

A CAMPARISON OF THE PRESENT AND THE  
DESIRED LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION BY ELEMENTARY  
TEACHERS IN EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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A COMPARISON OF THE PRESENT AND THE  
DESIRED LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION BY ELEMENTARY  
TEACHERS IN EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

A Thesis  
Presented to  
The Faculty of Education  
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Master of Education

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William Earl Inkpen  
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## ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to determine whether a significant difference existed between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making in the five decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction. A second purpose of the study was to determine whether a significant interaction existed between a number of selected variables (age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board, and type of school), and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement in each of the five decisional areas.

A three part questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 300 elementary teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador. A total of 279 questionnaires, 93 percent, were returned.

Analysis of the data revealed a significant difference between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in each of the five decisional areas. With the exception of sex, essentially no significant interaction was found between the variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board and type of school, and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement in the five decisional areas.

## MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Committee on Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Comparison of the Present and the Desired Levels of Participation by Elementary Teachers in Educational Decision-Making" by William Earl Inkpen in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
1.	THE PROBLEM . . . . .	1
	Introduction . . . . .	1
	The Problem Defined . . . . .	10
	The Purpose of the Study . . . . .	12
	Limitations of the Study . . . . .	13
	Significance of the Study . . . . .	14
2.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	17
	Classical Administrative Theory . . . . .	17
	The Human Relations Movement . . . . .	18
	Phenomenological and Structural Participation . . . . .	20
	Major Approaches to Reviewing the Literature in Participatory Decision-Making . . . . .	21
	Review of Studies in Decision-Making in Areas Other Than Education . . . . .	22
	Field Experiments Conducted Upon Groups Which Lie Outside Industrial Organizations . . . . .	23
	Field Studies Conducted in Industrial Settings . . . . .	28
	Studies of Situations Where Workers Have Introduced Participation on Their Own Initiative . . . . .	35
	Survey Research Investigating the Relationship Between Various Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction . . . . .	38

## Chapter

## Page

	Studies of Job Satisfaction <u>Per Se</u> . . . .	43
	Review of Studies in Decision-Making in Education . . . . .	44
	Summary . . . . .	55
3.	DESIGN OF THE STUDY . . . . .	58
	The Research Instrument . . . . .	58
	Reliability of the Instrument . . . . .	59
	The Sample . . . . .	61
	Hypotheses . . . . .	61
	Collection of the Data . . . . .	63
	Statistical Analysis . . . . .	64
4.	THE RESULTS . . . . .	67
	Curriculum Planning and Adaptation . . . . .	68
	Classroom Management . . . . .	71
	Arrangement of the School Instructional Program . . . . .	71
	General School Organization . . . . .	76
	Building Construction . . . . .	76
	Summary . . . . .	76
5.	DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	83
	Discussion of the Results . . . . .	83
	Recommendations for Further Research . . . .	86

## Chapter

## Page

6.	SUMMARY . . . . .	89
	The Purpose of the Study . . . . .	89
	Design of the Study . . . . .	89
	Main Findings . . . . .	90
	Conclusions . . . . .	91
	Recommendations for Further Research . . . . .	93
	BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	95
	APPENDICES . . . . .	103
A.	Research Instrument . . . . .	104
B.	Correspondence . . . . .	110

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient for the Two Sets of Responses by Each Subject on Part B and Part C of the Questionnaire . . . .	60
2.	Respondents . . . . .	62
3.	Means of Present and Desired Involvement by Teachers in Curriculum Planning and Adaptation . . . . .	69
4.	Summary of Regression Analysis: Curriculum Planning and Adaptation . . . . .	70
5.	Means of Present and Desired Involvement by Teachers in Classroom Management . . . . .	72
6.	Summary of Regression Analysis: Classroom Management . . . . .	73
7.	Means of Present and Desired Involvement by Teachers in Arrangement of the School Instructional Program . . . . .	74
8.	Summary of Regression Analysis: Arrangement of the School Instructional Program . . . . .	75
9.	Means of Present and Desired Involvement by Teachers in General School Organization . . . . .	77
10.	Summary of Regression Analysis: General School Organization . . . . .	78
11.	Means of Present and Desired Involvement by Teachers in Building Construction . . . . .	79
12.	Summary of Regression Analysis: Building Construction . . . . .	80

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Matrix of Decision-Making Responsibility for a Two Level Organization . . . . .	5
2.	Categorical Variables and Cells for Age . . . .	65

## Chapter 1

### THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

Since the development of the human relations movement in the 1920s, a number of studies have been conducted to determine the effects of participatory decision-making (PDM) on such variables as production, job satisfaction, resistance to change, and quality of decisions made. On the basis of the positive findings of some of those studies, numerous articles have been written describing the benefits which may be derived from involving subordinates in making decisions which affect them in their work. A perusal of those writings leads one to conclude that involving subordinates in the decision-making process will result in such benefits as higher level of productivity, greater job satisfaction, decreased resistance to change, higher quality decisions, greater responsibility for those involved in making the decisions to carry out those decisions at the operational level, higher degree of acceptance to whatever decisions are made, increased overall job satisfaction, and increased rate of innovation.

However, an examination of the studies which have been conducted in PDM reveals a number of mixed findings, particularly in the area of the effects of participation in decision-making on productivity. Some studies have revealed

that participation in decision-making leads to increased productivity, while other studies have indicated that PDM has no effect or may even have a detrimental effect on productivity.

Lowin (1968) classified the studies which have been conducted in PDM into three categories: experimental non-organizational research, observational studies in organizational settings, and experimental studies in organizations. He further subdivided the studies which had been conducted in each of those categories under the headings positive findings and problematic findings. Positive findings would include cases where the occurrence of, or increase in, decision-making responsibility were coupled with an increase in productivity and/or other similar indices of organizational performance. Problematic findings would include those cases in which occurrence of, or increase in, decision-making responsibility were coupled with either a decline in some measures of organizational or individual performance or no recorded difference (Ponder, 1973, pp. 32-33).

In reviewing the studies conducted in PDM, Lowin found that there were approximately the same number of studies with problematic findings as there were with positive findings in each category.

There are a number of factors which may have contributed to those mixed findings. Lowin (1968) suggests that the difference between major and minor experimental programs in

organizational PDM may be a factor contributing to the mixed findings. While minor experimental programs employ more rigorous definitions and measures, these qualities are acquired at the expense of breadth. The narrower, short-term studies are less successful in documenting the value of PDM than the broader efforts. Lowin suggests two possible interpretations of this difference.

One might argue that the PDM hypothesis is a false one, and that it requires an intensive and carefully designed study to document that fact. Alternatively, it is possible that effective PDM requires the mobilization of extensive organizational resources: power, people, technology, time; thus, that minor efforts can fail where major ones may succeed. We are impressed by the positive evidence of the Blake & Mouton, Marrow, and Scanlon Plan reports. The variety and power of the data and the richness of the descriptions almost compensate for fuzzy manipulations and absence of controls. The diversity of the programs suggests a degree of construct validity not approached by the far more homogeneous minor studies. (Lowin, 1968, p. 98)

Ponder (1973) refers to two important problems involved in any attempt to analyze the reasons for the mixed findings: the lack of any semblance of uniformity on which the studies could somehow be equated, and the complexity of the relationship between the variables. Figure I illustrates the complexity of the decision-making process. Since there are only two levels of members (manager and employees) in the model, decision-making responsibility can be placed on a continuum with the manager at one extremity and the employees at the other extremity. On such a continuum there are three



basic situations which may exist: the manager has sole responsibility for making decisions, the employees have sole responsibility for making decisions, or the manager and the employees share the responsibility for making decisions. If the responsibility is shared, then involvement by the two levels of members may range from a high level of involvement by the manager and a low level of involvement by the employees to a low level of involvement by the manager and a high level of involvement by the employees. The level of involvement by each of the two levels of members in the organization will further vary with each of the following:

the stages of the decision-making process (identification of the problem, setting of priorities, generation of alternative solutions, selection of a solution, implementation, and evaluation).

the levels of the decision-making process (ranging from "ad hoc" type decisions to policy decisions).

the kinds of decisions (within any level of decision-making there may be a number of different kinds of decisions). (Ponder, 1973, pp. 4-8)

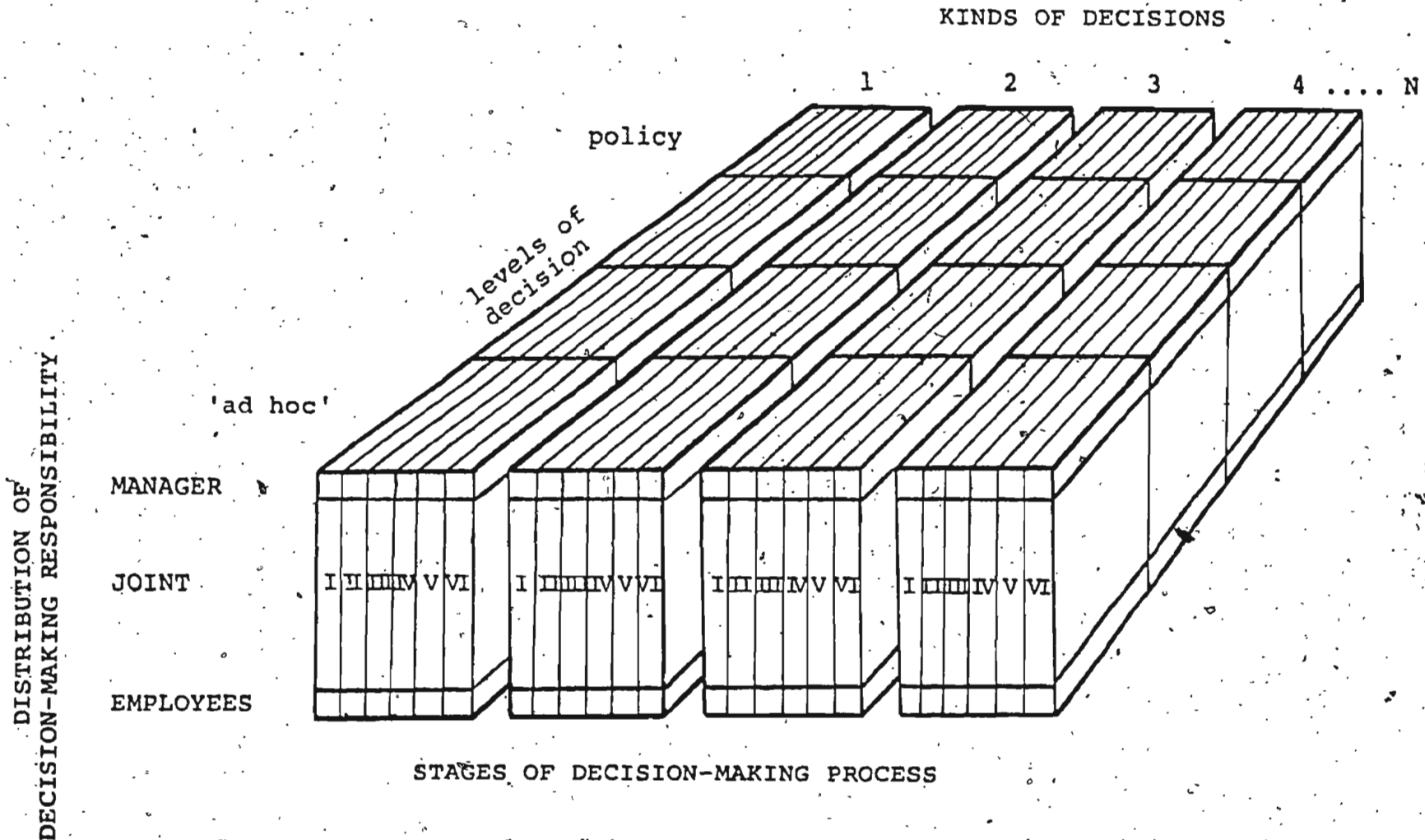
Ponder discusses the complexity of those variables in the decision-making process:

It appears that even at the conceptual level it is often difficult to determine exactly what levels, kinds, stages, etc. of decision-making were actually involved, and where they would fit into any general analysis of studies conducted in the area. (Ponder, 1973, p. 59)

A number of other factors which may contribute to mixed findings from studies in PDM have been discussed by other researchers. Strykker (1956) points out that the decision to

Figure I

Matrix of Decision-making Responsibility for a  
Two Level Organization



Source: A. A. Ponder, "The Effects of Involvement in Decision-Making on the Productivity of Three-Man Laboratory Grouping" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of British Columbia, 1973), p. 9.

begin a participative experiment may be essentially non-participative. That is, managers may decide to involve subordinates in a decision-making experiment without consulting with subordinates to determine if they desire to be involved. Consequently, the subordinates are likely to perceive the experiment as another example of management's exerting authority, and will undoubtedly resent it. Under such circumstances, there is a high probability that the experiment would not be very successful. Singer sees this problem as a reason for the lack of teacher commitment to various educational programs:

It is little wonder that instructional improvement projects are conceived, flounder, and die before the bewildered eyes of public school administrators, university resource personnel, and federal project coordinators. The answer to this traditional dilemma is evident. Before instructional improvement projects in the public schools can ever achieve significant proportions; they must be conceived, developed, implemented, evaluated, and redirected by educators at the "grass roots" level. (Singer, 1971, p. 79)

French and his colleagues, in a study of the effects of participation in decision-making in a Norwegian shoe factory, found that the subordinates' perceived legitimacy of their participation was a factor which contributed to problematic findings. Many of the employees did not consider it right and proper to engage in the decision-making process. French and his colleagues describe the factors which led to this perception by some subordinates:

In all industrial companies, as in other social systems, there will be a set of social

roles, either formal or informal, defining the relations among the members of the organization and also prescribing how much these individuals should participate in various areas of decision-making . . . participation will increase motivation and job satisfaction and will improve the relations with the other party only to the extent to which the given form of participation is considered legitimate. (French, Israel, and As, 1960, p. 5)

Another factor which may have contributed to mixed findings in PDM is that the area where subordinates are involved may be within their "zone of indifference".

Barnard (1938) has indicated that subordinates have a "zone of indifference" within which an administrator's decision will be accepted unquestionably. When managers involve subordinates in decision-making within their zone of indifference, participation will not be as effective as when they are involved in decision-making outside their zone of indifference. If subordinates are indiscriminately involved in decision-making in their zone of indifference then alienation could result (Bridges, 1967). Before subordinates are involved in a particular area of decision-making, their superiors should determine how relevant it is to the subordinates to be involved in decision-making in the area.

Chase, in analyzing the results of a survey of over seventeen hundred teachers, discusses two factors which could contribute to mixed findings in PDM:

Too much pressure to obtain participation of teachers in educational planning can become a source of resentment and dissatisfaction.

The pretense of participation, or the feeling that participation is encouraged only for the sake of securing assent to decisions already made, is not a satisfactory substitute for genuine participation, and in the long run may produce more dissatisfaction than satisfaction. (Chase, 1951, p. 130)

White and Lippitt (1960) see failure to distinguish organized, participative patterns of decision-making from unstructured, laissez-faire approaches as a factor which may influence the findings in PDM. Although both give the subordinate an opportunity to participate, only the organized participative patterns recognize the need for direction for effective participation in the decision-making process. Consequently, those involved in the unstructured laissez-faire approaches are unlikely to have a feeling of satisfaction or achievement as a result of involvement in decision-making.

Finally, the mixed findings may have been influenced by the fact that some subordinates may not desire to be involved in the decision-making process. The studies conducted in PDM appear to be based on the assumption that subordinates would prize the opportunity to participate. This may not be the case. Dill feels that many subordinates may not desire to participate in decision-making:

We are also discovering that the opportunity to participate in decision-making is not as highly prized by many people as the first experiments led us to believe. (Dill, 1964, p. 215)

Studies by Dill, Hilton, and Reitman (1962) have indicated that many subordinates are quite willing to let superiors make decisions for them. Carvell supports the view that

not all subordinates may desire to participate in decision-making:

But it must be recognized that not all employees wish to participate in decisions, nor should it be assumed that all employees are capable of contributing to solutions of problems that lie outside their immediate operating areas. (Carvell, 1970, p. 205)

Moyer (1955) sees subordinates' attitudes toward leadership as a factor affecting their desire to participate. Leader-centered subordinates develop an irrational allegiance to the leader, whereas follower-centered subordinates prefer the sharing of responsibility and authority. Therefore, although the follower-centered subordinate would probably prefer to be involved in decision-making, the leader-centered subordinate would more likely prefer not to be involved.

Davis holds a somewhat similar view:

Since people grow up within a culture of many authorities, such as parents, teachers, and government bureaucrats, many employees have an "authoritarian set" to their personality. They derive security and satisfaction from working within a strong authority structure. (Davis, 1967, p. 105)

Another factor which would influence subordinates' desire to participate is their present state of decisional participation. Belasco and Alutto (1972) have identified three states of decisional participation: decisional deprivation, decisional equilibrium, and decisional saturation. Decisional deprivation exists when involvement in decision-making is less than preferred; decisional equilibrium exists when participation is at the desired level; and decisional

saturation exists when the level of participation is greater than desired. If the 'subordinates' state of participation is decisional deprivation, then it is very likely that they would prize the opportunity for further participation. On the other hand, if their present state of participation is decisional saturation, then it is very unlikely that they would prize the opportunity for a higher degree of participation.

The possibility that, for a number of reasons, many subordinates may not desire to participate in the decision-making process should be given careful consideration before they are involved in decision-making. Involving subordinates who do not desire to participate in decision-making may be a very important factor contributing to problematic findings in studies conducted in PDM. Therefore, one of the first steps which should be taken before involving subordinates in decision-making is to determine their desire for involvement.

#### The Problem Defined

Much has been written about the need for a greater degree of teacher participation in educational decision-making. However, research conducted on the effects of increased participation in decision-making has revealed mixed findings. Some studies have indicated that desirable consequences may accrue from increased teacher involvement in decision-making. Other studies have indicated that increased teacher involvement may have no beneficial effects, and may even have detrimental effects. The question then arises as to how teachers can be

involved to a greater degree in decision-making so that the probability of obtaining desirable consequences is increased.

It seems that before increasing the level of teacher involvement in decision-making, it is necessary to know their present level of involvement, their desired level of involvement, and in which decisional areas they desire to participate.

Unless the state of decisional participation of teachers (decisional deprivation, decisional equilibrium, or decisional saturation) is determined before increasing their level of involvement in educational decision-making, it is possible that they may be involved in areas in which they do not desire to be involved or they may be involved to a greater degree than they desire to be involved (decisional saturation). However, if teacher participation is increased in decisional areas where they have indicated a greater desire for participation, then it is very likely that positive results will accrue from such increased involvement.

Additionally, it appears unlikely that the desire to be involved will be uniform throughout the whole teaching population. It seems reasonable to suggest that such variables as age, sex, years of teaching experience, and years of professional training will have an influence on teachers' present level of involvement and on their desired level of involvement in decision-making. For example, it may be that teachers who have many years teaching experience are consulted more than teachers who have only a few years teaching experience. If



such is the case, then the discrepancy between present and preferred levels of involvement is likely to be greater for less experienced teachers than it is for their more experienced colleagues.

If it is determined which state of decisional participation (decisional deprivation, decisional equilibrium, or decisional saturation) exists among teachers in this province in a number of key decisional areas, and the influence, if any, certain factors (age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board, and type of school) have on teachers' present level and desired level of involvement, then a more systematic approach can be taken to teacher participation in decision-making. Such an approach will most likely increase the probability of obtaining positive results from increased teacher involvement in the decision-making process.

#### The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine:

(i) which state of decisional participation exists among elementary teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador in EACH of the following decisional areas:

1. curriculum planning and adaptation
2. classroom management
3. arrangement of the school instructional program
4. general school organization
5. building construction

(ii) whether any significant interaction exists between EACH of the seven variables listed in A, and teachers' present level and desired level of participation in EACH of the five decisional areas listed in B:

A. Variables

1. age
2. sex
3. years of teaching experience
4. years of professional training
5. size of school
6. type of board
7. type of school

B. Decisional Areas

1. curriculum planning and adaptation
2. classroom management
3. arrangement of the school instructional program
4. general school organization
5. building construction

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to teachers who were teaching grades four to six in Newfoundland schools. In terms of the area under investigation, this study was limited to five general decisional areas: curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction. Although the writer was aware of the complexity of the

decision-making process, no attempt was made in this study to consider the different levels and stages of the process and only certain kinds of decisions were considered.

### Significance of the Study

There has been a considerable increase in the average level of teacher qualifications in this province during the past decade. Consequently, the province probably now possesses the most highly trained and presumably professional teaching force in its history (Ponder, 1974). Harnack (1968) suggests that the level of teacher involvement in decision-making is probably correlated with the level of teacher training. In view of the increased level of training of Newfoundland teachers, the question arises as to whether those teachers presently participate in educational decision-making at their desired level of involvement.

A number of writers point out possible benefits which may be derived from teacher participation in decision-making:

Fox and Lippitt's research with individual teachers indicated that the amount of involvement by teachers in various activities provided for them was directly related to their rate of innovation. (Eibler, 1969, p. 523)

Our data suggest that student performance, insofar as it is affected by classroom performance of teachers, will be improved when teachers perceive themselves as sharing in the process of organizational decision-making. (Hornstein, et al., 1968, p. 389)

Participation is necessary for a high level of teacher effectiveness and satisfaction. (Ambroisie and Heller, 1972, p. 13)

Now, as the profession grows and as teachers' decision-making ability grows, we are accomplishing more difficult programs and objectives. (Harnack, 1968, p. 139)

Staff participation is one of the most effective means of improving the schools. (Mort and Vincent, 1950, p. 29)

No leader can expect to evolve for himself all the ideas he can fruitfully use. He needs the ideas of his group. (Tead, 1935, p. 175)

On the other hand, there are a number of factors which should be considered before increasing the level of teacher involvement in decision-making. Chase (1951) suggests that too much pressure on teachers to participate, or a rubber stamp form of involvement may lead to teacher dissatisfaction. Belasco and Alluto (1972) suggest that if teachers are already involved as much as they prefer or are overinvolved, then further involvement could lead to dissatisfaction. Plaxton and Bumbarger (1973) suggest that participation alone is not enough. Their study indicated that the nature of participation is important. Simpkins and Friesen (1969) found that teachers wanted the extent and type of participation to vary according to the nature of the task. Bridges (1962) points out that teachers have a "zone of indifference", and alienation could result if teachers are indiscriminately involved in decision-making in their zone of indifference. Hebeinsen (1955) warns that extreme involvement where even the simplest decision becomes a matter of group discussion is likely to have a negative effect on teacher morale.

If it were known in which areas teachers desire a greater

degree of participation, and if certain variables are related to teachers' desire for increased participation, then a more systematic approach could be taken to teacher involvement in decision-making. To the writer's knowledge, no study has been conducted in this province to determine teachers' present state of participation in a number of decisional areas, or to determine if certain variables influence teachers' present level and desired level of participation.

This study is an attempt to provide such information. The findings should make administrators aware of which decisional areas that elementary teachers in this province desire a greater degree of participation, and the effect, if any, that certain variables have on teachers' present level and desired level of participation in the decision-making process.

## Chapter 2

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Classical Administrative Theory

Prior to the development of the human relations approach to management in the 1920s, the prevalent attitude of management toward the worker was that he had an inherent dislike for work and would avoid it if possible. Therefore, management felt it was necessary to coerce, control, direct and threaten subordinates to get them to put forth adequate effort to attain organizational goals (McGregor, 1960). Those views were reflected in the development of scientific management which was designed by Taylor to increase industrial efficiency. It was felt that workers could be motivated to become more efficient, and thus more productive, by increasing economic rewards (Dowling and Sayles, 1971).

Scientific management, which became the dominant mode of business thinking, concentrated on the method, not on the man (Dowling and Sayles, 1971). The organization was "characterized by a clearly defined division of labour with a highly specialized personnel, and by a distinct hierarchy of authority" (Etzioni, 1964, p. 20).

The attitude of management toward the worker in this type of organization is well illustrated by Henry Ford: "The average worker, I am sorry to say, wants a job in which he does not have to put forth much physical energy - above all,

he wants a job at which he does not have to think." (Dowling and Sayles, 1971, p. 5)

### The Human Relations Movement

The development of an approach to management based on human relations evolved during the 1920s. Mary Parker Follett is often credited with being the first great exponent of this point of view of administration (Getzels, Lippman, and Campbell, 1968). The human relations approach is based on the following assumptions about man:

The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as rest or play.

External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives, to which he is committed.

Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human beings are only partially utilized. (McGregor, 1960, pp. 47-48)

Empirical data to support the human relations approach to management was obtained by Elton Mayo and his colleagues during their studies at the Hawthorne plant of the Western

Electric Company in the 1920s and early 1930s. The first of those studies was conducted to determine the effect of increased illumination on the level of production. The experimenters were amazed to find that although productivity increased when the level of illumination was increased, it remained high even when the level of illumination was decreased to a very low level.

Intrigued by those findings, the experimenters instituted a series of experiments in an attempt to determine the reason for the unusual findings. The results of those experiments were much similar to the one involving the level of illumination. Such factors as the length and time of rest periods, the number of hours worked, and the rate of payment were changed and returned to the original condition. Yet, productivity increased.

Mayo, in analyzing those findings in 1933, suggested that the increased production, despite the variation in working conditions, was due to a change in the attitude of the workers:

He [Mayo] called attention to the following critical, if experimentally unintended conditions. Before every change in program the group was consulted. Its comments were listened to and discussed. The members were allowed to overrule a managerial suggestion. The group developed a sense of participation in the critical determinations and became something of a social unity. (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, 1968, p. 35)

Those findings, that employee participation in decision-making increased productivity and job satisfaction, encouraged other researchers to conduct studies involving employee participation in the decision-making process. Some of those



findings have indicated that involving subordinates in decision-making may yield such beneficial results as increased productivity, increased job satisfaction, internalization of organizational goals, and less resistance to change. Findings from other studies have been problematic; that is, involving subordinates in the decision-making process has had no effect on such measures as productivity and job satisfaction.

#### Phenomenological and Structural Participation

In discussing studies involving participatory decision-making, it is necessary to be aware that there exist two types of participation. Hornstein, et al. (1968) refer to the types of participation as phenomenological and structural participation. Vroom (1959) refers to the two types as psychological and objective participation. Phenomenological or psychological participation refers to the amount of influence an individual or group perceives he (it) has in decision-making. Structural or objective participation is the amount of influence an individual or group actually has in decision-making. If perceptions are accurate, the amount of psychological participation will equal the amount of objective participation (Vroom, 1959). However, the two will frequently differ due to the effect an individual's needs has on his social perceptions and due to the inadequate or distorted information he receives concerning his own influence (French, Israel, and As, 1960). Consequently, participation in decision-making generally refers to phenomenological or psychological participation.

### Major Approaches to Reviewing the Literature in Participatory Decision-Making

A great variety of studies have been conducted in PDM.

Blumberg indicates the scope of those studies:

They have taken place in a great variety of organizational settings, including boys' clubs, women's organizations, college classrooms, factories of many different kinds, offices, stores, scientific laboratories, and so on. Similarly, they have been conducted upon a tremendous variety of persons differing in age, sex, education, income, occupation, and power. They have involved young boys, housewives, college students, manual workers at different levels of skill and in diverse types of factories, supervisors at different levels, clerical workers, salesmen, and scientists. (Blumberg, 1968, p. 73)

A number of methods have been used for dividing this research into categories. Lowin suggests that the studies can be divided into three categories: experimental studies in non-organizational settings, observational studies in organizational settings, and experimental studies in organizational settings. He then sub-divides the studies in each category into two classes. One class consists of studies with positive findings, and the other class consists of studies with problematic findings (Lowin, 1968).

Tannenbaum and Massarik feel that three approaches can be taken in dealing with PDM: the experiential approach; the conceptual, non-experimental approach; and the experimental approach. The experiential approach is not based on any systematic study, but "is exemplified by writers who in the course of their experience in enterprise work have obtained a 'feel' for the role of participation in the decision-making"

process and have put down their experiences in article or book form" (Tannenbaum and Massarik, 1950, p. 408). The conceptual, non-experimental approach is based on the writings of authors who are academicians with strong theoretical backgrounds. The experimental approach is based on the writings of researchers who have conducted experiments in participation.

Blumberg identifies five types of studies which have been conducted in PDM: field experiments conducted upon groups which lie outside industrial organizations, field studies conducted in industrial settings, studies of situations where workers have introduced participation on their own initiative, survey research investigating the relationship between various leadership styles and job satisfaction, and studies of job satisfaction per se. Studies of job satisfaction per se refer to the innumerable studies of job satisfaction in which workers are asked about the aspects of their work which are important to them (Blumberg, 1968).

Blumberg's method of analysis will be used in this review of the research which has been conducted to determine the effects of participation in decision-making. The studies conducted in decision-making in education and those conducted in areas other than education will be discussed separately.

#### Review of Studies in Decision-Making in Areas Other Than Education

Those studies will be discussed under five sub-headings: field experiments conducted upon groups which lie outside

industrial organizations, field studies conducted in industrial settings, studies of situations where workers have introduced participation on their own initiative, survey research investigating the relationship between various leadership styles and job satisfaction, and studies of job satisfaction per se.

Field Experiments Conducted Upon Groups Which Lie Outside Industrial Organizations

Some of the earliest studies in this area were conducted by Lewin and his colleagues during the 1930s and 1940s. In a study in which eleven year old boys in a boys' club were exposed to three types of leadership (democratic, laissez-faire, and authoritarian), they found that under democratic leadership the boys continued to work when the leader was not present, had a much lower incidence of negative emotional reactions than under authoritarian leadership, and seemed to have a far higher level of overall satisfaction (White and Lippitt, 1960).

Other studies conducted by Lewin and his colleagues tend to confirm the positive effects of participation. In one study during World War II, an attempt was made to encourage housewives to make use of such unpopular meats as hearts, sweetbreads, and kidneys. The lecture method was used on one group of women, while the discussion method was used on another group. A follow-up revealed that women in the discussion group were far more likely to buy and use those meats than the women in the lecture group (White and Lippitt, 1960).

In another study, the same method was used to encourage housewives to increase their home consumption of milk. A

follow-up revealed that the discussion method was the most effective of the two methods. Similar results, favoring the discussion method, were obtained from an experiment to encourage new mothers to feed their infants cod liver oil. (White and Lippitt, 1960).

Studies similar to those conducted by Lewin and his colleagues were carried out in Japan to determine if cultural differences would have any effect on Lewin's findings. Kobayashi (1947) used ten to eleven year old boys from a sixth grade elementary school in Tokyo to conduct an experiment similar to the one conducted by Lewin and his colleagues at a boys' club. The boys were divided into two groups (Kobayashi did not use the laissez-faire leadership style in her experiment) which were closely matched as to intelligence, scholarly attainment, hobbies, socioeconomic status, sociometric relationships, and personality characteristics. One group was exposed to a democratic leader, while the other group was exposed to an authoritarian leader. The task was to construct a train station. The democratic group decided upon the procedure to be used through discussion. The members of the authoritarian group were told what to do by their leader. On analyzing the data, Kobayashi found that the spontaneous emergence of subgroups was more obvious in the democratic group. She also found a tendency for greater solidarity in the democratic group. Her study revealed group dynamic tendencies similar to those found by Lewin and his colleagues.

Misumi, Nakano, and Ueno (1958) duplicated as closely as possible at Kyushu University the study by Lewin and his colleagues on the effects of different leadership styles on groups of boys at a camp. Their subjects, thirty ten to eleven year old boys, were divided into six groups. The task was to make an embossed map. The same categories of observation of behavior, used by Lewin and his colleagues, were used in the experiment. On the whole, the findings of the study were similar to those obtained by Lewin and his colleagues. Group morale was higher in the democratic groups than in the groups with authoritarian or laissez-faire leaders. Subjects in the democratic groups exchanged friendly remarks, were more concerned about their work, and were more willing to continue their work. However, although their study indicated that the democratic groups produced the highest quantity of work, they found that the groups with the authoritarian leaders produced the highest quality work.

Mizuhara (1950), in an experiment involving sixteen fifth grade boys in a school in Tokyo, organized the boys into two groups: one democratic and one authoritarian. The purpose of the study was to compare the level of motivation of the boys in the two groups. The task was to copy co-operatively a picture which was distributed to each group. The study indicated that the democratic group had a higher level of motivation than the authoritarian group.

Bennett (1955) conducted an experiment on an introductory psychology class to determine which of the four elements she

had analyzed in the Lewinian experiments (group discussion, group decision, overtness of commitment to decision, and strength of group consensus) were most important and most effective in the group discussion method. She found that group decision was more likely to raise the probability of action than any other factor.

Misumi (1956) conducted a study similar to Bennett's. His subjects, students in a rural high school in Japan; were divided into three groups, a discussion group, a decision group, and a lecture group. The topic was how to clean the school thoroughly. Analysis of the data revealed that the degree of execution in the decision group was significantly higher than in the other two groups.

Preston and Heintz (1949) conducted an experiment on a number of small groups of college students to make a comparison of the effectiveness of supervisory leadership and participatory leadership in producing a change of opinion. The study indicated that participatory leadership is more effective than supervisory leadership in changing the opinion of group members.

Hare (1953), using a different age group, repeated the experiment conducted by Preston and Heintz. His subjects were a troop of Boy Scouts at a summer camp. The subjects were informed about a camping trip which would require each boy to travel alone through unknown country. They were then asked to rank ten items of camping equipment in order of their importance for the trip. Later they were divided into groups,

each group consisting of a leader and five boys. Some leaders exhibited the characteristics of participatory leadership, while others exhibited the characteristics of supervisory leadership. Each group spent twenty minutes discussing the importance of each of the ten items. The data revealed that participatory leadership was significantly more effective than supervisory leadership as technique for changing opinion.

Shaw (1955) studied the effect of authoritarian and non-authoritarian leadership in various communication nets. He found that non-authoritarian leadership produces better performance, as measured by the time required to perform the tasks.

Ponder (1973) conducted a study at the British Columbia Institute of Technology to determine the effect of PDM and non-participatory decision-making on productivity. The subjects were male students in their second year of engineering technologies at the Institute. The subjects were divided into thirty groups, each group consisting of three people. Fifteen of the thirty groups were decision-making groups, while the other fifteen were non-decision-making groups. Three major hypotheses were tested:

Decision-making groups will be more productive than non-decision-making groups.

Decision-making groups will implement their plans with greater fidelity than non-decision-making groups.

More subjects will choose to work in decision-making groups than non-decision-making groups for a second test session. (Ponder, 1973, pp. 80-81)

The members of each decision-making group discussed how they



would solve the problem, formulated a plan, and then implemented their plan. Each non-decision-making group was given the same plan and told to implement it. The time required for each group to accomplish the task was recorded. Analysis of the data revealed that none of the major hypotheses was confirmed.

Bass and Leavitt (1963) conducted three experiments relating planning activities to performance. A comparison was made of the performance of trios who were assigned plans with trios who made their own plans. The experimental tasks consisted of word-sentence production, the numbers game, and the common targets game. The findings revealed no significant difference in productivity between the two groups on either of the three experiments.

#### Field Experiments Conducted in Industrial Settings

Coch and French (1948) conducted an experiment at the Harwood garment factory to determine the effect that participation would have on resistance to change. Despite a generally liberal and enlightened labour policy at the plant, there was considerable worker resistance to change. However, change was necessary due to a high degree of competitiveness in the industry and increasing costs. The reaction of the workers to this necessary change was manifested by hostility toward management, decreased production, high level of employee turnover, and general feelings of pessimism. Four groups were set up for the experiment. One group was the control group and changes were carried out by the traditional method. Another group

was asked to appoint representatives to meet with management and discuss the need for change. After a period of discussion, a plan to bring about the change was introduced. Realizing the need for change, the representatives agreed to implement the plan. Changes, involving the other two groups, were made in a manner similar to the method used for the representative group, except that all the members of the group were involved in the discussion and the implementation of the plan.

The findings revealed that the degree of success in implementing change (success defined in terms of productivity and job satisfaction) in the four groups varied directly with the degree of participation. In the control group, there was a considerable drop in morale, followed by a high degree of labour turnover. In the representative group, morale was fairly high and there was no labour turnover. Productivity in the representative group dropped sharply immediately following the change, but rapidly recovered and in a short time surpassed the level achieved before the change occurred. Attitudes of employees toward management were quite high. In the other two groups, the degree of success was even higher than in the representative group. Productivity was much higher, morale was quite high, there was a high degree of co-operation in worker and management relations, and there was no labour turnover.

Several months later, the workers who had been in the control group and after the experiment had been dispersed

throughout the plant were brought together as a participation group involved in implementing change. They were given full participation in the discussions and implementation of the proposed plan. The group's reaction was quite different from what it had been as a control group. After the change occurred, productivity increased, morale remained quite high, and there was a high degree of co-operation with management. This experiment by Coch and French is often considered to be one of the classic experiments in the involvement of employees in decision-making.

Research by Watson and Glaser (1965) lends further support to the effectiveness of participation in decision-making in overcoming resistance to change. They found the permitting and encouraging of relevant group participation in clarifying the needed changes to be a key step in planning for change and creating a climate where change will be more willingly accepted.

Coch and French's experiment was repeated in a Norwegian shoe factory by French, Israel, and As (1960). The purpose of the experiment was two-fold: to repeat the Coch and French experiment using a more precise theory of participation and more careful empirical methods, and to determine if the Coch and French experiment would yield similar findings in a different culture. The work force in the factory consisted of four-man groups who autonomously decided on their own level of production and then informed management of their decision.

Nine of those four-man groups were selected for the experiment,

four as control and five as experimental groups. The four control groups continued as usual, but the five experimental groups were involved to a higher degree in decision-making. They were permitted to participate in meetings with management to decide which work groups would be assigned what articles to assemble, if and how much training was necessary for production of a new item, how the division of labour should be arranged within the work group, and the allotment of particular jobs to particular individuals within the group (French, Israel, and As, 1960, p. 8). The results of the study revealed no increase in productivity by the experimental groups over the control groups. However, the level of morale of the experimental groups was found to be much higher than that of the control groups.

The experimenters conducted a further study among the workers at the factory to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and the workers' perceived legitimacy of their participation. They found that if workers perceive their level of participation not to be legitimate, then participation will not be as effective in increasing job satisfaction as when workers perceive their participation to be legitimate.

Bavelas (1948) conducted an experiment in participation at the Harwood garment factory. His experiment involved two groups of sewing machine operators. One group was permitted only to discuss effective teamwork, while the other group was

permitted to discuss effective teamwork and set its own production goal. The group which made decisions concerning its own production goal was found to be by far the more productive group.

Lawrence and Smith (1955) replicated Bavelas' experiment in a large mid-western garment factory. They used two control groups and two experimental groups. One control group and one experimental group consisted of office workers, while the other control group and the experimental group consisted of factory workers. It was found that although the production level of both control and experimental groups increased during the experiment, it was only in the experimental groups that production increased a significant degree above the previous level.

Morse and Reimer (1956), in a study of one department of a large insurance company in which there were four parallel divisions of workers, increased the level of participation by workers in two divisions and decreased the level of participation of workers in the other two divisions. That is, while two divisions were systematically subjected to more democratic control, the workers in the other two divisions were systematically subjected to more hierarachial control. It was hypothesized that the subjection of the workers to a greater degree of democratic control would lead to a higher degree of job satisfaction and higher level of productivity. The findings indicated that the level of job satisfaction was raised

significantly among the workers in the two divisions given more democratic control, whereas the level of job satisfaction decreased among workers in the two divisions subjected to a greater degree of hierarchial control. This was illustrated by two findings: the workers subjected to a greater degree of hierarchial control wanted their program to end immediately and expressed preference for the old program, while those subjected to a greater degree of democratic control wanted their program to continue indefinitely and did not want to return to the old program; and, of the nine employees who had left their jobs because of dissatisfaction, eight were from the two divisions subjected to a greater degree of hierarchial control. Although productivity increased in both the divisions subjected to greater democratic control and those subjected to greater hierarchial control, the greatest increase in productivity by far was achieved by the two divisions which had been subjected to a greater degree of hierarchial control. On the other hand, the work attitudes among employees in the divisions subjected to greater democratic control was found to be vastly superior to those among employees in the divisions subjected to greater hierarchial control.

Levine and Butler (1952) conducted an experiment to determine if participation could be used to overcome the influence that the halo effect (rating the job and not the worker) was having on supervisors' evaluation of workers in

a factory. Three groups of supervisors were set up for the experiment: a control group, a lecture group, and a discussion group. It was found that only the discussion group made any significant gain toward the elimination of the halo effect.

Strykker (1956) describes an experiment conducted by Robert C. Wood, president of Ansul Chemical Company. Hood introduced many of the techniques of group management into the company. During the two years prior to Hood's becoming president, the company had an average annual sales increase of one hundred percent. However, after group management techniques were introduced into the company, the average annual increase in sales dropped to forty percent while the increase in sales for most of the other leading chemical companies during the same period was from fifty to one hundred percent.

Likert (1967) describes a similar experiment in which many of the techniques of group management were introduced into a large manufacturing company. The company involved was the Weldon Company, one of the largest pajama manufacturing companies in the United States. Since the industry is highly competitive, it is necessary for the company to adjust to change in order to remain viable. This flexibility did not exist in the Weldon Company, and for several years prior to its takeover by the Harwood Manufacturing Company, the company had been operating at a loss. Shortly after the Harwood Company purchased the Weldon Company, the management system was changed from an authoritative type to a more participative

type. Decision-making powers were decentralized and participation in decision-making was encouraged. The effects of this change in management system is described by Dr. Alfred Marrow, chairman of the board of directors of the Harwood Company:

Average earnings of piece-rate workers increased by nearly 30%. At the same time total manufacturing costs decreased by about 20%. Turnover dropped to half its former level. Length of employee training was substantially reduced. Interviews by the Michigan researchers reflected vastly more friendly attitudes toward the company. The image of the company in the community changed and the organization began to show a profit. (Marrow, 1964, p. 19)

#### Studies of Situations Where Workers Have Introduced Participation on Their Own Initiative

Whereas the previous two types of studies have dealt with experiments which were carried out by researchers who involved certain groups in PDM for experimental purposes, this type of study deals with the examination of situations where workers were already involved in the decision-making process. The initiative for this type of involvement in decision-making has come from the workers themselves. Consequently, such participation is likely to be associated with an improvement in job satisfaction. However, the exact cause of the improved satisfaction is not definite. Blumberg discusses this point:

Although these studies are interesting and worthy of note, their uniform defect is that we do not know whether the changes in work satisfaction derived from the changes in the



content of the work itself or from the manner in which these changes were introduced.  
(Blumberg, 1968, p. 72)

Drucker (1962) describes the difference in employee attitudes toward two life insurance plans which a large electric power company had for its employees in two plants in adjacent cities. One was a fairly efficient plan with very low rates. The other was a very inefficient plan with higher rates. Yet, the latter plan was the most popular with the workers, having over eighty percent of the workers enrolled. Only about forty percent of the work force was enrolled in the more efficient plan. The study revealed that the more efficient and least expensive plan was organized and operated by the company without any employee participation. The more inefficient and expensive plan was organized and operated by the employees themselves.

Drucker (1962) describes another interesting study somewhat similar to the previous one. General Motors had sponsored an essay contest among its employees concerning their work. An analysis of the information received from the essays revealed that in the plants where the recreational programs had been organized and operated by the workers, the programs were a major source of job satisfaction. On the other hand, in plants where management had organized and operated the programs, the programs were often considered to be a source of job dissatisfaction.

Babchuck and Goode (1951) describe a situation involving a group of salesmen in a large department store. The salesmen

had the most desirable work areas in the store, a high rate of pay, and good opportunities for advancement. Yet, morale among the salesmen was extremely low. As a result of being paid a straight commission, the salesmen were constantly involved in unscrupulous competition with each other. They ignored display and stock work and concentrated on high pressure selling. Finally, the situation reached a point where the salesmen decided to organize themselves in a way to eliminate the unscrupulous competition and concentrate on all aspects of their work. All commissions were shared so that everyone received the same pay. The atmosphere became quite relaxed and productivity actually increased.

Bavelas and Strauss (1961) describe a situation in a toy factory where morale and productivity among a group of female workers, who sprayed paint on toys as they passed on a conveyor belt, dropped to a low level. A consultant, who was hired by management to investigate the situation, recommended that management hold a number of discussion periods with the girls. A number of the girls' complaints were discussed, and some action was taken. Fans were installed in response to the girls' complaint that the area was too hot. Relations between the foreman and the girls improved. Later, the girls suggested that they be given control of the speed of the conveyor belt. Reluctantly, management agreed and the necessary changes were made so that the girls could slow down the belt or speed it up. The girls worked out among themselves when the belt would

be set at low speed, medium speed, and high speed. Much to management's surprise, productivity increased thirty to fifty percent over the expected level. Since the girls' pay was based on piecework, their wages increased considerably.

Unfortunately, their increased output unbalanced the work of the other departments. The superintendent decided to have control of the speed of the belt taken from the girls and set at one continuous speed. There was an immediate drop in productivity, and within a month six of the eight girls had quit their jobs.

#### Survey Research Investigating the Relationship Between Various Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction

In this type of research, the researcher does not manipulate variables to study interrelationships. Instead, he uses questionnaires and/or interviews to obtain information.

Wickert (1951) conducted an investigation of employee turnover and morale among several groups of young women employees at the Michigan Bell Telephone Company. By means of questionnaires and interviews, the characteristics and attitudes of the girls who had quit were compared with those of the girls who had remained with the company. The investigation revealed that very little difference existed between the two groups on attitudes toward the company's wages, hours of work, working conditions, etc. The chief difference between the two groups was that the girls who remained with the company felt they had an opportunity to make decisions on the job and

that they were contributing to the success of the company; whereas those who quit felt they had little opportunity to make decisions on the job.

Vroom (1960) studied the effects of participation upon one hundred supervisors in a large delivery service company. He assessed the satisfaction that each supervisor obtained from his work. Tests were used to measure the supervisors' personality characteristics, their personal needs, and the extent to which they exhibited characteristics of authoritarian personality. An analysis of the data revealed that when supervisors had high independence needs, there was a fairly high correlation between their perceived degree of participation in decision-making and their level of job satisfaction. When the supervisors had low independence needs, there was a low level of correlation between their perceived degree of participation in decision-making and their level of job satisfaction. When supervisors exhibited a high level of authoritarianism, there was practically no correlation between their perceived degree of participation in decision-making and their level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, when supervisors exhibited a low level of authoritarianism, there was a fairly high level of correlation between their perceived degree of participation in decision-making and their level of job satisfaction.

Ross and Zander (1957) conducted an investigation of the high rate of turnover among female employees in a large factory.

Questionnaires, dealing with various job attitudes, were distributed to over twenty-five hundred workers. Later, the attitudes of workers who had quit were compared with a matched group of workers who had remained with the company. The investigators found that the difference between the level of satisfaction of those who remained with the company and those who quit was significant in the following areas: the autonomy they felt they had on the job, the recognition they received, and their sense of achievement.

Morse (1953) conducted a study of several hundred clerical workers at a large insurance company. Analysis of the data revealed that workers preferred general supervision much more than close supervision, that seventy percent of the employees preferred to make more decisions on the job than they presently did, that workers under general supervision were much more likely to identify with the division in which they worked than those under close supervision, that high employee involvement with the company was related to the frequency that the supervisors consulted with employees, and that workers who had the opportunity to make decisions related to their work were found to be more satisfied with their work than workers who did not have this opportunity. However, the findings indicated that those under general supervision were not quite as satisfied with the opportunity for increased salary and promotion as those under close supervision.

A number of studies were conducted on the effects of

participation in decision-making in the late 1940s and early 1950s by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. One of those studies was a survey of the relationship of workers to both foremen and union stewards and the pressure for loyalty to both. The survey covered twelve thousand workers in an automobile factory. An analysis of the data indicated that workers gave loyalty to whoever permitted and encouraged participation in decision-making, whether it was the foremen or the union stewards (Jacobson, 1950).

Another study was conducted by the Center to determine the degree of involvement in decision-making by fifty-seven hundred workers in a heavy industry plant. It was found that sixty-eight percent of the workers reported they had very little or no opportunity to make decisions regarding their work. Yet, sixty-five percent felt that if they were consulted about various aspects of their work, improvements could be made (Katz, 1963).

Baumgartel (1956) investigated the relationship between morale and leadership styles among three hundred ten scientists at a medical research laboratory. The three styles of leadership studied were laissez-faire, directive, and participatory. The level of motivation of the scientists toward the research tasks and the goals of the organization were obtained by their responses to the importance they attached to each of the following: the use of their present abilities, freedom for

originality, and making a contribution to basic science. The scientists were asked to indicate the opportunity they felt their jobs provided to meet those three objectives. Another questionnaire was used to determine the scientists' attitude toward their superiors. An analysis of the data revealed that the level of morale and motivation were higher under participatory leadership than it was under laissez-faire or directive leadership.

Kahn and Tannenbaum (1957) conducted a study to determine if any relationship existed between participation in union activities and the perceived skills of the union steward in communicating to the men, involving them in decision-making, providing assistance to the men, and taking personal interest in how the men get along on the job. The unions chosen for the study were of the industrial type, and had membership ranging from three hundred fifty to eight hundred fifty. The necessary information was obtained by the use of questionnaires. The findings suggest that high membership control exists where leaders such as stewards are aware of and responsive to the members' needs and problems.

Peltz (1951) investigated the relationship between workers and supervisors at Detroit Edison. He found that the level of job satisfaction experienced by workers under democratic supervisors was affected by the level of influence the supervisor had with management. If the supervisor had very little freedom to make decisions, then his involving subordinates in decision-making will have little, if any, effect.

Fleishman and Harris (1962) examined the relationship between leadership styles and employee turnover at a large truck manufacturing plant. The survey covered fifty-seven foremen and at least three men from each foreman's department. The foremen were ranked on one of two leadership patterns: consideration and structure. It was found that the level of employee dissatisfaction was highest under a leader who exhibited a high level of structure. On the other hand, it was found to be lowest under a leader who exhibited a high level of consideration.

#### Studies of Job Satisfaction Per Se

This type of study deals with an investigation of the numerous factors which workers feel contribute to an increase or a decrease in their level of job satisfaction. Blumberg (1968) suggests that any survey of the enormous amount of literature in this area would reveal that the factors most closely related to job satisfaction would be the desire for autonomy, responsibility, control, and decision-making power.

Reynolds and Shister (1949), in a study of some eight hundred manual workers, found lack of independence and control to be the chief factors contributing to the workers' dissatisfaction. On the other hand, they found that workers who expressed a high level of job satisfaction ranked independence and control above other factors as the chief factors contributing to their high level of job satisfaction.



Herzberg, et al. (1957), in analyzing the data obtained from fifteen studies in which workers were asked what made them satisfied or dissatisfied, found that the workers mentioned supervision more frequently than security, working conditions, and opportunity for advancement and wages as a source of job satisfaction.

Blauner (1960), while reviewing literature on job satisfaction, isolated four factors which he felt had more effect on job satisfaction than any others. The four factors were control, the presence of an integrated work group, the status of the occupation, and the existence of occupational communities.

Vroom (1964) discusses six factors which different researchers have related to job satisfaction. Those factors are supervision, the work group, job content, wages, promotional opportunities, and hours of work.

#### Review of Studies in Decision-Making in Education

Much has been written about the need for greater involvement by teachers in the decision-making process. Although the research findings that those writers use to support their argument for greater teacher involvement in decision-making are chiefly the findings of studies conducted in fields other than education, a number of interesting studies have been conducted in the field of education to determine the effects of participation in decision-making. Since productivity is much more difficult to measure in education than it is in industry, researchers who have conducted studies in PDM in

education have generally used some measure other than productivity to determine the effectiveness of participation in decision-making.

Much of the research which has been conducted in education to determine the effects of participation in decision-making would fit into the last two of Blumberg's five categories: survey research investigating the relationship between various leadership styles and job satisfaction, and studies of job satisfaction per se. Questionnaires have been the chief means of collecting data in studies conducted in PDM in education.

Chase (1951) conducted a study covering seventeen hundred teachers in forty-three states to determine which factors were related to satisfaction in teaching. Analysis of the data revealed that teacher participation in policy making is very closely related to job satisfaction:

The importance of participation in policy making to teacher satisfaction is indicated both by the close correspondence between such participation and the extent of satisfaction and by the high ratings which teachers assign to opportunity for participation.  
(Chase, 1951, p. 130)

The study also indicated that it is possible for teacher involvement in decision-making to lead to resentment and dissatisfaction. Chase points out two situations where this may occur:

Too much pressure to obtain participation of teachers in educational planning.

The pretense of participation, or the feeling that participation is encouraged only for the sake of securing assent to decisions already made. (Chase, 1951, p. 130)

Sharma (1955) conducted a study covering more than five hundred teachers in all parts of the United States to determine the view of teachers regarding who should make certain decisions, and to determine the relationship between participation in decision-making and teacher satisfaction. The questionnaire used in the study consisted of four parts. The first part consisted of thirty-five activities related to twelve areas of school operation. The teachers were asked to indicate who made the decisions regarding each of the thirty-five activities listed on that part. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the same thirty-five activities as used in the first part. On the second part, the teachers were asked to indicate who they felt should make the decisions concerning each of the thirty-five activities. Part three was used to determine the teachers' present level of satisfaction with their work. Part four was used to obtain personal data concerning the teacher, such as sex, age, years of teaching experience, and years of professional training. Analysis of the data revealed that teachers felt they should be more involved in decision-making in each of the following areas: instructional materials; objectives of learning and curriculum content; teaching load and other assignments of teachers; salaries and welfare provisions; reporting pupil progress to parents; pupil evaluation and promotion; selection, promotion, and retention of teaching personnel; building construction and maintenance; pupil conduct; extra-curricular activities; and public relations programs.

The study revealed that a sharp difference existed between teachers' desire to be involved in decision-making and their actual involvement. Chase and Savage, in discussing the findings of Sharma's study, comment on this finding:

The sharpest differences existed between what teachers desired and current practice with regard to participation in decision-making by groups of teachers. In thirty-two of the thirty-five activities listed on the questionnaire, the percentage of teachers desiring participation by groups of teachers was significantly higher than the percentage reporting participation by such groups. (Chase and Savage, 1955, p. 3)

The data also indicated rather clearly that teachers' satisfaction was related directly to the extent to which they participated in decision-making (Bridges, 1967, pp. 50-51).

Johansen (1967) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between teacher perception of their involvement in curriculum decision-making at the local level and their subsequent implementation of the resultant curricular decisions. Questionnaires were sent to elementary teachers in fifty-nine school systems in Illinois. Analysis of the data obtained from the returned questionnaires revealed the following relationships:

Individual teacher participation in curriculum development activities in and of itself increases the likelihood of curriculum implementation.

The perception by teachers that they are influential in the curriculum decision-making process increases the likelihood of curriculum implementation.

The perception by teachers that the hierarchical type of authority is influential in the curriculum decision-making process decreases the likelihood of curriculum implementation. (Johansen, 1967, p. 82)

Miklos (1970) describes a study conducted by Eye, et al. in thirty-one Wisconsin school systems to determine the extent that teachers participate in curriculum decision-making and the effects of teacher participation. The study indicated that increased teacher involvement in curriculum planning and development led to higher productivity, greater implementation, and more provision for change in instructional content.

Blumberg, Wayson, and Weber (1969) describe an experiment involving the setting up of a school cabinet in a large elementary school. The initial concept of the cabinet was that the body would be consultative and advisory rather than decision oriented. However, this was open to review. The cabinet changed itself from a consultative-advisory body to a decision-making body with power to deal with all matters related to the school. The only exception to the power of the cabinet was matters in which there was conflict with the central office. The principal informed the cabinet that if he disagreed with its decision, he would argue his point but would abide by the cabinet's decision. In summarizing the experiment, the researchers conclude that the idea of convening an administrator-teacher cabinet with decision-making power appears to be a viable one, and if given the opportunity to take part in meaningful organizational work, not trivia, teachers will do so and will be productive.

Anderson and Parker (1964) conducted a study in an urban school district in Iowa to investigate various aspects of teacher

involvement in educational affairs. Their study revealed that teachers make few suggestions for the improvement of educational practices or organizational procedures. However, they feel that lack of teacher involvement may be related to their perception of effectiveness of the advice they did give. The research indicated that three-fifths of the teachers involved in the study believed their ideas and suggestions had very little effect on the decisions that were made.

Carson, Goldhammer, and Pellegrin (1967) conducted a study in three Oregon Communities to investigate in which of sixteen areas did a majority of teachers feel they should be involved, and in which areas they felt it would not be appropriate for them to be involved in decision-making. Analysis of the data revealed that the majority of teachers felt formal participation in decision-making to be appropriate in the following areas: salary scheduling, determining the method of instruction within the classroom, curriculum planning and development, organization and content of the curriculum, determining schedule in the teacher's own room, selection of instructional supplies, and scheduling of supervisory duties. On the other hand, the majority of teachers felt that formal participation in decision-making would not be appropriate in the following areas: selection of new teachers, determining the means of financing school plant expansion, room assignments, developing school budgets, assignment of children, planning school plant expansion,

planning proposed new buildings, teaching assignments, and determining daily schedule for the buildings in which they teach.

The NEA Research Division conducted a survey of the teachers in American public schools in 1968 to determine if teachers were involved as much as they desired to be, not as involved as they desire to be, or involved more than they desire to be in each of thirteen areas. Analysis of the data revealed that the majority of teachers were involved as much as they desired to be in twelve of the thirteen areas listed on the questionnaire. Only in the area of determination of class size were the majority of teachers not involved as much as they desired to be. The percentage of teachers indicating they were overinvolved in each of the areas was, with one exception, very low. The one area where a relatively high percentage of teachers indicated they were more involved than they desired to be was supervision of extra-curricular activities.

In 1972, NEA Research conducted another nationwide survey to determine the level of teacher involvement in decision-making in ten areas (all ten areas were listed on the 1968 questionnaire). A comparison of the data obtained from this survey with the one conducted in 1968 revealed that in almost all the areas listed the percentage of teachers reporting underinvolvement showed an increase over the 1968 figures. The area where this difference was greatest was the procedures

for selecting the principal. The percentage of teachers desiring greater involvement in determining procedures for selecting the principal increased twenty percent from 1968 to 1972. A comparison of the data for the two studies also indicated that teachers' desire for greater involvement in the determination of school policies and procedures is increasing.

Simpkins (1968) conducted a study in fourteen urban schools in Alberta to determine teachers' perceptions of who presently makes the decisions and who should make the decisions in four areas: curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of school instructional program, and general school organization. Analysis of the data revealed that a clear line demarcation existed between decisions made within the classroom setting and those external to the classroom setting. Within the classroom setting, perceived patterns of participation and preferred patterns of participation were found to be similar. However, there was a sharp difference between perceived and preferred patterns of participation in areas external to the classroom setting. Simpkins and Friensen comment on this difference:

Teachers saw those in higher official authority as playing the major role in deciding questions concerning curriculum, general school administration, and the arrangement of the school instructional program. However, teachers generally preferred to have either the individual teacher or the formal staff group play the leading decision-making role in these task areas. There was one important exception. Teachers preferred those in higher official authority to play the major role in deciding questions concerned with the basic outline of the curriculum. (Simpkins and Friesen, 1969, p. 14)

The study also revealed that teachers prefer a more complex



pattern of participation in decision-making; that is, the degree and kind of involvement would vary considerably with the task.

Belasco and Alutto (1972) conducted a study of teachers in two school boards in New York State. One board was a rural board; the other was an urban board. The purpose of the study was to determine: if there is a relationship between the state of decisional participation existing among teachers and their level of job satisfaction, if the levels of satisfaction are differentially distributed throughout the teaching population, and if varying levels of satisfaction are associated with varying organizational outcomes.

Analysis of the data revealed:

Teachers who are decisionally deprived reported a significantly lower level of satisfaction.


There is no significant relationship between either decisional equilibrium or decisional saturation and the level of teacher satisfaction.

The most satisfied teachers tend to be older, female, and teaching in elementary school.

Teachers who reported a high level of satisfaction also reported lower job tension.

Teachers with a high level of satisfaction reported less militant attitudes. (Belasco and Alutto, 1972, pp. 50-54)

Several other studies, indicating a significant relationship between the level of teacher participation in decision-making and the level of job satisfaction, were reported by Stinnett (1970). A George Peabody College study found that teacher participation in decision-making was an important



factor affecting morale. A series of morale studies conducted at New York University revealed that in schools where teachers are involved in decision-making, morale is higher than in schools where teachers feel they do not have an opportunity to participate.

Leiman (1961) conducted a study of teacher attitudes and morale as related to participation in administrative decision-making. Analysis of the data he obtained revealed the following relationships:

Teachers who participate in school administration have higher morale than teachers who do not participate.

Teachers who participate in school administration have more positive attitudes toward their principals, toward their colleagues, and toward their pupils.

Teachers who participate in school administration have higher regard for themselves and for the teaching profession. (Ellenburg, 1972, p. 4)


Gifford (1964) studied the effects of involving teachers in decision-making. His subjects consisted of ninety-nine principals and four hundred seventy-four elementary teachers from three Utah school districts. He found that the more teachers were involved in the decision-making process, the more positive were their attitudes toward their work.

Smittle (1962), in a study of over twelve hundred teachers, found that teachers considered the most crucial areas to be involved in decision-making were in the aims of education in general and in the development of curricular programs. His

findings also indicated that teachers have very little desire to make decisions in the following areas: planning school buildings, making class schedules, spending money, promoting and/or firing certified and non-certified teachers.

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between various leadership styles and the teacher's level of participation in decision-making. One study by Ambroisie and Heller (1972) revealed a significant correlation between the leadership style of the principal and the perceived level of teacher involvement in decision-making. A study by Bridges (1964) revealed that open-minded principals did not involve teachers in decision-making to any greater extent than close-minded principals did. However, he did find a relationship between the level of teacher participation in decision-making, and the age of the principal and the size of the school. Teachers reported the least amount of participation in large schools (20-32 teachers). In smaller schools, older principals involved teachers in decision-making to a greater extent than younger principals.

A number of studies have indicated a relationship between teachers' involvement in decision-making and such variables as age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, and size of the school. Lynch (1971), in a study of seven hundred teachers in Iowa, found that a number of factors affected teachers' desire to participate in decision-making. His study revealed that women desired to participate



more than men in the planning level of program policy and in the implementation of personnel policy. On the other hand, men indicated a greater desire than women to be involved in the evaluation of program policy. Other findings of his study were: elementary teachers desired greater involvement in all facets of personnel policy than secondary teachers, neither age nor the size of the school had any effect on teachers' desire to participate in any level of personnel policy or program policy, and teachers with a bachelor's degree desired more involvement than those with a master's degree or above.

Carson, Goldhammer, and Pellegrin (1967) found that teachers with four to nine years of teaching experience desired greater involvement in decision-making than teachers with fewer years or more years of experience. Christoff (1972) found that younger teachers desired a greater opportunity to participate in decision-making than older teachers. Snyder (1971), in a study of three hundred teachers in Pittsburg, found age and years of teaching experience to be significantly related to decision-making dissonance (decision-making dissonance being the difference between teachers' perceptions of the ideal decision-making role and their perceptions of the actual role provided in their individual schools).

#### Summary

The research cited in this chapter has dealt with studies of group participation in decision-making in a variety of

organizational settings, particularly with studies of subordinate involvement. A number of interesting features have been illustrated by this review. An important one is the mixed findings of the studies. While some research has indicated that PDM has a positive effect on individual and/or organizational performance, others have indicated that PDM has no effect or may even have a detrimental effect on performance.

Another point brought to light in this review is that the majority of studies in PDM have been conducted in areas outside the field of education. However, there appears to be an increase in research in this area in recent years.

Also brought out was the great diversity in studies. Differences exist in the purposes of the studies, the methodology used, the settings of the studies, and the populations on which these studies were carried out (i.e. college students, housewives, supervisors, office workers, salesmen, assembly line workers, and children). In many instances, variability renders inter-study comparisons meaningless.

Additionally, the literature indicated that studies in the field of education have concentrated on the effect that involvement may have on job satisfaction. This is not surprising in that educators would have a difficult time agreeing on a general measure of productivity. In studies conducted outside the field of education, the hypothesized

relationship between PDM on the one hand and productivity on the other hand has been the central focus. However, once again there has been considerable variability in measures of productivity.

To conclude, research, either within education or in other fields, has failed to identify a consistent relationship between PDM and productivity or job satisfaction.

## Chapter 3

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter is concerned with a description of the research instrument, the reliability of the instrument, the sample, the hypotheses, the methods utilized in the collection of the data, and the treatment of the data.

#### The Research Instrument

The instrument used to collect the data for this study was a revised form of the instrument used by Simpkins (1968) in a study of teacher perceived and preferred involvement in educational decision-making in fourteen urban schools in Alberta.

The instrument consisted of three parts. Part A consisted of general questions designed to gather information about the respondents and their school settings. Part B consisted of fifteen activities covering the following decisional areas: curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction. The teacher was asked to indicate the level he felt he was presently involved in decision-making on each of the fifteen activities by circling the appropriate number from one to five. The following scale was used:

- 1 - no involvement in decision-making
- 2 - low level of involvement in decision-making

- 3 - medium level of involvement in decision-making  
(teachers have equal involvement with other individuals or groups)
- 4 - high level of involvement in decision-making
- 5 - exclusive involvement in decision-making  
(teachers have complete freedom to make decisions)

Part C consisted of the same fifteen activities that were listed on Part B. On this part the teacher indicated, by circling the appropriate number one to five, the level he felt he should be involved in decision-making on each of the fifteen activities.

#### Reliability of the Instrument

The test-retest method was used to determine the reliability of the instrument. The questionnaire was administered to a group of ten teachers. After an interval of two weeks, the questionnaire was re-administered to the same teachers.

Table 1 gives the Pearson correlation coefficients for the two sets of responses given by each subject on Part B and Part C of the questionnaire. On Part B, the correlation coefficients were spread between a low of 0.49 and a high of 0.98. The coefficients were changed to Fisher's Z-scores, averaged, and transformed back to a Pearson correlation coefficient. The overall correlation coefficient for Part B of the instrument, thus calculated, was 0.91.

On Part C of the questionnaire, the correlation coefficients were calculated for nine of the ten subjects. The Pearson



Table 1

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the Two Sets  
of Responses by Each Subject on Part B  
and Part C of the Questionnaire

Subject	Part B	Part C
1	0.94	0.72
2	0.91	---
3	0.98	0.83
4	0.70	1.00
5	0.96	0.76
6	0.86	0.33
7	0.96	0.42
8	0.88	0.56
9	0.49	0.47
10	0.94	0.88

correlation coefficient could not be computed for subject number two due to zero variance on the subject's second set of responses. However, there was very little variation between the subject's two sets of responses. The correlation coefficients for the other nine subjects were changed to Fisher Z-scores, averaged, and transformed back to a Pearson correlation coefficient. The overall correlation coefficient for Part C of the instrument was 0.77.

The Fisher Z-scores were averaged for Parts A and B of

the questionnaire and transformed back to a Pearson correlation coefficient. The resulting correlation coefficient for the instrument was 0.86.

### The Sample

The sample consisted of 300 elementary teachers randomly selected from the population of teachers in grades four to six in Newfoundland and Labrador. Out of the 300 teachers in the random sample, 279 (93 percent) responded. Table 2 gives the distribution of the respondents by age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board, and type of school.

### Hypotheses

Two null hypotheses were tested in this study.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the present level and the desired level of teacher involvement in decision-making in EACH of the following decisional areas:

1. curriculum planning and adaptation
2. classroom management
3. arrangement of the school instructional program
4. general school organization
5. building construction

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant interaction between EACH of the seven variables listed in A, and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement in decision-making in EACH of the five decisional areas listed in B.

#### A. Variables

1. age
2. sex

Table 2

Characteristics of Respondents and  
Their School Settings

Variable	Category	Number	Percent
Age	Under 25	94	33.7
	25 - 35	132	47.3
	36 - 45	29	10.4
	Over 45	24	8.6
Sex	Female	169	60.6
	Male	110	39.4
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	91	32.6
	5 - 15	139	49.8
	16 - 25	34	12.2
	Over 25	15	5.4
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	23	8.3
	2 - 3	105	37.6
	4 - 6	144	51.6
	Over 6	7	2.5
Size of School	Under 200	71	25.4
	200 - 400	114	40.9
	401 - 600	55	19.7
	Over 600	39	14.0
Type of Board	R.C.	110	39.4
	Int.	154	55.2
	Pent.	13	4.7
	S.D.A.	2	.7
Type of School	Elementary	258	92.5
	All Grade	21	7.5

3. years of teaching experience ,
4. years of professional training,
5. size of school
6. type of board
7. type of school

B. Decisional Areas

1. curriculum planning and adaptation
  2. classroom management
  3. arrangement of the school instructional program
  4. general school organization
  5. building construction
- 

Collection of the Data

To obtain the data for this study, a questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 300 teachers on March 20, 1974. Included with the questionnaire were a postage prepaid return envelope and a covering letter by the teacher.

Three weeks later, a second copy of the questionnaire, including a postage prepaid return envelope and a follow-up letter, was mailed to each teacher who had not responded as of that date.

A copy of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix A, and a copy of the covering letter and the follow-up letter are included in Appendix B.

### Statistical Analysis

For purposes of analysis, the degree of participation was regarded as a single dependent variable for each of the five decisional areas in the instrument. The present and desired dimensions were considered as two treatment levels. Sum scores on the questionnaire for each of the five decisional areas were used successively as criterion variables. The multiple linear regression method of analysis was used, in a mode essentially equivalent to a two way analysis of covariance, to test the hypotheses. Three basic models were generated to determine whether a significant difference existed between the present level and the desired level of participation in decision-making, and whether any significant interaction existed between the present and the desired levels of participation and each of the following variables:

1. age
2. sex
3. years of teaching experience
4. years of professional training
5. size of school
6. type of board
7. type of school

In the first model, six of the seven variables served as covariates, with appropriate categorical variables being included to identify cells in a two way design. Figure 2 illustrates the categorical variables and the cells for age.

Figure 2  
Categorical Variables and Cells for Age

Category	Present	Desired
Under 25		
25 - 35		
36 - 45		
Over 45		

The first model was tested against a second model which contained the same covariates as the first model as well as information on the present level and the desired level of participation and on the interacting variable, but omitted information on the interaction effect. A third model consisted of the same covariates and interacting variable as the second model, but omitted the present and the desired levels of participation.

The squared multiple correlations ( $R^2$ ) were calculated for each model. F-ratios were determined by using the  $R^2$  obtained from two of the models in the equation

$$F = \frac{(R_1^2 - R_2^2) / df_n}{(1 - R_1^2) / df_d}$$

where  $R_1^2$  and  $R_2^2$  represent the full model and the restricted model respectively.

The  $R^2$  from the first model and the  $R^2$  from the second model were used in the above formula to determine whether a

significant interaction existed between each of the predictor variables and the teachers' present level and desired level of participation. The  $R^2$  from the second model and the  $R^2$  from the third model were used to determine whether a significant difference existed between the present level and the desired level of involvement in each of the five decisional areas.

The computer program MULR05, developed by Ward, Flatham, and Hunka (1968), is designed to test hypotheses of the kind generated in this study.

## Chapter 4

### THE RESULTS

This chapter deals with the results of testing the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3. The basic null hypothesis was that no significant difference existed between the present level and the desired level of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction. In addition, it was hypothesized that no significant interaction existed between each of the seven variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board and type of school, and the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas.

The hypotheses were tested by using multiple regression. F-ratios were obtained by comparing the appropriate regression models as outlined in Chapter 3. The .05 level of significance was used in testing the hypotheses. Sum scores on the questionnaire for each of the five decisional areas were used successively as criterion variables. The contribution of each of the predictor variables was determined by comparing the  $R^2$  values for appropriate full and restricted models.



The results are discussed in this chapter under a sub-heading for each of the five decisional areas (criterion variables)..

#### Curriculum Planning and Adaptation

Table 3 gives the means of the present level and the desired level of involvement by teachers in the decisional area of curriculum planning and adaptation for each category of the predictor variables. An examination of the table reveals that very little variation exists among the means of the predictor variables for either the present level or the desired level of involvement. However, there is a considerable discrepancy between the means for present and desired levels of involvement. Table 4 reveals that this difference between the means of present and desired levels of involvement in curriculum planning and adaptation is significant at the .001 level.

With the exception of sex, there is no significant interaction between each of the seven predictor variables and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement in decision-making. The interaction between sex, and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement is significant at the .05 level. The mean scores for sex in Table 3 indicate that female teachers feel their present level of involvement in decision-making in curriculum planning and adaptation to be slightly lower than the level male teachers feel they are presently involved. On the other hand, they desire a higher level of involvement than male teachers in this decisional area, hence the interaction.

Table 3

Means of Present and Desired Involvement by  
Teachers in Curriculum Planning and Adaptation

Variable	Category	Present *	Desired *
Age	Under 25	6.1	10.4
	25 - 35	6.3	10.7
	36 - 45	6.0	10.4
	Over 45	5.8	10.2
Sex	Female	6.1	10.8
	Male	6.3	10.1
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	6.3	10.6
	5 - 15	6.3	10.6
	16 - 25	5.4	10.3
	Over 25	6.0	10.0
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	5.3	9.9
	2 - 3	6.1	10.4
	4 - 6	6.3	10.8
	Over 6	8.6	10.1
Size of School	Under 200	6.2	10.3
	200 - 400	5.9	10.5
	401 - 600	6.0	10.6
	Over 600	7.1	11.0
Type of Board	R.C.	6.1	10.5
	Int.	6.3	10.6
	Pent.	6.2	9.9
	S.D.A.	6.0	10.5
Type of School	Elementary	6.2	10.5
	All Grade	6.1	10.7

\* Maximum mean score is 15

Table 4

Summary of Regression Analysis  
Curriculum Planning and Adaptation

Predictors	$R_1^2$	$R_2^2$	df	F	P
Present/Desired Main Effect	.443	.024	1/539	405.863	<.001 .
Present/Desired x Age Interaction	.443	.443	3/536	0.008	NS
Present/Desired x Sex Interaction	.449	.443	1/537	5.859	.016
Present/Desired x Years of Teaching Experience Interaction	.444	.443	3/536	0.320	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Professional Training Interaction	.448	.443	3/536	1.500	NS
Present/Desired x Size of School Interaction	.445	.443	3/536	0.461	NS
Present/Desired x Type of Board Interaction	.444	.443	3/536	0.161	NS
Present/Desired x Type of School Interaction	.444	.443	1/538	0.637	NS

$R_1^2$  refers to the full model

$R_2^2$  refers to the restricted model

### Classroom Management

An examination of the means for the present level and the desired level of teacher involvement in classroom management (Table 5) reveals a low variation among the means of the categories for each variable and among the means of the seven variables. Although the differences between the means for the present and the desired levels of involvement is much smaller in this decisional area than in the decisional area of curriculum planning and adaptation, it is significant at the .001 level (Table 6). Table 6 also indicates that no significant interaction exists between each of the seven predictor variables, and present and desired levels of teacher involvement in the decisional area of classroom management.

### Arrangement of the School Instructional Program

The distribution of means for the categories of each variable for the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in arrangement of the school instructional program is found in Table 7. There is very little variation in the means within either the present level or the desired level. However, there is again a significant difference between present and desired levels of involvement. An examination of Table 8 indicates that no significant interaction exists between any of the predictor variables, and present and desired levels of involvement in arrangement of the school instructional program.

Table 5

Means of Present and Desired Involvement by  
Teachers in Classroom Management

Variable	Category	Present*	Desired*
Age	Under 25	12.4	13.1
	25 - 35	12.3	12.7
	36 - 45	12.0	13.0
	Over 45	11.9	12.2
Sex	Female	12.4	13.0
	Male	12.0	12.6
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	12.4	13.1
	5 - 15	12.4	12.8
	16 - 25	11.1	12.4
	Over 25	12.5	12.3
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	12.3	12.4
	2 - 3	12.1	12.8
	4 - 6	12.3	13.0
	Over 6	12.9	12.3
Size of School	Under 200	12.3	12.4
	200 - 400	12.0	12.9
	401 - 600	12.2	12.5
	Over 600	13.0	13.0
Type of Board	R.C.	12.2	12.7
	Int.	12.3	13.0
	Pent.	11.6	12.4
	S.D.A.	13.5	12.0
Type of School	Elementary	12.2	12.8
	All Grade	12.3	13.0

\* Maximum mean score is 15

Table 6  
Summary of Regression Analysis  
Classroom Management

Predictors	$R^2_1$	$R^2_2$	df	F	P
Present/Desired Main Effect	.083	.060	1/539	13.408	<.001
Present/Desired x Age Interaction	.085	.083	3/536	0.490	NS
Present/Desired x Sex Interaction	.083	.083	1/537	0.033	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Teaching Experience Interaction	.089	.083	3/536	1.167	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Professional Training Interaction	.086	.083	3/536	0.701	NS
Present/Desired x Size of School Interaction	.089	.083	3/536	1.299	NS
Present/Desired x Type of Board Interaction	.086	.083	3/536	0.623	NS
Present/Desired x Type of School Interaction	.085	.083	1/538	1.143	NS

$R^2_1$  refers to the full model

$R^2_2$  refers to the restricted model

Table 7

Means of Present and Desired Involvement  
by Teachers in Arrangement of the  
School Instructional Program

Variable	Category	Present *	Desired *
Age	Under 25	9.2	11.3
	25 - 35	9.0	11.1
	36 - 45	9.5	11.7
	Over 45	9.2	10.9
Sex	Female	9.1	11.4
	Male	9.1	10.9
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	9.0	11.2
	5 - 15	9.2	11.2
	16 - 25	8.9	11.5
	Over 25	9.5	10.9
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	9.3	11.5
	2 - 3	9.1	11.2
	4 - 6	9.1	11.2
	Over 6	10.0	10.6
Size of School	Under 200	9.6	11.4
	200 - 400	8.9	11.0
	401 - 600	9.0	11.0
	Over 600	9.1	11.6
Type of Board	R.C.	9.2	11.0
	Int.	9.1	11.3
	Pent.	9.0	10.9
	S.D.A.	8.5	10.8
Type of School	Elementary	9.1	11.2
	All Grade	9.1	11.0

\* Maximum mean score is 15

Table 8

Summary of Regression Analysis  
Arrangement of the School Instructional Program

Predictors	$R_1^2$	$R_2^2$	df	F	P
Present/Desired Main Effect	.229	.022	1/539	144.068	<.001
Present/Desired x Age Interaction	.229	.229	3/536	0.195	NS
Present/Desired x Sex Interaction	.233	.230	1/537	2.009	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Teaching Experience Interaction	.232	.229	3/536	0.796	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Professional Training Interaction	.231	.229	3/536	0.644	NS
Present/Desired x Size of School Interaction	.230	.229	3/536	0.491	NS
Present/Desired x Type of Board Interaction	.232	.229	3/536	0.706	NS
Present/Desired x Type of School Interaction	.230	.229	1/538	0.643	NS

$R_1^2$  refers to the full model

$R_2^2$  refers to the restricted model



### General School Organization

Table 9 gives the means for the categories of each of the predictor variables in the decisional area of general school organization. There is very little difference in the means except for the difference in the means of present and desired levels of involvement. This difference is significant at the .001 level (Table 10). It can also be seen from Table 10 that no significant interaction exists between six of the predictor variables, and present and desired levels of teacher involvement in general school organization. However, a significant interaction exists between sex, and present and desired levels of teacher involvement.

### Building Construction

Table 11 indicates the means of present and desired levels of teacher involvement in building construction for the categories of each predictor variable. It can be seen from this table that a large discrepancy exists between present and desired levels of teacher involvement in this decisional area. Table 12 reveals that this difference between present and desired levels of involvement in building construction is significant at the .001 level. Table 12 also reveals that a significant interaction exists between present and desired levels of involvement, and each of the following predictor variables: sex, type of board, and type of school.

### Summary

The analysis has revealed that a significant difference

Table 9

Means of Present and Desired Involvement by  
Teachers in General School Organization

Variable	Category	Present*	Desired*
Age	Under 25	8.3	10.7
	25 - 35	7.9	11.0
	36 - 45	8.3	10.8
	Over 45	7.4	10.5
Sex	Female	7.9	11.1
	Male	8.2	10.5
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	8.1	10.6
	5 - 15	8.2	11.1
	16 - 25	7.7	10.6
	Over 25	7.3	10.4
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	8.2	11.0
	2 - 3	7.8	10.8
	4 - 6	8.2	10.8
	Over 6	8.1	10.0
Size of School	Under 200	8.3	10.8
	200 - 400	8.0	10.8
	401 - 600	7.6	10.8
	Over 600	8.4	11.1
Type of Board	R.C.	8.1	10.7
	Int.	8.0	11.0
	Pent.	8.1	10.4
	S.D.A.	9.0	9.5
Type of School	Elementary	8.0	10.8
	All Grade	8.5	11.0

\*Maximum mean score is 15

Table 10  
Summary of Regression Analysis  
General School Organization

Predictors	$R_1^2$	$R_2^2$	df	F	P
Present/Desired Main Effect	.329	.022	1/535	244.954	<.001
Present/Desired x Age Interaction	.337	.329	3/532	1.281	NS
Present/Desired x Sex Interaction	.336	.329	1/534	6.050	.014
Present/Desired x Years of Teaching Experience Interaction	.331	.329	3/532	0.314	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Professional Training Interaction	.331	.329	3/532	0.605	NS
Present/Desired x Size of School Interaction	.331	.329	3/532	0.694	NS
Present/Desired x Type of Board Interaction	.332	.329	3/532	0.819	NS
Present/Desired x Type of School Interaction	.331	.329	1/534	1.970	NS

$R_1^2$  refers to the full model

$R_2^2$  refers to the restricted model

Table 11

Means of Present and Desired Involvement by  
Teachers in Building Construction

Variable	Category	Present*	Desired*
Age	Under 25	4.2	8.7
	25 - 35	4.2	9.2
	36 - 45	4.0	8.1
	Over 45	3.5	8.4
Sex	Female	3.9	9.1
	Male	4.4	8.5
Years of Teaching Experience	Under 5	4.3	8.7
	5 - 15	4.2	9.1
	16 - 25	3.5	8.4
	Over 25	3.7	8.7
Years of Professional Training	Under 2	4.9	9.2
	2 - 3	3.9	8.9
	4 - 6	4.0	8.7
	Over 6	6.1	10.1
Size of School	Under 200	4.3	8.6
	200 - 400	4.1	9.0
	401 - 600	3.9	8.7
	Over 600	4.0	8.9
Type of Board	R.C.	4.0	8.5
	Int.	4.1	9.2
	Pent.	5.8	8.6
	S.D.A.	3.5	6.5
Type of School	Elementary	4.2	8.8
	All Grade	3.8	9.0

\* Maximum mean score is 15

Table 12  
Summary of Regression Analysis  
Building Construction

Predictors	$R_1^2$	$R_2^2$	df	F	P
Present/Desired Main Effect	.528	.029	1/535	565.877	<.001
Present/Desired x Age Interaction	.531	.528	3/535	1.084	NS
Present/Desired x Sex Interaction	.533	.528	1/534	6.250	.013
Present/Desired x Years of Teaching Experience Interaction	.529	.528	3/532	0.263	NS
Present/Desired x Years of Professional Training Interaction	.529	.528	3/532	0.420	NS
Present/Desired x Size of School Interaction	.529	.528	3/532	0.503	NS
Present/Desired x Type of Board Interaction	.535	.528	3/532	2.653	.048
Present/Desired x Type of School Interaction	.533	.528	1/534	6.248	.013

$R_1^2$  refers to the full model       $R_2^2$  refers to the restricted model

exists between present and desired levels of teacher involvement in all of the five decisional areas. Therefore,

Hypothesis 1, which states that no significant difference exists between present and desired levels of teacher involvement in each of the five decisional areas, is rejected.

Although the difference between present and desired levels of teacher involvement is significant at the .001 level for each of the five decisional areas, this discrepancy is much greater for some decisional areas than for others. The greatest discrepancy between present and desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making exists in the decisional area of building construction. There is also a relatively large discrepancy between present and desired levels of involvement in the decisional area of curriculum planning and adaptation.

Hypothesis 2 states that no significant interaction exists between each of the seven variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board and type of school, and present and desired levels of teacher involvement in each of the five decisional areas. Although the statistical analysis revealed significant interactions between type of board and type of school, and present and desired levels of involvement in the decisional area of building construction, there is a possibility that those interactions may be chance significant results (Type I errors) since significant interactions did not occur between those two variables, and present and desired levels of

involvement in any of the other four decisional areas. The analysis also revealed significant interactions between sex, and present and desired levels of involvement in three of the five decisional areas. With such consistency, it is very unlikely that those significant interactions between sex, and present and desired levels of involvement were the result of chance. No other significant interactions were found between the variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board and type of school, and present and desired levels of teacher involvement in each of the five decisional areas. Therefore, except for the interaction with sex, essentially none of the other variables shows a significant interaction with present and desired levels of involvement in decision-making.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with a discussion of the results of the study, and the recommendations for further research which arise from this study.

#### Discussion of the Results

The significant difference which exists between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas indicates that teachers desire a greater role in the decision-making process. This discrepancy between present and desired levels of teacher participation could have a detrimental effect on the functioning of the school. Studies by Snyder (1971), and Belasco and Alutto (1972) suggest that a negative correlation exists between the degree of decisional deprivation and the level of teacher morale. Studies by Chase (1952), Sharma (1955), and Bridges (1964) lend weight to the position that "participation increases a teacher's level of satisfaction in teaching, his enthusiasm for the school system in which he works, and his attitude toward the principal" (Bridges, 1967, p. 51). Belasco and Alutto (1972) argue that teacher satisfaction is a crucial organizational concern:

. . . the organization must be assured of a sufficient supply of skilled manpower to carry out its basic tasks, and a willingness on the part of organizational members to both dependably prosecute their current organizational



assignments and adapt to changing future conditions. In an effort to deal with this dependency, the educational organization must be concerned with the satisfaction of the needs and expectations of individual system members. (Belasco and Alutto, 1972, p. 45)

In spite of this support for a relationship between participation in decision-making and the level of morale, decisional deprivation does not necessarily lead to a low level of morale. Ponder (1974) comments on this point:

Negative effects are most likely to occur when the decision is of major importance to teachers. Even a large discrepancy in an area of peripheral importance would be less likely to have any substantial negative influence. Since involvement in decision-making is a time consuming process, teachers are likely to have established a hierarchy of decision priorities. (Ponder, 1974, p. 11)

Assuming this to be the case, the effect that decisional deprivation will have on teacher morale will depend on how much emphasis teachers attach to achieving their desired level of involvement in decision-making. Since no study has been conducted in this province to determine teachers' hierarchy of decisional priorities, it is not known where the five decisional areas, which have been considered in this study, are located on the hierarchy. Consequently, it is difficult to determine whether the decisional deprivation which exists in the five decisional areas has any influence on teacher morale and productivity. However, an indepth search of the literature lends support to the contention that those decisional areas represent at least an important segment of teacher concern.

Another possibility to be considered is that the discrepancy

which exists between present and desired levels of teacher involvement in educational decision-making could lead to alienation of teachers and to increased teacher militancy. Frey (1969) argues that the lack of meaningful involvement of teachers in educational decision-making has led to a growing alienation of the classroom teacher from the institution in which he works. This view is supported by the findings of a study by Blakesley (1971). His study revealed that the level of teacher involvement in decision-making was negatively correlated with the level of teacher militancy.

In view of the findings of those studies which indicate a negative relationship exists between the degree of decisional deprivation and teacher morale, and a positive relationship exists between the degree of decisional deprivation and the level of teacher alienation and militancy, it appears that, for organizational and humanistic reasons, teachers should be provided with increased opportunities for participation in educational decision-making. This can be achieved in several ways. One approach to decrease the level of decisional deprivation which exists in the five decisional areas considered in this study would be for administrators to provide greater opportunities for teachers to increase their level of involvement, and to create a climate conducive to increased teacher involvement.

A second approach would be for teachers to exert more

pressure for an increased level of involvement. Miklos comments on this approach:

It should be possible to increase the degree of teacher involvement in decision-making not just by decentralizing and reducing the influence of administrators and specialist supervisors, but also by adding teacher influence and bringing it to bear upon present decision making processes. (Miklos, 1970, p. 28)

Such influence could be exerted by teachers through their professional association through collective negotiations.

While this process would undoubtedly be effective in increasing the level of teacher involvement in the decision-making process, consideration should be given to the possible effects this approach could have on administrator-teacher relationships.

Since very little research dealing with teacher involvement in decision-making has been conducted (in this province, Ponder (1974) questions how accurately the Newfoundland Teachers' Association represents the wishes of its membership by pressing for greater teacher involvement in educational decision-making. The findings of this study indicate that the Newfoundland Teachers' Association would be representing the wishes of elementary teachers by pressing for a greater degree of teacher participation in the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

A number of areas for further research arise from this study. Since a significant difference was found between the

present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in the five decisional areas which have been considered in the study, the question then arises as to whether similar significant differences exist in other decisional areas. Further, it is not known whether similar discrepancies in decisional involvement exist among primary, junior high, and senior high teachers.

Recommendation 1: Additional research should be conducted to determine whether similar discrepancies exist between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in other decisional areas.

Recommendation 2: Research is needed to determine whether similar discrepancies exist between the present and the desired levels of involvement in decision-making among primary, junior high, and senior high teachers.

Although elementary teachers have indicated that they desire a significantly higher level of involvement than they presently have in the five decisional areas, it is not known which kind of involvement (individual, group, or representational) that they desire. It may be that the kind of involvement desired will vary with the type of decisional area. Simpkins (1968) found that teachers preferred to have the individual teacher play a major role in a number of decisional areas, and to have the formal staff group to play the major role in a number of other decisional areas. In other decisional areas (e.g. salary negotiations), teachers may prefer a representational form of involvement. Similarly, teachers may desire their level of involvement and/or the kind of involvement to vary with the different stages of the decision-making process.

Recommendation 3: There is need for research to determine the kind of participation (individual, group, or representational) that teachers prefer in each decisional area, and to determine whether teachers prefer the level and/or the kind of involvement to vary with the different stages of each decisional area.

Although teachers have indicated that they desire a much higher level of involvement in decision-making, it is not known whether they are willing to accept the increased level of responsibility which accompanies a higher degree of involvement. Further, since it is likely that teachers' willingness to accept increased responsibility for a higher degree of involvement will depend upon the location of the decisional area on teachers' hierarchy of priorities, there is need to determine how much emphasis teachers place on achieving their desired level of involvement in each decisional area.

Recommendation 4: Research is needed to determine whether teachers are willing to accept the increased responsibility of a higher degree of participation in decision-making.

Recommendation 5: There is a need for research to determine teachers' hierarchy of decisional priorities.

It would appear that the attitude of principals toward an increased level of teacher participation in decision-making may be an important factor in determining whether teachers achieve a higher level of involvement. Consequently, there is a need to determine the attitude of principals toward increasing the level of teacher involvement.

Recommendation 6: Further research should be conducted to determine the attitude of principals toward increasing the level of teacher participation in educational decision-making.

## Chapter 6

### SUMMARY

This chapter consists of a summary of the purpose of the study, the design of the study, the main findings, the conclusions, and the recommendations for further research.

#### The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine:

1. whether there is a significant difference between the present level and the desired level of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction.

2. whether there is a significant interaction between age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board and type of school, and the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas.

#### Design of the Study

Three hundred teachers were randomly selected from the population of teachers in grades four to six in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador to take part in the study. A three-part questionnaire was sent to each teacher in the sample. On Part A, the teachers were asked to provide information on their age, sex, years of teaching experience, years

of professional training, size of school in which they taught, type of board with which they taught, and type of school in which they taught. On Part B, teachers were asked to indicate, by circling the appropriate number from one to five, the level they felt they were presently involved in decision-making in the five decisional areas. On Part C, they were asked to indicate the level they felt they should be involved in decision-making in the five decisional areas.

Of the 300 teachers in the random sample, 279 returned the questionnaires. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if any significant difference existed between present and desired levels of participation in each of the five decisional areas, and to determine if any significant interaction existed between each of the seven variables listed in Part A of the questionnaire, and present and desired levels of teacher participation in each of the five decisional areas.

#### Main Findings

The main findings of the study are as follows:

1. A significant difference exists between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction.

2. With the exception of sex, essentially no significant interaction was found between the variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training,

size of school, type of board and type of school, and teachers' present and desired levels of involvement in the five decisional areas.

### Conclusions

The significant difference which exists between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in decision-making in each of the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction indicates that teachers desire a greater role in the decision-making process.

The largest discrepancies were found in the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, and building construction. The study also revealed that the discrepancy between present and desired levels was fairly uniform throughout the population of elementary teachers. With the exception of sex, essentially none of the variables of age, sex, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, size of school, type of board, and type of school had a significant effect on present and desired levels of teacher involvement in the five decisional areas. Although the study revealed a significant interaction between sex, and present and desired levels of involvement in the decisional areas curriculum planning and adaptation, general school organization, and building construction, there was still a sharp divergence between present and desired levels of participation for both male and female.



teachers in each of those three decisional areas.

The study also revealed that the level of desired participation in decision-making varied with the decisional area. Although the discrepancies between present and desired levels of involvement were greatest in the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, and building construction, the level of desired involvement was lower in those two decisional areas than in the other three. The highest level of desired involvement was in the area of classroom management. Yet, the least discrepancy between present and desired levels of involvement occurred in that decisional area.

The findings of this study are subject to a number of qualifications. Only a limited number of decisional areas were considered. Consequently, the findings apply only to those decisional areas which have been studied. Although the study revealed a significant difference between present and desired levels of teacher participation in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas which were considered, it is not known which type of involvement teachers desire in those decisional areas (individual, group, or representational). Neither is it known if teachers prefer to be more involved in some stages of the decision-making process than in other stages. Also, since this study involved only elementary teachers (grades four to six), it is not known if similar discrepancies between present and desired levels of involvement in decision-making exist among primary, junior high, and senior high teachers.

Despite those qualifications, the findings of the study should encourage administrators to provide a greater opportunity for teachers to participate, and to create a climate conducive to increased teacher participation in each of the five decisional areas, especially in the decisional areas of curriculum planning and adaptation, and building construction.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

1. Additional research should be conducted to determine whether similar discrepancies exist between the present and the desired levels of teacher involvement in other decisional areas.

2. Research is needed to determine whether similar discrepancies exist between the present and the desired levels of involvement in decision-making among primary, junior high, and senior high teachers.

3. There is need for research to determine the kind of participation (individual, group, or representational) that teachers prefer in each decisional area, and to determine whether teachers prefer the level and/or the kind of involvement to vary with the different stages of each decisional area.

4. Research is needed to determine whether teachers are willing to accept the increased responsibility of a higher degree of participation in decision-making.

5. There is need for research to determine teachers' hierarchy of decisional priorities.

6. Further research should be conducted to determine the attitude of principals toward increasing the level of teacher participation in educational decision-making.

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## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A  
Research Instrument

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### Forward

You have been chosen in a random sample of elementary teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador to respond to this questionnaire. None of the information you give will be in any way identified with you.

The purpose of this study is to determine the present level of teacher involvement and the level teachers feel they should be involved in decision-making in each of the following areas: curriculum planning and adaptation, classroom management, arrangement of the school instructional program, general school organization, and building construction.

The questionnaire consists of three parts. PART A consists of questions concerning your age, sex, size of the school in which you teach, etc. PART B deals with your present level of involvement in decision-making in the five decisional areas referred to above. On this part you are to indicate, by circling the appropriate number, the level you feel you are presently involved in decision-making. On PART C you are to indicate, by circling the appropriate number, the level you feel you should be involved in decision-making in each of the five decisional areas.

PART A

## GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Age:          Less than 25          25-35          36-45

         Over 45

2. Sex:          Female          Male

3. Years of Teaching Experience:          Less than 5

         5-15          16-25          Over 25

4. Years of Professional Training:          Less than 2

         2-3          4-6          Over 6

5. Size of School in Which You Teach:

         Less than 200 pupils          200-400 pupils

         401-600 pupils          Over 600 pupils

6. Type of Board With Which You Teach:

         Roman Catholic          Integrated

         Pentecostal          Seventh Day Adventist

7. Type of School in Which You Teach:

         Elementary          All Grade

PART B

Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number, the level you feel you are presently involved in decision-making on each of the fifteen items listed below, using the following scale:

- 1 -- no involvement in decision-making
- 2 - low level of involvement in decision-making
- 3 - medium level of involvement in decision-making  
(teachers have equal involvement with other individuals or groups)
- 4 - high level of involvement in decision-making
- 5 - exclusive involvement in decision-making (teachers have complete freedom to make decisions)

Curriculum Planning and Adaptation

1. Determination of the basic outline of the curriculum ----- 1 2 3 4 5
2. Determination of the detailed content of the curriculum ----- 1 2 3 4 5
3. Determination of the texts and instructional material for the curriculum ----- 1 2 3 4 5

Classroom Management

4. Determination of the way subject matter is presented in class ----- 1 2 3 4 5
5. Determination of the frequency and methods of classroom testing ----- 1 2 3 4 5
6. Determination of the method of discipline to be used in the classroom ----- 1 2 3 4 5

Arrangement of the School Instructional Program

7. Determination of the class placement of pupils ----- 1 2 3 4 5
8. Determination of the promotion of pupils -- 1 2 3 4 5
9. Determination of the allocation of money to teachers for instructional aids and equipment ----- 1 2 3 4 5



(Scale: 1 - no involvement, 2 - low level of involvement, 3 - medium level of involvement, 4 - high level of involvement, 5 - exclusive involvement)

### General School Organization

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 10. Determination of the teaching load and other duties of teachers -----  | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. Determination of the arrangements for parents to discuss matters concerning their children's schooling ----- | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. Determination of school rules and regulations for the general student body -----                             | 1 2 3 4 5 |

### Building Construction

- |   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 13. Determination of the need for new buildings or extensions to existing buildings -----               | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. Designing new buildings or extensions for existing buildings -----                                  | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. Selection of the equipment requirements for new buildings or extensions to existing buildings ----- | 1 2 3 4 5 |

### PART C

Please indicate, by circling the appropriate number, the level you feel you should be involved in decision-making on each of the fifteen items listed below, using the following scale:

- 1 - no involvement in decision-making
- 2 - low level of involvement in decision-making
- 3 - medium level of involvement in decision-making  
(teachers have equal involvement with other individuals or groups)
- 4 - high level of involvement in decision-making
- 5 - exclusive involvement in decision-making (teachers have complete freedom to make decisions)

### Curriculum Planning and Adaptation

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Determination of the basic outline of the curriculum -----    | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. Determination of the detailed content of the curriculum ----- | 1 2 3 4 5 |

(Scale: 1 - no involvement, 2 - low level of involvement, 3 - medium level of involvement, 4 - high level of involvement, 5 - exclusive involvement)

3. Determination of the texts and instructional material for the curriculum ----- 1 2 3 4 5

#### Classroom Management

4. Determination of the way subject matter is presented in class ----- 1 2 3 4 5
5. Determination of the frequency and methods of classroom testing ----- 1 2 3 4 5
6. Determination of the method of discipline to be used in the classroom ----- 1 2 3 4 5

#### Arrangement of the School Instructional Program

7. Determination of the class placement of pupils ----- 1 2 3 4 5
8. Determination of the promotion of pupils -- 1 2 3 4 5
9. Determination of the allocation of money to teachers for instructional aids and equipment ----- 1 2 3 4 5

#### General School Organization

10. Determination of the teaching load and other duties of teachers ----- 1 2 3 4 5
11. Determination of arrangements for parents to discuss matters concerning their children's schooling ----- 1 2 3 4 5
12. Determination of school rules and regulations for the general student body ----- 1 2 3 4 5

#### Building Construction

13. Determination of the need for new buildings or extensions to existing buildings ----- 1 2 3 4 5
14. Designing new buildings or extensions for existing buildings ----- 1 2 3 4 5
15. Selection of the equipment requirements for new buildings or extensions to existing buildings ----- 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B  
Correspondence



## MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

March 20, 1974

Dear Teacher:

I am a graduate student in Educational Administration at Memorial University. As part of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education, I am conducting a study of the involvement in decision-making by elementary teachers in this province - both their present level of involvement and the level they feel they should be involved.

I would be very grateful if you could spare approximately fifteen minutes from your schedule to fill in the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope.

It is extremely important that every questionnaire be completed and returned as soon as possible.

Your co-operation in completing and returning the enclosed questionnaire will be greatly appreciated.

Yours truly,

---

William Inkpen



## MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

April 11, 1974

Dear Teacher:

On March 20, I sent you a questionnaire from which I hope to gather data for a study concerning the involvement of elementary teachers in this province in educational decision-making..

Response to the questionnaire has been most gratifying. However, I would like to receive your completed questionnaire so that the survey will be as complete as possible.

If you have not already returned the questionnaire, would you please take a few minutes to complete and return it as soon as possible. In case you did not receive the questionnaire or you have misplaced it, I am enclosing another copy.

Please be assured that you will not be identified with the completed questionnaire in any way.

If you have already returned the questionnaire, I wish to thank you for your assistance.

Yours truly,

---

William Inkpen





