisfaction. The question is whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction.

## Background of the Problem

During the past several decades, there has been much interest in the ways schools are run (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986). Yet, reform movements of the 1980s and 1990s have produced disappointing results (Clark & Astuto, 1994). The education community is discovering that traditional educational paradigms must be revised dramatically to meet the unique and challenging needs of the immediate and longer-term future. A significant number of national education reports have called for a fundamental reorganization to enable individual schools to define themselves to a much greater extent than they currently do. Calls for school reform and for restructuring education have been widespread. Such demands suggest that the current educational system is so fundamentally flawed that monumental changes are necessary (National Education Goals Report, 1994; Newman, 1994).

Over the past 30 years, educators have responded to the call for restructuring with a barrage of reforms and innovations. However, few of these reforms have succeeded in substantially changing the way education is managed. Cuban (1988) stated that "despite the rhetoric of reform, basic ways of schooling children have been remarkably durable over the last hundred years" (p. 341). Although many reforms have not proven successful and few have managed to produce lasting positive results, educators have continued to introduce a wide variety of educational innovations. As Goodlad (1994) noted, "Throughout the century now drawing to a close, school reform has been driven by a theory that has produced models whose appeal has been little diminished by failure" (p. 637).

Timar (1989) stated, "Although school reform has been ubiquitous for the past century, little of importance has changed. Since the advent of mass compulsory schooling, neither the technology nor the core ideology of schooling has changed substantively" (p. 267). Thus, although reforms have abounded, the issue of school governance has not changed significantly.

Raywid (1990) asserted that "nothing short of fundamental change affecting the practices of everyone within a school will suffice. . . . What must change is the way schools are governed" (p. 152). This notion of site-based or school-site management has continued to capture the attention of researchers, policy makers, and practitioners (Guthrie, 1986). The movement calls for restructuring schools through implementation of participatory or site-based management/decision making. Raywid cited the advantages of site-based management as (a) decentralization and debureaucratization and (b) teacher empowerment.

Several seminal reports of researchers have underscored the importance of teacher empowerment in the school improvement process (Darling-Hammond, 1988). In 1986, the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession challenged school district administrators to design ways of "giving teachers a greater voice in [school] decisions" (Carnegie Forum, 1986, p. 57). The following year, in Time for Results, the National Governors' Association called for the establishment of "school-site management" that would rely on the professional judgment of teachers. The rationale for greater teacher involvement in the decision-making process is grounded in the work of noted human-resources theorists such as

Maslow (1943), Miles (1965), Argyris (1962), McGregor (1960), Likert (1961), and Herzberg (1966).

Early human-relations researchers were interested in factors such as the morale, leadership, and productivity of individuals. Maslow (1943) shifted the focus of early research and looked at humans as resources within the organization. He thereby developed a theory that was more expansive and inclusive than those of earlier human-relations researchers. Maslow found that when employees worked in an organizational climate that allowed members to participate fully, those employees were more productive. In Maslow's expanded view of employee involvement, the level of decision making shifted down to where those closest to the issue should be involved in making the decisions, be able to use their experience, be able to search for novel solutions to problems, and be accountable for outcomes. During the past several decades, researchers within the educational community have continued to expand on Maslow's principles and apply those ideas to schools.

Many recent reform reports (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1993; U.S. Department of Education, 1991) have noted the need to restructure schools to enable teachers to act collaboratively with others to build collegial relationships with peers and to share in decisions that directly affect their teaching. The most common mechanism for accomplishing this reform effort has involved decision making at the local site (Glickman, 1991). This has contributed to reduced reliance on the traditional, top-down approaches and has led to a more participatory management style

(Natemeyer, 1978). Writers on the subject of improving schools have suggested that many educators and noneducators support the shift toward a decentralization of public school management and a concomitant movement toward teacher involvement in the decision-making process at the building level (David, 1989). Across the nation, school districts are beginning to place a greater onus of responsibility on individual schools to make essential decisions regarding curriculum, budgets, and staffing. An essential feature is that school faculties develop a framework of collegial and participative decision making designed to create a professional environment in which teachers' expertise and autonomy are recognized (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986).

Fundamental to this process is the appropriate involvement of school staffs in the decision-making process. Appropriate involvement is influenced by the following key factors: what the decision concerns, who participates, in what capacity and for what reasons they participate, and the extent of their involvement (Miles, 1981). Appropriate involvement must be accompanied by real authority, which is defined as control over school budgets, access to knowledge and information, and responsibility for outcomes (David, 1994). As David (1989) found in a synthesis of research on school-based management, "When extra time and energy demanded by planning and decision making are balanced by 'real authority,' teachers report increased satisfaction, even exuberance (p. 51). David defined real authority as giving schools responsibility for staffing and budgeting and by providing incentives for principals to involve teachers in school-site decisions. These changes in school organization and the appropriate involvement of teachers

in the process have resulted in a shift in the organization and structure of the school.

However, the issue of involvement is both complex and problematic, and educators still do not have a clear view of what constitutes shared decision making (Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley, & Bauer, 1990; Conley, 1991). Whereas some advocates support involvement of teachers within the school, others propose increasing the power and influence of parents and other community members in school decision making (Elmore, 1990). It also should be noted that greater involvement is not necessarily desirable (Bloom, 1995), nor is it a predictor of employee performance. Miles (1981) noted that involvement might not bring benefits; that depends on what the decision concerns and who participates, in what capacity, for what reason, and at what stage. Current research on teachers' involvement in decision making has lacked coherent theory, and conclusions have been descriptively, conceptually, and operationally weak (Bacharach et al., 1990; Conley, 1991). According to Bacharach et al., only by addressing these descriptive, conceptual, and methodological weaknesses will researchers and practitioners be able to move forward in transforming schools into organizations run by participative management methods, as recommended by reform reports.

## Statement of the Problem

Teachers' involvement in decision making has emerged as an area of significant concern in education nationwide. The dominant trend since the late 1970s has been a sharp increase in the role of individual states in education.

Raywid (1988) noted that involvement at the state level began to occur with competency testing and has escalated in recent years to include curricular mandates and increased state testing. In Michigan, involvement of teachers in the decision-making process in schools has been mandated by recent legislation. The result of the focus on involvement of teachers in the decision-making process is a growing recognition of the need for a basic redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of all in the school community. As David (1991) noted, "a sincere invitation of change, authority and flexibility, access to knowledge, and time to plan are the crucial requirements for restructuring. . . . Granting authority requires a new conception of leadership, hierarchy, and power relationships" (p. 15).

To meet this need, a national trend during the past decade has been to increase the role of states in improving education. In Michigan, the legislature enacted Public Act 25 in 1990, which was strengthened and supplemented by Public Act 335 in 1993. The purpose of this legislation was to provide a framework for major changes in curriculum and instruction, with the goal of demonstrating measurable educational improvement for all Michigan students. During the 1995-96 legislative session, Michigan lawmakers revised this school code with Public Act 289. This legislation became effective July 1, 1996. Both Public Act 25 and Public Act 289, the revised school code, mandate that each Michigan school must (a) produce an annual educational report, (b) develop a school improvement plan, (c) define a core curriculum, and (d) apply for accreditation.

The school improvement initiative described in Section 1277 of these acts states that school districts "shall adopt and implement a 3- to 5-year school

improvement plan and a continuing school improvement process for each school within the school district." Among other elements, school improvement plans must include decision making by people at the building or site level. The rationale underlying this mandate is that teachers' involvement in decision making will result in improved student achievement.

In this study, the researcher focused on one aspect of this legislation, that of requiring building-level decision making. Although the issue of teacher involvement in decision making has been given increased attention because of this state requirement, little research has been conducted on teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and the relationship of that involvement to job satisfaction. The problem is that little is known about what is actually occurring in schools. In the present study, the researcher addressed this problem by providing current information on teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in light of recent state mandates regarding the establishment of building-level decision making.

## Purpose of the Study

The researcher's purpose in this study was to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in Michigan public elementary schools and their job satisfaction. The researcher also examined variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise in decision issues, level of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement.

The researcher extended Thierbach's original research on middle school teachers in Wisconsin in 1980. In her study, Thierbach examined the relationship among teachers' decision condition (levels of actual and desired involvement), their zone of acceptance (desired involvement and expertise) regarding 20 decision issues, and their job satisfaction. She also examined the relationship of site-based management to teachers' decision involvement and job satisfaction and sought to determine the relationship among teachers' decision condition, the organizational structure of the school, and their job satisfaction.

A decade later, Rice (1993) replicated Thierbach's study. Both studies were based on the assumption that appropriate involvement of teachers in the decision-making process is related to increased job satisfaction. These investigators found a significant relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. Furthermore, it was found that teachers desired more involvement than they were offered. These findings indicate that teachers desire to be involved not only in increased decision making but also in a wide range of decision-making issues. The research design used in Thierbach's and Rice's studies of middle school teachers in Wisconsin was used as a basis in this study with a different population--public elementary school teachers in Michigan.

## Research Questions

The researcher's primary purpose in this study was to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in Michigan public elementary schools and their job satisfaction. A

secondary purpose was to examine variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise in decision issues, level of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement.

The following questions were posed to guide the collection of data for this study:

1. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers' involvement in decision making and their job satisfaction?

2. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their level of expertise in decision issues?

3. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their level of influence?

4. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to the organizational structure of the school?

5. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their desired involvement?

## Importance of the Study

A review of the literature revealed that although implementation of teacher involvement is a critical component in the decision-making process, it is often hastily conceived and is considered threatening by some teachers. In some cases, the process is merely tolerated by teachers or even actively resisted by those who view it as producing more work and/or having little or no influence on their personal or professional roles. The importance of this research lies in its potential to help

in understanding teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and its relationship to job satisfaction.

As stated earlier, school district administrators nationally are expecting faculty members in individual schools to assume greater responsibility in establishing teams and participating in developing plans for improving schools. In Michigan, the process of building-level decision making is now mandated by law. This shift toward decentralization has led to a growing recognition of the need for a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of all members of the educational community.

Researchers on decision making and job satisfaction have stressed the importance of identifying goals that are meaningfully related to the work itself. An awareness of the nature of teachers' involvement and an understanding of where teachers might be more effectively involved is important, in order to meet both their own individual goals and those of the organization. In this regard, the study will be useful in providing data that school officials can use as they plan school improvement and school reform.

Further, the study findings might have important implications for administrators and union officials as they work to help teachers communicate their interests and as they use the collective-bargaining process to increase planning time. The findings from this study may indicate key areas in which teachers derive a sense of empowerment from increased opportunities for decision making. Conversely, the findings may indicate school activities in which decision making might be perceived as a burden of responsibility. Results of the study might also

lead to be a better understanding of how teachers' time and efforts can best be used in establishing and managing the decision-making process as local school improvement efforts continue.

## Limitations

The study was limited to the 20 specific decisional issues and areas addressed in the survey. Although the reliability and validity of these items were confirmed, this limitation should be recognized. It also should be noted that the questions on the instrument called for teachers' self-reports. Because the survey involved teachers' self-reports of their actual and desired involvement, their expertise, and their job satisfaction, the results are influenced by the accuracy and reliability of those reports. Also, the survey items were subject to individual interpretation. Respondents might have been biased by situational and personal factors that could have distorted the results and hence the interpretation of the data. A further limitation was that the target population comprised a relatively small number of public elementary school teachers in Michigan. The viewpoints of only those teachers in the sample were represented in the study.

## Definition of Terms

Definitions of the terms used in this study are requisite to understanding the research. The following terms were used in the Thierbach (1980) and Rice (1993) studies and are defined in the context in which they are used in this study.

Actual involvement. The degree to which teachers actually are involved in making decisions regarding 20 specific issues.

Decision condition. One of three general types, determined by the discrepancy between teachers' actual and desired involvement in making decisions regarding 20 specific issues. In this study, teachers' decision condition was classified as follows:

**Decision deprivation**--decision involvement less than desired.

**Decision equilibrium**--decision involvement as much as desired.

**Decision saturation**--decision involvement more than desired.

Decision discrepancy. The difference between teachers' actual and desired levels of involvement in the decision-making process.

Decision domain. The area in which particular types of decisions are made, as follows:

**Managerial**--decisions regarding such issues as the procurement and disposal of resources, e.g., schoolwide issues. Examples include establishing schoolwide goals and disciplinary policies, evaluating teachers, hiring teachers, and so on.

**Technical**--decisions directly related to the core, or productive, operation of the organization, e.g., issues related to teaching and instruction. Examples include student record keeping, grading and assessment procedures, textbook selection, and so on.

Decision involvement. The degree to which teachers report that they are involved in decision making with regard to a particular issue. In this study, degree of decision involvement was measured using a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from great involvement to no involvement.

Desired involvement. The degree to which teachers would like to be involved in making decisions regarding 20 specific issues.

Expertise in decision issues. An individual's knowledge or competence regarding a particular decision issue.

Influence in decision making. An individual's ability to produce change in schools through participation in the decision-making process.

Job satisfaction. Satisfaction derived from teaching, as reflected by teachers' responses to 27 questions using a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. The questions were divided into nine subscales according to Speed's adaptation of the Mendenhall (1977) Job Satisfaction Survey. The subscales were administration/supervision, co-workers, career future, school identification, financial aspects, work conditions, amount of work, pupil-teacher relations, and community relations.

Organizational structure of the school. The organizational framework by which the school staff works collaboratively to identify goals according to the following criteria: Goals are specific, measurable, accountability based, resource oriented, and time bound.

Zone of acceptance/indifference. The range of behavior within which subordinates are willing to accept the decisions made for them by others. The zone of acceptance or indifference is determined using a combined measure of an individual's desired level of involvement in a particular issue and his or her expertise regarding that issue. Decision involvement within this zone is considered less effective than that outside the zone.

## Overview

Chapter I contained an introduction to the study, the background of the problem, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, importance of the study, limitations, and definitions of key terms.

Chapter II contains a review of literature and research on topics related to this study. The theoretical framework of the study also is discussed.

The study design and methodology are described in Chapter III. The population is described, and the research questions and hypotheses are set forth. The instrumentation and data-collection procedures are discussed, and data-analysis techniques are explained.

The results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter IV. A summary of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, recommendations for practice and further research, and the researcher's reflections are presented in Chapter V.

# CHAPTER II

# REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## Introduction

The researcher's primary purpose in this study was to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in Michigan public elementary schools and their job satisfaction. A secondary purpose was to examine variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise in decision issues, level of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement.

This chapter commences with a selective review of the literature on teachers' involvement in decision making. Next, topics related to the theoretical and conceptual framework for the study are discussed. These include job satisfaction, decision involvement and job satisfaction, social systems theory, the theory of cooperation in organizations, and decision theory. The chapter concludes with a summary and a rationale for applying the findings from the literature review to the purposes of this study.

## Teachers' Involvement in Decision Making

In recent years, teachers' participation in organizational decision making has become an increasingly prevalent theme in educational literature and actual on-site

practice. A significant number of national reports have recommended that teachers and administrators within schools expand their roles and increase their levels of involvement over what is currently the case (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Committee for Economic Development, 1985; National Governors' Association, 1986). As Wirth (1993) noted, the most promising efforts of the 1990s to invigorate the educational system have been undertaken through adopting participative styles of management that support local creativity, autonomy, and problem solving. However, involvement is not a recent phenomenon, nor has it always been politically underwritten. It has been a topic of discussion since the turn of the century, when John Dewey (1903) wrote:

> Until the public school system is organized in such a way that every teacher has some regular and representative way . . . [to] register judgment upon matters of educational importance--with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system--the assertion that the present system is not . . . democratic seems to be justified. Either we [find] some fixed and inherent limitation of the democratic principle, or else we find in this fact an obvious discrepancy between the conduct of the school and the conduct of social life--a discrepancy so great as to demand immediate and persistent effort at reform. (p. 195

A significant body of research from business and industry has generally confirmed the importance of individual decision making in contributing to organizational effectiveness and high morale among employees (Wood, 1984). Much of the current understanding of organizational behavior, as it relates to the decision-making process, can be traced to the seminal work of Barnard (1938) and Simon (1945). It was Simon's later work with March (March & Simon, 1958) that underscored the importance of the decision-making process to organizational effectiveness. In an early study of blue-collar workers, Coch and French (1948)

concluded that when workers have an opportunity to be a part of the process, they tend to be more productive and more satisfied with their jobs.

The above-mentioned theorists did not study workers in the field of education. However, recent national education committee reports have presented recommendations for major changes in the ways schools are organized and in the ways they are operated (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; National Governors' Association, 1986; U.S. Department of Education, 1991). A key element in these reports is the emphasis on teachers' involvement in the decision-making process. In a review of literature on decision making, Lipham, Dunstan, and Rankin (1981) and Wallace (1990) claimed that teachers who are affected by a decision should have a part in developing and formulating that decision.

Much has been written about teachers' desire to have a greater share in the decision-making process in the public school system (Boyan, 1966; Robinson, 1971), and this has become a theme in the literature on involvement (Lipham et al., 1981). However, research on teachers' involvement in decision making is sparse (Malen et al., 1989).

The premise underlying the benefits of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process is that when individuals exercise more control over decisions that affect their professional work environment, they become more productive as teachers, stimulate changes in educational programming, and increase students' achievement (Wallace, 1990). They gain ownership of their environment. This notion was supported by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), who asserted that when

teachers are involved in school decisions, their commitment to the goals and objectives of the school is increased.

In recent years, participation in organizational decision making has become a popular theme in education. In the Harvard Education Letter, Miller (1995) cited the common assumptions that shared decision making will:

- produce better decisions on curricular and pedagogical matters,
- promote reform and innovation by unleashing teachers' creativity,
- fill a need for teachers to have some control over their work lives, and
- lead to improved student achievement. (p. 1)

Research on involvement has indicated that teachers want involvement in areas most closely connected to their day-to-day work lives. They prefer to exert influence over operational classroom decisions in such areas as course content, methods, and textbook selection (Bacharach, Bauer, & Conley, 1986; Conley & Bacharach, 1990; Mohrman, Cooke, & Mohrman, 1978; Shedd, 1988). Lortie (1969) found that teachers prefer decision autonomy within their own classrooms over participation in personnel decisions about other teachers. Johnston and Germinario (1985) found that the desire to participate is strongest in areas related to teachers' work and the learning process. One often-cited conclusion is that the personal autonomy that results from teachers' involvement in decision making can be an important factor in their professionalization (Lortie, 1969; Marjoribanks, 1977; Schwille, Porter, & Gant, 1980).

However, teachers are not homogeneous in their desire for participation (Alutto & Belasco, 1972; Bartunek & Keys, 1979; Conway, 1976). A reason commonly cited is that teachers dislike interruption and interference in their primary

instructional role (Alutto & Belasco, 1972; Bridges, 1964; Johnson & Germinario, 1985). Teachers are least desirous of having influence on strategic organizational decisions that deal with matters that lie outside the realm of the classroom; such decisions include hiring and budget decisions (Conley & Bacharach, 1990). Shedd (1988) found that the decisions about which teachers feel most deprived, as measured by the discrepancy between their actual and desired influence, are those that concern the strategic/operational interface or the interaction between the school and the classroom. Duke, Showers, and Imber (1980a) cited the following four reasons that, despite the proven benefits of teacher involvement and the existence of opportunities to become involved in school decision making, many teachers choose not to participate. They might (a) lack self-confidence and a sense of efficacy to share in decision making, (b) lack interest in the problem, (c) trust their principal to arrive at a satisfactory decision without them, and (d) perceive the costs of participation as high relative to the benefits.

Decision involvement, then, is not always a viable strategy for all segments of the teacher population (Alutto & Belasco, 1972a). Some researchers have found that not all teachers share an equal desire for involvement. There is evidence of a wide divergence in the desire for involvement, based on demographics. For example, teachers who are younger, married, male, employed in secondary schools, and from higher social class backgrounds tend to be more "professional in orientation" (Belasco & Alutto, 1972, p. 46) and thus desire greater involvement.

Other researchers have found that some teachers think that the costs of involvement exceed the benefits. In their research on teachers' involvement in decision making, Duke et al. (1980a) wrote:

> Shared decision making was viewed as a formality or an attempt to create the illusion of teacher influence. . . . Since the teachers were less than enthusiastic about participating in shared decision making, . . . they believed that the probability of actually realizing the potential benefits of participation was very low. . . . Shared decision making does not mean shared influence. . . . When teachers are invited to share in school decision making, it usually means attending meetings, expressing an opinion and perhaps giving advice to administrators. Rather, however, can a real shift in power be detected? (p. 104)

Issues such as these underscore the importance of studying the cost to teachers of involvement. Costs of involvement have been reported as increased time demands, loss of autonomy, risk of collegial disfavor, subversion of collective-bargaining gains, and threat to career advancement (Duke et al., 1980b; ERIC Clearinghouse, 1977; Hajnik, 1988). David (1989b) noted that teachers are finding much more time added to an already time-consuming job. Paradoxically, however, through the process of involvement, teachers actually become more enthusiastic and feel more control.

The benefits of involvement cited by researchers include feelings of self-efficacy, a sense of decisional ownership, and the advancement of workplace democracy (Hajnik, 1988). Of interest to school planners and administrators is how to increase teachers' positive feelings about their involvement. Administrators can encourage teachers to perceive benefits as outweighing costs through empowering their staffs by providing authority, flexibility, and resources to solve the educational problems particular to their schools (Elmore & Associates, 1990; Raywid, 1990).

## Theoretical and Conceptual Framework for the Study

Several major areas of research are germane to establishing the context and explaining the content of this study. They include job satisfaction theory, social systems theory, cooperation theory, and decision theory. Although these theories were not derived from educational environments, if a general model of formal organizations is extrapolated to encompass all formal organizations, including schools, their general operative behavior and that of the individuals therein must be sufficiently similar to be evaluated in light of these general theories.

The complexity of educational organizations and the rapidly changing world indicate that understanding job satisfaction and work motivation may be key to increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of the educational delivery system. Job satisfaction and its importance to decision involvement in the context of educational institutions are addressed in the next section. That discussion forms the foundation and framework of this study.

### Job Satisfaction

This section contains a discussion of job satisfaction and its theoretical basis and concludes with an examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and involvement in decision making. A review of the literature revealed that many researchers have identified involvement in decision making as important to the organizational outcome of job satisfaction (Schneider, 1985).

Although the terms *motivation* and *job satisfaction* often are used interchangeably, there is an important distinction between the two. Luthans (1977)

defined motivation as a process that can affect job satisfaction, whereas job satisfaction is essentially an attitude or an internal cognitive state. Luthans contended that motivation consists of complex forces that sustain individuals' activities that are conducted to achieve personal goals and has direct implications for the consequences of performance and satisfaction. In this review, the research on motivation as it applies to job satisfaction is examined.

One of the most influential theorists in the field of motivation was Abraham Maslow (1943), who published a classic article outlining the elements of motivation. Drawing primarily from his clinical experience, Maslow formulated a theory that describes motivation as occurring in an ascending hierarchy of needs that includes (a) physiological needs, (b) safety needs, (c) love needs, (d) esteem needs, and (e) self-actualization needs.

Maslow contended that once an individual has satisfied his or her need at one level, that need no longer serves to motivate. So, for that person to be motivated, he or she must address the next higher level of need. The ultimate need category, that of self-actualization, involves continued self-development and the desire to become more of what one is and what one is capable of becoming. Hammer and Organ (1978) found that conditions of modern industrial life afford only limited opportunity for the self-actualizing need to find expression. Maslow's notion of self-actualization served as the basis for McGregor's (1960) Theory Y, which assumed that motivation was based on self-direction, self-control, and maturity.

Argyris (1964) based his work on Maslow's theory but discounted the importance of lower levels of physiological needs; he argued that managers do meet

these basic needs. Rather, Argyris underscored the importance of making work worthwhile. He noted that often when people are dissatisfied with their jobs, managers tend to increase salaries or benefits and to alter work conditions; however, these adjustments fail to provide job fulfillment. Argyris argued that when workers experience little or no self-esteem from their work, they are neither satisfied nor motivated.

Porter (1963) conceived a hierarchy based on Maslow's needs, with the inclusion of autonomy between the levels of self-esteem and self-actualization. Porter distinguished between the needs for authority, independent thought, and participation and the need for for self-esteem and prestige. He was interested in the individual's needs to (a) be involved in decisions in the workplace, (b) exert influence in controlling the work situation, (c) have a voice in setting goals, and (d) possess both the authority to make decisions and the latitude to work independently. Porter found that self-esteem is generally the need that is least satisfied. Similarly, in a 1966 study, Trusty and Sergiovanni found that the largest deficiencies for professionals were in satisfying needs in the areas of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization.

Herzberg (1966) extended the work of Maslow and developed a two-factor theory of work motivation. In his study of industrial workers, he found that satisfaction, as reported in terms of positive events, was associated with achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Conversely, negative events were dominated by references to interpersonal relations with superiors and peers, technical supervision, company policy and administration,

working conditions, and personal life. The basic premise of Herzberg's theory is that one set of rewards will contribute to job satisfaction, whereas another set will lead to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's theory is significant because it brought into question the traditional practice of supervisors who sought to increase motivation by concentrating on extrinsic factors to solve problems. The practices traditionally undertaken to improve workers' morale included increasing pay, adding fringe benefits, and improving physical working conditions. Herzberg claimed that extrinsic or hygiene factors cannot motivate, and when used to achieve that goal can actually produce negative effects.

Herzberg (1966, 1987) contended that job satisfiers, which he labeled motivators, were related to the job content, whereas job dissatisfiers, which he termed hygiene factors, were allied to the job context. Herzberg cited motivators as either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivators (which he initially referred to as hygiene factors) are factors originating outside individuals; they include pay, benefits, working conditions, and supervision. Intrinsic motivators originate within individuals and include the following:

1. **Information**, so that people understand what it is they are being asked to do, and how it fits into a series of larger units, such as a school.

2. **Control over work**, particularly as this relates to information about goals and measurements, and the individuals' direct delivery toward those goals.

3. **Respect** for workers as individuals, for who they are and what they do.

4. **Chances to grow** as human beings. Herzberg related this to a chance to grow according to one's spirit, at one's own pace, and as a human being in a work setting.

These intrinsic motivators are related to work motivation, effort, and caring. Herzberg contended that the key to maintaining individuals' motivation over the long term lay in the intrinsic motivators. Responding to this, Dolan (1994) noted:

> The tragedy of [Herzberg's] description of motivators and demotivators is that, by definition, the orthodoxy of our Western model denies those persons at the bottom of the pyramid any chance at the intrinsic motivators. They exist in a state of no information, no power, very little respect, and a feeling of being trapped forever in this impotency and disenfranchisement. (p. 23)

Herzberg (1967) stated one caveat in generalizing about his findings: "A deprivation in hygiene factors can lead to job dissatisfaction, but their amelioration does not lead to job satisfaction" (p. 61). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) supported this assertion and elaborated on it by stating, "Hygiene factors, when satisfied, tend to eliminate dissatisfaction and work restriction, but they do little to motivate an individual to superior performance or increased capacity" (p. 59). However, intrinsic motivators are complex, subjective, and difficult to measure. But to the extent that management concentrates on the extrinsic factors, while at the same time neglecting the intrinsic motivators, workers are probably going to seek more of the hygiene factors (Hammer & Organ, 1978).

It should be noted that although Herzberg's theory has been influential and widely cited, it has not been universally accepted. One of the early theorists to question Herzberg's theory was Victor Vroom (1964), who proposed an expectancy theory of work motivation as an alternative to the content-based theories of Maslow

and Herzberg. Vroom reviewed 20 studies concerned with job satisfaction and concluded that the issue of job content and job context in relationship to satisfaction is dependent on the nature of the content and work roles of the individuals involved. He found a low but consistent relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Vroom's basic assumption can be summarized as follows: "The choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior" (pp. 14-15). Luthans (1977) claimed that both Herzberg and Maslow oversimplified the issue of motivation and that Vroom's model has achieved recognition because it avoids simplistic explanations.

Whereas Herzberg's and Vroom's theories are fundamental to an understanding of job satisfaction, their models do not address the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Porter and Lawler (1968) identified this relationship as a necessary one and addressed it through an expectancy-based model of performance and job satisfaction. In that model, the three variables of motivation, satisfaction, and performance are viewed as essentially different and separate. Porter and Lawler claimed that motivation does not lead to performance, and that what is important is what happens following the performance. They were more concerned with the rewards that follow the performance. Porter and Lawler asserted that it is the performance that leads to satisfaction, rather than the reverse. This assertion constituted a significant reversal from traditional thinking.

Theorists such as McGregor (1960), Herzberg (1966), and McClelland (1984) have agreed on the importance of motivation and job satisfaction; however, practical

application of theory has not led to clear answers (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). Although the psychology of motivation and the structure of educational institutions are complex issues, a recurring theme, one originally proposed by Herzberg, is that the only way to motivate employees is to give them challenging work in which they assume responsibility.

This theme is consistent with the findings of researchers on job satisfaction and motivation, who have called for organizational restructuring to increase workers' abilities to achieve goals that are meaningfully related to the work itself. It underscores the importance of recent emphasis on the value of job enrichment and quality of work life. Miskel's (1975) synthesis of research on motivation theory revealed a direct, positive relationship between teachers' job satisfaction levels and the congruence between their preferences for ideal conditions of work and what they perceived as actually existing in their jobs. This finding underscores the significance of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process. The relationship between decision involvement and job satisfaction is discussed in the next section.

Decision involvement and job satisfaction. Many theorists have suggested that job satisfaction is related to individuals' perceptions of their needs' being fulfilled through work (Coates, 1992). Early studies of job satisfaction focused on the work environment but were conducted primarily in industrial settings. In one study of job satisfaction and productivity, Morse and Reimer (1956) found that job satisfaction increased significantly for rank-and-file employees who were involved in the decision-making process.

In a comprehensive review of the literature, Katzell and Yankelovich (1975) cited a number of studies that confirmed the significant relationship between decision involvement and job satisfaction. The findings of these studies indicated that:

1. Work groups whose members have more say over the group's production goals, work, and working conditions usually have higher average job satisfaction than those having less control.

2. Members of participative groups have stronger work motivation.

3. Productivity is usually, but not always, higher in groups having more control.

4. Productivity through changed control patterns occurs when groups are given a greater say in goal setting and when groups are involved in determining modes of pay for performance.

The literature underscores the complexity of decision involvement and job satisfaction and reflects the interdependence of organizational, personal, and situational variables in the process. Alutto and Belasco (1972a, 1972b) sought to clarify this issue by investigating the relationship between the extent of decision involvement and job satisfaction. They developed a discrepancy measure to indicate the difference between teachers' actual and desired levels of decision involvement. They represented the discrepancy in teachers' desires for decisional involvement on a continuum exemplified by the following three conditions:

1. **Decisional deprivation**. Teachers in this category are involved less than they desire. They want less administrative control and more direct say in

running the school; these teachers tend to be more professionally oriented, to experience more role conflict, and to be more dissatisfied than their less militant colleagues. Conway (1976) believed that the largest proportion of teachers fall into this category.

2. **Decisional equilibrium**. This category includes teachers who are satisfied with the status quo. They experience less tension on the job, display more trust, and are the most satisfied group of teachers.

3. **Decisional saturation**. Teachers in this category are involved more than they want to be. Decisional saturation most often occurs among older female teachers who think they are being asked to participate in more decisions than they can handle.

Alutto and Belasco (1972) regarded job satisfaction as a willingness to remain within a school organization despite inducements to leave. In their study, they found that teachers who desired greater involvement reflected low levels of job satisfaction. The teachers in the decision condition of saturation scored higher in their perceptions of the system than did those in the condition of deprivation, but not as high as those in equilibrium. These findings suggested the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between decision involvement and job satisfaction.

Researchers have determined that there is a significant relationship between teachers' decision condition and their level of job satisfaction (Rice, 1993; Schneider, 1985). Some researchers have found that it is possible to overinvolve individuals in decision making and that decisional saturation often results in decreased job satisfaction (Alutto & Belasco, 1972a, 1972b; Conway, 1976; Mohrman et al., 1978).

Other researchers, however, have found that the point of saturation has not been reached (Flannery, 1980; Schneider, 1984; Warner, 1981). Schneider (1985) concluded that administrators have considerable latitude in which to increase teachers' involvement in decision making before diminishing their job satisfaction.

Thierbach (1980) drew upon the Alutto and Belasco study by investigating the relationship between decision condition and job satisfaction. She found a significant relationship between decision condition, determined through the use of a measure of discrepancy between actual and desired involvement, and job satisfaction. Her findings also indicated that teachers' perceived levels of influence in the decision-making process were positively related to their level of job satisfaction; this relationship was statistically significant. As staffs become more involved in collaborative decision making, the organizational structure evolves from one with a hierarchical, stratified structure to one that recognizes input of human interaction and operates systemically as a social system. The following section contains a review of the literature related to social systems theory.

Social Systems Theory

Half a century ago, Max Weber (1947) described the ideal organization as a bureaucracy, which he defined as comprising four characteristics. According to Weber, people and their positions are (a) specialized, with labors divided by function; (b) arranged in a hierarchy; (c) governed by a system of abstract rules; and (d) related impersonally.

Weber contended that organizations modeled on these principles would function as completely rational organizations. However, as bureaucracies evolved during the mid-twentieth century, organizations became characterized by hierarchical structures that served to inhibit employees' participation and communication. Behavioral theorists and researchers, including renowned scholars Robert Merton and Philip Selznick, have pointed to behavioral dysfunctions that result from bureaucratic structures (Luthans, 1977). Selznick (1947) was concerned with the dysfunctions of traditional bureaucracy and was convinced that organizational systems would function better if collaborative working relationships were promoted and authority and responsibility were delegated deep into the organization.

Many other modern organizational theorists have agreed with Selznick's viewpoint. Bennis (cited by Natemeyer, 1978) made the following prediction: "In the next 25 to 50 years, we will participate in the end of bureaucracy as we know it and the rise of new social systems better suited to 20th century demands of industrialization" (p. 281). According to Natemeyer,

> This forecast was based on the evolutionary principle that every age develops an organizational form appropriate to its genius and that the prevailing form of pyramidal-hierarchical organization known by sociologists as "bureaucracy" and most businessmen as "that damn bureaucracy," was out of joint with contemporary realities. (p. 281)

The traditional bureaucratic organizational structure is still prevalent today. However, organizations generally exhibit the characteristics of social systems, and as such, are dependent on the needs of both the organization and the individual (Hoy, 1982). The school represents a unique form of social system. Although the

school functions as a formal organization that operates with an established system of rules and regulations that guide organizational behavior, it also functions as a system with a complex network of professional and social relationships supported by a unique culture. Hoy and Miskel (1982) referred to the school as a social system characterized by an interdependence of parts, a clearly defined population, differentiation from its environment, a complex network of social relationships, and its own unique culture.

Social systems theory provides a conceptual framework within which to study the interdependence and working relationships between the formal organization and its members. As such, social systems theory has important implications for the field of education. Because the school is a social system, it must reflect the alignment of the formal, bureaucratic structure with characteristics of human behavior. Understanding human behavior within the school organization is fundamental to the success of the organization. Getzels and Guba (1957) studied human behavior in organizations and explained social behavior as a function of the interactions between the institution and the individuals within it. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) applied the earlier Getzels and Guba model to the field of education.

The social systems approach to management and administration takes into consideration the interrelationship and interdependence among the members of an organization. Yet the organization is represented as a whole. Getzels et al. (1968) depicted the school as an organization that could be illustrated in terms of two conceptually independent yet essentially interactive dimensions: the normative (institutional) and the personal (ideographic). Organizational effectiveness is

predicated on achieving and maintaining a balance between these two dimensions (see Figure 2.1).

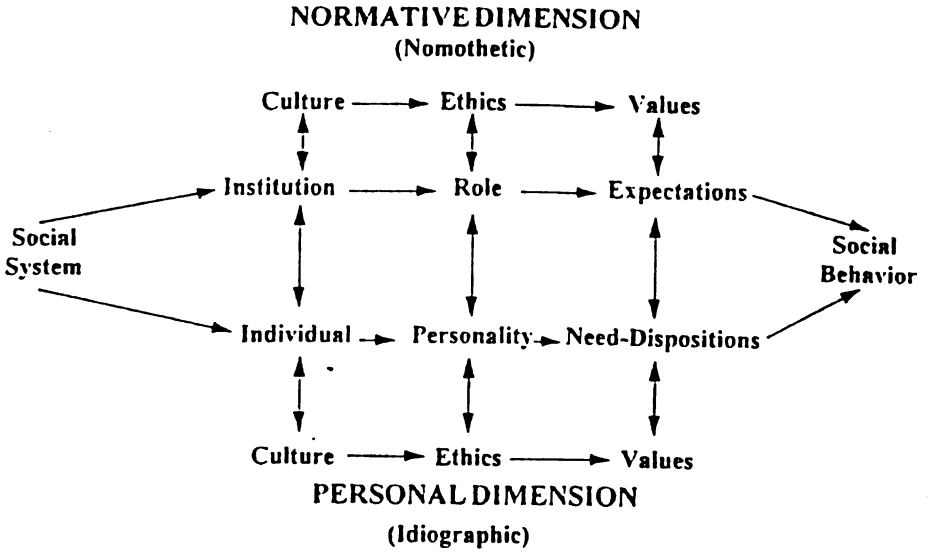


Figure 2.1: Model of the major dimensions of behavior in a social system.

Source: Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. (1968). Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper & Row, p. 286.

Rooted in the literature on social systems is the importance of a bottom-up input strategy that generates a shared vision among the organization's members of what the school might be, thereby creating a team spirit, cultivating mutual trust, and building emotional bonds through collaboration and the development of common assumptions regarding school issues (Cuban, 1984; Holt, 1993; Prager, 1992; Raywid, 1990). Dolan (1994) noted that the system too often does not include input from teachers:

> The information that is accessible to the teacher is too often not helpful, not timely, and has very little to do with what is actually going on in his or her classroom. . . . If you are going to redesign an educational system so that it places responsibility for quality where it belongs--with those who do the work

--then *they* have to help create the vision, the goals, the measures that are relevant to them. (p. 72)

The relationship of social systems theory to the present study lies in the assumption that involving teachers in the decision-making process will help to establish an important balance between the personal needs of the individuals and the organizational needs of the school. This assumption is supported by Barnard's theory of cooperation in organizations, which is discussed in the following section.

## The Theory of Cooperation in Organizations

The theory of cooperation in organizations is based on the importance of collaborative, systemic, on-site decision making in order to set and achieve organizational goals. Researchers on organizations and organizational effectiveness have identified a basic need for individuals in organizations to establish and maintain a central guiding purpose toward which efforts of all people within the organization are directed. Raywid (1990) studied educational organizations and found that research has revealed strong agreement with the assumption that shared values and a stated, mutually-agreed-upon mission contribute significantly to a school's effectiveness.

Much of the understanding of school organizational behavior, as it relates to the complexities of decision making, can be traced to the seminal work of Barnard (1938) and Simon (1945). In Functions of the Executive, Barnard proposed a theory of cooperation in organizations, in which he posited that all organizations must identify a central, unifying purpose in order to be effective and efficient. Barnard differentiated between these two terms by defining effectiveness as the ability to

achieve organizational goals and efficiency as the ability to achieve personal, individual goals. As members of a complex, formal organization, school personnel must establish a purpose that will then become the unifying element of the organization--a cohesive, conceptual theme that is accepted by all. Organizational goals that derive from the central purpose ultimately will determine the direction and effectiveness of the organization, and as goals are continually defined and redefined, the organization renews itself. As the purpose or mission is accomplished through an on-going alignment process, the success of the organization will be achieved, but once objectives are achieved, new goals need to be set. The goal-setting process thus becomes a continuous one.

The theory of cooperation in organizations highlights the importance of involving individuals within the organization in establishing an organizational purpose that serves as a map to achieving organizational and individual goals. Barnard (1938) claimed that although individuals in the formal organization must continually set new organizational goals, they also must and generally will align their personal goals with those of the organization, in order to achieve efficiency. According to Barnard's theory of cooperation in organizations, when organizational and individual goals are aligned, the result is organizational effectiveness, efficiency, stability, and equilibrium. In subsequent research, March and Simon (1958) elaborated further on the central role of the collaborative decision-making process in organizational behavior and its potential for increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. This relationship is depicted in Figure 2.2.


Figure 2.2: The theory of cooperation in organizations.

Source: Based on Barnard, C. (1938). Functions of the executive. Boston: Cambridge University Press.

Barnard's theory of cooperation in organizations and Getzels and Guba's (1957) theory of social systems, which was discussed earlier in this chapter, are compatible. Getzels and Guba claimed that role conflicts occur when individuals are required to conform to organizational expectations that are inconsistent and dissonant with their own goals. The dilemma this poses is solved only if organizational and individual needs, expectations, and goals can be made to coincide. However, organizational goals often are not aligned with goals of individuals; further, formal organizational goals often do not conform to the operative, daily goals of the organization (Hoy & Miskel, 1982; Weatherly & Lipsky, 1977). In such cases, the organization will find it difficult to be efficient in achieving the goals of individuals. Dolan (1994) warned of this by noting that:

> Remedies [to organizational dysfunctions] look dangerously like the dysfunctions that they are meant to heal. They are almost always imposed from above, driven in isolated and unintegrated fashion, focused on short-

> term quantitative results, and seldom if ever involve the people who do the work. The net result is often further dysfunction and deeper anger and frustration. (p. 50)

For these reasons, it is important to note that both Barnard's and Getzels and Guba's theories recognize and stress the importance of aligning organizational and individual goals.

The organizational theories described above may be applied to schools. It would seem likely that if schools, as both social systems and complex formal organizations, establish purposes through a process of collaborative decision making, the effectiveness and efficiency of the school organization should be enhanced. Covey (1992) emphasized the importance of alignment in organizations, where "everything serves to help the individual be productive and effective. . . . If there is misalignment of structure and systems, you will not have empowerment or trust" (p. 65).

To achieve collaborative purpose setting, some educators favor individual and group empowerment by providing teachers with more control over more of the decisions they make (Griffiths, 1979; Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Mitchell, 1978; Pipho, 1986). Harrison, Killion, and Mitchell (1989) agreed but added that this process must entail defining how school staffs can work collaboratively to make decisions. They found that persons responsible for carrying out decisions must create ownership for those decisions by being directly involved in the decision process and by trusting their own abilities and judgments in implementation.

Various writers have addressed the issue of control as a result of involvement in decision making. Tannenbaum (1962) studied the dynamics of control in

organizations and found that promoting a high level of total control by employees at all levels in an organization may encourage increased participation and mutual influence throughout the system. Raywid (1990) cited the importance of setting parameters (equity and standards) while allowing individual schools to have extensive autonomy in terms of setting goals, priorities, curricular organization, and learning activities. To achieve balance between empowerment and accountability, goals must be crafted school by school, from the bottom up.

The importance of collegiality within a supportive climate must not be overlooked. As Deming (1986) noted, the climate of an organization influences an individual's contribution far more than does the individual himself or herself. Deming emphasized that excellence derives from the ways in which people work together; the key is not the practices of routine assessment and grading of students, but rather the achievement of a collegiality that comes about when those in the school share common beliefs about its practice.

The premise is that when organizational restructuring includes decision making by those at the site, the result will be improved schools, as reflected by enhanced student performance. However, not all researchers agree on this premise. Imber and Duke (1984) found "no strong empirical confirmation for theoretical claims that high levels of teacher involvement in school decision making would improve schools" (p. 24). This is an important distinction. Newman (1994) contended that merely granting teachers greater responsibility for decisions that affect their jobs does not guarantee that instruction will improve. In his study of schools where teachers did exert responsibility in making decisions, Newman found

that the new responsibilities, by themselves, did not always result in improved instruction. He concluded that it does not necessarily follow that involvement leads to improvement.

In a comprehensive synthesis of research on school management, David (1989) noted that a genuine shift in management responsibility to individual schools necessitates a change in roles, routines, and relationships for all who are involved. David further stressed that successful teacher empowerment must be guided by strong leadership and must be accompanied by authority, flexibility, and resources to address issues at the local site. Further, as noted earlier in this review, some researchers have found the possibility that "over-involvement in decision making may result in a decrease in job satisfaction" (Schneider, 1985, p. 3).

As stated before, Barnard (1938) theorized that people will focus their energy to achieve individual and organizational purposes. Working collaboratively to establish organizational goals is critical. Goodlad (1994) underscored the importance of faculty's working together to define a mission because it is "mission that fuels passions, engenders hope, and motivates effort" (p. 636). Because collaborative decision making requires much individual time and energy, there must be a balance between organizational and individual goals.

Extending Barnard's theory, the assumption is that school improvement teams and the plans they generate will have a greater chance for success if all those involved exhibit similar patterns of agreement, priorities, and levels of individual commitment (Robinson, 1971). Fundamental to Barnard's theory is the importance of collaboration to continually redefine the organizational mission and/or purposes.

Goodlad (1984) echoed this idea by calling for on-going organizational renewal as a requisite to motivate and energize staffs. Goodlad further stated, "In the absence of an agenda that continues to motivate and satisfy, the mission fades, and renewal comes to a halt" (p. 633).

In addition to understanding the theories of social systems and cooperation in organizations, an understanding of decision theory is a fundamental element in formulating a coherent thesis regarding teachers' involvement in the decision-making process. Decision theory is discussed in the following section.

Decision Theory

A review of the literature revealed that it is difficult to identify a singular decision-making variable as key to organizational effectiveness. However, researchers have identified the process of decision making as one important factor contributing to that effectiveness. Involvement in shared decision making is a complex, multidimensional issue. Research on organizational decision making has reflected this complexity, which results from the interaction of numerous factors, including organizational, situational, and personal variables (Cuban, 1984).

Decision theory can be helpful in understanding the decision-making process. Lipham and Hoeh (1974) designed a model based on the notion that decision making is a process, influenced by information and values, in which a problem is identified, alternative solutions are formulated and weighed, and a choice is made that subsequently is implemented and evaluated. Lipham and Hoeh noted that the decision-making process has three dimensions: content, stages, and involvement.

They identified content as the nature of the decision as it relates to six content areas in education: curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant services, and home-school-community relations. The six stages of decision making, according to these authors, include identifying the problem, defining the problem, determining alternatives, making the decision choice, implementing the decision, and evaluating the effectiveness of the decision.

In the present study, the writer did not address the six stages of involvement identified by Lipham. Rather, she focused on the six content areas and the extent of teacher involvement within those areas. The study involved the type and the extent of teachers' involvement and was built on decision theory, social systems theory, and Barnard's theory of cooperation in organizations.

Types of decisions and the extent of teacher involvement in making those decisions are examples of conflicts that lie at the heart of the tension between bureaucratic values and a professional ethos (Conley & Bacharach, 1990). As Hoy and Miskel (1982) noted:

> If any issue is highly relevant to participants, who are also highly expert, then it clearly falls outside the zone of acceptance; teachers frequently should be involved in the decision making when it is outside of their zone of acceptance. The involvement should be as early as possible in the process in order to maximize participation. If, however, an issue is of low relevance and participant expertise is also low, then the issue clearly falls inside the zone of acceptance, [and] teachers will accept the decision more readily. In this case, the model suggests teacher involvement in the decision-making process is neither desirable nor effective. (pp. 285-286)

In 1972, Alutto and Belasco extended Hoy and Miskel's model to include the relationship of decision involvement to job satisfaction. They used a discrepancy

model that differentiated between actual and desired involvement in the decision-making process. Alutto and Belasco found a positive correlation between decision involvement and job satisfaction. Later studies also have supported the notion of a positive correlation between decision involvement and job satisfaction (Duke et al., 1980a; Rice, 1993; Thierbach, 1980; Warner, 1981).

The implication of such research is that effective decision making is based in part on the nature of the decision, the expertise of the teachers in the decision issue, and the relevance of the decision to the teachers. When these factors are considered, decisions can be more effective.

One theory suggests that teachers are basically satisfied with the traditional system, which is based on the hierarchical structure of schools, as well as on administrative decision making. This concept was supported by the work of Kunz and Hoy (1976), who found that teachers were content to leave decisions that lay within their zone of acceptance to administrators. The issue rests on a definition of the specific types of decisions that lie within teachers' zones of acceptance. Barnard (1938) theorized that there are certain decision areas in which subordinates have little or no interest. He also conceptualized a zone of indifference within which individuals will accept decisions without question. Bridges (1967) expanded on Barnard's conceptualization of the zone of indifference in a model for shared decision making, proposing a method of determining teachers' zone of indifference by applying two tests: a test of relevance (interest) and a test of expertise (knowledge). Combined, the results of these tests indicate whether decisions lie within the teachers' zone of indifference. Bridges contended that decisions made

within this zone will result in less effective involvement in decisions, whereas decisions made outside the zone of indifference will result in more effective involvement.

Clear and Seager (1971) coined a more positive term than zone of indifference, referring instead to a zone of acceptance. Hoy and Miskel (1982) elaborated on the concept of a zone of acceptance and developed a model of tests of relevance and expertise to generalize about which decisions teachers should be involved in making. (Hoy and Miskel's model of decision involvement based on the zone of acceptance is depicted in Figure 2.3.)

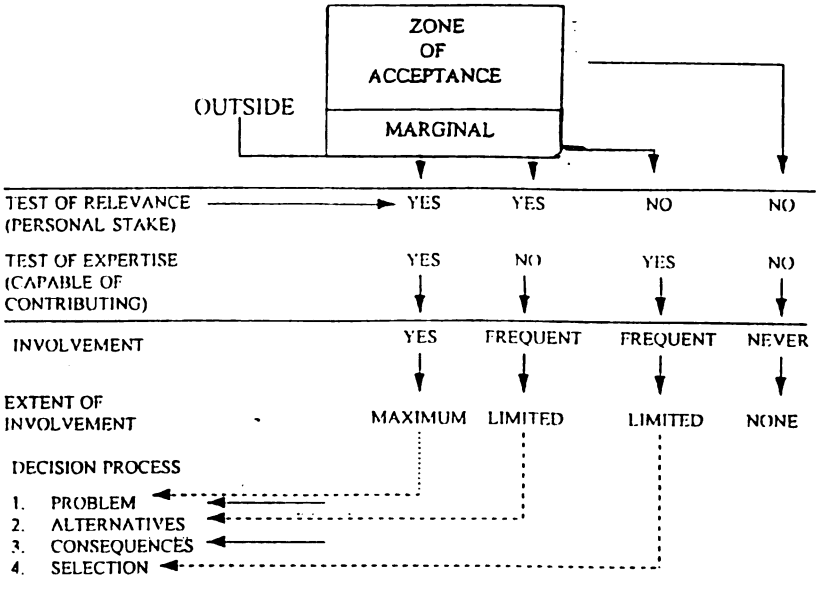


Figure 2.3: Model for shared decision making: The zone of acceptance.

Source: Hoy, W., & Miskel, C. (1982). Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice (Rev. ed.). New York: Random House.

A problem with relying on the theory of zones of acceptance is that many school-based decisions do not lie within the traditional zones of acceptance for teachers. Also, teachers who accept traditional administrative decision making often are not satisfied with their lack of involvement (Duke et al., 1980b). A predication to explain teachers' attitudes toward shared decision making is that although teachers are not actually content with administrative decision making, they may not have had the opportunity to become involved. However, there appears to be little support for this notion (Duke et al., 1980b).

As noted in the review of social systems literature, individuals in organizations bring their interests, expertise, experience, and needs to the decision-making process (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). Researchers have identified employees' acceptance of decision making as an important factor contributing to organizational effectiveness (David, 1989b). And, as stated earlier in this chapter, writers have emphasized the importance of involving those affected by a decision in making that decision (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974). For decision making to be effective, those who live the situation must be given overall authority to make changes. David (1989b) and Corcoran, Walker, and White (1988) underscored the need to grant significant authority if decision making is to be effective. If that is not done, those who are involved perceive that top-down demands impede their ability to make decisions. Then, the question is whether participation is merely an expression of personal opinion or an exercise of genuine authority (Belasco & Alutto, 1972).

Researchers have suggested that the scope of shared decision-making involvement must entail a fundamental change in the roles, rules, and responsibilities of all within the system. As Dolan (1994) noted, this must rest in a process of safe, straight, and honest dialogue. Without this, Dolan asserted, meaningful change will not occur. It follows, then, that the effectiveness of shared decision making depends on the degree of innovation, acceptance of risk taking, flexibility, and trust that exists within the organizational system (Argyris, 1962).

The organizational system is affected by interactions between teachers and administrators. One theme in decision-making theory is the recurring issue of power and control within the organization. Some administrators are concerned that increased shared decision making will result in a reduction of their own control and authority. Bidwell (1965) was among the first to examine administrative influence as it affects teachers. He described the situation as one of a shift in the principal's authority from that of a formal office holder to that of a senior professional.

Another theme in decision theory is the anticipated effect of decision making on organizational effectiveness. As noted earlier in this review, teachers today are expecting a broadened, more central involvement in decision making (Boyan, 1967). This entails shared decision making between teachers and administrators. Boyan cited Tannenbaum's (1962) work concerning the dynamics of control in organizations in pointing out that the "power pie" in an organization is variable, not fixed. In his research, Tannenbaum found that a high level of total control at all levels in an organization may, in turn, reflect increased participation and mutual

influence throughout the system. As a result, members experience a greater degree of integration and ego involvement with the work of the organization.

In their classic early work, Coch and French (1948) found that employees' participation in organizational decision making increased the probability both that change would be accepted and that overall effectiveness would be generated by that change. Some researchers even have found that superiors gain influence over the actions of individuals in organizations when decision making is delegated (Gouldner, 1960; Tannenbaum, 1962).

A principal's effectiveness depends on the degree to which he or she can maintain mutually supportive and collegial relations with teachers, yet be geared to furthering the commitment of all within the organization (Bidwell, 1965). Iannaccone and Jamgochian (1985) and Griffiths (1979) reported a growing trend toward more democratic and informal involvement of staff in decision making.

Not all researchers agree on this issue. Tannenbaum (1962), however, found that increased participative decision making would actually result in more administrative control and change. He theorized that the amount of control or influence in a group is not constant, and that an increase in one group's influence does not necessarily result in a decrease in another's influence.

Bridges's (1970) theory of social exchange and reciprocity parallels Tannenbaum's studies. Bridges added a dimension by stressing that each decisional situation can be viewed as a transaction, in which the most successful administrators will adroitly choose to behave as pawns of subordinates rather than

as originators of decisions. Blau (1964) agreed. Hanson (1976-77) termed this the process of principal-teacher collaboration, and he called the result the "negotiated order."

## Summary

The literature review included a discussion of the conceptual and theoretical bases for this study. The conceptual framework for the study was based on the nature of job motivation and job satisfaction as they relate to decision involvement. The theoretical framework comprises an understanding of social systems theory, the theory of cooperation in organizations, and decision theory. Together, these frameworks formed the basis for the study of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process.

An important component of the literature review was a discussion of research and writings on job satisfaction. Herzberg (1966) contended that the only way to motivate employees is to give them challenging work in which they can assume responsibility. Although it is not apparent that many teachers aspire to run their schools (Tannenbaum, 1962), it does seem important to grant teachers the authority to make some important decisions (Elmore & Associates, 1990). According to Herzberg's (1987) theory, individuals are motivated when they are given information, control over work, respect, and chances to grow. Decision involvement has the potential to increase motivation by addressing these four areas.

Barnard's (1938) theory of cooperation in organizations can be applied along with decision theory to schools as follows. Schools are complex, formal organizations and, as such, must establish and maintain a central, guiding purpose toward which the efforts of all within the organization are directed. In defining organizational purposes, decision theory outlines a process wherein goals are identified, choices made, and actions identified, implemented, and evaluated (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974). For this process to be effective, schools as social systems must account for the complexities and interactions between the goals of the organization and the goals of the individual (Barnard, 1938; Getzels et al., 1968; Lipham & Hoeh, 1974). When organizational goals are aligned with individual goals, the result is organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

Although educators agree that schools today are in a period of transition (Conley, 1991), there has been little quantitative research on decision involvement in schools. The research results that do exist are considered inconclusive (Vroom & Jago, 1988). The review of literature for this study revealed the importance of decision making; however, few researchers have clearly defined decision involvement. Although it is clear that decision making is occurring with greater frequency in schools, the degree to which individual teacher participation is actually occurring in school settings is questionable (Bacharach et al., 1990; Conley, 1991).

Based on the assumption that participation in school decision making can enhance teachers' commitment, expertise in making decisions, and effectiveness (Rowan, 1990), this researcher investigated whether there is a relationship between

teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. A secondary purpose was to examine variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise in decision issues, level of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement.

# CHAPTER III

# DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## Introduction

In this chapter, the design and methodology used in this study of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process are presented. Specifically, this chapter contains the design of the study, the population and sample selection, and the research questions and hypotheses. The instrumentation and data-collection procedures are discussed, and the data-analysis techniques are explained.

## Design of the Study

As noted in the review of literature, much attention has been given to the involvement of teachers in the decision-making process. However, little empirical information is available on the relationship between teachers' involvement and their job satisfaction.

Thierbach (1980) studied the relationship between the decision involvement and job satisfaction of middle and/or junior high school teachers in Wisconsin. A decade later, Rice (1993) replicated and expanded Thierbach's study to test whether, with increasing emphasis on involvement, teachers' perceptions of involvement and job satisfaction had changed. Both studies were based on the assumption that appropriate involvement of teachers in the decision-making process

was related to job satisfaction. Rice expanded Thierbach's research to include a correlation between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction and the organizational structure of schools. That is, using factorial and correlational analyses, she investigated the relationship among teachers' involvement, site-based management, and job satisfaction.

Major findings from Thierbach's and Rice's studies of middle school teachers were as follows:

1. Teachers reported a general condition of decision deprivation.

2. Teachers' level of job satisfaction was significantly related to their decision involvement.

3. Significant relationships were found between teachers' job satisfaction and their level of influence regarding schoolwide decisions, their level of decision involvement, and their interest in decision issues.

4. Significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and the level of implementation of site-based management, teacher participation, and influence regarding schoolwide decisions.

5. Discrepancy between actual and desired involvement, influence regarding schoolwide decisions, and level of implementation of site-based management were statistically significant predictors of variations in job satisfaction.

6. In the 1993 study as compared to the 1980 study, respondents reported increased involvement in decision making, increased desire for involvement, reduced deprivation, and increased interest and expertise in decision issues.

The researcher based the present study on Thierbach's and Rice's studies of middle school teachers, using a population of elementary school teachers in Michigan. The survey instruments that Thierbach and Rice used were employed in this study. Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1990) noted that research to confirm and extend other studies frequently is needed with regard to educational issues. Also, Gay (1987) claimed that generalizability is promoted when replication is done on a number of other subjects, matched as closely as possible on relevant variables, who share the same problem. Best and Kahn (1989) said that replication is important for the development and verification of new generalizations and theories.

The researcher investigated whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. The literature review in Chapter II suggested that decision involvement be expanded; however, what must be considered are the needs of the individuals involved, such as their expertise in decision issues and desire for participation, as well as the organizational structure of the school. In this study, the organizational structure of the school was defined as an organizational framework within which school staffs work collaboratively to identify goals according to the following criteria: Goals are specific, measurable, accountability based, resource oriented (providing time, funding, and materials), and time bound.

Sample survey methodology was used to gather data from the teachers regarding their involvement in the decision-making process in their schools and their job satisfaction. A sample survey, as defined by Babbie (1973), is used to make descriptive assertions concerning a defined population and to determine the

distribution of certain traits or attributes. Survey methodology traditionally has been used in empirical studies of shared decision making (Alutto & Belasco, 1972; Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley, & Bauer, 1990; Mohrman et al., 1978). Although the survey method does not allow the researcher to penetrate deeply into a phenomenon or phenomena (Kerlinger, 1973), it is the most efficient method available to address the objectives of this study and is suited to collecting original data for describing a population that is too large to observe directly (Babbie, 1973).

Fowler (1984) cited the following advantages of the mailed questionnaire: the relatively inexpensive cost, the need for minimal staff and facilities, the access to widely dispersed samples, and the provision of time for participants to give thoughtful responses. According to Ary et al. (1990), some of the advantages of the self-administered questionnaire are its generally having a high cooperation rate, the efficiency of respondents' completing the form themselves, the guaranteed confidentiality of the respondents, and the relatively low cost. Ary et al. also noted that disadvantages of the self-administered questionnaire include dependence on the reading and writing skills of the respondents and the possibility of respondents' misinterpreting the questions.

## Research Questions

This study was undertaken to discover whether there is a relationship between teachers' decision involvement and their job satisfaction. The study was guided by the theoretical considerations and conceptual framework set forth in Chapter II, taking into account the recent state mandate for teacher involvement in

the decision-making process. These theoretical constructs provided the basis for the following research questions, which were designed to guide the collection of data regarding the nature of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process.

1. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers' involvement in decision making and their job satisfaction?

2. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their level of expertise in decision issues?

3. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their level of influence?

4. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to the organizational structure of the school?

5. Does the relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their desired involvement?

## Hypotheses

The following hypotheses, stated in the null form, were formulated to analyze the data collected for this study:

Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their expertise in decision issues.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their level of influence.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to the organizational structure of the school.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between teachers' involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their desired involvement.

## The Study Population

The target population for this study comprised elementary teachers in public schools in Oakland County, Michigan. Oakland County, located in southeastern Michigan, was selected as the site for this study for two reasons: similar demographics among schools and proximity to the researcher's base for initial telephone contact. The researcher identified 30 schools in this target area that met the following selection criteria: (a) public elementary school (b) school housing kindergarten through grade 5 or 6, and (c) enrollment exceeding 350 to ensure a building staff of at least 12 teachers.

The school sample was drawn from the total of 202 elementary schools in Oakland County. To ensure that the schools included in the study represented a broad diversity of pupils, they were rank ordered by percentage of fourth graders who scored in the satisfactory range on the mathematics portion of the 1996 Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) test. From this ranking, 30 schools were selected randomly, 10 from the highest achieving one-third, 10 from the middle one-third, and 10 from the lowest one-third.

The researcher contacted the principals from the 30 randomly selected schools to inform them about this research and to solicit their agreement to have their teachers participate in the study. This was done by means of a direct telephone interview (see Appendix A).

Of the 30 principals whom the researcher attempted to contact by telephone, only 21 principals actually were contacted, interviewed, and amenable to participating. The remaining nine principals failed to return the researcher's initial or two follow-up telephone calls. In those instances in which contact was not made, a replacement school was randomly selected from the same high-, medium-, or low-ranking group as the school with which contact had not been achieved. In all, 31 principals agreed to participate. Of these, 11 were in the high-ranking group, 10 in the moderate-ranking group, and 10 in the low-ranking group. The high group included 11 principals because one of the principals in that group indicated she had only five teachers who met the criteria for participating in the study. Because of this low number of potential respondents, the researcher randomly selected an additional school from that high-ranking group. None of the principals whom the researcher contacted by telephone refused to participate.

The principals who agreed to participate were given the following criteria for teacher selection:

1. A minimum of one year of teaching experience in the present school. This increased the likelihood that the respondent understood the school decision-making process sufficiently to provide valid input.

2. Not having held formal administrative responsibilities. This reduced the number of variables that could affect the results.

The researcher asked each principal for the number of teachers in that building who were eligible to participate in the study. She then sent a letter of introduction describing the study and a sample of the survey instrument to the

principal, along with a sufficient number of teacher surveys. Each principal was asked to distribute the surveys to teachers who met the selection criteria. Each eligible teacher received a cover letter explaining the survey and ensuring the confidentiality of responses, a copy of the survey, and a separate envelope that was stamped and return-addressed to the researcher (see Appendix B).

A total of 415 teachers were sent a survey to complete. Of these, 136 teachers were from the high-ranking schools, and 139 and 140 were from the moderate- and low-ranking schools, respectively. Permission to use human subjects in this research was obtained from the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) at Michigan State University (see Appendix C).

Surveys were mailed to the 415 teachers in the 30 participating schools. Two follow-up telephone calls were made, and two reminder post cards were sent two and three weeks after the surveys were mailed. The reminder calls were made and post cards addressed to the principal of each participating school.

In all, 217 surveys were returned after the reminder calls were made and the follow-up post cards were sent. The procedure for compiling data and reporting missing data involved computing means for only those questions with responses. Two respondents omitted the first 60 questions, and one of those respondents omitted 50% of the remaining items. Those two surveys were considered invalid and were discarded. The remaining 215 surveys were used in this research, resulting in a response rate of 51.8%. That response rate was considered sufficient for analysis purposes. According to Babbie (1973), a response rate of at least 50% is

considered adequate when self-administered surveys are the medium for data collection.

## Instrumentation

A survey instrument was used in this study to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. The instrument consisted of three parts. Parts I and II were duplicates of the instrument Thierbach (1980) used in her research, with one exception. The exception is that in Part I, Thierbach included a question about teachers' interest in each of the 20 decision areas. This researcher omitted that question to shorten the survey and because it seemed to be similar to the desired involvement question. Also, because Thierbach's survey was designed for use with middle school teachers, the working of some items was changed slightly to apply to elementary school teachers. Part III of the instrument was the Personal Data Survey. The three parts of the survey instrument are described in the following paragraphs. (See Appendix D for a copy of the survey instrument.)

**Part I—Decision Involvement Analysis Survey**--pertains to the independent variables for the research. This part includes three decision-involvement questions from 20 decision areas, to which teachers responded in a Likert-style format ranging from *Great* to *No Extent.* The questions are:

1. What is your ACTUAL EXTENT of participation in making this decision?

2. What is your DESIRED EXTENT of participation in making this decision?

3. To what degree to you possess EXPERTISE regarding this decision?

Teachers were asked to respond to the preceding three questions for each of the 20 decision issues. Eight of the 20 decision issues related to the instructional/ technical area, and the remaining 12 pertained to the schoolwide/managerial level of decision making. The issues included:

*Instructional/Technical Domain Issues*

1 Specifying the learning objectives for each unit of instruction

3 Developing procedures for reporting student progress to parents

4 Developing procedures for assessing student achievement

7 Assigning students to instructional groups within your grade level or subject area

9 Preparing the building budget instructional team

13 Planning student record-keeping procedures and practices

14 Selecting textbooks and other instructional materials

16 Determining grading procedures for evaluating the progress of your students

*Schoolwide/Managerial Domain Issues*

2 Determining the administrative and organizational structure of your school

5 Establishing disciplinary policies in your school

6 Developing inservice programs for teachers in your school

8 Planning the counseling program in your school

10 Resolving problems or issues in school-community relations

11 Setting and revising the goals of your school

12 Determining the procedures to be used for the evaluation of teachers

15 Allocating materials and equipment

17 Selecting grade-level representatives or team leaders

18 Developing procedures for involving parents in planning the students' learning program

19 Evaluating how well your school is operating

20 Hiring new teachers

The three decision-involvement questions (actual involvement, desired involvement, and expertise) for each of the 20 decision-related issues had a forced-choice response format, using a four-point Likert-type scale *(Great, Some, Little, None).* Teachers were asked to rate the actual and desired extent of their involvement in making decisions pertaining to the 20 selected issues, as well as the degree to which they possessed expertise in making decisions regarding those 20 issues. The means of items with responses were computed and categorized into quartiles. For analysis purposes, the highest quartile was considered the high group, the second and third quartiles constituted the moderate group, and the lowest quartile was considered the low group.

Content validity of the Decision Involvement Analysis questionnaire was established by Thierbach (1980). She consulted researchers, graduate students in the field of educational administration, professors of educational administration, and teachers to assess whether or not the issues represented the domain of decision involvement. Content validity was reestablished for the study completed by Rice in 1983.

Reliability, or internal consistency, also was established by Thierbach (1980). Using the Cronbach alpha formula, Thierbach determined that the coefficients were

moderate (> .80). This indicated that the items within each scale were internally consistent (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Reliability (internal consistency) coefficients regarding decision involvement scales (N = 205).

| Scales (20 items per scale) | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|---|---|
| 1. Actual Extent | .82 |
| 2. Desired Extent | .85 |
| 3. Expertise | .89 |
| 4. Discrepancy (Actual-Desired) | .82 |

Source: Thierbach, G. L. (1980). Decision Involvement and Job Satisfaction in Middle and Junior High Schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

**Part II—Job Satisfaction Survey**--contains 27 items concerning teachers' satisfaction with various aspects of their teaching position. Job satisfaction was the dependent variable in this study.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is a well-known measure of job satisfaction, normed on blue-collar workers. Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn (1977) later extended the JDI to develop the Index of Organizational Reactions (IOR), which was normed on white-collar workers. The IOR met the guidelines established by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) for a good measure of job satisfaction. Those criteria include (a) separate the various aspects of satisfaction from one another, (b) agree with other comparable measures of job satisfaction, (c) be useful with a wide range of persons from a wide range of jobs and a variety of situations, (d) be intuitively understandable, (e) be short, (f) allow group administration, and (g) require low expenditures of time and money.

Mendenhall (1977) adapted the IOR to develop a Job Satisfaction Survey with eight scale comprising 50 items. Job satisfaction, as measured by this scale, was defined as the satisfaction derived from teaching. Speed (1979) refined Mendenhall's Job Satisfaction Survey to include nine scales comprising 27 items and used this revised survey in his study of middle school teachers. In her study of the relationship between teachers' involvement in decision making and their job satisfaction, Thierbach (1980) used Speed's (1979) revised form of Mendenhall's (1977) Job Satisfaction Survey. In this measure, job satisfaction is addressed by 27 items in nine scales as shown below:

| Scale | Item | How satisfied are you with: |
|---|---|---|
| **Administration/ Supervision** | 05 | the opportunities provided to discuss problems with your building administrator? |
| | 06 | the trust you have in your building administrator? |
| | 16 | the professional competence and leadership of your building administrator? |
| **Co-workers** | 01 | the amount of work done by other teachers in your school? |
| | 08 | the quality of work of other teachers in your school? |
| | 25 | the personal and social relationships you have with other teachers? |
| **Career Future** | 03 | your opportunities for growth in your profession? |
| | 10 | your future in your school district? |
| | 14 | the opportunities that you have to develop your area of special interest? |
| **School Identification** | 07 | the general reputation of your school? |
| | 18 | your awareness of what is "going on" in your school? |
| | 27 | the goals and objectives emphasized by your school? |

| Scale | Item | How satisfied are you with: |
|---|---|---|
| **Financial Aspects** | 04 | the amount of money you make? |
| | 19 | the salary schedule in your school district? |
| | 24 | the fringe benefits in your school district? |
| **Work Conditions** | 15 | the physical facilities of your school? |
| | 20 | the arrangement of space and equipment in your school? |
| | 22 | the availability of appropriate instructional materials and equipment? |
| **Amount of Work** | 02 | the number of students for whom you are responsible? |
| | 17 | the number of subject areas that you must prepare? |
| | 23 | the amount of work you are expected to do? |
| **Pupil-Teacher Relations** | 11 | the extent to which you are able to meet your students' affective needs? |
| | 13 | the quality of your interactions with your students? |
| | 21 | the extent to which you are able to meet your students' academic needs? |
| **Community Relations** | 09 | the understanding of your school's program by parents and the community? |
| | 12 | the extent to which the community recognizes and appreciates its educators? |
| | 26 | the community's involvement in your school's program? |

Thierbach reaffirmed content validity of the Job Satisfaction Survey through consultation with researchers, professors of educational administration, graduate students in educational administration, and teachers. She reestablished internal consistency of the instrument for her study by computing a Cronbach alpha reliability measure. The resulting alpha coefficient was .90, supporting the use of the scale for further research. In the present study, this instrument was used to survey teachers.

**Part III--Personal and Situational Data**. Part III was used to assess the contingency variables, was developed for the present study. It contains 15 items concerning the respondents' personal data, the organizational structure of their schools, and the extent to which they believe their participation in decision making is influential. This part of the survey was designed to elicit information with which to determine possible relationships between personal and situational variables and the dependent variable, job satisfaction. The personal and situational variables included years taught, years in present school, grade(s) currently teaching, gender, and highest degree achieved. Items were based on the research of Alutto and Belasco (1972) and Speed (1979). Alutto and Belasco found that (a) teachers with long periods of service in the same school tended to be decisionally saturated and that (b) decisionally deprived teachers tended to be young males, whereas decisionally saturated teachers tended to be older females.

Questions 6 through 13 were designed to explore the organizational structure of the school in order to determine the extent to which that structure was related to teachers' decision involvement and job satisfaction. Responses to these items also were categorized into quartiles for analysis purposes, as was done with the decisional items. Speed (1979) and Thierbach (1980) suggested that the decision-making process be investigated in relation to the organizational structure of the school. Hence this researcher investigated the extent to which the organizational structure provided teachers with goals that were specific, were measurable, required accountability, were resource oriented, and were time bound. Items 14 and 15 concerned how influential teachers thought they were in the decision-making

process in their schools. Influence means were computed, divided into quartiles, and categorized as high (quartiles 1 and 2) or low (quartiles 3 and 4).

## Data-Analysis Techniques

The procedures used in analyzing the data collected for this study included (a) descriptive analysis, (b) correlational analysis, and (c) analysis of variance (ANOVA). Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Release 4.1 for IBM OS/MVS).

Correlations were derived from the statistical data. Roscoe (1969) recommended using correlation coefficients when one or both variables are scaled ordinally. In this study, the Spearman rho correlation coefficient was used. It is considered appropriate for this type of study, in which data such as those generated from the survey responses are used (Gay, 1987). Correlational analysis was used to establish significant relationships between the dependent variable of job satisfaction and the independent variables of actual involvement, expertise, influence, organizational structure, and desired involvement.

Comparative methodology was used to explain significant correlations. This type of methodology is appropriate for describing existing conditions. There are several important advantages to using ANOVA (Kerlinger, 1973). First, this method allows one to study the separate and combined effects of the independent variables. Further, ANOVA allows one to study the interactive effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable--in this case, job satisfaction. ANOVA is an attempt to account for the dependent variable (in this case, job satisfaction) by

examining the independent variables. In the present study, the groups of teachers were classified as high, moderate, or low on the independent variables of actual involvement, expertise in decision issues, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement. An additional variable was teachers' level of influence. On this measure, teachers were categorized as either high or low. The assumption underlying this study was that if facts regarding the independent variables are known, those concerning the dependent variable can be predicted. For example, are teachers with a high level of involvement more satisfied with their jobs than those with a low level of involvement? Also of interest to this researcher was the relationship of the school organizational pattern to teachers' job satisfaction. In schools where teams are supported and work together to develop goals that are specific, measurable, and require accountability, are teachers more satisfied? Further, is the desired level of involvement a factor contributing to job satisfaction? ANOVA was used to explore these relationships and explain the correlations.

Results of the data analyses are reported in Chapter IV.

# CHAPTER IV

# ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

## Introduction

This chapter consists of four sections. They include a description of the data used in the analyses, results of the correlational analyses, results of hypothesis testing, and a summary.

## Description of the Data Used in Analyzing the Hypotheses

The data used in testing the hypotheses are presented in this section. These data were obtained from a three-part survey of elementary school teachers in Michigan. Part I concerned three of the five independent variables: actual involvement, desired involvement, and expertise in decision issues. Part II concerned the dependent variable, job satisfaction. Part III was designed to gather information on personal characteristics of the respondents and the situational variables: influence and organizational structure of the school. Demographic data generated from the sample are comparable to those of the general population of Michigan elementary teachers, as shown in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents by gender, as compared to the Michigan elementary teacher population.

| Gender | Present Study | | Michigan Elementary Teacher Population[a] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Female | 182 | 88.3 | 73,257 | 87.6 |
| Male | 24 | 11.7 | 10,370 | 12.4 |
| Total | 206 | 100.0 | 83,637 | 100.0 |

[a]Michigan elementary teacher population figures were taken from: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics. (1995, June). State comparisons of education statistics: 1969-70 to 1993-94 (ISBN 0-16-048128-7). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents by level of education, as compared to the Michigan elementary teacher population.

| Level of Education | Present Study | | Michigan Elementary Teacher Population[a] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| B.A. | 80 | 37.7 | 31,527 | 37.6 |
| M.A. | 120 | 56.6 | 47,751 | 57.1 |
| Specialist | 11 | 5.2 | 3,596 | 4.3 |
| Ph.D. | 1 | .5 | 836 | 1.0 |
| Total | 212 | 100.0 | 83,710 | 100.0 |

[a]Michigan elementary teacher population figures were taken from: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics. (1995, June). State comparisons of education statistics: 1969-70 to 1993-94 (ISBN 0-16-048128-7). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

The statistical data were generated by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Release 4.1 for IBM OS/MVS). The data gathered in each part of the survey are described in the following sections.

Part I: Actual Involvement, Desired Involvement, and Expertise in Decision Issues

In Part I of the survey, three questions were asked for each of 20 decision issues. These questions related to the theoretical constructs of actual involvement, desired involvement, and expertise in the decision issues. In previous research, Thierbach (1980) and Rice (1993) identified the decision issues as belonging to either the instructional/technical domain (8 issues) or the managerial/schoolwide domain (12 issues). For purposes of this study, items were analyzed collectively in those two groupings; individual item analysis was not done. The decision issues in each of the two domains are identified in Table 4.3.

For each item, teachers were asked to indicate their level of actual and desired involvement and expertise using the following 4-point Likert-type scale: 1 = great extent, 2 = some extent, 3 = little extent, and 4 = no extent. Using this scoring procedure, mean scores were obtained for actual involvement, desired involvement, and expertise in each of the two domains. These mean scores are shown in Table 4.4. The summary data indicate that actual and desired involvement and level of expertise were consistently higher in every area in the instructional/ technical domain (mean = 1.91) than in the managerial/schoolwide domain (mean = 2.46).

Table 4.3: Decision issues in the instructional/technical and managerial/schoolwide domains.

| Item | Instructional/Technical Domain |
|---|---|
| 1 | Specifying the learning objectives for each unit of instruction |
| 3 | Developing procedures for reporting student progress to parents |
| 4 | Developing procedures for assessing student achievement |
| 7 | Assigning students to instructional groups within your grade level or subject area |
| 9 | Preparing the building budget |
| 13 | Planning student record-keeping procedures and practices |
| 14 | Selecting textbooks and other instructional materials |
| 16 | Determining grading procedures for evaluating the progress of your students |
| **Item** | **Managerial/Schoolwide Domain** |
| 2 | Determining the administrative and organizational structure of your school |
| 5 | Establishing disciplinary policies in your school |
| 6 | Developing inservice programs for teachers in your school |
| 8 | Planning the counseling program in your school |
| 10 | Resolving problems or issues in school-community relations |
| 11 | Setting and revising the goals of your school |
| 12 | Determining the procedures to be used for the evaluation of teachers |
| 15 | Allocating materials and equipment |
| 17 | Selecting grade level representatives or team leaders |
| 18 | Developing procedures for involving parents in planning the students' learning program |
| 19 | Evaluating how well your school is operating |
| 20 | Hiring new teachers |

The reliability of each of the domains was established in two previous studies (Rice, 1993; Thierbach, 1980) using the Cronbach alpha formula. The coefficients, which ranged from .78 to .87, were moderately high. Thus, the items comprising each scale were considered internally consistent.

Table 4.4: Mean scores for actual and desired involvement and expertise in the two decision domains (N = 215).

| Decision Domain | No. of Items | Actual Involvement | Desired Involvement | Expertise | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Technical/instructional | 9 | 2.25 | 1.70 | 1.78 | 1.91 |
| Managerial/schoolwide | 11 | 2.91 | 2.16 | 2.22 | 2.46 |
| Total | 20 | 2.58 | 1.93 | 2.00 | 2.18 |

Key: 1 = Great extent
2 = Some extent
3 = Little extent
4 = No extent

Part II: Job Satisfaction

Part II of the instrument was the Job Satisfaction Survey, which also was used in Thierbach's (1980) and Rice's (1993) studies. Reliability for the Job Satisfaction Survey was determined by Thierbach (1980) and confirmed by Rice (1993) in their studies of middle school teachers. The test of reliability, using the Cronbach alpha coefficient formula, was performed to ensure internal consistency. That test was also performed in this study. As shown in Table 4.5, the reliability coefficient of .90 in the present study of elementary teachers compared to those in the Thierbach and Rice studies of middle school teachers.

Table 4.5: Comparison of Cronbach alpha coefficients for the Job Satisfaction Survey in the Thierbach and Rice studies and the present study.

| | Thierbach (1980) | Rice (1993) | Present Study |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cronbach alpha | .87 | .88 | .90 |

In the Job Satisfaction Survey, respondents were asked to indicate how satisfied they were with 27 conditions in their schools. They responded to those job satisfaction items using a 4-point Likert-type scale in which 1 = very satisfied, 2 = satisfied, 3 = dissatisfied, and 4 = very dissatisfied. For purposes of this study, the responses to the Job Satisfaction Survey were analyzed collectively; individual-item analyses were not performed. The overall mean and standard deviation for job satisfaction are shown in Table 4.6. The mean was 2.035, indicating that the teachers in this study were satisfied, overall, with their jobs.

Table 4.6: Means and standard deviations for job satisfaction (N = 214).

| | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Job satisfaction | 2.035 | .4581 |

Key: 1 = Very satisfied
2 = Satisfied
3 = Dissatisfied
4 = Very dissatisfied

Although job satisfaction questions were scored collectively for the purposes of responding to the research questions, they also were ranked by means to show individual items on a continuum from those that contributed to higher job satisfaction (mean = 1.4953) to those that contributed to dissatisfaction (mean = 2.6215) (see Table 4.7). Issues relating to a high level of satisfaction were those centering on the quality of interactions with students and other teachers and on the individual's own school, its goals and quality. Items least associated with job satisfaction centered

on recognition by the community, working conditions, amount of work expected, and financial aspects.

Table 4.7: Job satisfaction items ranked according to means.

| Item No. | Survey Item: How satisfied are you with . . . | Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 13 | the quality of your interactions with your students? | 1.4953 |
| 8 | the quality of work of other teachers in your school? | 1.5421 |
| 1 | the amount of work done by other teachers in your school? | 1.5140 |
| 25 | the personal and social relationships you have with other teachers? | 1.5654 |
| 7 | the general reputation of your school? | 1.6402 |
| 10 | your future in your school district? | 1.8224 |
| 16 | the professional competence and leadership of your building administrator? | 1.8271 |
| 27 | the goals and objectives emphasized by your school? | 1.8505 |
| 18 | your awareness of what is "going on" in your school? | 1.8738 |
| 5 | the opportunities provided to discuss problems with building administrators? | 1.9346 |
| 14 | the opportunities that you have to develop your areas of special interest? | 1.9860 |
| 6 | the trust you have in your building administrator? | 1.9953 |
| 26 | the community's involvement in your school's program? | 1.9953 |
| 9 | the understanding of your school's program by parents and the community? | 1.9953 |
| 24 | the fringe benefits in your school district? | 2.0000 |
| 3 | your opportunities for growth in your profession? | 2.0047 |
| 2 | the number of students for whom you are responsible? | 2.1028 |
| 11 | the extent to which you are able to meet your students' affective needs? | 2.1262 |
| 21 | the extent to which you are able to meet your students' academic needs? | 2.1449 |
| 4 | the amount of money you make? | 2.2453 |
| 22 | the availability of appropriate instructional materials and equipment? | 2.2897 |

Table 4.7: Continued.

| Item No. | Survey Item: How satisfied are you with . . . | Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 17 | the number of courses for which you must prepare? | 2.3364 |
| 19 | the salary schedule in your school district? | 2.3692 |
| 15 | the physical facilities of your school? | 2.3925 |
| 20 | the arrangement of space and equipment in your school? | 2.5514 |
| 23 | the amount of work you are expected to do? | 2.5935 |
| 12 | the extent to which the community recognizes and appreciates its educators? | 2.6215 |

Key: 1 = Very satisfied
2 = Somewhat satisfied
3 = Somewhat dissatisfied
4 = Very dissatisfied

Part III: Personal and Situational Characteristics

Part III of the instrument was designed to elicit information regarding respondents' personal and situational characteristics. Five of the 15 questions in this part of the survey sought the following personal and professional information: (a) gender, (b) highest degree attained, (c) grade level taught, (d) length of teaching experience, and (e) length of experience in present school.

Gender. As shown in Table 4.1, the highest percentage of respondents (approximately 88%), were female; nearly 12% were male. These percentages are comparable to those of males and females in the general population of elementary school teachers in Michigan, as reported by the U.S. Department of Education (1995).

Level of education. The level-of-education data shown in Table 4.2 indicate that the highest percentage of respondents, 56.6%, held master's degrees, and 37.7% held bachelor's degrees. Collapsing the categories revealed that those teachers with a bachelor's or master's degree equaled 94.3% of the total respondents. These percentages are comparable to those of the general population of elementary teachers in Michigan, as reported by the U.S. Department of Education (1995).

Grade level taught. The grade levels currently being taught by the respondents are shown in Table 4.8. Respondents in the study population were relatively evenly distributed among the various grade levels. Fewer were teaching kindergarten or sixth grade than were teaching grades one through five.

Table 4.8: Distribution of respondents by grade level taught.

| Grade Level | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten | 25 | 11.6 |
| Grade 1 | 48 | 22.3 |
| Grade 2 | 60 | 27.9 |
| Grade 3 | 52 | 24.2 |
| Grade 4 | 56 | 26.0 |
| Grade 5 | 50 | 23.3 |
| Grade 6 | 31 | 14.4 |
| Total | 215 | |

Note: Some respondents taught more than one grade level, so percentages total more than 100%.

Teaching experience. Respondents' length of teaching experience in their present schools and their total years of experience are shown in Table 4.9. The majority of teachers in this study (60.5%) had taught fewer than 10 years in their present schools. Further, almost 23% of the teachers in this study had taught fewer than three years in their present schools, as compared to 7.6% of the general Michigan elementary teacher population. Whereas 66.5% of the teachers in this study had taught 10 years or more, 72.5% of the general Michigan elementary teacher population had taught that long.

Table 4.9: Distribution of respondents by years of teaching in present school and total years of teaching, as compared to the general Michigan elementary teacher population.

| Total Years of Experience | Present Study | | | | Michigan Elementary Teacher Population[a] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Years in Present School | | Total Years Taught | | Total Years Taught | |
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Less than 3 | 49 | 22.8 | 24 | 11.2 | 6,356 | 7.6 |
| 3-9 | 81 | 37.7 | 48 | 22.3 | 6,642 | 19.9 |
| 10-20 | 52 | 24.2 | 56 | 26.0 | 28,935 | 34.6 |
| More than 20 | 33 | 15.3 | 87 | 40.5 | 31,695 | 37.9 |
| Total | 215 | 100.0 | 215 | 100.0 | 83,628 | 100.0 |

[a]Michigan elementary teacher population figures were taken from: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics. (1995, June). State comparisons of education statistics: 1969-70 to 1993-94 (ISBN 0-16-048128-7). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Situational variables. The situational variables were addressed with eight items concerning the goal-setting measures within the respondents' schools and two items concerning the extent of the respondents' influence within their schools. Responses to the goal-setting items were analyzed to determine the dimension of school organization and were used in answering Research Question 4: Does the relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction vary according to the organizational structure of the school? The items were:

1. In my school, we work as a **team** to develop goals.
2. In my school, goals are **clear and specific**.
3. In my school, goals are **measurable**.
4. In my school, goals require **accountability**.
5. In my school, we are provided with adequate **materials** to achieve our goals.
6. In my school, we are provided with adequate **funding** to achieve our goals.
7. In my school, we are provided with enough **training** to achieve our goals.
8. In my school, goals have a specific **timeline**.

In responding to these items, teachers used a 4-point Likert-type scale with 1 = always, 2 = sometimes, 3 = seldom, and 4 = never. Again, the responses to these items were analyzed collectively; individual-item analyses were not performed. Mean scores for school organization were used in subsequent hypothesis testing.

Two of the 15 questions in Part II were designed to determine the respondents' levels of influence in making school decisions. Responses to these two questions were used in answering Research Question 3: Does the relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction vary according to their level of influence? The two questions were:

> When you participate in making decisions that affect the entire school, to what extent do you feel your participation is **influential**?
>
> When you participate in making decisions that affect your grade level or instructional team, to what extent do you feel your participation is **influential**?

Teachers responded to these questions using a 4-point Likert-type scale on which 1 = great extent, 2 = some extent, 3 = little extent, and 4 = no extent. The mean scores for these two items were combined to arrive at overall means for levels of influence.

## Results of the Correlational Analysis

This study was based on the assumption that job satisfaction, the dependent variable, could be predicted when the independent variables of actual involvement, expertise in decision issues, influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement were known. In preparation for testing the hypotheses, a correlational analysis was conducted to ascertain the relationship between variables. The Spearman correlation was used to determine the relationship between pairs of independent variables and between each independent variable and job satisfaction. Results of the correlational analysis are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Spearman correlations for the independent variables and job satisfaction.

| | Actual Involvement | Expertise | Influence | School Organization | Desired Involvement |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Expertise | .2105 | | | | |
| Influence | .2491* | .0422 | | | |
| School organization | .2982* | -.0104 | .2497* | | |
| Desired involvement | .2230* | .6738* | .0760 | .0168 | |
| Job satisfaction | .3277* | -.0558 | .3008* | .5548* | .0305 |

*$p < .05$.

## Results of Hypothesis Testing

The results of testing the hypotheses are presented in this section. Each hypothesis is restated, followed by the results for that hypothesis.

### Hypothesis 1

There is no relationship between teachers' actual involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction.

The Spearman correlation for the main effect (teachers' actual involvement x job satisfaction) (Table 4.10) indicated that a significant relationship existed between respondents' actual involvement and their job satisfaction. The means and standard deviations for the various levels of involvement are shown in Table 4.11. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether the mean scores for job satisfaction differed among teachers in the three categories of actual involvement (see Table 4.12). A significant relationship was found between the level of actual involvement and job satisfaction.

Table 4.11: Means and standard deviations for levels of actual involvement (N = 214).

| Level of Involvement | Frequency | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|
| High involvement | 46 | 1.8709 | .4181 |
| Moderate involvement | 114 | 1.9724 | .4317 |
| Low involvement | 54 | 2.3060 | .4345 |

Range of levels of involvement:

| | |
|---|---|
| High | 1.00-2.25 |
| Moderate | 2.26-2.99 |
| Low | 3.00-4.00 |

Table 4.12: Results of one-way ANOVA: actual involvement x job satisfaction.

| Source | df | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 2 | 5.6527 | 2.8263 | 15.3158* |
| Within groups | 211 | 38.9373 | .1845 | |
| Total | 213 | 44.5900 | | |

*p < .05.

The Scheffé post-hoc procedure was employed to determine the significance of all pairwise comparisons of means. As shown in Table 4.13, a significant difference was found between the high- and low-involvement groups and the moderate- and low-involvement groups in terms of job satisfaction. Specifically, respondents who had higher degrees of actual involvement in the decision-making process in their schools had higher levels of job satisfaction than those who were

less involved. The relationship was significant; hence, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4.13: Results of the Scheffé post-hoc comparison for actual involvement and job satisfaction (N = 214).

| Level of Involvement | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | High Involvement | Moderate Involvement | Low Involvement |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| High (n = 46) | 1.8709 | | | |
| Moderate (n = 114) | 1.9724 | | | |
| Low (n = 54) | 2.3060 | * | * | |

*p < .05 for pairs of groups.

Hypothesis 2

The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their expertise in decision issues.

The Spearman correlation for the main effect (level of expertise x job satisfaction) (Table 4.10) revealed that no significant relationship existed between respondents' level of expertise and their job satisfaction. Table 4.14 shows the means and standard deviations for respondents' levels of expertise.

Table 4.14: Means and standard deviations for levels of expertise in decision issues (N = 214).

| Level of Expertise | Frequency | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|
| High expertise | 51 | 2.1124 | .4498 |
| Moderate expertise | 110 | 1.9849 | .4369 |
| Low expertise | 53 | 2.0636 | .5008 |

Range of levels of expertise:

| | |
|---|---|
| High | 1.00-1.64 |
| Moderate | 1.65-2.29 |
| Low | 2.30-4.00 |

Results of the one- and two-way ANOVAs for expertise and job satisfaction and for actual involvement, expertise, and job satisfaction are shown in Tables 4.15 and 4.16, respectively. None of the analyses showed a significant relationship; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4.15: Results of one-way ANOVA: expertise x job satisfaction.

| Source | df | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 2 | .6251 | .3126 | 1.5000 |
| Within groups | 211 | 43.9649 | .2084 | |
| Total | 213 | 44.5900 | | |

Table 4.16: Results of two-way ANOVA: actual involvement x level of expertise x job satisfaction.

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Main effects: | 6.790 | 4 | 1.697 | 9.458* |
| Range of actual involvement | 6.165 | 2 | 3.082 | 17.174* |
| Range of influence | 1.137 | 2 | .569 | .044 |
| 2-way interactions: actual involvement x influence | 1.006 | 4 | .252 | 1.402 |
| Explained | 7.796 | 8 | .975 | 5.438* |
| Residual | 36.794 | 205 | .179 | |
| Total | 44.590 | 213 | .209 | |

*$p < .05$.

Hypothesis 3

The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their level of influence.

The Spearman correlation for the main effect (level of influence x job satisfaction) (Table 4.10) revealed that a significant relationship existed between respondents' levels of influence and their job satisfaction. The means and standard deviations for respondents' levels of influence are shown in Table 4.17. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether the mean job satisfaction scores differed for respondents in the two categories of influence. As shown in Table 4.18, a significant difference was found between the high- and low-influence groups in terms of their job satisfaction. This means that teachers who thought they had a

high level of influence in the decision-making process in their schools had a higher level of job satisfaction than those who thought they had a lower level of influence.

Table 4.17: Means and standard deviations for levels of influence (N = 213).

| Level of Influence | Frequency | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|
| High influence | 116 | 1.9026 | .4073 |
| Low influence | 97 | 2.1940 | .4679 |

Range of levels of influence: High 1.00-1.49
Low 2.00-4.00

Table 4.18: Results of one-way ANOVA: influence x job satisfaction.

| Source | df | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 1 | 4.4860 | 4.4860 | 23.6090* |
| Within groups | 211 | 40.0921 | .1900 | |
| Total | 212 | 44.5781 | | |

However, when the analysis was extended to include the relationship among actual involvement, level of influence, and job satisfaction, the relationship was not statistically significant (Table 4.19). This two-way ANOVA indicated that there was no significant relationship among actual involvement, level of influence, and job satisfaction. Thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4.19: Results of two-way ANOVA: actual involvement x level of influence x job satisfaction.

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Main effects: | 7.981 | 3 | 2.660 | 15.450* |
| Range of actual involvement | 3.495 | 2 | 1.748 | 10.150* |
| Range of influence | 2.338 | 1 | 2.338 | 13.575* |
| 2-way interactions: actual involvement x influence | .952 | 2 | .476 | 2.764 |
| Explained | 8.933 | 5 | 1.787 | 10.376* |
| Residual | 35.645 | 207 | .172 | |
| Total | 44.578 | 212 | .210 | |

*$p < .05$.

Hypothesis 4

The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to the organizational structure of the school.

The Spearman correlation for the main effect (organizational structure of the school x job satisfaction) (Table 4.10) revealed that a significant relationship existed between respondents' school organization and their job satisfaction. The means and standard deviations for the categories of school organization are shown in Table 4.20. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether the mean job satisfaction scores differed for respondents in the three categories of school organization. The items in the survey that related to school organization included teamwork to set goals, and setting goals that are clear, specific, measurable, and accountability based. Also included were items regarding adequacy of materials to achieve goals, as well as funding, training, and establishing timelines to achieve

goals. As shown in Table 4.21, a significant relationship was found between the organizational structure of the school and job satisfaction. These results indicate that in schools with a high level of organization, as identified by those survey items, teachers were more satisfied.

Table 4.20: Means and standard deviations for organizational structure of the school (N = 213).

| Level of Organization | Frequency | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|
| High organization | 60 | 1.7229 | .3547 |
| Moderate organization | 89 | 1.9957 | .3885 |
| Low organization | 64 | 2.3832 | .4010 |

Range of levels of organization:

| | |
|---|---|
| High | 1.00-1.64 |
| Moderate | 1.65-2.12 |
| Low | 2.13-4.00 |

Table 4.21: Results of one-way ANOVA: school organization x job satisfaction.

| Source | df | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 2 | 13.7438 | 6.8719 | 46.8018* |
| Within groups | 210 | 30.8343 | .1468 | |
| Total | 212 | 44.5781 | | |

A Scheffé post-hoc procedure was employed to determine the significance of all pairwise comparisons of means (see Table 4.22). This analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between the high-organization group and both the moderate- and low-organization groups in terms of job satisfaction. There was also a significant difference between the moderate- and low-organization groups in this regard.

Table 4.22: Results of the Scheffé post-hoc comparison for school organization and job satisfaction.

| Level of School Organization | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | High Organization | Moderate Organization | Low Organization |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| High (n = 60) | 1.7229 | | | |
| Moderate (n = 89) | 1.9957 | * | | |
| Low (n = 64) | 2.3832 | * | * | |

*p < .05 for pairs of groups.

However, a two-way ANOVA did not reveal a significant relationship among actual involvement, school organization, and job satisfaction (see Table 4.23). Because no significant relationship was found on this test, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4.23: Results of two-way ANOVA: actual involvement x school organization x job satisfaction.

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Main effects: | 15.726 | 4 | 3.931 | 28.076* |
| Range of actual involvement | 1.982 | 2 | .991 | 7.077 |
| Range of influence | 10.082 | 2 | 5.041 | 36.000* |
| 2-way interactions: actual involvement x influence | .287 | 4 | .072 | .512 |
| Explained | 16.013 | 8 | 2.002 | 14.294* |
| Residual | 28.566 | 204 | .140 | |
| Total | 44.578 | 212 | .210 | |

*p < .05.

Hypothesis 5

The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their desired involvement.

The Spearman correlation for the main effect (desired involvement x job satisfaction) (Table 4.10) revealed that a significant relationship did not exist between respondents' level of desired involvement and their job satisfaction. The means and standard deviations for desired involvement are shown in Table 4.24. Table 4.25 shows the results of the one-way ANOVA for desired involvement and job satisfaction; the results of the two-way ANOVA for actual involvement, desired involvement, and job satisfaction are shown in Table 4.26. In both analyses, the relationship was found not to be significant; thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4.24: Means and standard deviations for desired involvement (N = 214).

| Desired Involvement | Frequency | Mean Score: Job Satisfaction | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|
| High involvement | 59 | 2.0293 | .4574 |
| Moderate involvement | 99 | 1.9996 | .4219 |
| Low involvement | 56 | 2.1026 | .5158 |

Range of desired involvement:

| | |
|---|---|
| High | 1.00-1.64 |
| Moderate | 1.65-2.21 |
| Low | 2.22-4.00 |

Table 4.25: Results of one-way ANOVA: desired involvement x job satisfaction.

| Source | df | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between groups | 2 | .3813 | .1907 | .9100 |
| Within groups | 211 | 44.2087 | .2095 | |
| Total | 213 | 44.5900 | | |

Table 4.26: Results of two-way ANOVA: actual involvement x desired involvement x job satisfaction.

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F-Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Main effects: | 5.932 | 4 | 1.483 | 8.015* |
| Range of actual involvement | 5.551 | 2 | 2.775 | 14.999* |
| Range of desired influence | .279 | 2 | .140 | .775 |
| 2-way interactions: actual involvement x desired influence | .726 | 4 | .181 | .981 |
| Explained | 6.658 | 8 | .832 | 4.498* |
| Residual | 37.932 | 205 | .185 | |
| Total | 44.590 | 213 | .209 | |

*$p < .05$.

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

A summary of the results of hypothesis testing is presented in Table 4.27. A significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and teachers' actual involvement in the decision-making process (Hypothesis 1). That is, teachers who were highly involved in their schools were more satisfied with their jobs; conversely, those teachers who were not highly involved were less satisfied. On the other hand, no significant relationship was found between either level of expertise (Hypothesis 2) or desired involvement (Hypothesis 5) and job satisfaction. When considering

teachers' influence and its effect on job satisfaction, the data indicated a significant difference between the two groups of high and low involvement and influence. That is, teachers who thought they had a high level of influence in the decision process in their schools did have a higher level of job satisfaction; however, no significant relationship was found when the analysis was extended to include actual involvement (Hypothesis 3). Further, a significant relationship was found between school organization and job satisfaction, indicating that in schools with a high level of organization, teachers were more satisfied. However, a significant relationship was not found when the analysis was extended to include actual involvement. That is, a significant relationship among actual involvement, school organization, and job satisfaction could not be established (Hypothesis 4).

Table 4.27: Summary of results of hypothesis testing.

| Hypothesis | Reject | Do Not Reject |
|---|---|---|
| Ho 1: There is no relationship between teachers' actual involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. | X | |
| Ho 2: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their expertise in decision issues. | | X |
| Ho 3: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their level of influence. | | X |
| Ho 4: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to the organizational structure of the school. | | X |
| Ho 5: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their desired involvement. | | X |

Chapter V contains a summary and discussion of the findings, conclusions drawn from the findings, further discussion, implications for future research, and the researcher's reflections.

# CHAPTER V

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter consists of six sections: an introduction, an overview of the study, conclusions related to the hypotheses, implications for practice, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

## Introduction

A review of the literature indicated that teachers' participation in the decision-making process improves organizational effectiveness and increases job satisfaction. The review also revealed that, during the past 20 years, a number of reform initiatives focusing on teachers' involvement in the decision-making process have been undertaken. National attention to such initiatives has had political implications for educators. In Michigan, recent changes in the law have mandated building-level decision making in all schools. Although the literature on teacher involvement contained a variety of assumptions about the nature of decision making and its benefits, little empirical evidence has been accumulated to assist in understanding the nature of teachers' involvement in decision making. Furthermore, little has been done to assist schools in implementing the state mandate for involvement.

## Overview of the Study

This study was undertaken to examine the theoretical assumption that teachers' involvement in the decision-making process is related to their job satisfaction. The researcher's primary purpose was to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in Michigan public elementary schools and their job satisfaction. A secondary purpose was to examine variations in this relationship according to teachers' expertise in decision issues, level of influence, organizational structure of the school, and desired involvement.

The conceptual framework for this study was based on the assumption that when teachers exercise more control over decisions that affect their professional work environment, the result will be a greater correspondence between the expectations of the organization and the need disposition of staff members (Thierbach, 1980). Further, the greater this congruence between the normative and personal dimensions, the higher will be teacher satisfaction. The research questions were based on the literature on job satisfaction, social systems theory, the theory of cooperation in organizations, and decision theory. The researcher formulated five hypotheses (stated on pages 56-57) for determining the relationship between the independent variables of actual involvement, expertise, influence, structure of the organization, and desired involvement and the dependent variable of job satisfaction.

The 217 randomly selected teachers in the study sample compared to the statewide population in terms of gender (Table 4.6) and level of education (Table 4.7). The sample differed from the statewide population in terms of number of years

taught (Table 4.9). In comparing total number of years taught, the population for this study was slightly less experienced than the general population; 11.2% had taught fewer than three years, as compared to 7.6% of the general population. This could be because Oakland County, an outgrowth of the metropolitan Detroit area, is a rapidly growing area and reflects resultant population growth and the on-going process of employing teachers to fill this need. Likewise, 59.5% of the Oakland County teachers surveyed for this study had taught 20 years or less, compared to 62.1% of the general elementary population.

Sample survey methodology was used in the study. A three-part survey, based in part on previous research by Thierbach (1980) and Rice (1993), was used to gather the data. In Part I, teachers were asked to rate their actual and desired extent of participation in making decisions regarding 20 issues and their expertise in each issue. Part II contained 27 items concerning teachers' satisfaction with various aspects of their teaching positions. Part III concerned teachers' personal and situational characteristics, including years taught, years in present school, grade(s) currently teaching, gender, and highest degree achieved. Questions in Part III also concerned the organizational structure of the school and the extent to which teachers believed their participation in decision making was influential.

The data were processed by calculating means for responses to the 20 decision involvement questions for each of the three independent variables: actual involvement, expertise, and desired involvement. Data for two other independent variables, influence and organizational structure, were obtained from Part III of the survey. The means for the independent variables were compared to the means for

the dependent variable of job satisfaction, which were obtained from responses to 27 job satisfaction questions included in Part II of the survey. The data for job satisfaction were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Release 4.1 for IBM OS/MVS). The analytical procedures used in this study were (a) Spearman rho correlational analysis, (b) one- and two-way ANOVA, and (c) Scheffé post hoc comparisons.

## Conclusions Related to the Hypotheses

The findings, derived from the analysis of the five research hypotheses, are presented in this section. Results revealed an interesting pattern, suggesting that teachers who are highly involved in decision making and who believe that their involvement is influential experience greater job satisfaction. Further, teachers whose involvement is based on team collaboration to address buildingwide goals are more involved and more satisfied with their jobs. In the following section, each hypothesis is restated, followed by the conclusions regarding that hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 1**: There is no relationship between teachers' actual involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction.

**Conclusion**: Teachers' actual involvement in the decision-making process was directly proportional to their job satisfaction.

**Discussion**: Social systems literature, which formed the framework for this study, indicates that social behavior is determined by both the needs of the institution and the needs of the individual (Getzels & Guba, 1957). As reported in the literature review in Chapter II, much of the research on decision making has

been based on the assumption that involvement of staff members in the decision-making process will result in greater congruence between organizational and individual needs (Barnard, 1938; Thierbach, 1983; Wallace, 1990). As shown in Figure 2.2, people in organizations define mission and align organizational and individual needs through an on-going process of collaborative decision making, which ultimately can contribute to the success of the organization. As reported in the social systems literature, the greater the congruence between the idiographic and normative dimensions, the greater will be teachers' job satisfaction.

The first hypothesis concerned the relationship between teachers' level of actual involvement in decision making and job satisfaction. Responses to the 20 decision issues were analyzed and means were categorized as high, moderate, or low involvement. An analysis of the data indicated that a significant linear relationship existed between level of involvement and job satisfaction. That is, teachers who were more involved in the decision-making process in schools were more satisfied with their jobs. This finding for elementary school teachers supports the research on middle school teachers by Thierbach (1980) and Rice (1993) and suggests that decision involvement that is occurring at elementary and middle schools is significantly related to job satisfaction.

The findings also reflect the literature on job satisfaction as reported in Chapter II. Herzberg (1966, 1987) claimed that the only way to motivate is to provide challenging work in which employees can assume responsibility. As noted in the research on cooperation in organizations (Barnard, 1938), as well as social systems theory (Getzels et al., 1968) and decision theory (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974),

people will focus energy to achieve individual and organizational purposes. The 20 decision issues surveyed in this study included a wide variety of decision areas, as shown in Table 4.1 (p. 70). The resulting significant correlation between teachers' involvement in those decision issues and their job satisfaction supported the literature and indicated that teachers did feel more job satisfaction as their actual involvement increased.

Mohrman et al. (1978) studied teachers' involvement in decision making in relation to instructional/technical and managerial/schoolwide domains (see Table 4.1). They concluded that teachers desired greater involvement in technical/ instructional issues than in managerial/schoolwide issues. Further analysis of the responses in the present study confirmed the findings from previous research on involvement, which indicated that teachers preferred involvement in areas that most closely involved their daily work, such as curriculum and methodology (Bacharach, 1990; Bacharach et al., 1986; Mohrman et al., 1978) and were least willing to be involved in managerial and administrative decision issues (Conley & Bacharach, 1990).

The 20 decision issues rated by teachers in this study can be categorized into the following two domains identified by Mohrman et al. (1978): instructional/ technical and managerial/schoolwide. The instructional/technical domain includes areas most closely associated with teachers' work lives, such as specifying learning objectives, reporting student progress, assigning students to instructional groups, preparing the budget, selecting textbooks, and determining grading procedures. The managerial/schoolwide domain consisted of issues that were more global and

administrative in nature, such as determining the administrative and organizational structure of the school, planning inservice or counseling programs, setting goals, evaluating teachers and the instructional program, determining ways to involve parents, and hiring teachers. Results of this study supported the findings from previous research in that teachers preferred involvement in the technical/ instructional domain over involvement in the managerial/schoolwide domain.

Rice (1993) found that teachers reported a general condition of decision deprivation. That is, they desired more involvement in decision making. This study confirmed that finding. As shown in Table 4.2, teachers desired a higher level of involvement (1.93) than they were actually experiencing (2.58). This was consistent for both the technical/instructional and the managerial/schoolwide domains. This indicates that, whereas teachers preferred more involvement in the technical/ instructional domain as compared to the managerial/schoolwide domain, their desired level of involvement in both domains was less than their actual involvement. This seems to indicate that these teachers were willing to be involved to a greater extent in all of the decision areas. In summary, results show that teachers' job satisfaction can be explained by their involvement in decision making. That is, teachers who are highly involved are more satisfied with their jobs than those who are not as involved.

**Hypothesis 2**: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their expertise in decision issues.

**Conclusion**: Teachers' job satisfaction was not related to their expertise in the decision issues.

**Discussion**: The second hypothesis concerned the relationship between teachers' expertise in the decision issues and their job satisfaction. In this study, expertise was defined as the extent to which teachers were qualified to make useful contributions to solving problems. That is, are teachers capable of making a meaningful contribution in the particular decision area? Bacharach and Conley (1986) devised a model of participation that emphasizes the importance of teachers' professional discretion and expertise in diagnosing and addressing educational needs. Collaboration of teachers to use their expertise to identify key issues is a significant element contributing to organizational success. For collaboration to be effective, teachers need to be given sufficient responsibility and authority. Herzberg (1966, 1987) contended that intrinsic motivators, or factors that lie within individuals, are key elements of job satisfaction. These include (a) information, (b) control over work, (c) respect for workers as individuals, and (d) chances to grow. The decision area of expertise involves these aspects of intrinsic motivation.

In the present study, teachers rated their expertise as ranging from a great extent (1.78) in the technical/instructional domain to some extent (2.22) in the managerial/schoolwide domain (Table 4.4). Mean responses to the 20 decision questions showed a normal pattern of distribution related to expertise (Table 4.14). However, the data indicated that teachers' level of expertise was independent of job satisfaction. That is, no significant relationship was found between respondents' level of expertise and their job satisfaction.

One possible explanation for this result might be that, as mentioned in the limitations section of the study, teachers' expertise was derived from their own self-

reports. Questions might be raised regarding the validity of these responses. A variety of personal and professional issues may interfere with the accuracy of such self-reports of expertise. Furthermore, in this study, ratings of expertise indicated the respondents' own individual level of proficiency in their specific area of study and did not necessarily reflect expertise derived from team collaboration or organizational goal setting. When compared to the significance of the relationship between actual involvement in decision making and job satisfaction, the issue of expertise can be viewed as one of individual versus collective decision making. That is, actual involvement in decision making can often be presumed to be accomplished collectively as a collaborative exercise in developing buildingwide goals and planning for school improvement. However, teachers' self-reports of expertise may be more related to individual accomplishments or training. This explanation is consistent with the literature, which has recognized the value of professional development opportunities that center on collective training and team-building approaches to increasing teachers' expertise and skills in identifying and addressing organizational goals (Carnegie Commission, 1986; Conley & Bacharach, 1990; National Governors' Association, 1986). An analysis of the collective expertise of a staff or a building team who may be gaining knowledge and expertise to address buildingwide issues or goals might yield different results from those reported in this study.

**Hypothesis 3**: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their influence in decision issues.

**Conclusion**: The level of job satisfaction was significantly related to respondents' influence in the decision issues.

**Discussion**: The third hypothesis concerned the relationship between teachers' level of influence in selected school decision issues and their job satisfaction. Influence stems from the capacity to shape decisions through informal or nonauthoritative means, including personal characteristics (such as charisma), expertise, and informal meetings and discussions. In this study, two survey questions were posed to determine the extent to which teachers thought that their participation was influential in making decisions that affected their entire school or their grade level/instructional team. The results showed a significant positive relationship between respondents' levels of influence and their job satisfaction.

The results supported the social systems literature reported in Chapter 2, indicating that influence appears to be a significant factor in the political structure of organizations. Where influence is dominant, the organizational structure is less hierarchical (Mohrman et al., 1978). Conley (1991) cited the significance of teachers' influence in the realm of decision involvement and noted that research also has suggested that influence may be the main underlying issue in current reform initiatives.

However, a two-way ANOVA examining the combined effects of both actual involvement and influence failed to explain job satisfaction. That is, influence is a significant predictor of job satisfaction; however, job satisfaction cannot be explained by the combination of actual involvement and influence. This outcome may be attributed to the nature of participation. In a comprehensive review of teacher participation in school decision making, Conley (1991) noted that studies of participation often have addressed indirect benefits rather than direct benefits to

students in particular. Research often has been based on the assumption that teacher participation is good for the school. Conley stated that individuals' influence in educational organizations provides an indirect benefit. However, whereas indirect benefits, such as job satisfaction and morale, do accrue from influence, when actual participation is viewed as compliance with administrators' requests for participation, the relationship may break down. For example, when teachers are given authority to participate as a benefit resulting from their compliance with managerial decisions, the commitment to participate may not be genuine for either the administrator or the teachers. It would seem that there is a need to view the benefits of influence in relation to actual involvement, recognizing the interrelationships of teachers' professional needs with the managerial needs of administrators. This could result in a broadening of the scope of influence in conjunction with added authority for teachers as they work collaboratively on school improvement teams.

**Hypothesis 4**: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to the organizational structure of the school.

**Conclusion**: Teachers' job satisfaction was significantly related to the organizational structure of the school.

**Discussion**: The fourth hypothesis concerned the relationship between the organizational structure of the school and teachers' job satisfaction. The items in the survey that related to school organization included teamwork to set goals, and setting goals that were clear, specific, measurable, and accountability based. Also included were items regarding adequacy of materials to achieve goals, as well as funding, training, and establishing timelines to achieve goals.

Previous researchers have found that teachers viewed the benefits of participation as outweighing the costs of increased time and energy through empowerment that was derived from gaining authority, flexibility, and resources to solve educational problems at their schools (Elmore, 1990; Raywid, 1990). The conceptual framework for this study was based on Barnard's (1938) theory of cooperation in organizations and Getzels et al.'s (1968) models of behavior in a social system. The underlying assumption was that people will focus their energy to achieve individual and organizational goals. This is consistent with Herzberg's (1966, 1987) theory that intrinsic factors serve to motivate individuals and contribute to job satisfaction. These factors include information, control over work, respect, and chances to grow.

The data in this study revealed a normal distribution of responses for job satisfaction and organizational structure of the school; a significant relationship was found between the two (Tables 4.20 and 4.21). These findings support those from previous research and underscore the importance of individuals' contributions in relation to the organization of the school. That is, teachers are more satisfied when they work as a team to develop goals. The survey items pertaining to organizational structure were derived from research on organizational involvement and included the following: Goals should be clear and specific, measurable, accountability based, and time bound. In addition, teachers should be provided with adequate materials, funding, and training to achieve goals (David, 1989, 1991, 1994; Miles, 1981).

When the relationship between the organizational structure of the school and job satisfaction was extended to include actual involvement, the results were not

significant. That is, actual involvement had no relationship to the organizational structure of the school and job satisfaction. This finding appears to be consistent with the explanation presented in the earlier discussion of the role of influence and involvement. Teachers' actual involvement may stem from issues that are separate and distinct from those issues related to organizational structure. There is a growing trend toward uneasiness among teachers and administrators as both parties reassess their respective roles (Lieberman, 1988; Malen & Ogawa, 1988). The difficulty may be due in part to a tension between the dimensions of influence and authority. That is, when teachers are actually participating in making the decisions and are involved in schools where there is a high level of organizational structure, are they exercising influence or final authority in those decisions? Firestone (1977) suggested that a lack of teacher influence on final decisions may negate the effects of involvement in all previous stages. Teachers may enjoy involvement in highly structured organizations; however, they may actually see little decision authority in their involvement. If teachers participate but the administrator exercises the final authority, teachers may view their involvement as less effective and not contributing to their satisfaction. This was suggested in the literature review concerning schools with a highly bureaucratic structure as compared to those operating as social systems (Conley, 1991). This research did not extend the examination of actual involvement in school governance to include the effect of authority and influence.

**Hypothesis 5**: The relationship between teachers' actual involvement and job satisfaction does not vary according to their desired involvement.

**Conclusion**: Teachers' job satisfaction was not significantly related to their desire for involvement in the decision issues.

**Discussion**: The fifth hypothesis concerned the relationship between teachers' desire for participation and their job satisfaction. Desire for involvement is the extent to which teachers wish to be involved in decisions within their schools. The findings from this study supported previous research (Ferrara, 1992) in that teachers reported desiring much more decision involvement than was presently the practice. After comparing teachers' actual and desired involvement, Ferrara concluded that deprivation existed across all decisional situations and categories in the school setting, and that teachers' desires for participation were not being met.

A comparison of means in the present study revealed that teachers desired to be involved to a greater extent (1.93) than they actually were (2.58). Further, teachers desired more involvement in the technical/instructional domain (1.70) than in the managerial/schoolwide domain (2.15). This finding is consistent with previous empirical (Mohrman et al., 1978) and conceptual (Bridges, 1967) research, in which teachers were found to prefer involvement in decisions related to direct student instruction over involvement in those related to issues involving school management and administration.

The data in the present study reflected a normal distribution of responses to the 20 decision questions related to desired involvement (Table 4.24). However, the data indicated that desired involvement existed independently of job satisfaction. That is, no significant relationship was found between respondents' desired involvement and their job satisfaction. One explanation for this result might be that

desired involvement, compared to actual involvement, is subjective and situational. As a result, drawing conclusions from desired involvement might be less accurate than drawing conclusions from actual involvement. Also, as with the issue of expertise, desired involvement reflects the respondent's personal and individual preferences for involvement and is not necessarily representative of results that might be derived from collaboration and goals that are derived from organizational goal setting.

## Implications for Practice

This study was conducted to better understand teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and to identify variables that affect job satisfaction. The findings from this study did provide empirical confirmation of research reported in the literature review, and these results hold the potential for practical application. For example, results showed a significant relationship between teachers' involvement in school decisions and their job satisfaction. This finding, based on respondents who were elementary school teachers, confirms previous research on secondary teachers (Rice, 1993; Thierbach, 1980). This finding supports the literature advocating a participative school environment that recognizes and encourages schoolwide involvement of teachers (Rice, 1993). An implication is for administrators to provide, to the greatest extent possible, opportunities for teachers who are affected by a decision to be involved in making the decision. This can lead to increased involvement, which, according to this study, will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction.

Results from an analysis of teachers' involvement in the instructional/ technical domain as compared to the managerial/schoolwide domain (Table 4.4) indicated that, whereas teachers preferred involvement in the instructional/ technical domain, they indicated a desire to be involved to a greater extent (1.93) than they currently were (2.58) in both domains. Implications are that administrators have leeway to involve teachers in decisions related to managerial and administrative issues, such as determining the administrative and organizational structure of the school, establishing school policies, developing inservice programs for teachers, setting and revising building goals, and hiring new staff.

A positive relationship also was found between teachers' job satisfaction and school organizational structure. Organizational structure includes such factors as working as a team to develop goals that are clear and specific, measurable, and accountability based. Other factors include availability of adequate materials, funding, and training to meet those goals. The study findings reaffirm Barnard's (1938) theory of cooperation in organizations and suggest the need for those at individual school sites to work collaboratively to identify goals based on individual school needs and to align individual and organizational purposes to meet those needs. Although this implication seems evident, it should be noted that the research literature has long emphasized the importance of employee participation in both operational work decisions and long-range strategic planning, yet this advice has not been widely adopted in schools (Bacharach & Conley, 1986). This research can serve to assist school administrators in designing effective decision-making processes and procedures to optimize that involvement.

The literature on social systems, job satisfaction, and cooperation in organizations has tended to focus on the benefits to individual teachers. As shown in this study, teachers' job satisfaction is related to organizational structures that support team building. An often-overlooked perspective is the importance of developing collegiality and viewing it as a benefit of participation. This notion brings into question the traditional paradigm that organizational "effectiveness" is based on the willingness of subordinates to accept the directives of managers (Conley, 1991). Rather, the findings from the present study seem to suggest that employees are willing to assume responsibility for setting personal goals that are aligned with those of the organization. Administrators can assist in assessing teachers' levels of involvement and working with teachers to reach consensus as to what that level of involvement is and what it ought to be. Consequently, administrators need to be in regular communication with staff regarding their role in the decision-making process.

In this study, it was found that teachers were involved in making decisions to a much lesser extent than they desired. Yet teachers, as line professionals, are key to maintaining contact with students. Administrators need to access this knowledge to make effective managerial decisions (Bridges, 1967). That teachers have not become an integral part of the formal decision-making process of schools (Duke et al., 1981) underscores the importance of valuing teacher participation. The results of this study indicated that teachers desired to be involved to a greater extent in making decisions in their schools. As reported in the literature review, however, decision involvement is not always a viable strategy for all segments of the population, and not all teachers share an equal desire for involvement.

One interesting implication for practice is the effect of influence on job satisfaction and its relationship to authority. In this study, a positive correlation was found between influence and job satisfaction. As Conley (1991) noted, researchers have suggested that the issue of influence is a key factor in current reform initiatives. The implication for administrators may be to encourage teachers to assume greater responsibility for school leadership by providing them with opportunities to influence decisions that affect their schools. This influence can translate positively to increase their job satisfaction.

The findings also suggest a need to explore relationships between the process of decision involvement and the potential for professional development. The data on organizational structure, expertise, and desire for involvement underscore the importance of individualizing decision making at each school site. As individuals in schools work to identify unique needs and goals for improvement, more site-specific professional development will be needed to identify, implement, evaluate, and revise plans. Professional development opportunities that involve preparing teams or staffs to meet specific needs identified at the site may benefit the organization more than training offered to individuals in their area of specialty. That is, although teachers' expertise in decision issues was not related to job satisfaction in this study, an implication for practice may be that of encouraging staffs to create core areas of expertise in which satisfaction can evolve not only from individual expertise but also from meaningful involvement and collegial expertise.

This focus of professional development implies that teachers should develop a more global awareness of buildingwide issues. It will be necessary to design staff

development in the areas of goal setting, the change process, group dynamics, organizational development, and related areas. Little training is readily accessible to teachers in these realms. The issue of professional development has important implications for those at the site level as they work to comply with the state mandate for building-level involvement.

One problematic implication stemming from the study findings centers on the process of implementing decision making. Although the Michigan legislature has mandated that schools establish building-level decision making, it has not indicated how this should be accomplished, nor has it identified the methods and extent of involvement. There will be a need to provide staffs at school sites with skills and training to effectively incorporate the mandated involvement into daily operations. This may require a reorganization of the traditional bureaucratic structures of the existing school operations. Implementation of mandated strategies may necessitate a restructuring of bureaucratic styles as the organization moves toward a more participatory state.

Finally, the overarching theme from the study findings is that teachers' involvement in the decision-making process has the potential to lead to more collaborative and site-based school improvement processes, which may prove to be more productive than traditional systems. The research indicated that the greater the participation by teachers in decision making, the greater would be their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This can result in changing school organizational structures and existing roles and relationships to enhance teacher involvement. Administrators may need to learn new ways of leading and teachers

new ways of participating. Recommendations for future research on teacher involvement are made in the following section.

## Recommendations for Future Research

This study focused on the relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision-making process and their job satisfaction. This research can contribute to a data base that will be useful in future research regarding the process of teacher decision making. The results indicated that further study is needed to clarify the effect of the state legislature's mandate for building-level decision making in which staffs are required to identify goals and to individualize plans to meet needs at each school site. Future researchers can identify effective models for implementing decision making. These models can be tailored to meet the unique needs at individual school sites.

Although the results showed a significant positive relationship between teachers' involvement and their job satisfaction, it should be noted that this study was limited to a report of such involvement. The researcher did not attempt to address issues of the quality of that involvement, nor did she attempt to relate involvement to student performance. Future researchers could explore this area, as well as that of determining whether involvement in some areas diminishes teachers' attention to their primary instructional duties.

The study findings supported those from previous research, which indicated that teachers actually participate in curriculum, instruction, and pupil decisions to a greater extent than they do in managerial and budgetary decisions. Conley (1988)

found that writers have tended to focus on teachers' roles in basic policy decisions to the exclusion of other management functions. As staffs engage collaboratively to design school improvement plans, they may become more involved in managerial decisions that support the goals of the entire school. Future researchers could examine the traditional paradigm that holds administrators exclusively responsible for school management issues. Studies could be directed to identifying trends that may blur the distinctions between these categories by extending teachers' traditional goal-setting, planning, and monitoring activities from the classroom to the building level. In this regard, teachers' traditional practice of making routine operational decisions can be extended to encompass the broader realm of buildingwide decision making.

In this study, teachers' level of influence was positively correlated with their job satisfaction. However, the issue of who maintains final authority over decisions was not explored. Future researchers should focus on the distinction between authority and influence. An important issue is the degree to which teachers are given *influence* through a consultative role or whether they are granted *authority,* which implies final decision-making power. Research in this area is unclear (Conley, 1991). Because teacher influence and job satisfaction are related, what should be studied are not only teachers' expectations for involvement and the specific areas in which they desire more involvement, but also their degree of influence in affecting outcomes from that involvement. Such research also could help to define the range of influence in particular decision areas for both the administrator and the teacher.

The results reported here indicated that teachers do wish to be more involved in decision making. This finding has implications for contract negotiations, which traditionally focus attention on such areas as salary, benefits, hours, and class size. Herzberg (1987) asserted that these are external factors and do not affect job satisfaction. As the school system changes to include more teacher empowerment, unions will be faced with either opposing the shift or joining the effort to make decision involvement an integral part of the school improvement process. Future researchers could examine the expansion of negotiation discussions to center on teacher professionalism and other pedagogical concerns.

This study extended previous research on middle school teachers by Thierbach (1980) and Rice (1993) to elementary school teachers and confirmed many of the findings from those studies. Future researchers could explore decision involvement in other departments (such as music, theater, or art) or areas (such as sports), or in university settings. It seems logical that studies of decision participation by faculty in those settings would generate similar findings and lend credence to the practice of shared decision making in all aspects of management and operation.

One caveat in recommending research concerns the complexity of the decision-making process and the difficulty of generalizing findings too broadly. The basic assumption underlying this study was the importance of involving individuals in the decision-making process and the relationship of that involvement to job satisfaction. It should be noted that there are numerous political and situational variables that influence any study of human beings in a social system. The

assumptions of the rationality of the decision-making process as outlined in this chapter belie the complexity of the theories of decision involvement, social systems, and job satisfaction, which were presented in Chapter II. The effect that political, contextual, and environmental factors have on this process should not be underestimated.

## Concluding Remarks

The increased involvement of teachers in the decision-making process has received much study and attention. This national trend has been mandated in Michigan. The findings from this study are consistent with the human relations perspective that has prevailed in research on teacher involvement. The results indicated that the greater the participation of teachers in decision making, the greater their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results also indicated that teachers' job satisfaction was related to their level of influence in making decisions. Furthermore, teachers desired to be involved in the decision process to a greater extent than they currently were.

Overall, the results of the analysis of actual involvement and job satisfaction corroborated the findings of previous research, indicating that when teachers actually do participate, they participate more in curriculum/instruction and pupil personnel decisions than in those decisions relating to staff personnel and budget/ management. The findings also supported previous findings indicating that teachers desire more participation and that decisional deprivation occurs frequently among teachers in the school setting (Bacharach et al., 1990).

The results of this study did not indicate a relationship between individual teachers' expertise or desired involvement and their job satisfaction. Furthermore, the influence that teachers thought they had in making decisions that affect the organization was highly related to their job satisfaction. Also, in schools with high levels of school organizational factors, teachers were more satisfied. These factors include working as a team, within a specific timeline, to establish building goals that are clear and specific, measurable, and based on accountability. Sufficient training and funding are among the organizational factors contributing to teacher satisfaction.

The results reported here indicated an interesting trend. Whereas the focus of this study was on teachers' job satisfaction in relation to actual involvement, expertise, influence, organizational structure, and desired involvement, an analysis of the results suggested the importance of collaboration and collegiality. The results suggested that there should be more extensive collaboration and interaction among those at the school site in planning cooperatively and coordinating plans for school improvement. Such collaboration could extend vertically from teacher to administrator, as well as horizontally by extending opportunities for peer interaction and influence. The resulting alignment of organizational goals with actions of those who are involved in the daily operation of the organization is important in establishing fundamental change. As shown in the model of collaboration in organizations based on Barnard's theory (Figure 2.2), the process continues as an ongoing cycle. What results is school improvement that is based on the strengths and commitment of those at the individual school site. It is the institutionalization of

collaboration and collective goal setting that can ensure the effectiveness of the organization.

Although much still remains to be learned about the interactions of teachers in the decision-making process, it is clear that teachers' involvement is integral to the success of the school organization. As teachers are provided with the factors Herzberg identified as critical to intrinsic motivation--information, control over work, respect, and chances to grow--their job satisfaction and, in turn, organizational effectiveness and efficiency can develop. Although the issue of teacher involvement in the decision-making process is complex and multidimensional, it appears clear that decision making is an important step that can lead teachers to a greater commitment to the profession and a resultant improvement in the quality of schools.

# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

# PRINCIPALS' TELEPHONE INTERVIEW

Hello, _____

Introduction:

My name is Mary Biziorek, and I am a student at MSU. I am conducting a research project under the direction of Professor Jan Alleman through the Department of Education Administration at Michigan State University.

Purpose:

The purpose of my call is to ask whether you would be willing to allow your staff to participate in a study of teacher involvement in decision making. Your willingness to participate would mean that you would allow me to mail surveys to you which you would distribute to your teachers. The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete and includes 3 parts (decision involvement and job satisfaction surveys and a personal data sheet).

If you will agree to distribute the surveys, I will mail you:

-a cover letter of explanation,

-a copy of the 3-part survey for your use

-copies of the surveys for you to distribute to classroom teachers with stamped envelopes addressed to me. The only criteria I have is that you distribute the surveys only to teachers who have worked in your school for more than one year and do not hold administrative, counseling, or other non-teaching positions.

Outline of the Research:

The purpose of my study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between teachers' involvement in the decision making process and job satisfaction.

Your anonymity is protected because my focus is on elementary teachers in Michigan rather than on individual teachers or schools. I can provide feedback only in summary form. While summary data are not the most practical for each principal, they protect the anonymity of individuals and schools. It may be useful, too, for principals to know which decision issues teachers actually are participating in most often and which issues they desire to participate in more. Summary information of this type will be sent to principals of participating schools.

Do you have any questions?

Will you participate in the study? Yes_____ No_____

How many surveys shall I send you? (How many teachers with at least one year experience without administrative, counseling or other non teaching ?) _____

Thank you for your time and assistance in this project.

# APPENDIX B

## COVER LETTER AND FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

**(This cover letter was sent to each principal who agreed to participate in the study. Enclosed with this letter were teachers' letters, surveys, and stamped envelopes addressed to the researcher.)**

October, 1997

Dear _____,

Thank you for your interest in my study of teacher involvement in decision making. As I mentioned to you in our phone conversation, this study is being conducted through the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University. As teachers today are participating to a greater extent in the decision making process, I think it is important to learn more about this process and how teachers feel about their involvement. This is the purpose of my study.

Your anonymity is protected because my focus is on elementary teachers in Michigan rather than on individual teachers or schools. Neither you nor your teachers will be referenced. While summary data are not the most practical for each principal, they protect the anonymity of individuals and schools. It may be useful, too, for principals to know which decision issues teachers actually are participating in most often and which issues they desire to participate in more. Summary information of this type will be sent to principals of participating schools.

As stated in our telephone conversation, I am asking that you distribute the enclosed surveys to teachers who have been in your school for more than one year and who do not hold administrative, counseling, or other non-teaching positions. A copy of the three surveys is enclosed for your review. They can be completed in about 20 minutes.

If you have any questions regarding the research or your involvement, please call me at (248) 887-6298. If I am unavailable, please leave a message, and I will return your call.

Again, I wish to thank you for your assistance with this study.

Sincerely,

Mary K. Biziorek

Mary K. Biziorek

**(This postcard was sent to each principal who received surveys. It was sent approximately 3 weeks after surveys were mailed.)**

November, 1997

Dear _____,

A few weeks ago, I sent you a set of surveys for your staff. I would appreciate it if you would remind your teachers to please complete these surveys. For those who have, I am so grateful. To those who have not, I truly do understand that it is "just one more thing" to add to an already busy schedule; however, these surveys provide data critical to my study.

Thank you so much for your assistance with this important aspect of my research. I believe my results can make a difference for the professional lives of teachers. Your support is invaluable!

If you have any questions, please give me a call at (248) 887-6298.

Sincerely,

Mary K. Biziorek

**(This cover letter for teachers was sent to each principal who agreed to participate in the study. Attached to each letter was a set of surveys and a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher.)**

October, 1997

Dear teacher,

As teachers today are participating to a greater extent in the decision making process, I think it is important to learn more about this process and how teachers feel about their involvement. This is the purpose of my study. I am conducting this research through the Department of Educational Administration, Michigan State University.

Your anonymity in this study is guaranteed, and no individual, school, or school district will be identified in any reports. It is expected that the results of this research will have practical value for educators as we continue to seek ways to improve our schools.

Your school has been randomly selected for this study. I have discussed this study with your principal who has agreed to allow the teachers in your school to participate. Please complete the three-part survey which is enclosed with this letter, and return it directly to me in the enclosed envelope if you desire to participate in this study. The surveys include:

Part I - Decision Involvement Survey
Part II - Job Satisfaction Survey
Part III - Personal Data

This can be completed in about 20 minutes. Please return them **by November 21**. If you have any questions regarding the research or your involvement, please call me at (248) 887-6298. If I am unavailable, please leave a message, and I will return your call.

I appreciate your assistance with this study

Sincerely,

Mary K. Biziorek

Mary K. Biziorek

# APPENDIX C

# APPROVAL LETTER FROM UCRIHS

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

November 2, 1997

TO: Janet Alleman

RE: IRB#: 97-707
TITLE: TEACHERS' ROLES AND EXPECTATIONS IN SCHOOL-BASED DECISION MAKING
REVISION REQUESTED: N/A
CATEGORY: 1-C
APPROVAL DATE: 10/29/97

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above.

**RENEWAL:** UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

**REVISIONS:** UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

**PROBLEMS/ CHANGES:** Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517)355-2180 or FAX (517)432-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:bed

cc: Mary K. Biziorek

# APPENDIX D

# SURVEY INSTRUMENT

# DECISION INVOLVEMENT ANALYSIS

## INSTRUCTION SHEET

The purpose of this research is to determine teacher involvement in the decision-making process and job satisfaction of teachers in elementary schools within Michigan.

This document consists of **THREE PARTS:**

**Part I: Decision Involvement Analysis**

**Part II: Job Satisfaction Survey**

**Part III: Personal Data**

This document should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Please do the following:

1. READ THE DIRECTION S in each part.
2. ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS in the spaces provided.

***All responses will remain confidential. There will be no identification of person, school or school district.***

***Thank you for your participation!***

PART I: DECISION INVOLVEMENT ANALYSIS

DIRECTIONS: Please respond to each of the three questions for all 20 decision-related issues by marking an X in the appropriate column corresponding to the response code.

| RESPONSE CODE:<br>1 = Great<br>2 = Some<br>3 = Little<br>4 = None | QUESTION 1<br>What is your ACTUAL EXTENT of involvement in making this decision? | | | | QUESTION 2<br>What is your DESIRED EXTENT of involvement in making this decision? | | | | QUESTION 3<br>To what degree to you POSSESS EXPERTISE in making this decision? | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1. Specifying the learning objectives for each unit of instruction | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Determining the administration and organizational structure of your school | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Developing procedures for reporting student progress to parents | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Developing procedures for assessing student achievement | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Establishing disciplinary policies in your school | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Developing inservice programs for teachers in your school | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Assigning students to instructional groups within your grade level or subject area | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Planning the counseling program in your school | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| RESPONSE CODE:<br>1 = Great<br>2 = Some<br>3 = Little<br>4 = None | QUESTION 1<br>What is your ACTUAL EXTENT of involvement in making this decision? | | | | QUESTION 2<br>What is your DESIRED EXTENT of involvement in making this decision? | | | | QUESTION 3<br>To what degree to you POSSESS EXPERTISE in making this decision? | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. Preparing the building budget | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Resolving problems or issues in school-community relations | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Setting and revising the goals of your school | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Determining the procedures to be used for the evaluation of teachers | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Planning student record-keeping procedures and practices | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Selecting textbooks and other instructional materials | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. Allocating materials and equipment | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16. Determining grading procedures for evaluating the progress of your students | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Selecting grade-level representatives or team leaders | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Developing procedures for involving parents in planning the students' learning program | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19. Evaluating how well your school is operating | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20. Hiring new teachers | | | | | | | | | | | | |

## PART II: JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

**DIRECTIONS:** Please answer the following questions regarding your satisfaction with your teaching position by marking the most appropriate response to each.

| How satisfied are you with: | RESPONSES (Check one) Very Satisfied | Somewhat Satisfied | Somewhat Dissatisfied | Very Dissatisfied |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The amount of work done by other teachers in your school? | | | | |
| 2. The number of students for whom you are responsible? | | | | |
| 3. Your opportunities for growth in your profession? | | | | |
| 4. The amount of money you make? | | | | |
| 5. The opportunities provided to discuss problems with your building administrator? | | | | |
| 6. The trust you have in your building administrators? | | | | |
| 7. The general reputation of your school? | | | | |
| 8. The quality of work of other teachers in your school? | | | | |
| 9. The understanding of your school's program by parents and the community? | | | | |
| 10. Your future in your school district? | | | | |
| 11. The extent to which you are able to meet your students' affective needs? | | | | |
| 12. The extent to which the community recognizes and appreciates its educators? | | | | |
| 13. The quality of your interactions with your students? | | | | |
| 14. The opportunities that you have to develop your area of special interest? | | | | |

| How satisfied are you with: | Very Satisfied | Somewhat Satisfied | Somewhat Dissatisfied | Very Dissatisfied |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. The physical facilities of your school? | | | | |
| 16. The professional competence and leadership of your building administrator? | | | | |
| 17. The number of subject areas that you must prepare? | | | | |
| 18. Your awareness of what is "going on" in your school? | | | | |
| 19. The salary schedule in your school district? | | | | |
| 20. The arrangement of space and equipment in your school? | | | | |
| 21. The extent to which you are able to meet your students' academic needs? | | | | |
| 22. The availability of appropriate instructional materials and equipment? | | | | |
| 23. The amount of work you are expected to do? | | | | |
| 24. The fringe benefits in your school district? | | | | |
| 25. The personal and social relationships you have with other teachers? | | | | |
| 26. The community's involvement in your school's program? | | | | |
| 27. The goals and objectives emphasized by your school? | | | | |

## PART III: PERSONAL DATA

**DIRECTIONS:** Please answer the following questions about yourself by circling or inserting the requested information.

1. How many years have you been teaching? _____ years

2. How many years have you been teaching in your present school? _____ years

3. What grade(s) do you currently teach? (Circle) K 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. What is your gender? (Circle) Male Female

5. What is your highest degree: ___ Bachelor's ___ Master's ___ Specialist ___ Doctoral

Please keep your building goals in mind as you respond to Questions 6-13.

| | Always | Sometimes | Seldom | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. In my school, we work as a **team** to develop goals. | | | | |
| 7. In my school, goals are **clear and specific**. | | | | |
| 8. In my school, goals are **measurable**. | | | | |
| 9. In my school, goals **require accountability**. | | | | |
| 10. In my school, we are provided with adequate **materials** to achieve our goals. | | | | |
| 11. In my school, we are provided with adequate **funding** to achieve our goals. | | | | |
| 12. In my school, we are provided with enough **training** to achieve our goals. | | | | |
| 13. In my school, goals have a specific **timeline**. | | | | |

For Questions 14 and 15, check appropriate column.

| | Great Extent | Some Extent | Little Extent | No Extent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. When you participate in making decisions that affect the entire school, to what extent do you feel your participation is **influential**? | | | | |
| 15. When you participate in making decisions that affect your grade level or instructional team, to what extent do you feel your participation is **influential**? | | | | |

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