DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 343 878 SP 033 677

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TITLE Teacher Decisional Participation: Rhetoric or Reality?
PUB DATE Jan 92
NOTE 37p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association (Houston, TX, January 1992).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; *Excellence in Education; Job Satisfaction; *Outcomes of Education; *Participative Decision Making; *School Districts; *School Restructuring; Student Improvement; *Teacher Effectiveness
IDENTIFIERS Florida (Dade County); *Reform Efforts

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted in Dade County, Florida, school district that has been involved in the restructuring movement since 1987. In the mid-1980's the district piloted a school-based-management program, aimed, in part at increasing teachers' decisional participation. The sample was chosen from 14 elementary and 2 senior high pilot schools and 14 elementary and 3 senior high non-pilot schools. The final sample consisted of 24 schools (pilot and non-pilot) matched on the basis of organizational level, student body size and percentage of free lunch participants. Through the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, the study presented a global assessment of teacher decisional participation using a model derived from the restructuring, school effectiveness, and participation literatures. The model directly links teacher decisional participation to several teacher and student outcomes: (1) teacher job satisfaction; (2) choice of instructional techniques; (3) teacher and student attendance; and (4) student achievement and behavior. Data were gathered from survey questionnaires and classroom observations. Dimensions of participation were identified and correlated with outcome variables to determine whether or not differential relationships existed. Four main findings emerged: (1) several dimensions of decisional participation were identified; (2) the dimensions correlated differentially with the outcome variables; (3) teacher decisional participation did not have a statistically significant impact on the quantitative outcomes tested; and (4) qualitative differences in instructional techniques chosen by teachers did not emerge as a result of teachers' participation. An ancillary finding suggested that teachers reported feeling decisionally deprived despite working in a reform district. Four tables complete the document. (LL)

Teacher Decisional Participation: Rhetoric or Reality?

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Running head: Decisional Participation

Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association in Houston, TX, January, 1992.

Abstract

This study was conducted in a major school district that is heavily involved in the restructuring movement. Through both quantitative and qualitative methods, the study presents a global assessment of teacher decisional participation using a model derived from the restructuring, school effectiveness, and participation literatures. The model directly links teacher decisional participation to six teacher and student outcomes: teacher job satisfaction, their choice of instructional techniques, teacher and student attendance, and student achievement and behavior.

Dimensions of participation were identified using principal components analysis. The dimensions were correlated with these outcomes variables to determine if differential relationships existed. Four main findings emerged: (a) several dimensions of decisional participation were identified, (b) these dimensions correlated differentially with the outcome variables, (c) teacher decisional participation did not have a statistically significant impact on the quantitative outcomes tested, and (d) qualitative differences in the instructional techniques chosen by teachers did not emerge as a result of teachers' participation. A fifth ancillary finding was that teachers reported feeling decisionally deprived despite working in a reform district.

Little empirical research on the effects of the current restructuring movement has been generated despite the fact that restructuring has been underway for five years. In part, this is because advocates wisely cautioned at the outset that reforms implemented under the rubric of restructuring should not be evaluated too early; the breadth of change involved required time for defining, refining, and institutionalization. As we move through the nineties, however, assessing the effects of innovations associated with restructuring is necessary so that future reform efforts can be properly guided.

Teacher decisional participation is an integral component of restructuring. Recommended by the major reform reports of the mid-eighties, the inclusion of decisional participation as an element of reform has precedents in organizational theory (Coch & French, 1948; Lawler & Hackman, 1969; Lewin, 1947; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Lowin, 1968) and school effectiveness research (Little, 1982; McCormack-Larkin, 1985; Rutter, Maughn, Mortimore, & Ousten, 1979; Rosenholtz, 1985). Both research areas report that job satisfaction and performance are related to participation; in addition, school effectiveness studies found that improved student achievement, attendance, and behavior occur in schools where teachers are involved in decision making. A central question for reformers, therefore, is whether decisional participation undertaken as part of a restructuring effort results in improvements with respect to variables such as these.

Conceptually, decisional participation is straightforward--"individuals responsible for implementing decisions [should be involved] in actually making those decisions" (AASA/NAESP/NASSP, 1988, p. 5). Yet, despite this conceptual simplicity, consensus concerning decisional participation as a construct, and its effects in organizations, remains elusive (Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley, & Bauer, 1990; Conway, 1984; Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Locke & Schweiger, 1979). Several causative factors found in school and non-school settings may explain the difficulty in attaining consensus.

One factor is that participation forms a continuum (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Lowin, 1968; Vroom & Yetton, 1973), anchored at one extreme by exclusion from participation, and at the other, by full participation with parity between administrators and subordinates. The extent to which subordinates are involved in decisions may fall at any point on the continuum (Alutto & Belasco, 1972); consequently, research studies have produced various findings concerning the nature of participation and its effects in the workplace (Lowin, 1968).

A second factor inhibiting agreement on decisional participation concerns the design of participation studies. Lowin (1968) argued that "substantial attitudinal shifts" (p. 74) are needed before participation is accepted by members of an organization. Many research studies, particularly those that are experimental or quasi-experimental, are not designed to accommodate the time required for shifts in attitudes, and so may lead to

ambiguous conclusions about the nature and effects of participation.

Still another factor hindering consensus regarding participation involves our understanding of the construct itself (Bacharach, 1989). Charters and Packard (1979), Herriott and Firestone (1984), and Schneider (1985) report that decisional participation is bi-dimensional. Although these dimensions are described somewhat differently, they address essentially the same aspects: a technical core, or classroom instruction; and schoolwide, managerial issues. Other education researchers (Bacharach et al., 1990; Mohrman, Cooke, & Mohrman, 1978) suggest that decisional participation is multi-dimensional. For example, Bacharach et al. found as many as four domains, noting that in addition to the technical core, accountability, resource allocation, and the distribution of human resources were dimensions of teacher participation.

In spite of the aforementioned obstacles, studies on the effects of decisional participation in schools have been conducted. In the case of both Bacharach et al. (1990) and Mohrman et al. (1978), dimensions of participation were correlated with affective variables such as teacher job satisfaction. Effective schools research and literature on restructuring, however, suggest that other variables may be important as well. Proponents of restructuring predict that outcomes such as improved student performance, use of teaching strategies that promote active student involvement in complex learning tasks, and decreased student

alienation from school (Carnegie Task Force, 1986) will accompany restructuring and teacher decisional participation. A number of effective schools studies (e.g., Rutter et al., 1979; Casner-Lotto, 1987) found that improved student achievement, attendance, and behavior are associated with schools in which teachers experience greater participation in decision making.

The current study reports a global assessment of teacher decisional participation by testing a model derived from the restructuring, school effectiveness, and participation literatures. The model is presented in Figure 1. Specifically, this model links teacher decisional participation to six teacher and student outcomes: teacher job satisfaction, their choice of instructional techniques, teacher and student attendance, and student achievement and behavior. In addition, dimensions of decisional participation are identified and correlated with these outcome variables to determine if relationships of varying strength occur. Such a finding might point to participation in some dimensions as more important than participation in others.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

The current study was conducted in Dade County, Florida, one of the largest, most active, reform districts in the United States. In the mid-1980s, the district piloted a school-based-management program aimed, in part, at increasing teachers' decisional participation. By collecting data on the effects of teachers' decisional participation several years after the program was

initiated, concerns related to needed attitude shifts and institutionalization (Lowin, 1968) were accommodated.

The study includes both quantitative and qualitative aspects. Decisional participation was measured on matters such as what to teach, budgeting, and standardized testing using a four part Likert scale ranging along a continuum from seldom to almost always (Bacharach et al, 1986; Bacharach et al, 1990). Other quantitative data were gathered on teacher job satisfaction, teacher and student attendance, and student achievement and behavior. Qualitative data on classroom instruction were used to complement the quantitative data as has been recommended by effective schools researchers (e.g., Teddlie, Kirby, & Stringfield, 1989).

Methods and Procedures

Sample Selection

The sample was chosen from a pool composed (a) of schools in the original cohort which had participated in the district's school-based-management program since it was piloted in 1987, and (b) of non-pilot schools, which either had enrolled the district program after the initial year or had chosen to remain uninvolved in the program. From the pool, 33 schools were selected; 16 (14 elementary and 2 senior high schools) from the cohort of pilot schools, and 17 (14 elementary and 3 senior high schools) from the non-pilot group.[1] An attempt was made to match the non-pilot schools with those in the original cohort on the basis of

[1]Middle and junior high schools were not included in the study because a recent reorganization at that level might have confounded the results.

organizational level, student body size, and percentage of free lunch participants. Problems in obtaining the sample prevented matching in some cases; however, 24 of the schools were matched.

Instrumentation

Decisional participation questionnaire. A questionnaire measuring the teachers' involvement in 19 decision areas (Bacharach, et al., 1986; Bacharach, et al., 1990) was distributed to 1,654 regular education teachers in the 33 schools. A total of 637 usable surveys were returned, representing a response rate of 39% Responses were solicited in two ways: first, teachers indicated the extent to which they actually participated in the decision areas; then, they marked the extent to which they desired participation in those decision areas. Differences in scores between these two response sets were calculated to determine if there were a discrepancy.

The discrepancy scale could range between -3 and +3, with positive scores demonstrating deprivation [a condition in which teachers were involved in fewer decisions than they wished]; scores near zero indicating equilibrium [suggesting that teachers had about as much involvement as desired]; and negative scores signifying saturation [indicating that participation was greater than desired] (Alutto & Belasco, 1972). The study by Bacharach et al. (1990) found that teachers are decisionally deprived. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients reported for the deprivation scores in the Bacharach study ranged from .83 to .66.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The JDI (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969 [JDI]), one of the most widely used measures of job satisfaction, was distributed to 300 teachers who had responded to the participation questionnaire. These teachers were at the 15 schools with the highest response rates for the first questionnaire. Teachers returned 213 usable JDIs, for a response rate of 71%. The JDI is comprised of six subscales, each representing a facet of job satisfaction: present work, present pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the job in general.

Attendance, achievement, and behavior measures. Data on teacher and student attendance [measured as percentage of attendance], and student achievement [school median percentile for math] and behavior [percentage of students receiving suspension] were obtained from school-by-school profiles published by the district's central office. These school level variables were calculated as gain/loss scores, derived by subtracting data for the school year prior to the initiation of the school-based-management program from data collected during the third year of implementation. The use of gain/loss scores allowed each school to be assessed against itself, thereby diminishing the impact of differences between schools in determining the effects of teacher decisional participation. Based on the premise suggested by Rutter et al. (1979) that mathematics scores are less likely to be affected by home influences and, thus, are a more accurate representation of the effects of schooling, gain/loss scores for

student achievement reflected each school's mathematics score from the district-administered nationally normed test.

Classroom observation measure. To measure teachers' choice of instructional techniques, each principal nominated a teacher for observation who, in the principal's opinion, used teaching strategies typical of those at the school. The assumption underlying this aspect of the study was that teachers in schools where decisional participation was higher would choose more innovative teaching strategies and involve students in more actively in learning activities, particularly through the use of cooperative small groups. An observation protocol developed by Teddlie et al. (1989) was modified and used to focus the observations. Teachers were observed for a period of 30 to 70 minutes. Qualitative data were also collected through short, unstructured interviews with 21 of the teachers observed.

Analysis of school means on the decisional participation questionnaire identified one outlier school with a low return rate. This school was included in the analysis to determine dimensions of decisional participation, but was dropped from subsequent analyses.

Data Analysis

Quantitative analyses included three procedures. To be consistent with prior research (Bacharach et al., 1990; Mohrman et al., 1978), a principal components analysis with a varimax rotation was used to identify the dimensions of teacher decisional participation. These dimensions were then entered into a

correlation matrix to calculate relationships between the dimensions of participation and both the school-level variables and the subscales of the JDI.

Differences between schools on both the school-level variables and the JDI subscales were calculated through multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA). Groups for the MANOVAs were created by dividing the schools into high and low decisional participation groups based on school means for the decisional participation questionnaire. To provide a measure of confidence about the external validity of the study results, an invariance procedure, the jackknife statistic (Thompson, 1989), was computed.

Classroom observation data were analyzed through qualitative procedures. One member of the research team was designated to conduct the classroom observations. At the time of data collection, this researcher was unaware of the composition of the two participation groups, nor was she aware of which schools were pilot and non-pilot school-based-management schools.

Extensive field notes written during the observations resulted in 83 typewritten pages of data. For analysis, notes were separated by school into the two participation groups mentioned above. These notes were repeatedly reviewed to detect similarities and differences in the data from both the observation protocol and the interviews, thus building analytic files (Lofland & Lofland, 1984).

Results

Although both pilot and non-pilot school-based-management schools were involved in this study, these groups functioned for sampling purposes only. For comparative purposes during data analysis, school means on the decisional participation questionnaire were used to divide the sample into high and low decisional participation groups. Table 1 provides the means and standard deviations for schools in the two groups on both the participation questionnaire and the JDI. Of the 16 schools in the high participation group, 13 were pilots in the district's school-based-management program. In contrast, 2 of the 16 schools in the low participation group were pilots while another 8 did not take part in the program. Six of the low participation schools entered the program after the initial year. Clearly the district's program had the effect of increasing teachers' rates of participation for schools in this study.

Insert Table 1 about here

This increase in rate of participation is misleading, however. Teachers in both participation groups reported feeling decisionally deprived in all 19 areas tested, as indicated in Table 2. Teachers were most involved in decisions regarding how to teach, what to teach and their subject/grade assignment. Decisions in which teachers felt least involved concerned standardized testing policy, staff hiring, and budget development. Although finding decisional deprivation confirmed results of previous research (Bacharach et

al., 1990; Mohrman et al., 1978), for teachers in the current study to report decisional deprivation is particularly problematic since the study was conducted in a district recognized nationally for its innovative program to increase teachers' participation.

Insert Table 2 about here

Factors of Decisional Participation

To identify dimensions of participation, actual participation responses were factor analyzed using principal components with a varimax rotation. As reported in Table 3, four factors emerged accounting for 56.9% of the variance. Factor I, referred to as associated technology, was characterized by matters related to students and teachers, but not involving classroom instruction. Decisions about grading and testing policies, student discipline and rights, teacher performance evaluations, and staff development loaded on the first factor.

Insert Table 3 about here

Factor 2 reflected those decision areas that traditionally have been in the purview of management. Items such as budgeting, spending, hiring, assigning teachers to school, designing facilities, and scheduling students for special instruction characterize this factor suggesting that Factor 2 represented a managerial dimension of participation.

The core technology of teaching was represented by Factors 3 and 4. For these data, decisions concerning what and how to teach

and teaching assignment emerged as distinct from decisions about textbooks and workbooks. Factor 3, which included the textbook/ workbook items, was termed core technology II. Items concerning what to teach, how to teach, and teachers' subject/grade assignment loaded on Factor 4, which was designated core technology I.

Internal consistency reliabilities were calculated for both the decisional participation instrument and the JDI. Based on the factor analytic results of the participation questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were found to be .84, .78, .89, and .66, respectively. For the six subscales of the JDI, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were as follows: present work, .83; present pay, .82; promotion, .88; supervision, .90; coworkers, .91; and job in general, .92.

Relationships Between Dimensions of Participation and School-Level Variables

A Pearson correlation was computed between the dimensions of decisional participation and the school level variables. Although relationships were generally weak, on balance they were as strong or stronger than those found in previous research (e.g., Bacharach et al., 1990). Because statistical significance is heavily dependent on sample size (Carver, 1978), the small number of schools (n=32) compromised attaining statistical significance. Effect size (see Cohen, 1988 for a discussion) was also used as an index of result importance.

A significant correlation was found between teacher participation in decisions about what to teach, how to teach, and

teachers' subject/grade assignment (core technology I) and student attendance (r=.43, p<.05). This important relationship produced an effect size of 18%, which is considered strong in the social sciences (Cohen, 1988). Other correlations between the decisional dimensions and the school level variables were not significant and did not produce an effect size over 5%. The anticipated link between participation in the core technology dimensions and student achievement did not emerge.

Relationships Between Dimensions of Participation and Job Satisfaction

Several statistically significant correlations were found between the decisional dimensions and the JDI subscales, as presented in Table 4. The maximum effect size produced by these correlations was 6%. Satisfaction with present work was most strongly related to participation in the managerial dimension (r=.24, p< .001), but was also significantly related to the core technology I (r=.20, p<.01) and associated technology dimensions (r=.17, p<.01).

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

As anticipated, satisfaction with pay did not correlate with any of the decisional dimensions. Satisfaction with promotion, on the other hand, was significantly correlated with the associated technology dimension (r=.24, p<.001). Promotion was substantially unrelated to the core technology dimensions, however, suggesting that teachers do not see their work with students as important to

their chances for career advancement. Similarly, satisfaction with supervision was significantly correlated with both the associated technology and managerial dimensions of participation (r=.17, $p\leq$.01, in both instances), but was not significantly related to either core technology dimension.

Satisfaction with coworkers was not significantly correlated with any of the participation dimensions. Finally, teachers' satisfaction with the job in general was most strongly related to core technology I (r=.20, $p\leq$.01), followed by the managerial dimension (r=.18, $p\leq$.01) and then the associated technology area (r=.14, $p\leq$.05).

Multivariate Analysis

It was predicted that schools and teachers in the two participation groups would differ significantly on school-level outcomes measured by the criterion variables. Because data for the school-level variables were aggregated for an entire school, while job satisfaction data were available for responding teachers, MANOVAs were computed. Means on the school-level variables were not statistically different for the two participation groups ($F(4,27)$=.361, p=n.s.). Criterion variables for the second MANOVA were the subscales of the JDI. Again, the MANOVA was found to be non-significant ($F(6,206)$=1.81, p=n.s.).

Invariance testing using the jackknife statistic produced mixed results. The school-level multivariate findings appear to be unique to this sample; however, results obtained for the JDI

were stable under sampling and may be generalized to future studies.

Qualitative Analysis

To ascertain whether qualitative differences existed in classroom teaching strategies between schools in the two participation groups, classroom observations and unstructured interviews were conducted. Five categories emerged as important.

Teaching strategies used. Instructional strategies chosen by teachers were consistent both within and between participation groups. The method of choice was teacher-directed, whole-class instruction in which the students initiated little communication with regard to at lesson content. No instances were found of cooperative small grouping which required student collaboration to achieve a goal or complete a lesson successfully, a strategy suggested by the Carnegie Task Force (1986) as typical of restructured schools.

Teacher collaboration. Teachers also tended to work independently, despite a districtwide policy that provided for early student release one day a week in the elementary schools to allow for two hours of professional time beyond that afforded through daily planning periods. This time could be used for collaborative planning, a change also anticipated by the Carnegie Task Force (1986). Where collaboration existed in these schools, teachers from both participation groups described the extent as (a) teachers in one or two grade levels who planned jointly, or (b) collaborative planning between two teachers who homogeneously

grouped their classes and shared teaching responsibilities. No instances of team teaching were observed.

Physical characteristics of the classrooms. Two aspects of the physical classroom environment deserve note. The first is display of students' work, a classroom characteristic found in effective schools (Teddlie et al., 1989). Teachers in four of the high participation schools either did not display students' work or displayed very little of it. Conversely, students' work was not displayed in seven of the low participation schools.

The second physical attribute of note is seating arrangement. Regardless of participation group, students in the senior high schools sat in traditional rows; in the elementary schools, students were more likely to sit in groups around tables, or in rows of contiguous tables. However, grouped seating arrangements in the elementary schools were a pro forma modification; the style of lesson presentation and the lesson format could have been pursued as easily were the students in separate, individual desks.

Lesson content. As might be anticipated from the teaching techniques chosen, lesson content was traditional. Typical lessons at schools in both participation groups involved such content as vocabulary; syllabication, prefixes, and suffixes; addition, fractions, and word problems. Lessons usually focused within one disciplinary area. A modified interdisciplinary approach was observed in nine schools at which teachers opted to use a new text based on a whole language approach. Of these nine schools, eight

were in the high participation group. In none of the classes observed was mathematics integrated with other disciplines.

Discussion

This study assessed the effects of teacher decisional participation in a district widely acclaimed as a reform model. Four main findings emerged: (a) several dimensions of decisional participation were identified, (b) these dimensions correlated differentially with the criterion variables, (c) the two participation groups did not differ statistically on the outcome variables, and (d) qualitative differences in the instructional techniques chosen by teachers in the two participation groups were not found. A fifth, ancillary finding deserving note was that teachers reported decisional deprivation in all decision areas tested.

Although this study contributes to the understanding of decisional participation as a multi-dimensional construct, that finding is overshadowed by the discovery that teachers did not feel decisionally empowered in a reform district, and by the finding that participation did not improve outcomes for either teachers or students. These results, while unanticipated, are corroborated by other research. An in-house study conducted by the district (Collins & Hanson, 1991) reported similar findings. In comparing pilot school-based-management schools with all other schools in the district, Collins and Hanson found that schools did not differ on teacher and student attendance, or on student achievement and behavior.

Why the changes predicted by the restructuring literature did not occur deserves thoughtful consideration. A familiar theme in the education research is that schools operate largely within the confines of the structural model (Bacharach & Conley, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 1988). According to organizational theory, this model is associated with "a fixed division of labor... a hierarchy of offices,... [and] rules that govern performance" (Bolman & Deal, 1984, p. 31). Restructuring proponents, on the other hand, suggest a framework that is more akin to the professional model (Carnegie Task Force, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 1990). Making the change from one model to the other entails a shift in attitude suggested by Lowin (1968) as crucial to the effectiveness of decisional participation. Schools and school districts may be more resistant to such attitudinal shifts than anticipated by the restructuring movement.

In Dade County, although there was public administrative support for increasing teachers' decisional participation and for moving the district more in line with the professional model, evidence suggested that this realignment did not occur. Vestiges of the structural framework apparently were resurfacing. Conversations with school-based personnel elicited observations that the new superintendent and his staff were recapturing some of the decision making authority that had been previously accorded to the schools and that school level budgetary decisions were being overturned even though these decisions had been consistently approved by the central office under the school-based-management

program. Diminished support at the top levels of administration likely made the investment of time and energy less attractive to school-based personnel, limiting chances for genuine improvements in teaching and learning. As David (1991) noted, "faculties need both authority to make decisions and freedom from constraining regulations if they are to redesign their schools in ways that suit their particular circumstances" (p. 13). Thus, school-level restructuring requires a concomitant restructuring of the relationship between central office administrators and school-level professionals.

A second area that merits attention is the use of standardized tests to measure of student achievement. If pedagogical changes are to be made, changes in the assessment of student progress will also have to be made. Standardized testing has come under fire in recent years for providing a spurious profile of a school's effectiveness (Cannell, 1988). Nonetheless, where standardized tests are the measure of student progress, as they were in this district, teachers will be unlikely to abandon the teaching of discrete facts which are tested (David, 1991; Lewis, 1990) in favor of integrated concepts which are not.

Still another cause for the non-significant results in this study may be the direction in which teachers' participation activities were focused. Other studies show that teachers perceive their core responsibilities to be working with children (Lortie, 1975). While the present research indicates that teachers have more decisional autonomy in the core technology I dimension (what

and how to teach and subject/grade assignment), they derived greater satisfaction from decisional involvement on matters exterior to the classroom. It may be that teachers' participation was not oriented toward strengthening the core activities of schooling and that their participation in the associated technology (grading policy, student rights, staff development, etc.) and the managerial dimensions (budgeting, spending, hiring, etc.) possibly did not have enhancing teachers' work with students as a guiding focus.

Staff development in Dade County designed to ready teachers for participation in decision making concerned various models of participation and methods of conflict resolution (Dreyfuss, 1987). While these topics are important, if the goal of decisional participation is to improve instructional outcomes, then teachers' expertise in core technology decisions must also be strengthened. Training should include ways of overcoming norms of classroom autonomy and the isolation that accompanies it, interdisciplinary approaches to subject matter, and alternative student assessment practices (David, 1991).

Conclusion

Results of this study are important in light of the current focus on restructuring and the interest in increased teacher decisional participation. If the education community underestimates the breadth of change needed to restructure education, the reform movement will be consigned to the fate of its predecessors (David, 1991). For the restructuring movement to

survive, the seemingly entrenched bureaucratic style of operating schools and the persistent reliance on standardized testing will have to change. Equally important is the need for teachers to alter their methods of practice. Both time and training for teachers and administrators will be required for these aspects of restructuring to occur. In the meantime, it is unrealistic to expect intransigent teaching methods to give way to a wider repertoire of practices in the face of intransigent administrative methods. As Frymier (1987) noted, "the bureaucratic structure of the workplace is more influential in determining what professionals do than are personal abilities, professional training, or previous experience" (p. 10).

The restructuring literature does not call for teacher decisional participation as an end in itself, but rather as a powerful vehicle for enhancing teachers' work with students. Leaders in the restructuring movement must be mindful that increasing teachers' decisional participation should have as its goal increasing teachers' effectiveness in the classroom. Concomitantly, they should be cognizant that well-ingrained norms of teaching militate against increased collaborative planning, even in the face of scheduling accommodations that make such planning possible. Restructuring schools to include teachers in decision making requires careful planning, training in core technology areas as well as non-core dimensions, and an overriding focus on the classroom and instruction. Failure to be sensitive to each of

these areas will undermine the goals of restructuring to the detriment of the reform movement.

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Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations on the
Actual Decisional Participation Scale and
the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Schools (n=32)	Actual participation (n=637)	JDI (n=213)
High participation group		
Washington	54.36(9.98)	
J. Adams*	47.43(11.56)	
Jefferson*	46.54(12.77)	
Madison*	46.24(11.55)	192.40(25.14)
Monroe*	46.19(11.49)	158.77(32.43)
J. Q. Adams*	45.62(11.46)	
Jackson*	44.81(13.60)	
Van Buren*	44.73(10.98)	184.87(31.81)
Harrison*	43.36(9.08)	
Tyler*	43.22(8.80)	203.00(39.83)
Polk*	43.00(12.26)	
Taylor*	42.43(7.55)	
Fillmore Sr.#	41.80(10.84)	169.75(41.62)
Pierce#	40.44(10.80)	201.33(22.60)
Buchanan*	40.33(8.45)	160.57(39.84)
Lincoln*	39.55(10.83)	
Low participation group		
Johnson#	39.20(5.93)	
Grant#	38.86(10.70)	171.17(42.55)
Hayes	38.83(10.72)	
Garfield#	38.78(10.52)	172.33(39.84)
Arthur Sr.#	38.76(11.86)	183.47(40.85)
Cleveland Sr.*	38.66(9.88)	168.64(40.43)
McKinley	38.24(7.67)	147.00(31.20)
T Roosevelt Sr.*	37.74(9.75)	166.57(52.34)
Taft	37.29(6.75)	
Wilson	36.89(15.33)	
Harding	36.30(5.76)	
Coolidge#	34.57(8.05)	165.09(47.02)
Hoover Sr.#	34.44(7.02)	
F. D. Roosevelt	34.39(8.35)	165.93(35.04)
Truman#	33.82(9.71)	
Eisenhower#	32.57(2.88)	
TOTAL	40.22(10.89)	174.06(41.10)

* Asterisks designate those schools started as pilots in the district's site based management program in the mid-1980s.
# A pound sign denotes those schools that do not participate in the district's site based management program.
Schools with no designation entered the site based management program after the inception year.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Actual Decisional Participation, Desired Decisional Participation, and Decisional Deprivation
(n=637)

Item	Actual Mean(SD)	Desired Mean(SD)	Deprivation* Mean(SD)
Teacher's assignment to school	2.362(.953)	3.252(.822)	.890(1.108)
Teacher's subject/grade assignment	2.719(1.061)	3.462(.711)	.743(1.135)
Students' assignment to class	1.655(.951)	2.715(.873)	1.060(1.111)
Removal for special instruction	2.094(.903)	3.208(.762)	1.113(1.009)
Designing facilities	1.777(.935)	2.807(.831)	1.031(1.045)
Budget development	1.589(.840)	2.630(.883)	1.041(1.003)
Spending priorities	1.668(.865)	2.805(.893)	1.137(1.029)
Staff hiring	1.554(.827)	2.496(.935)	.942(.981)
Teacher's performance evaluation	2.017(1.076)	3.142(.870)	1.125(1.130)
Student discipline codes	2.017(.999)	3.163(.817)	1.145(1.100)
Standardized testing policy	1.418(.782)	2.749(.904)	1.331(1.048)
Grading policies	1.899(1.035)	3.299(.732)	1.400(1.146)
Reporting student achievement	2.372(1.099)	3.337(.752)	.965(1.122)
Student rights	1.856(.974)	3.027(.813)	1.171(1.062)
What to teach	2.724(1.078)	3.509(.714)	.786(1.070)
How to teach	3.213(.972)	3.637(.657)	.425(.951)
Texts/workbooks available	2.604(1.001)	3.550(.668)	.946(1.053)
Texts/workbooks used	2.691(1.006)	3.610(.636)	.919(1.008)
Staff development	2.304(.951)	3.301(.750)	.997(1.047)

*Positive numbers indicate that desire for participation exceeds actual participation.

Table 3
Rotated Factor Matrix for Actual Decisional Participation

Item	Factors I	II	III	IV	h^2
Associated technology					
Student rights	.768	.153	.167	.134	.659
Standardized testing policy	.747	.191	.145	-.027	.612
Student discipline codes	.701	.281	.147	-.045	.594
Reporting student achievement	.658	.092	.059	.328	.553
Grading policies	.647	.107	.134	.294	.534
Teacher's performance evaluation	.527	.302	.102	.139	.399
Staff development	.444	.326	.427	.006	.497
Students' assignment to class	.423	.221	.019	.233	.282
Managerial					
Budget development	.289	.764	.168	-.043	.697
Spending priorities	.260	.755	.199	-.068	.681
Staff hiring	.236	.661	-.001	.060	.497
Teacher's assignment to school	.025	.626	.030	.274	.468
Designing facilities	.457	.481	.173	.131	.487
Removal for special instruction	.337	.377	.066	.204	.302
Core technology II					
Texts/workbooks available	.149	.123	.874	.272	.875
Texts/workbooks used	.220	.136	.870	.214	.870
Core technology I					
How to teach	.110	.072	.189	.794	.683
What to teach	.283	.016	.164	.767	.693
Teacher's subject/grade assignment	.105	.422	.165	.475	.442

Table 4
Correlations between Dimensions of Actual Decisional Participation and the Subscales of the Job Descriptive Index

	Associated technology	Managerial	Core technology II	Core technology I
Total sample (n=213)				
Present work	.17**	.24***	-.01	.20**
Pay	.17	-.04	-.02	-.01
Promotion	.24***	.09	-.01	-.03
Supervision	.17**	.17**	.02	.10
Coworkers	.01	.01	.09	.10
Job in general	.14*	.18**	.02	.20**

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

The Research Model

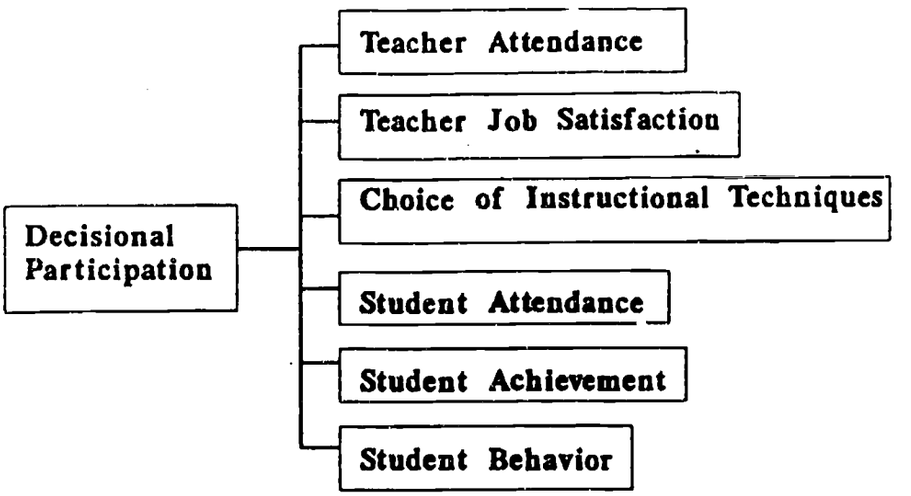

Figure 1

END

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Date Filmed
August 17, 1992