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**Actual and ideal shared decision making perceptions of
elementary school teachers in East Tennessee**

Walters, Rebecca Fields, Ed.D.

East Tennessee State University, 1994

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**ACTUAL AND IDEAL SHARED DECISION MAKING
PERCEPTIONS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
TEACHERS IN EAST TENNESSEE**

**A Dissertation
presented to
the Faculty of the Department
of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis
East Tennessee State University**

**In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education**

**by
Rebecca Fields Walters
May 1994**

APPROVAL

This is to certify that the Graduate Committee of

REBECCA FIELDS WALTERS

met on the

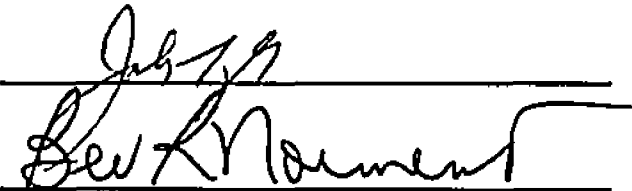
4th day of April, 1994.

The committee read and examined his dissertation, supervised his defense of it in an oral examination, and recommended that his study be submitted to the Graduate Council and the Associate Vice-President for Research and Dean, School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education in Supervision and Administration.


Dr. Charles Burkett, Chairman






Associate Vice-President for Research
and Dean, School of Graduate Studies

Signed on behalf of
the Graduate Council

ABSTRACT

ACTUAL AND IDEAL SHARED DECISION MAKING PERCEPTIONS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN EAST TENNESSEE

by

Rebecca Fields Walters

The problem of this study was to determine if differences existed between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal level of involvement in decision making in elementary schools. It represents one part of a comprehensive research project conducted simultaneously with two other researchers. The parallel studies examined principals' and parents' involvement in school decision making. The study was conducted during the 1993-94 school year in Tennessee.

Significant differences were found between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal levels of involvement in decisions concerning the budgetary process, personnel matters, and curriculum decisions. Teachers also indicated that principals and parents should have significantly more involvement in these three areas.

It was concluded that teachers want teachers, principals, and parents to have significantly more involvement in decisions. The parallel studies also indicated strong opinions concerning the amount of involvement that principals and parents should have in decision making.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

This is to certify that the following study has been filed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University.

Title of Grant or Project Actual and Ideal Shared Decision Making Perceptions of Elementary School Teachers in East Tennessee

Principal Investigator Rebecca Walters

Department Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

Date Submitted December 8, 1993

Institutional Review Board, Chairman Anthony J. DeSue

Dedicated

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my father, Claude David Fields. His love for learning and education was always an inspiration in my life. It was his commitment to education that created in me a desire to continue my studies.

Acknowledgements

My deepest appreciation is extended to my doctoral committee chairman, Dr. Charles Burkett, for his guidance and support throughout my educational program. I am also grateful for the expert advice given to me by other committee members, Dr. Donn Gresso, Dr. Russell West, and Dr. John Taylor. Each member served a vital role in the development of this dissertation.

I thank my husband, Wayne, for his patience, moral support, and devotion to me. I greatly appreciate his encouragement and belief in me.

I would also like to acknowledge my two cohorts and friends, Steve Dixon and John Clark, with whom I conducted this parallel study. They have both been very cooperative and supportive throughout this endeavor.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

In 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education concluded that the United States was a nation at risk due to an antiquated, unresponsive educational system (Dent, 1988). In response to this alarm, the National Governors' Association recommended giving teachers a real voice in decision making and called for developing school site management that respected the professional judgment of teachers (Conley, Schmidle, & Shedd, 1988). Since these reports emerged, school systems have begun "restructuring," introducing a series of endeavors to improve education by changing their approach to school governance and organization. Administrations have begun to redefine the role of and the work performed by teachers (Murphy, 1992).

A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, the report submitted by the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, advocated giving teachers a greater voice in the decisions that affect the school as a way of making teaching a more attractive profession (cited in Meadows, 1990). Frymier (1987) indicated that we must stop undercutting teachers by creating conditions that

blunt their enthusiasm and stifle their creativity. He also maintained that empowerment of teachers is the key to true reform.

In order to improve education, its governance and management needed to be restructured. According to Frymier (1987), teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and behaviors were considered to be influenced more by the bureaucratic structure of the workplace than by personal abilities, professional abilities, or previous experience. Frymier recommended that change efforts should focus on the workplace and not on teachers. The second wave of school reform followed which involved shared governance, participatory management, and site management (Klauke, 1989; Sokoloff, 1990). This model was unlike the approaches of the earlier era of school reform that indicated teachers as the problem to be addressed in order to improve the educational system (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988).

The process and outcomes of shared governance focus on improving institutional effectiveness, worker satisfaction and commitment, change, and broad based decision making. This system allows workers to have meaningful input into decisions that affect the way they handle their responsibilities (Sokoloff, 1990).

The educational reform movement has been manifested in the intensity of policy action. McHenry (1990) reported that school

reforms have been featured on state and national agendas as well as the agendas of governors, many influential foundations including the Carnegie Foundation, business groups, and teacher unions. Murphy (1992) indicated that efforts to change schooling have been taking place in every state in the country, and most restructuring moves have focused on empowering teachers and parents, changing governance structures and management patterns, and altering the roles and work of teachers.

Osterman (1989) reminded us that the recommendations to restructure decision-making processes within schools have been regularly incorporated into reform proposals and emphasized that the role of teachers in schools must change and teachers must be given greater authority to influence school policies and practices if meaningful reform is to take place. Proponents of empowerment suggested that low levels of teacher involvement and influence resulted from bureaucratic work conditions (Frymier, 1987). Thus, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) added teacher motivation and commitment, teacher efficacy, the quality of work life in teaching, and intrinsic job satisfaction to the nation's school reform agenda.

Cawelti (1993) reported that teachers have made much progress over the past 50 years, but the challenges facing teachers today require vast changes in our educational institutions, including

fundamental restructuring of schools. These changes include the ways in which teachers make decisions, organize instruction, provide for collaborative planning and assessment of outcomes, and allocate authority for tasks ranging from personnel selection to program development and student assessment.

In the state of Tennessee, the educational reforms or restructuring can be traced to the passage of Senate Joint Resolution Number 56 that called for the creation of a task force to implement a comprehensive study of public education in the state of Tennessee. The Tennessee Comprehensive Education Study (Task Force Review, 1982) examined programs, personnel, facilities, finances, and organization in all phases of the entire educational system.

Under the direction of Governor Lamar Alexander, reform efforts continued in the state of Tennessee. The Comprehensive Educational Reform Act of 1984 instituted the Basic Skills First Program and the Career Ladder Program for Tennessee schools. This reform effort at the state level represented a major change for Tennessee teachers (Caldwell, 1990).

Tennessee legislators continued reforming education with the passage of the Educational Improvement Act of 1991. One of the major issues of this legislation was an effort to move toward

decentralization. Section 31 allows local boards of educators to initiate a program of school-based decision making.

Reform efforts continued in the state of Tennessee with the development of the Master Plan for Tennessee Schools: Preparing for the Twenty-First Century (Tennessee State Board of Education, 1994). This plan was developed by the State Board of Education and addressed shared decision making in the state of Tennessee. One of the eight goals stated the following: "Leaders of schools and school systems will be well prepared, will accept responsibility for improved performance of schools and school systems, and will be able to implement school-based decision making" (p. 19).

The Educational Improvement Act provided for sweeping changes in school governance. School boards will be elected and superintendents appointed. Principals have new responsibilities and serve under performance contracts. School-based decision making is being implemented in schools through local initiative (Tennessee State Board of Education, 1994).

The strategies indicated to implement this goal were:

1. The Board's Policies for the Principal and Supervisor of Instruction were implemented by increasing the quality of pre-service preparation, appraising beginning principals and supervisors, incorporating performance contracts for principals

and providing professional development opportunities for principals and supervisors.

2. The local school board participated in an annual School Board Member Training Academy. The superintendents were provided high quality professional development opportunities through the Tennessee Executive Development Program.

3. The school systems were encouraged to implement school-based decision making. Professional development opportunities for school boards, superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers, students, parents and community leaders were promoted.

4. The local schools were encouraged to develop innovative school improvement programs. The rules and procedures were modified as needed to implement such programs.

The progress indicators were:

1. The amount of participation of principals, supervisors, superintendents and school board members in professional development activities was appraised and the participants' satisfaction regarding professional development programs was assessed.

2. The percentage of schools implementing school-based decision making and the level of participation school personnel and community leaders was assessed.

3. The performance of schools and school systems as measured by the performance goals adopted by the State Board of Education was assessed (Tennessee State Board of Education, 1994).

The fate of the education reform movement in Tennessee depends upon the willingness of public school educators to understand and incorporate the goals set forth in the Master Plan. The number of schools in Tennessee actually involved in shared decision making and the satisfaction level of school personnel are not known. An investigation into the current level of involvement by school personnel would be beneficial.

The Problem

Statement of the Problem

There appears to be a difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amount of participation teachers, principals, and parents should have in decision making in elementary schools but the extent of the difference is not known.

Purpose of the Study

The study was conducted to determine the differences between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amount of involvement in budget, curriculum, and personnel decisions.

Significance of the Problem

A trend to change the structure of the educational system is being advocated as a means of improving school effectiveness. Shared decision making has become an important strategy for guiding school improvement. It is a form of decentralization in which decision making authority is redistributed for the purpose of stimulating and sustaining improvements in the individual school, resulting in an increase in authority of participants at the school site (Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1989). In this decentralization process, the data indicating the levels and areas of shared decision making that teachers have in schools should be investigated.

Hypotheses

H₁ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of teacher participation in the budgetary process.

H₂ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of parent participation in the budgetary process.

H₃ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of principal participation in the budgetary process.

H₄ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of teacher participation in personnel matters.

H₅ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of parent participation in personnel matters.

H₆ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of principal participation in personnel matters.

H₇ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of teacher participation in curriculum decisions.

H₈ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of parent participation in curriculum decisions.

H₉ A significant difference exists between teachers' perception of the actual and ideal amounts of principal participation in curriculum decisions.

Assumptions

1. It was assumed that the participants responded honestly to the questionnaire and the interview.

2. It was assumed the researchers could generalize the findings to educational communities in the same geographical area.

Delimitations

1. The study was limited to a survey of 538 elementary teachers in 125 schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District in the state of Tennessee.
2. The study took place during the 1993-94 school year.

Definitions of Terms

1. Autonomy--Hanson (1991) defined autonomy as the independence of groups in an organization from control by other parts of the organization or even by the whole organization.
2. Bureaucracy--This term refers to a governance plan that involves a hierarchy of authority with rules, regulations, and a division of labor designed to attain goals (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).
3. Centralization--This term refers to the focus of school management toward a more dominant, top down decision making system that is concentrated at some distance from where the decision is implemented.
4. Consensus--"A process by which a team or group cooperatively arrive at a mutually acceptable decision that all members agree to support" (Lewis, 1986, p. 64).

5. Devolution--"A form of decentralization involving the shifting of authority to an autonomous unit that can act independently" (Hanson, 1991, p. 32).

6. Efficacy--"Efficacy has to do with personal effectiveness, a feeling that one can control events and produce outcomes" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988, p. 133).

7. Elementary school--Elementary school is any single school containing at least one grade level below grade 6.

8. Empowerment--Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) cited that empowerment was the "deliberated effort to provide principals and teachers with the room, right, responsibility, and resources to make sensible decisions and informed professional judgments that reflect their circumstances" (p. 382).

9. First Tennessee Developmental Planning District--The First District is one of seven educational service centers recognized by the Tennessee State Department of Education. These school systems include the cities of Bristol, Greeneville, Elizabethton, Rogersville, Johnson City, Newport, and Kingsport. The county systems were Carter, Cocke, Greene, Hamblen, Hancock, Hawkins, Johnson, Sullivan, Unicoi, and Washington (State of Tennessee Department of Education, 1994).

10. Restructuring--"Restructuring encompasses systematic change in the school and its environment" (Murphy, 1991, p. 15).

11. Site-Based Management--Site-based management is a form of decentralization that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision making authority as the primary means through which improvement might be stimulated and sustained (Malen et al, 1989).

12. Shared/Participatory Decision Making--This style of school management allows members of the school community to take part in decision making. Included in shared decision making are teachers, parents, students, and other community members.

Parallel Studies

Teachers' perceptions of involvement in school decision making were examined in this study. It represented one of three sections of a more comprehensive research project being undertaken to identify perceptions of decision making within the entire school community. Two parallel studies were conducted simultaneously as part of the research project. Principals' and parents' perceptions of involvement in school decision making were examined in the two parallel studies. The data compiled from all three studies are analyzed in Chapter 6.

In order to insure a statistically correct compilation of the data in Chapter 6, portions of the three parallel studies were completed using similar procedures. Nine hypotheses were tested in each of the studies. Although each study measured a different area of perception, hypotheses were worded alike and were measured with the same statistical test. The questionnaires used in the three studies were tested for validity through the same pilot study. All questionnaires used the same format and subscales with only minor terminological differences. Samples for each study were drawn from the elementary schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District.

Procedures of the Study

The researcher used the following procedures:

1. A review of related literature was conducted which included an ERIC computer search.
2. A decision was made to work cooperatively with two other researchers conducting parallel studies.
3. Schools to be included in the sampling were identified in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District.
4. A survey and personal data sheet were constructed. The survey measured teacher attitudes concerning the amounts of

involvement principals, teachers, and parents have in decision making. The data were collected from teachers in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District.

5. Instrument validity was obtained through a pilot study.

6. Approval of the study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board at East Tennessee State University.

7. The three researchers conducting the joint projects divided the 125 schools for visitation.

8. Principals were contacted and permission was obtained to conduct a survey with teachers.

9. An explanatory letter, an information sheet from the Institutional Review Board, a coded survey, and a personal data sheet were delivered to the schools.

10. The survey was administered to a random sample of elementary teachers in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District in the state of Tennessee.

11. The results of the study were analyzed through appropriate statistical analysis.

12. Conclusions were drawn from the results of the study and recommendations were offered.

13. Results of this study were combined with those of two parallel studies for more comprehensive conclusions.

Organization of the Study

This study was organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 contains the introduction to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, hypotheses, significance of the problem, assumptions, limitations of the study, definitions of terms, a brief explanation of the parallel study, procedures, and organization of the study.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the related literature. Chapter 3 explains the procedures and methodology of data analyses and reports the results. Chapter 4 presents the data and analyses of the findings. Chapter 5 includes the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations. Chapter 6 concludes the study by combining the results from this research with results from parallel studies conducted simultaneously. The data from all three studies were analyzed as a unit in Chapter 6. The summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the three studies are reported.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

Chapter 2 consists of a review of literature regarding teachers and decision making. The chapter is divided into five sections: (a) Human Motivation and Teachers, (b) Restructuring in Education, (c) Site-Based Management, (d) Teachers' Roles and Responsibilities, and (e) Summary.

The first section, Human Motivation and Teachers, describes selected theories of motivation and the rewards obtained through teacher involvement in the workplace. These theories were also discussed in reference to their relationship to shared decision making.

The second section, Restructuring in Education, serves as an introduction to areas in need of restructuring described in the literature. This section explains ways in which restructuring can be accomplished successfully in elementary schools.

The third section, Site-Based Management, describes site-based management and defines the areas in which teachers actually participate in school governance. Advantages,

disadvantages, and considerations for implementing site-based management are then discussed.

The fourth section, Roles and Responsibilities of Teachers, defines the structure of the reformed workplace and the changes in job descriptions teachers have encountered as a result of shared-decision making structures. The last section provides a summary of the review of literature.

Human Motivation and Teachers

Major items on the nation's school reform agenda included teacher motivation and commitment; therefore, reform-minded educators have urged managers to find the key to teacher motivation and to help teachers reach personal goals for self-actualization (Frymier, 1987). While motivation in general can be understood as that which energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior, theories of motivation in the workplace addressed three variables in the work situation: the characteristics of the individual, the job tasks, and concern for the larger organizational environment (Steers & Porter, 1975).

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988), factors that contribute to teacher motivation and commitment are a supportive school climate, the presence of shared decision making, and a school

culture that provided a sense of purpose. They concluded that school policies and administrative practices should result in job dissatisfaction, a lack of work motivation and teacher isolation. Steers and Porter also isolated specific factors affecting work performance, identifying three major characteristics that affected the motivational process: attitudes, interests, and needs. Attitudes toward self, job, and aspects of the work situation can play an important role in an individual's motivation to perform. Among these categories, the individual characteristic that has received the most attention in terms of motivation is the concept of needs (Steers & Porter, 1975). Thus, a review of Maslow and the concept of need as the basic unit of analysis will follow.

When viewing the motivational process, one should consider factors relating to the attributes of an individual's job such as the types of intrinsic rewards, degrees of autonomy, amounts of direct performance feedback, and degrees of variety in tasks related to an individual's desire to perform well on the job. Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory, a discussion of which will follow, addresses job satisfaction (Steers & Porter).

Particularly significant characteristics of the work environment that affected the motivational process included peer-group interactions, the leadership style of the supervisor, and

the organizational climate. Two theories of motivation that will be discussed, the equity theory and the expectancy/valence theory, addressed these characteristics of the work environment. The relationship between individuals was described in the equity theory while organizational environmental factors such as reward systems and climate along with how individuals themselves view their jobs and work environments were addressed in the expectancy/valence theory (Steers & Porter, 1975).

Need Theories

Maslow argued that needs were arranged in a hierarchy. According to Maslow, when a need was satisfied the next unsatisfied need emerged. The process continued until the highest level of the hierarchy was reached. Gratified needs were not active motivators of behavior (Maddi & Costa, 1972).

Maslow indicated that human motivation could be categorized into five basic level of needs: (a) physiological, (b) safety, (c) social, (d) esteem, and (e) self-actualization. The first level was comprised of the basic physiological needs that included the need for food, water, and air. The second level in priority order was the need for safety that included the need for security, stability, and the absence from pain, threat, or illness. The third level involved

social needs such as belonging and love. Self-esteem needs included needs for personal feelings of achievement, self-confidence, and independence. The need for recognition, appreciation, and respect from others comprised the fourth level of needs. The need for self-actualization or the realization of one's potential referred to one becoming everything that one was capable of becoming (Maddi & Costa, 1972).

When Maslow's need hierarchy was applied to work organizations, managers had the responsibility of creating a climate in which employees could develop to their fullest potential. This could include increasing the opportunities for greater autonomy, variety, and responsibility so employees could work toward higher-order need satisfaction (Steers & Porter, 1975). The need for autonomy that many educators or teachers expressed was based on the principle of self-government, self-control, and self-determination (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988).

Individuals invest themselves in work in order to obtain desired returns or rewards. These investments in work can be categorized as a participation investment and a performance investment. The participation investment for teachers involved all that is necessary for membership in the school. The performance investment exceeded this and provided teachers with rewards that

permitted greater satisfaction with their work and themselves. Maslow's higher order needs were defined as those whose fulfillment were exchanged for service teachers gave to the school as a result of the performance investment (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988).

The motivation-hygiene theory was another need theory of motivation proposed by Herzberg. Herzberg identified motivators that increased job satisfaction to be achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and work itself. Interestingly, only minimal dissatisfaction resulted in their absence. On the other hand, the gratification of hygiene factors which included salary, status, interpersonal relations, working conditions and job security led only to minimal job satisfaction and when absent contributed greatly to job dissatisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Sergiovanni and Starratt indicated, however, that this theory provided simplified answers to complex questions and caution should be exercised in its application.

Process Theories

Process theories rejected the assumption that human behavior was a response to instincts or needs. These theories suggested that a greater understanding of motivation could be obtained by

identifying the psychological/behavioral process individuals go through as they strive to achieve goals (Hanson, 1991).

Process theories are cognitive theories that assumed:

1. People exert effort toward obtaining goal-related rewards as long as they hold an expectancy that rewards can be achieved.
 2. People were autonomous beings who independently seek out solutions for achieving goals through the most effective alternate routes available.
 3. Effort is sustained while goal-directed actions were proving to be successful.
 4. Effort is terminated when the goal is achieved or there is a realization that it will not be achieved.
- (Hanson, p. 234)

The equity theory was one of the most highly regarded theoretical explanations of satisfaction (Lawler, 1973). This theory stressed the importance of a person's perception of outcomes. The degree of equity was defined in terms of a ratio of an individual's inputs to outcomes. In other words, individuals had expectations about the outcomes that should have resulted from their participation. When the person's perception of what the outcome level was and the perception of what the outcome level should be were in agreement, the person was satisfied. Dissatisfaction occurred when the perceived level fell below the expected outcome (Lawler, 1973). A healthy participation in group activities was maintained if a satisfying ratio existed (Hanson).

The equity theory differed from other models of motivation that influence behavior in that this theory concentrated on an understanding of the processes by which behavior was sustained. This theory also differed from content theories in that a major share of motivated behavior was based on the perceived situation and not on the actual set of circumstances (Steers & Porter, 1975).

"If the worker perceives his or her ratio of outcomes to inputs is not equal to his or her comparison group, the worker will strive to restore the ratio of equity" (Hanson, 1991, p. 234). This striving to restore equity was the explanation given for work motivation.

Vroom's expectancy theory emerged in the 1960s and contained two fundamental premises explaining motivation in organizations. Individuals made decisions about their own behavior in organizations, and motivation was a conscious process governed by laws. The second assumption was that forces in the environment and the individual combine to determine behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Vroom's model was also referred to as a contingency model in that he viewed motivation as an individual's response to a specific goal that that person wished to obtain. No one set of motivational factors was defined due to the variation of personal goals for individuals (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988).

The concepts in this model which served as the key building blocks for this theory were valence, expectancy, and instrumentality (Vroom, 1964). Valence can be defined as the desire to obtain a particular reward in the work organization, each outcome carrying a value or worth. Autonomy, recognition, feelings of competence, and accomplishment represented valued work outcomes for educators and produced high levels of satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). "An expectancy was defined as momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act would be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, p. 17). Expectancy referred to the linkage of effort to performance or the strength of the teacher's belief that he or she could perform an organization's tasks in a manner that would receive positive recognition (Hanson, 1991). Finally, instrumentality referred to the perceived probability that a reward would be forthcoming after a given level of performance. "Instrumentality was an outcome-outcome association" (Vroom, p. 18). The model acknowledged that not everyone valued the same rewards equally.

The expectancy/valence theory also encompassed job-related factors that could affect future expectancies and indicated that job attributes served as sources of intrinsically valued rewards. This theory also focused explicitly on several work environment

influences on performance, particularly those that related to reward structures (Steers & Porter, 1975).

Each of the theories has made a contribution to the study of work motivation. The level of understanding and knowledge of the motivational process has progressed in the past two decades. This has guided educators away from the scientific management movement through the human relations era toward an understanding and implementation of human resources supervision (Steers & Porter).

In their complex society, employees expect their jobs to provide not only extrinsic but also intrinsic rewards (Steers & Porter). Extrinsic rewards come in the form of incentives provided by the organization and other people such as money, recognition, and promotion, while intrinsic incentives included a worker's feelings of accomplishment, achievement, and self-actualization. Educators receive both types of rewards but find intrinsic more meaningful (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

The application of these theories is significant in the reform movement in today's schools. "Combined with a school climate that is supportive, collegial values and shared decision making, and a strong school culture, the theories of motivation contribute to a

heightened sense of teacher efficacy and enhanced teacher motivation and commitment" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988, p. 157).

Restructuring in Education

The bureaucratic organizational structures that have defined schools over the past 100 years are giving way to more decentralized and professionally controlled systems. The governance and structure of schools were like government and industry, top down, with little input from the clients of the system (Marlburger, 1985). The restructuring strategies are designed to empower school personnel and counteract the consequences of the traditional bureaucratic structures. Embedded in many of the approaches to restructuring is the concept of site-based management (Prasch, 1990).

Newmann (1993) indicated that restructuring proposals and programs have been differentiated according to the emphasis given to four arenas of schooling: (a) student experiences, (b) professional life of teachers, (c) school governance, and (d) coordination of community resources. Schlechty (1990) has indicated that educators must embrace the proposal of the fundamental restructuring of schools for public education to retain its vitality. The claims of teachers for increased decision-making

authority and the recommendations of educational reformers for greater autonomy at the building level should have been respected.

Education restructuring entailed changes in one or more of the following: governance structures, work roles and organizational environments, the teaching/learning process, and connections between the school and its larger environment (Murphy, 1992). Restructuring also involved changes in the relationships among all participants. Cawelti (1993) further stated that restructuring of schools involves changes in the approach to decision making, organizing instruction, allocating authority for tasks ranging from personnel selection to program development and student assessment as well as provisions for collaborative planning and the assessment of outcomes.

The reform strategies of the 1980s included plans for expanding professional discretion at the school level. These efforts were designed to empower school personnel and counteract the consequences of the traditional bureaucratic structures. Site-based management was consistent with other popular themes such as teacher empowerment and shared decision making (Prasch, 1990). Site-based decision making, participatory decision making, collegial management, the team approach to school management, and other descriptors have been applied to the concept of increased

collaboration among the school actors (West Virginia Education Association--Appalachia Educational Laboratory, 1989).

Implementation of this collaborative process entails restructuring the school's decision-making structure to allow input from all affected constituencies (Marlburger, 1985).

The rationale for shifting decision-making authority to the school site was based on two assumptions. The first assumption was that members of the school have expertise and initiative to improve the instructional program and the school climate. The second assumption was that lasting school reform required the active involvement of all stakeholders in the educational process (Mutchler, 1989). Prash (1990) maintained, though, that site-based management builds upon the forms of situational management and leadership in that what works best in one place may not work elsewhere.

Site-Based Management

Site-based management refers to a program or philosophy adopted by schools or school districts to improve education by increasing the autonomy of the school staff (White, 1989). The two concepts, structural decentralization and devolution of authority, characterized much of the literature on site-based decision making

(Murphy, 1991). Structural decentralization involved the dismantling of larger organizational units into smaller ones. Authority and influence are to pass from higher to lower levels of the organization (Murphy, 1992). The devolution of authority placed authority and control of decisions at the school site. David (1989) stated that "although school-based management takes many forms, the essence is school-level autonomy plus participatory decision making" (p. 50). Two fundamental beliefs of school-based management reported by Lawson (1989) were:

1. Those most closely affected by decisions should play a significant role in making those decisions because educators and parents know best how to tailor programs to the needs of their students.
2. Educational change will be most effective and long-lasting when carried out by people who feel a sense of ownership and responsibility for the process. (p. 7)

Shared decision making is a component of school-based management that is often referred to as participatory decision making. This is a collaborative approach in which the subordinates work with the superordinate as equals to analyze and share problems, evaluate and generate alternatives, and attempt to reach consensus on decisions (Mutchler, 1989). Reorganizing responsibilities and making changes in the structure of authority

also create new relationships among teachers, administrators, parents, and students (White, 1989).

Individuals must believe there is potential for real influence in their participation if it is to be successful. Outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment, and productivity do not necessarily result from allowing organizational participants to become members of decision-making groups (Mutchler, 1989).

Site-based management challenges centralization with the belief that schools would become more effective if principals and teachers gained more responsibility (Hill, Bonan, & Warner, 1992).

School districts determine two questions regarding authority: how authority is to be distributed among the participants and what specific authority is to be distributed. A district seeking full implementation would decentralize authority to the greatest possible extent (Mutchler, 1989).

According to White (1989), when decentralization strategies such as teacher empowerment and site-based decision making were employed, participants at the school site gained considerable discretion over three areas of the educational operation: budget, personnel, and curriculum. David (1989) also reported that analysts of school-based management described autonomy as decision making authority in three critical areas: budget, staffing, and curriculum.

Russell, Cooper, and Greenblatt (1992) reported assessing eight dimensions of teacher involvement in the decision-making process. Along with budgeting, curriculum, and staffing, other areas of decision-making have been shared at the school site: staff development, goal setting, procedure facilitation, school operations, and standard setting for teacher and student performance.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1988) conducted a comprehensive study of more than 40,000 teachers in 50 states about the degree of teacher involvement in shaping school and classroom policy. The survey was conducted in 1987 and completed by 21,698 teachers with a 54.3% return rate. The 10 dimensions cited for shared decision making were: setting standards for student behavior, student tracking, selection of textbooks and instructional materials, school budgets, teacher evaluation, curriculum, principal and teacher selection, and setting promotion and retention policies. The report indicated that involvement in decision-making varied from state to state. However, the survey found that 79% of all teachers were involved in the selection of textbooks and instructional materials while only 20% were involved in deciding school budgets. Sixty-three percent of teachers were involved in shaping the curriculum while only 7% of all teachers were involved in selecting new teachers and

administrators (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1988).

States involved in school-based decision making included New York, California, Illinois, Florida, and Minnesota (White, 1989). The type of decisions delegated to the school level varied across models. However, Valesky, Forsythe, and Hall (1992) also reported the decisions most often made using school-based decision making were concerned with curriculum, personnel, and budget.

School-based budgeting can be defined as the delegation of budgetary authority (Clune & White, 1988). In school-based management, schools received either a lump-sum budget or some portion of the budget. Murphy (1991) indicated that control over the budget was at the heart of efforts to decentralize authority. David (1989) supported this by indicating that money usually equals authority; budgetary authority represented the most critical manifestation of granting authority to schools.

Participation in budget decisions varies depending upon the amount or degree of restrictions placed on the school site by the central office or school board. Most centralized districts allow principals control over expenditures for supplies and equipment only (Lindelov & Heynderickx, 1989). David (1989) further indicated that monies allocated to schools were based on pupil enrollment. The

greater the amount of funds allocated without restrictions in spending resulted in increased decentralization (Murphy, 1991).

Lindelow and Heynderickx (1989) reported that budgeting at the school site increased the efficiency of resource allocation. The budget process in a decentralized management system provides greater flexibility in meeting the needs of the total school program. In fact, White (1989) stated that proponents of site-based decision making argue that school personnel were better able to make decisions concerning the purchase of supplies and equipment for school use.

School-based curriculum development refers to the delegation of decisions pertaining to the curriculum at the school site (Clune & White, 1988). In school-based management, the school staff has the authority to develop the instructional program, to select instructional materials and textbooks, and to design in-service training programs (White, 1989). The goals and educational objectives set forth by each school district must be in compliance with local system's and state guidelines (Lindelow & Heynderickx, 1989).

Under school-based management, teachers are encouraged to develop curriculum or select materials. However, David (1989) indicated most teachers have neither the time nor the desire to

create or adapt curriculum beyond what they normally do within their classrooms. Many systems have committees of teachers to choose textbooks and design curriculum.

The implementation of school-based management led to an increase in the diversity of educational approaches in the school curriculum (Lindelow & Heynderickx, 1989). Teachers, principals, and parents gained more freedom to develop their own instructional program. The principal, teachers, and parents who know the uniqueness of their students and what their needs are should be able to make the best curriculum decisions (Marlburger, 1985).

The staff selection process in a decentralized system also permitted increased flexibility to meet the needs of the individual school program (Clune & White, 1988). The school council or school representatives were empowered to determine the staffing needs of that school site. Lindelow and Heynderickx (1989) reported that in most districts employing school-based management, principals ultimately decided who will work in their schools. The involvement of teachers, staff, and community in this decision varied from district to district. In a comprehensive model of local control, schools are free to select personnel or use the funds budgeted for teachers for other purposes (Murphy, 1991).

White (1989) commented that participation in curriculum, school budget, and staffing decisions give school personnel the opportunity to develop ideas about issues or subjects that need emphasis in teaching. Communication among the school staff and community is also indicated as a benefit. White added that increased discretion over decision making provided incentives for school staffs to be more efficient.

The Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools (1991) recommended the following criteria for use in identifying schools involved in restructuring the leadership, management, and governance of schools. "Does the school exercise control over budget, staffing, and curriculum? Is the school run by a council in which teachers and/or parents have control over budget, staffing, and curriculum?" (p. 6).

After 4 years of implementing site-based decision making, the seventh largest school district in New York state, Greece, has decentralized decisions concerning budget, personnel, and staff development. Bahrenfuss (1992) cited a number of issues educators from this school district recommended for consideration when employing site-based decision making. They include:

1. Time is an important element. With site-based management, more time is needed for training, for meetings, and for working together at the school site.

2. Staff members can be fearful and hesitant to make decisions. Because approximately 60% of the staff members had been in the district for more than 19 years, they found it hard to change.

3. Communication is essential. Schools need a very systematic way to make sure all are trained in the underlying beliefs and values of site-based management.

4. Staff development is a key in initial success. Staff members received training in organizational development issues like problem solving, group process, and conflict resolution, all areas necessary to make site-based management work. (p. 43)

David (1989) reported additional research on school-based decision making:

1. School faculties make different decisions about elements of staffing, schedules, and curriculum when they are given actual control over their budgets and relief from restrictions.

2. Teachers report increased job satisfaction and feelings of professionalism when the extra time and energy demanded by planning and decision making are balanced by real authority; conversely, marginal authority coupled with requirements for site councils, plans, and reports results in frustration.

3. School-based management affects the roles of district as well as school staff; to change their roles and relationships, teachers and administrators need extra time and a range of opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills.

4. The leadership, culture, and support of the district have a far greater impact on the success of school-based management than its operational details.

5. Implementing school-based management involves a lot of patience and takes a long time, from 5 to 10 years; it is premature to pass final judgment on districts in the early stages. (p. 9)

Prasch (1990) reported that the advantages versus the disadvantages should be weighed carefully. Presumed advantages included:

1. Better programs for students. Resources are more likely to match student needs when instructional decisions are made by those who work more directly with students.

2. Full use of human resources. SBM recognizes the expertise and competencies of those to whom instruction is entrusted.

3. Higher quality decisions. In an organization of highly trained individuals, joint decisions represent a pooling of expertise and ensure that issues are examined from a variety of viewpoints.

4. Increased staff loyalty and commitment. The opportunity to participate develops a sense of ownership. Plans are more vigorously implemented by those who help make the decision.

5. Development of staff leadership skills. Wider participation increases leadership opportunities for more individuals. Staff members build a broader understanding of the organization and have more opportunities to enlarge or change their roles.

6. Greater public confidence. By allowing parents, constituents, and students a larger voice, site-based management increases their understanding, responds more readily and accurately to their needs or demands, and increases their interest and support. (p. 4)

Prasch (1990) also cited the disadvantages of site-based decision making and reported that knowing these in advance was helpful in the installation. Some disadvantages of site-based management were:

1. More work. Decision sharing at the site is time consuming, and staff members can ill afford to become enmeshed in costly discussion of trivial matters or be handicapped by excessive meetings or committee work.

2. Uneven school performance. Schools that are already weak will not automatically flourish when given more autonomy.

3. Possible confusion about new roles and responsibilities. The development of new roles and relationships inevitably creates a messy period, loaded with risks of misunderstanding, and having potential for personal insecurity and eventual feuding among staff members.

4. Coordination difficulties. Autonomous sites may pursue their self-interest in disregard of the goals of the individual school and advocates of the higher, general good site-based management can establish power struggles among administrators, teachers, parents, and students. (p. 6)

Teachers' Roles and Responsibilities

Lieberman (1988) attributed the growing teacher shortage as the reason for this shift of focus and movement toward restructuring the roles of teachers. Political, economic, and social trends were cited as contributing factors to the teacher deficit. Low status, the absence of support, and the present lack of control over their work that lends itself to a bureaucratic model has continued to keep teachers in a subordinate position.

"Efforts to empower teachers are designed to improve schooling by professionalizing their work" (Murphy, 1992, p. 11). Strategies to implement this empowerment include providing

teachers with formal decision-making authority and redesigning their work (Murphy). According to Irwin (1990), the term "teacher empowerment" was new; however, the concept of local autonomy for teachers was not. Irwin indicated that teacher empowerment promised a more professional, autonomous role for teachers.

School-based management provided one avenue for teachers to have an opportunity to assume control over decisions in the workplace.

If teachers are to function as professionals, changes in the workplace must be more than cosmetic (Payzant, 1992). Teachers must be given the recognition and status given to other professionals. Maeroff (1988) indicated that the empowerment of teachers is synonymous with professionalism and meant that teachers were given status in the workplace, that they expand their knowledge and participate in decision making. The reform effort called for enhancing the professional status of teachers by providing them with more training, trust, autonomy, and collegial opportunities to perform their jobs (Hanson, 1991).

Payzant (1992) indicated that teachers' isolation in the traditionally structured school is one of the greatest barriers to professionalization while Goodlad (1984) reported that teachers spend much of their time in isolation and lack the opportunity or the incentive to integrate their behavior with other teachers. Finding

incentives for teachers to break out of the isolated classroom and to work with other colleagues is a goal of the policymakers in education (Payzant, 1992).

The possibilities for a restructured profession for teachers were cited by Lieberman (1988) and included:

1. Establish collegueship among teachers so they can share common problems.
2. Provide greater reward and recognition for teachers.
3. Provide and enlarge the reward structure to permit choice, renewal, and opportunities to grow and learn.
4. Establish a school structure that permits flexibility, responsibility, and autonomy.
5. Reshape teaching as an occupation to encourage young people to become teachers.
6. Build a professional culture in schools that will broaden the way they function and enable them to become more sensitive to the communities. (p. 8)

Newmann (1993) reported that one of the criteria for restructuring schools is aimed at changing the roles and expectations that define teachers' work, including their work with students, colleagues, administrators, and parents and their experiences in professional development activities. When teachers become empowered, their responsibilities expand beyond the role of instruction in self-contained classrooms. The Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools (1991) prepared a list of restructuring criteria to be used to identify public schools with comprehensive restructuring programs. The criteria cited under the

professional life of the teacher include functioning in differentiated roles, such as mentoring of novices, directing curriculum development, and supervising peers. Teachers would also participate in on-the-job staff development and exercise control over curriculum and school policy.

Murphy (1992) depicted the new roles and responsibilities for teachers following restructuring into three categories: (a) expanded responsibilities, (b) new professional roles, and (c) new career opportunities. Expanded responsibilities entail approaching school management as a team, serving on teacher and principal selection committees, mentoring and supervising peers, and providing colleagues with opportunities for professional development. Thus, new career opportunities for teachers include becoming lead teachers, teacher-directors, and Career Ladder teachers.

Some traditional forms of participation by teachers include team teaching, peer assistance, and career ladders. Peer assistance increased teachers' responsibilities by actively involving them in the staff development process. Conley et al. (1988) listed some of the advantages of peer assistance. Peers have first-hand experiences of the actual demands in the classroom and possess subject expertise; also, peer assistance may lessen the teacher's

sense of isolation. Peer assistance may be undertaken by single mentors or by teachers organized into teams.

Peer assistance has been tried in schools in California, Ohio, Florida, New Jersey, and Missouri (Conley et al., 1988). However, teacher and principal failure to accept peer assistance may hamper its continued existence. Rosenholtz (1990) indicated teachers avoided requests for assistance from peers because this may disclose some professional inadequacies. Despite these potential drawbacks, peer assistance has increased teacher involvement in a managerial function and has encouraged teachers to take greater responsibility for collegial involvement (Conley et al.).

The career ladder program is another traditional form of participation for teachers and was known as the job ladder program in some states. Alabama, Arizona, Utah, North Carolina, and Tennessee use this approach (Conley et al.). Rosenholtz (1990) interpreted career ladder plans as a process that "intends to bring about a salutary effect on schools through functional assignments in which talented teachers take on additional school-system responsibilities in return for increased pay and status to help their colleagues improve" (p. 88).

Career ladder programs are designed and implemented in various structures in many states. Rosenholtz (1990) reported that

the career ladder provided salary increments plus additional contract days set aside for teachers to work on instructional improvement projects, clinical supervision, mentoring, and assisting probationary teachers with professional development. Teacher leaders, empowered by their expertise, share decision making responsibilities with building principals.

Career ladder programs have met some resistance from teachers and administrators. Conley et al. (1988) indicated when teachers at the top of the career ladder are accorded higher status, egalitarian norms may be violated. Consequently, teachers may be reluctant to accept the program. Elevating the status of teachers may be viewed by administrators as a threat to their authority.

Nonetheless, Rosenholtz (1990) reported several benefits of career ladder programs:

1. During the extended contract days, planned opportunities for teacher collaboration were organized, which resulted in increased faculty cohesiveness.
2. Probationary and experienced teachers began to request technical assistance on their own initiative from teacher leaders, who also reported benefiting a great deal from these interactions.
3. Teacher leaders provided in-service programs based on topics identified by individual school faculties.

4. Principals and faculties confronted and communicated with each other on professional issues; faculty meetings evolved into substantive decision-making arenas.

The organizational changes and structural changes in schools for shared decision making have shifted power to other stakeholders. Shared decision making strategies have been promoted as a means of improving decisions about teaching and learning. However, "as teachers and principals renegotiate the terms of their work, creating these new roles and structures will undoubtedly produce conflicts over turf, rewards, and responsibilities" (Lieberman, 1988, p. 6). Shared decision making also places heavy demands on teachers' and principals' time.

Participatory processes bring teachers into contact with each other in ways other than social. In shared decision making, they engage in conflict with other adults and must learn to negotiate differences and come to decisions (Weiss, Cambone, & Wyeth, 1992).

Rosen (1993) reported that the transition to shared power in Rochester, Dade County, Pittsburgh, and Lancaster was not particularly smooth. Teachers indicated they needed training in conflict resolution, leadership, and administrative matters that are now their responsibility. Districts must be prepared to offer

training in group processes not only for teachers but for parents and all others sitting on decision making committees (Rosen, 1993).

Teachers realized that shared decision making meant shared power, shared responsibility, and shared accountability. Lieberman (1988) found that a teacher in an expanded leadership role became involved in a comprehensive series of actions that included building trust and rapport, making an organizational diagnosis, building skill and confidence in others, using resources, and dealing with the change process.

These strategies are used by teacher leaders to build structures for collaborative work with their peers. Smith (1987) reported that teachers in a collaborative school monitor one another's performance, set limits on others' behavior, and take responsibility for helping their colleagues. Rosen (1993) indicated that "in collaborative environments, power is ultimately shared by those who have the energy, perseverance, and curiosity to meet the challenge of improving their schools" (p. 39).

Summary

Chapter 2 consisted of a review of literature pertinent to educational decision making. It was divided into four sections: (a) Human Motivation and Teachers, (b) Restructuring in Education, (c)

Site-based Management, and (d) Teachers' Roles and Responsibilities. A summary of this literature is provided below.

In order to address the need to improve the quality of education successfully in the United States, researchers indicated that school systems need to focus on teachers and the troublesome problems of motivation and commitment. This time, however, policy makers and administrators must recognize their responsibility to nurture the commitment that this nation expects from its teachers. Therefore, those who call for more motivated, enthusiastic teachers should first consider that which motivates any other worker: a supportive atmosphere, opportunities to share in the decision-making process, and a sense of purpose.

Theories of motivation, both need and process theories, suggest that individuals both need and value intrinsic rewards for the work that they do. Teachers express a desire for self-determination, a "higher order" need according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to Vroom's (1964) expectancy/valence theory, people desire certain rewards for which they will strive if they believe that their input will result in the desired outcome. So, educators, who typically perceive autonomy, recognition, and feelings of competence and accomplishment as rewards, will work toward those goals if they perceive them as

attainable. As a result of examining teachers from this more human and holistic perspective, policy makers have begun to restructure school systems in order to stimulate motivation and commitment on the part of teachers and in the hopes of creating a more effective education system.

To empower school personnel, policy makers in a number of states instituted restructuring strategies, most of which include some form of site-based management, requiring structural decentralization and the devolution of authority. In other words, schools become more autonomous, and those most affected by decisions were involved in making the decisions. Thus, not only teachers and principals but also parents collaborate in order to define goals and solve problems in primarily three areas: budgeting, curriculum, and staffing. In New York state, educators reported that successful implementation of site-based management requires a great deal of time on the part of both teachers and administrators and that staffs sometimes fear newly defined roles. Thus, clear communication and staff development are considered key to successful restructuring.

Central, also, to the restructuring effort is the need to redefine the roles and responsibilities of teachers so that teachers are provided with more training, trust, autonomy, and collegial

opportunities. In this way, the professional status of teachers is greatly enhanced, and they are provided with opportunities to break out of the isolation of the classroom. As teachers become empowered, they take on more responsibility and more work mentoring novices, directing curriculum development, and supervising peers. These changes are not all smooth; nevertheless, teachers realize that shared decision making means shared power.

CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology and Instruments

Introduction

Described in this section are the research procedures used in this study. The procedures included the selection of the sample, the development and refinement of the instrument, the pilot study, gathering of data, and the plan for analyzing the data.

Selection of the Sample

The population for this study consisted of the teachers from the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District of the State of Tennessee during the 1993-94 school year. For the purposes of this study, an elementary school was defined as any single school listed in the sampling frame as having a composition of any series of grades beginning below grade 6.

The sampling frame used in selecting the sample was the 1993-94 Directory of Tennessee Public Schools. The sampling frame provided a school number, address, telephone number, number of teachers, and principal's name along with other information for all schools. One hundred twenty-five schools were identified within the designated developmental area as meeting the definition of

elementary school. In an effort to maximize the power of the study all 125 schools were included in this study.

Using the formula below, the size of the sample was determined: where n = sample size; p = the extent (in percentage) to which the researcher believed that the attitude exists in the target population that will favor additional involvement into decision making; q = the extent (in percentage) to which the researcher believed that the attitude exists in the target population that will not favor additional involvement into decision making; D = equals the band of confidence (in percentage) the researcher has in p ; $\frac{D}{p} = D$ divided by the t value for the level of confidence selected for the study. A sample size (n) of 323 teachers was determined an adequate sample size under the following conditions. The level of significance is .05. The expected support for increased involvement in the target population is estimated to be 70% with a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$ (Garrett, 1926, p. 239).

$$n = \frac{pq}{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)^2} = \frac{(.70)(.30)}{(.05/1.96)^2} = 322.73 = 323$$

This sample size was adjusted to account for ineligibles and non response using the following formula: where n = the adjusted sample size, n = the calculated sample size; e = the proportion of

eligibles expected to be on the sampling list; and r = the proportion of respondents expected (Henry, 1990, pp. 124-125). Because of the nature of the sampling frame, an accuracy of 100% could be obtained in selecting eligible respondents. An estimate of 60% return was expected even with an attempt to conduct in-person administration of the questionnaire.

$$n = \frac{n}{(e)(r)} = \frac{323}{(1)(.60)} = 538$$

After adjusting the original sample for the expected 100% eligibility factor and the 60% estimated return factor, an initial sample size of 538 was determined in order to provide for the previously determined adequate sample size.

In order to prevent bias as a result of school size, 20% of the teachers in each school were sampled. A systematic sampling technique was used to select 20% of the teachers from each school roster. Thus the 20% teacher sample would be adequate to obtain the needed sample size and assure equal representational opportunity for each school.

Questionnaire

After a review of related literature, consultation with the committee chairman, and discussions with the researchers

conducting parallel studies, it was determined that a survey would be the most appropriate means of gathering data. The survey contained a demographic section and a questionnaire.

The first section was designed to provide demographic information about the individual completing the form. The personal demographic data sheet included six areas: age, gender, teaching assignment, highest degree, Career Ladder status, and years of experience. Information received from the personal data sheet did not relate to the testing of the hypotheses.

The second section of the survey contained a questionnaire that consisted of two Likert scales for each phrase. The first Likert scale measured the respondent's perception of the actual level of involvement, while the second scale measured the respondent's perception of the ideal level of involvement. Both Likert scales ranged from 1 to 5 representing total involvement to no involvement. Statements in the questionnaire contained three subscales representing principals', teachers', and parents' level of involvement in school decision making in the areas of budget, personnel, and curriculum. The survey was developed with the cooperation of the researchers conducting parallel studies. It was designed to accurately measure the perceptions of the three areas when the respondent was either a principal, parent, or teacher.

A pilot study was initiated in the Bristol Tennessee School System in order to field test the questionnaire. The survey used in the pilot study was designed to measure to what extent specific groups participated in decision making at the school level. The original instrument was designed in such a manner as to attempt to accommodate surveying a variety of groups simultaneously. The groups surveyed included K-12 teachers, parents, and principals. Using a systematic random sampling technique, teachers were selected from all six elementary schools, the junior high, and the high school. All principals in the Bristol Tennessee School System were surveyed. The parents surveyed were members of the executive boards of the Parent Teacher Associations as well as individuals randomly selected from all schools. All participants indicated the grade level they represented or in which they had children in order to give the researchers an indication of the grade levels surveyed.

A cover letter was provided explaining the purpose of the survey along with directions for completing the instrument. The format consisted of two Likert scales for each category placed under teacher, parent, and principal headings. The first Likert scale asked the participant to respond to how each representative of that category was involved in decision-making. The second Likert scale

requested the participant to indicate how the representative of that category should be involved in decision-making. The scale ranged from 1 to 5 with 1 representing no input, 2 representing little input, 3 representing some input, 4 representing major input, and 5 representing total input.

An additional space provided an opportunity for participants to indicate specific examples of how they believed they should be involved in the described decision. A comment section was also provided to address any areas not included in the survey.

The categories included in the survey were school budget, personnel selection, curriculum determination, selection of instructional materials, capital outlay, formation of system-wide policies, and establishment of the school calendar. Additional areas included involvement in the development of system-wide policies, school goals and objectives, grading and reporting procedures, personnel evaluation, and pupil services.

A careful review of the feedback gained through the pilot survey revealed the following in regard to the instrument:

1. The instrument was organized in a complex format that created confusion for those being surveyed.
2. The information obtained from the survey did not lend

itself to sophisticated methods of statistical analysis for research purposes.

3. The content of the categories was ambiguous, creating uncertainty by the respondents.

4. The respondents indicated limited knowledge of the areas being surveyed.

5. The title "Shared Decision Making Survey" provided the respondents information pertaining to the survey that could have biased the responses.

6. Likert scales were too narrow and additional clarity was needed for each numerical choice on the scales.

Feedback from the pilot study strongly indicated that the survey questions were too difficult and created confusion among many attempting to complete it. A more concise format was then developed that kept all of the original subscales. This format consisted of 60 items, each of which was followed by two Likert scales. The Likert scales were also changed to represent percentages of involvement. This allowed parents, teachers, and principals to respond in a more uniform, simpler context. The instrument was once again reviewed by individuals representing the Bristol Tennessee PTA Council. The revisions were seen as favorable. A series of letters was developed stating the purpose of

the study, requesting cooperation of the principal of the selected schools, and outlining procedures that would be followed.

Data Collection

The principal of each school was contacted by telephone to solicit support for the study. The questionnaire was printed and taken to each school by one of three researchers involved in the parallel studies. Each researcher discussed with the principal the procedures and directions for completing the questionnaires. The respondents from the teacher and parent population were randomly selected. All three researchers recognized the importance of the principal's role in the gathering of the data. The principal's support was critical not only for his/her participation, but was also necessary in gathering teachers' and parents' names for the parallel studies. Therefore, any direction the principal suggested in gathering survey information was taken if it did not compromise the integrity of the study.

Data Analysis

The hypotheses were stated in research format in Chapter 1. All hypotheses were tested in the null format. All data collected were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis.

Hypotheses 1 through 3 dealt with teachers' perceptions regarding levels of involvement in the budgetary process. Hypothesis 1 dealt specifically with teachers' perceptions of their own level of involvement in budgetary decision making. This hypothesis was measured with items 4, 28, 51, 54, 58, and 59 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 2 dealt with teachers' perceptions of parents' level of involvement in budgetary decision making and was measured by items 8, 17, 25, 38, 52, and 55 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 3 dealt with teachers' perceptions of principals' involvement in budgetary decision making and was measured by items 9, 16, 33, 39, 44, and 48 in the questionnaire.

Hypotheses 4 through 6 dealt with teachers' perceptions regarding levels of involvement in staffing. Hypothesis 4 dealt specifically with the teachers' perceptions of their own level of involvement in decision making regarding staffing and was measured by items 12, 15, 24, 29, 34, 37, and 57 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 5 dealt with teachers' perceptions of parents' level of involvement in decision making regarding staffing and was measured by items 3, 5, 10, 14, 27, 32, and 36 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 6 dealt with teachers' perceptions of principals' involvement in decision making regarding staffing and

was measured by items 1, 18, 22, 26, 41, 50, and 60 in the questionnaire.

Hypotheses 7 through 9 dealt with teachers' perceptions regarding levels of involvement in school curricula. Hypothesis 7 dealt specifically with the teachers' perceptions of their own level of involvement in decision making regarding curricula and was measured by items 2, 7, 11, 19, 40, 45, and 47 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 8 dealt with teachers' perceptions of parents' level of involvement in decision making regarding the curricula and was measured by items 20, 21, 23, 30, 42, 46, and 49 in the questionnaire. Hypothesis 9 dealt with teachers' perceptions of principals' level of involvement in decision making regarding curricula and was measured by phrases 6, 13, 31, 35, 43, 53, and 56 in the questionnaire.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to test hypotheses 1 through 9. The alpha level for each hypothesis was set at .05. The rationale for selecting this particular test was that the data gained from the survey instrument were at ordinal level, the same individuals were assessed using two scales, and the two assessments were dependent. The SPSS statistical analysis program was used to analyze the data.

Instrument Reliability

The initial test used to analyze the returned surveys was a test of instrument reliability. The questionnaire was subjected to a test of internal consistency using the statistical analysis test that produces the reliability coefficient Cronbach's Alpha. Question groups that formed the basis for 18 separate constructs were subjected to the internal consistency testing in order to improve the reliability measure of each construct.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their actual involvement in budgetary decisions (H_1) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 4, 28, 51, 54, 58, and 59. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .6680. Deleting question 28 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .7093.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their ideal level of involvement in budgetary decisions (H_1) used responses under "should occur" on survey items 4, 28, 51, 54, 58, and 59. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .6814. Deleting question 28 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .6978.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' actual level of involvement in budgetary

decisions (H_2) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 8, 17, 25, 38, 52, and 55. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7294 which was as high as could be obtained.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' ideal level of involvement in budgetary decisions (H_2) utilized responses under "should occur" on survey items 8, 17, 25, 38, 52, and 55. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7992. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' actual level of involvement in the budgetary process (H_3) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 9, 16, 33, 39, 44, and 48. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7254. Deleting question 44 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .7394.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' ideal level of involvement in the budgetary process (H_3) used responses under "should occur" on survey items 9, 16, 33, 39, 44, and 48. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .8111. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their actual level of involvement in personnel decisions (H_4) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 12, 15, 24, 29, 34, 37, and 57. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7004. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their ideal level of involvement in personnel decisions (H_4) utilized responses under "should occur" on survey items 12, 15, 24, 29, 34, 37, and 57. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7090. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' actual involvement in personnel decisions (H_5) used responses under "presently occur" on survey items 3, 5, 10, 14, 27, 32, and 36. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .6854. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' ideal level of involvement in personnel decisions (H_5) utilized responses under "should occur" on survey items 3, 5, 10, 14, 27, 32, and 36. Analysis revealed a Cronbach

Alpha coefficient of .7714. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' actual level of involvement in personnel decisions (H_6) used responses under "presently occur" on survey items 1, 18, 22, 26, 41, 50, and 60. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7606. Deleting question 50 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum of .7836.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' ideal level of involvement in personnel decisions (H_6) used responses under "should occur" on survey items 1, 18, 22, 26, 41, 50, and 60. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7408. Deleting question 50 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum of .7799.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their actual level of involvement in curricula decisions (H_7) used responses under "presently occur" on survey items 2, 7, 11, 19, 40, 45, and 47. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .6212. Deleting question 11 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum of .6499.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of their ideal level of involvement in curricula decisions

(H₇) used responses under "should occur" on survey items 2, 7, 11, 19, 40, 45, and 47. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7003. Deleting question 11 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .7326.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' actual involvement in curricula decisions (H₈) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 20, 21, 23, 30, 42, 46, and 49. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7470. Deleting question 42 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .7572.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of parents' ideal level of involvement in curricula decisions (H₈) used responses under "should occur" on survey items 20, 21, 23, 30, 42, 46, and 49. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .8333. Deleting question 42 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum potential of .8343.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' actual level of involvement in curricula decisions (H₉) used responses under "presently occurs" on survey items 6, 13, 31, 35, 43, 53, and 56. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7030. Deleting question 56 from the survey resulted in an increase in the coefficient to a maximum of .7399.

The assessment of the construct relating to teachers' perception of principals' ideal level of involvement in curricula decisions (H_9) utilized responses under "should occur" on survey items 6, 13, 31, 35, 43, 53, and 56. Analysis revealed a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .7595. The deletion of any of the questions in this construct would not increase the coefficient.

Summary

This chapter included the methods and procedures used in this descriptive study. The instrument designed by the researchers was validated through a pilot study. The statistical procedure, Cronbach's Alpha, was used to increase the reliability of the instrument. The statistical test used was the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test.

CHAPTER 4

Presentation of Data and Analysis of Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences between elementary teachers' perceptions of the amount of involvement teachers, parents and principals have in school decision making and the amount of involvement that should exist. Data were gathered from the 125 elementary schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District by means of a survey. The survey contained two sections. The first section requested responses to seven demographic questions about the teacher. The second section requested responses to 60 items, each with two Likert scales.

Surveys were delivered to each of the 125 elementary schools by one of the researchers. Surveys were distributed to 20% of the selected teachers. A total of 377 surveys was returned. This represented 72% of the sample population.

The data obtained from the survey were analyzed and interpreted in this chapter. The first section reports the demographic information. The second section presents the analysis of the tests conducted for each of the nine hypotheses. All

data were analyzed using the SPSS statistical program. Data were individually entered rather than using scan cards.

Demographic Data

Teachers responding to the survey completed seven demographic questions. The seven questions covered (a) current teaching position, (b) Career Ladder status, (c) age, (d) gender, (e) highest degree obtained, (f) years of experience, and (g) if any training had been received in site-based management. Data results are included in this section.

Current Teaching Position

Teachers reported their current teaching position in categories K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and other teaching assignment. Of those responding, K-2 teachers represented 37.2% ($n = 136$) of the return. Teachers in grades 3-5 represented 36.6% ($n = 134$) of the return. Teachers in grades 6-8 represented 7.9% ($n = 29$) of the return. Teachers in other teaching assignments represented 18.3% ($n = 67$) of the return. Data showing this distribution of teaching positions are shown in Figure 1.

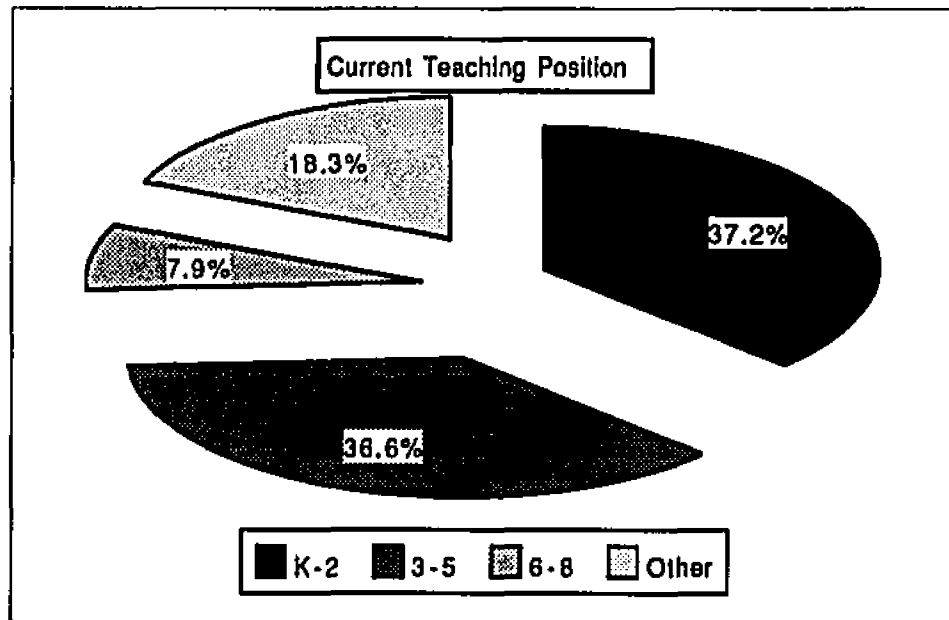


Figure 1. Current teaching position.

Career Ladder Status

Teachers indicated if they were on Career Level I, Career Level II, Career Level III, or if they did not participate in the Career Ladder Program. Of those responding, Career Level I teachers represented 73.9% ($n = 272$) of the return. Career Level II teachers represented 3.0% ($n = 11$) of the return. Career Level III teachers represented 11% ($n = 42$) of the return. Teachers not participating in the Career Ladder represented 11.7% ($n = 43$) of the return. There were 9 missing cases. Data showing this distribution of Career Ladder status are illustrated in Figure 2.

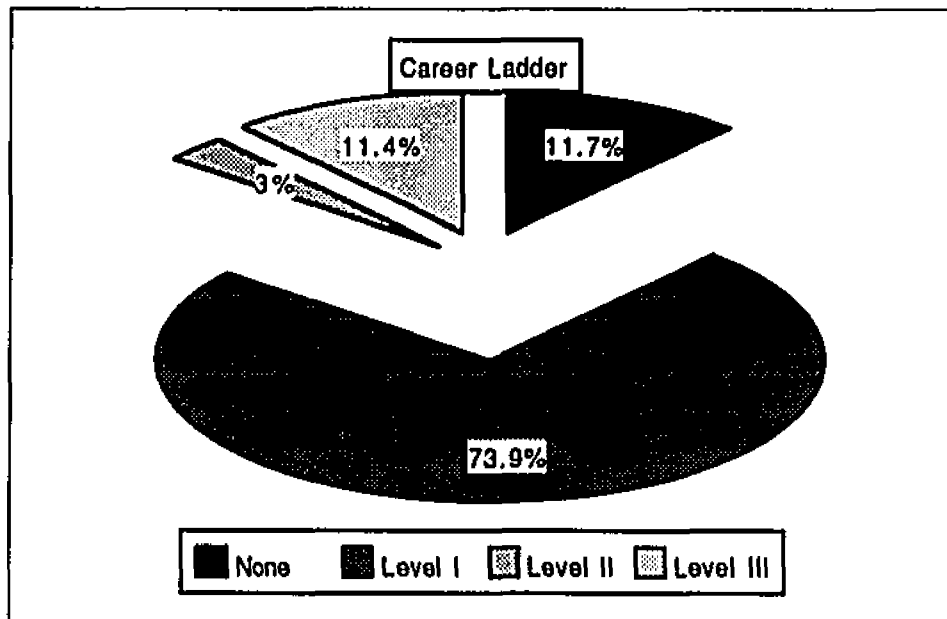


Figure 2. Career Ladder status.

Age

Respondents reported their age in one of the following categories: (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60 or older. The 20-29 age category represented 12.2 % ($n = 45$) of the return. The 30-39 age category represented 29.9% ($n = 110$) of the return. The 40-49 age category represented 43.5 % ($n = 160$) of the return. The 50-59 category represented 13.0% ($n = 48$) of the return. The 60 or older category represented 1.4% ($n = 5$) of the return. There were 9 missing cases. Age of respondents is illustrated in Figure 3.

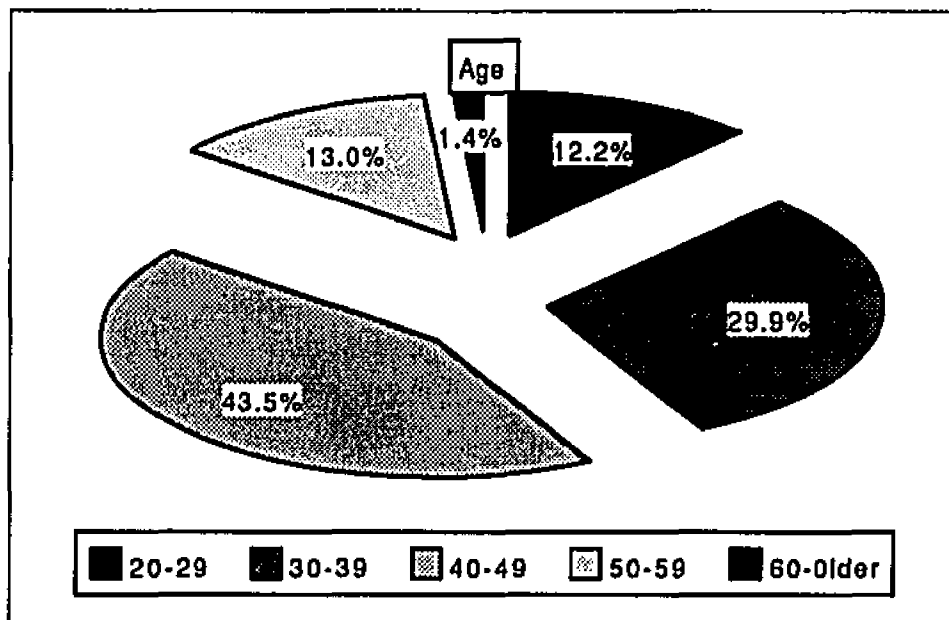


Figure 3. Age of the respondent.

Gender

The respondents reported their gender in two categories. Of those responding, there were 8.4% ($n = 31$) males and 91.6% ($n = 337$) females who responded. There were 8 missing cases. Gender of respondents is illustrated in Figure 4.

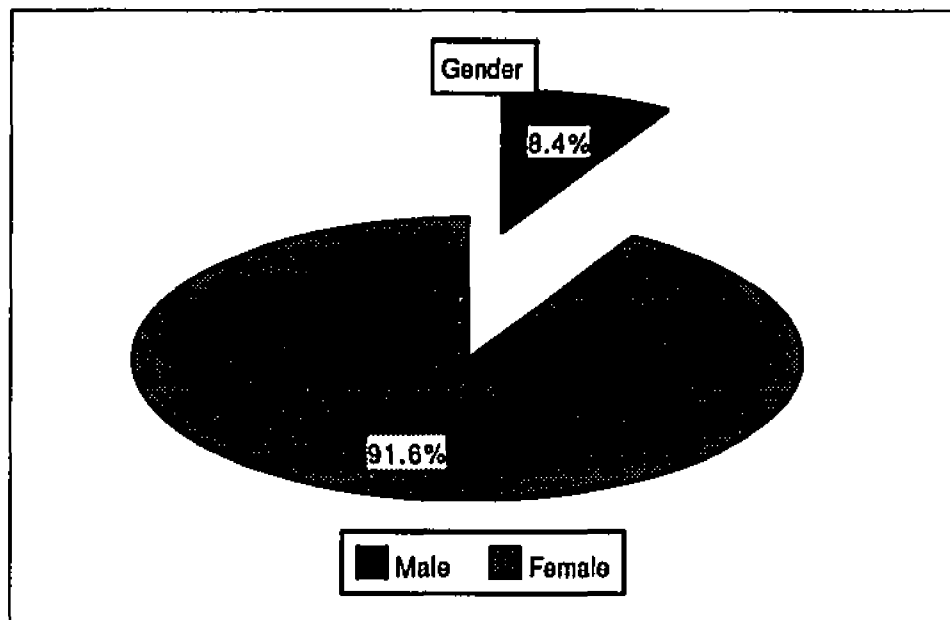


Figure 4. Gender of Respondent.

Highest Degree Obtained

Respondents reported the highest degree obtained as either a Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, Specialist Degree, or Doctorate Degree. Teachers with a Bachelor's Degree represented 51.5% ($n = 190$) of the return. Teachers with a Master's Degree represented 48.0% ($n = 177$) of the return. Teachers with a Specialist Degree represented .3% ($n = 1$) of the return. Teachers with a Doctorate Degree represented .3 % ($n = 1$) of the return. There were 8 missing cases. The highest degree obtained by respondents is illustrated by Figure 5.

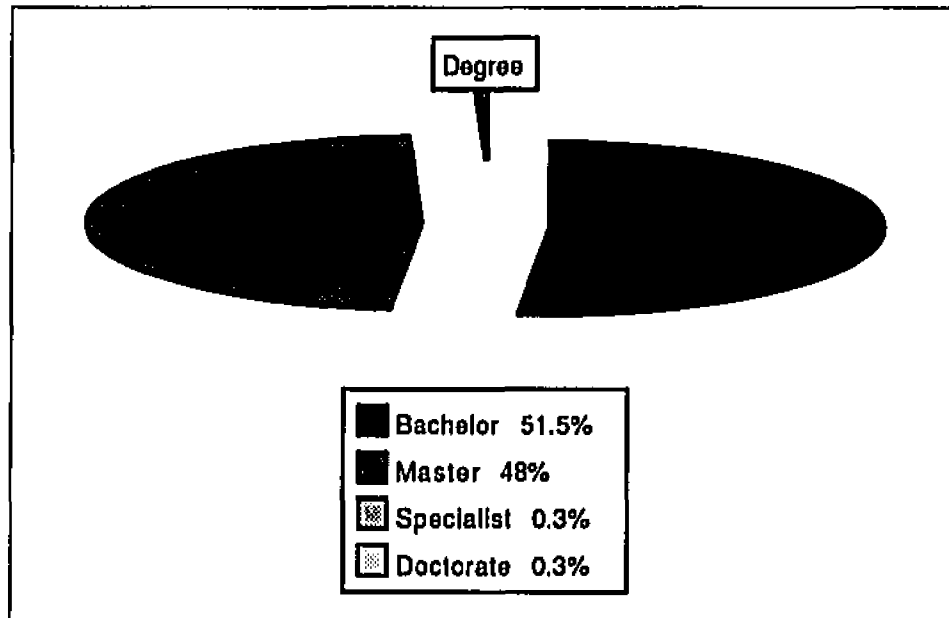


Figure 5. Highest Degree Obtained.

Years of Experience

Teachers reported years of experience in one of the following categories: (a) 0 to 5 years, (b) 6 to 10 years, (c) 11 to 16 years, (d) 17 to 21 years, (e) 22 to 26 years, (f) 27 to 30 years, and (g) over 30. The 0 to 5 years category represented 16.6 % ($n = 61$) of the return. The 6 to 10 years category represented 15.8 % ($n = 58$) of the return. The 11 to 16 years category represented 23.4 % ($n = 86$) of the return. The 17 to 21 years category represented 22.0% ($n = 81$) of the return. The 22 to 26 years category represented 16.0% ($n = 59$) of the return. The 27 to 30 years category represented 4.3 % ($n = 16$) of the return. The over 30 years category

represented 1.9 % ($n = 7$) of the return. There were 9 missing cases.

Figure 6 illustrates the years of experience.

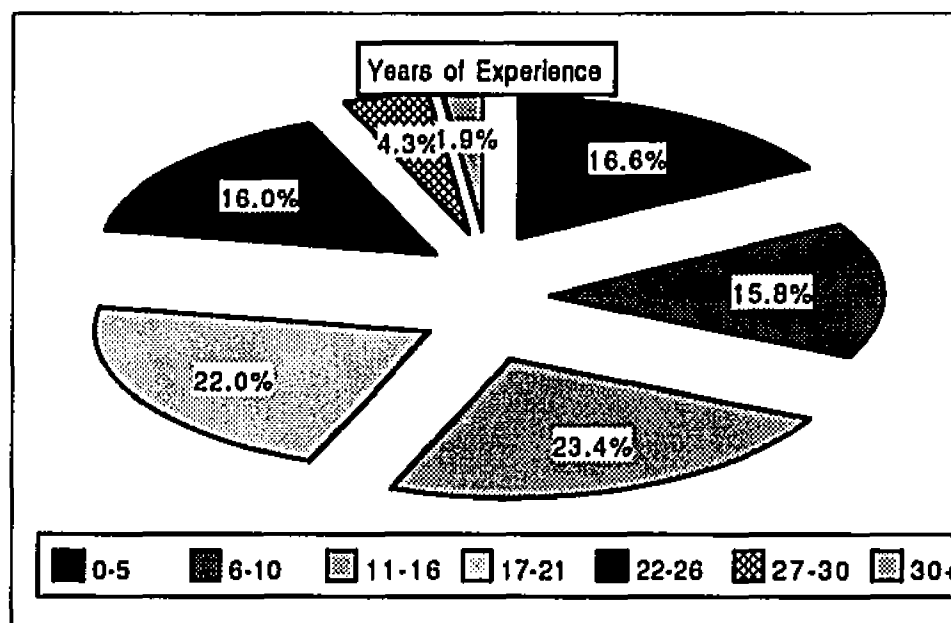


Figure 6. Years of experience.

Training in Site-Based Management

The final demographic question placed teachers into two categories, those having received site-based management training and those having received no training in site-based management. Of those responding, teachers having received site-based management training comprised 21.2 % ($n = 77$) of the return. Teachers having received no training in site-based management comprised 78.8 % ($n = 286$) of the return. There were 14 missing cases. Figure 7 illustrates the return regarding site-based management training.

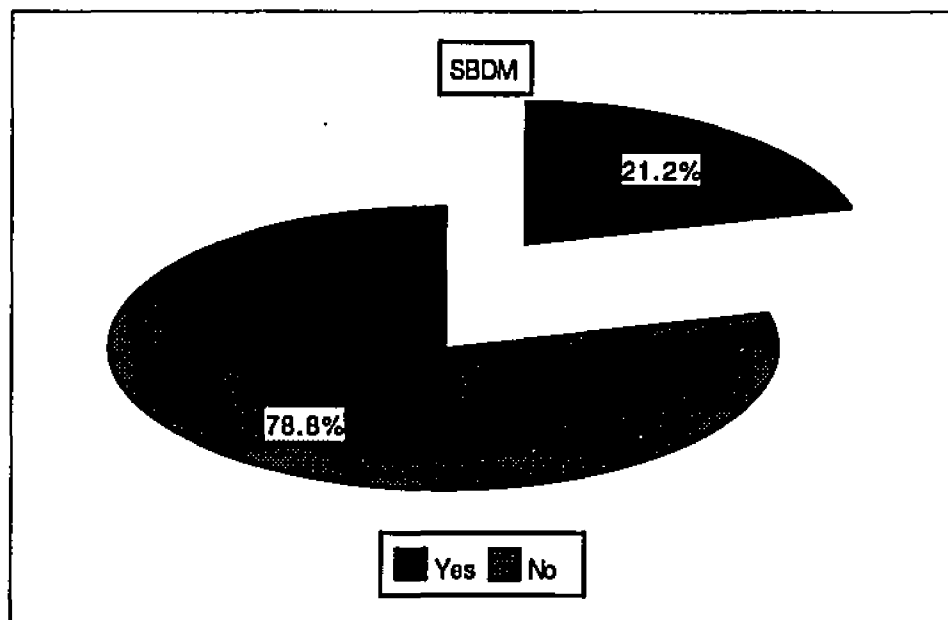


Figure 7. Training in site-based management.

Hypotheses Analyses

The hypotheses were stated in research form in Chapter 1; however, all hypotheses were tested in the null. The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze each hypothesis. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance using a two-tailed test.

Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
362	148.34	45.38	-14.5066	<.0005

Two hundred eighty-two positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 148.34. Eight negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 45.38. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Seventy-two ties were reported. There were 15 missing cases. The z -value was -14.5066 that was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated they should have more

involvement in budgetary decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated no significant difference exist between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in the budgetary process in elementary schools was rejected.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
351	169.88	102.99	-9.6215	<.0005

Two hundred twenty-two positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 169.88. Eighty-one negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 102.99. Forty-eight ties were reported. There were 26 missing cases. The z -value was -9.6215 which was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur."

Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated parents should have more involvement in budgetary process. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in the budgetary process in elementary schools was rejected.

Hypothesis 3

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of principals actual and ideal amounts of involvement in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
355	178.32	92.55	-14.3987	<.0005

Three hundred nine positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 178.32. Thirty-one negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 92.55. Fifteen ties were reported. There were 22 missing cases. The z-value was -14.3987 that was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated principals should have more involvement in the budgetary process. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of principals' actual and ideal amounts of involvement in the budgetary process in elementary schools was rejected.

Hypothesis 4

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers regarding personnel decisions in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Personnel Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
350	170.83	40.25	-15.7508	<.0005

Three hundred thirty positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 170.83. Six negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 40.25. Fourteen ties were reported. There were 27 missing cases. The z -value was -15.7508 that was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated

"should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated they should have more involvement in personnel decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers regarding personnel decisions in elementary schools was rejected.

Hypothesis 5

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents regarding personnel decisions in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 5.

Two hundred fifty-four positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 146.63. Twenty-seven negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 88.02. Sixty-nine ties were reported. There were 27 missing cases. The z value was -12.7871 which was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur."

Table 5

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Personnel Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
350	146.63	88.02	-12.7871	<.0005

Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated parents should have more involvement in personnel decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents regarding personnel decisions in elementary schools was rejected.

Hypothesis 6

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of principals' actual and ideal amounts of involvement regarding personnel decisions in elementary schools.

One hundred eighty-six positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 152.41. Ninety-four negative ranks were reported

with a mean rank of 116.94. Sixty-seven ties were reported. There were 30 missing cases. The z -value was -6.3990 that was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated principals should have more involvement in personnel decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of principals actual and ideal amounts of involvement regarding personnel decisions was rejected.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Personnel Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
347	152.41	116.94	-6.3990	<.0005

Hypothesis 7

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in curricular decisions in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Curricular Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
356	167.92	34.75	-15.3785	<.0005

Three hundred thirteen positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 167.92. Twelve negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 34.75. Thirty-one ties were reported. There were 21 missing cases. The z -value was -15.3785 which was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses

that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated they should have more involvement in curricular decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in curricular decisions was rejected.

Hypothesis 8

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in curricular decisions in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 8.

Two hundred and twenty-eight positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 150.90. Fifty negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 87.51. Eighty-one ties were reported. There were 18 missing cases. The z -value was -11.1913 which was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated

Table 8

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Curricular Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
359	150.90	87.51	-11.1913	<.0005

"presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated parents should have more involvement in curricular decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 9

There will be no significant difference between teachers' perceptions of principals' actual and ideal amounts of involvement in curricular decisions in elementary schools.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranked test was used to analyze the data. The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance are shown in Table 9

Three hundred forty-one positive ranks were reported with a mean rank of 178.89. Nine negative ranks were reported with a mean rank of 47.11. Four ties were reported. There were 23

Table 9

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Teachers' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Level of Involvement in Curricular Decisions in Elementary Schools

n	Mean ranks		z	p
	Positive	Negative		
354	178.89	47.11	-15.9896	<.0005

missing cases. The z value was -15.9896 which was significant at the .05 level. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur." Teachers indicated principals should have more involvement in curricular decisions.

Therefore, the null hypothesis that stated no significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of principals' actual and ideal amounts of involvement in curricular decisions in elementary schools was rejected.

Summary

The demographic information provided by those completing the survey provided information regarding current teaching position, Career Ladder status, age, gender, highest degree obtained, years of experience, and training in site-based management. The null form for each hypothesis was tested and rejected. A significant difference was found to exist between teachers' perceptions of the actual and ideal levels of involvement of principals, teachers, and parents in decision making in the areas of budget, curriculum, and personnel.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter consists of a summary of the research and the presentation of the findings. Conclusions and recommendations drawn from the analysis of the data and review of literature are also included in this chapter.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed in the perceptions of teachers regarding the actual and ideal amount of involvement that principals, parents, and teachers have in decision making. The study was conducted during 1993-94.

The questionnaire was jointly developed with two other researchers conducting parallel studies. Participants were asked to rate the level of involvement that they perceived principals, parents, and teachers had at the present time and also the level they believed should occur. Each scale contained five categories involving decision making: (a) no involvement, (b) little involvement, (c) some involvement, (d) much involvement, and (e) total involvement. The participants indicated their current teaching

assignment, age, gender, Career Ladder status, years of experience, highest degree obtained, and training in site-based management.

A pilot study was conducted with the questionnaire. The questionnaire was field tested with 80 randomly selected teachers in grades K-12 in the Bristol Tennessee School System. The data received from conducting the pilot test provided valuable feedback. Improvements were made in the instrument's clarity and content.

The total teacher population identified was 2,616 in 125 schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District. The sampling included 523 teachers from the target population. In order to prevent bias as a result of school size, 20% of teachers in each school were randomly selected to participate in the study.

Data were collected for a 4 week period. A 72% return was received. The data were statistically analyzed by the researcher using the SPSS Statistical Package. The statistical test used to analyze the data was the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test.

Teachers indicated there was a significant difference between the actual amount of involvement they perceived principals, parents and teachers had into decision making in the school setting and the amount they desired. Teachers indicated all three groups should have more involvement in decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum matters. The results are reported in Table 10.

Table 10

Composite n Scores, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and p-Value of Teachers' Perceptions of Involvement Levels by Area

Area	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Budget					
Teachers	362	148.34	45.38	-14.5066	<.0005
Parents	351	169.88	102.99	-9.6215	<.0005
Principals	355	178.32	178.32	-14.3987	<.0005
Personnel					
Teachers	350	170.83	40.25	-15.7508	<.0005
Parents	350	146.63	88.02	-12.7871	<.0005
Principal	347	152.41	116.94	-6.3990	<.0005
Curriculum					
Teachers	356	167.92	34.75	-15.3785	<.0005
Parents	359	150.90	87.51	-11.1913	<.0005
Principals	354	178.89	47.11	-15.9896	<.0005

Findings

The nine null hypotheses were tested for significance at the .05 level. All of the null hypotheses were rejected. Findings were summarized under each identified area. The findings were as follows.

Budget

Teachers indicated they should have more involvement into matters concerning allocation of funds for materials, equipment, furniture and all expenditures in the school program. Teachers also perceived that principals and parents should have greater involvement in this area of decision making. Teachers indicated that for each of the three groups the difference in the actual and ideal levels of involvement in budget was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Personnel

Teachers wanted more authority to make decisions regarding the selection and evaluation of principals, support personnel, and other teachers in the school. Greater involvement of parents and principals into personnel matters was also found to be significant. Teachers indicated that for each of the three groups the difference

in the actual and ideal levels of involvement in personnel decisions was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Curriculum

Teachers reported they should have more involvement in decisions regarding curriculum materials, content, and instructional strategies in the classroom. Teachers also indicated parents and principals should have more decision making power in this area. Teachers indicated that for each of the three groups the difference in the actual and ideal levels of involvement in curriculum was significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

Conclusions

The following conclusions concerning teachers in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District in the public schools of Tennessee are based on the findings of this research.

1. Elementary teachers want significantly more involvement in the decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum.
2. Elementary teachers want parents to have significantly more involvement in the decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum.
3. Elementary teachers want principals to have significantly

more involvement in the decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum.

4. There was little reported difference in the survey results among principals, teachers, and parents.

5. The school staff needs additional time for the acquisition of new knowledge and skills in team building, cooperative planning, and conflict resolution.

6. Shared decision making used the expertise of all staff members resulting in higher quality decisions and better programs for students.

7. Granting teachers the autonomy to make decisions has enhanced teacher dedication, motivation, and commitment in the teaching profession.

8. Placing the decision making authority at the school level increases accountability and strengthens communication for teachers, principals, and parents.

Recommendations

1. The local school systems should implement the goal of shared decision making and the strategies established by the Tennessee Board of Education in the Master Plan for Tennessee Schools: Preparing for Twenty-First Century (1994).

2. In order to implement this goal and strategies defined in the Master Plan for Tennessee Schools: Preparing for the Twenty-First Century, schools must restructure governance and management to implement shared decision making at the school site.

3. The Tennessee Department of Education should establish pilot sites across the state to initiate shared decision making.

4. Local school boards should establish policies to sanction and empower local schools to implement shared decision making.

5. Teachers should be provided the opportunity for acquisition of the necessary knowledge base, skills, and comprehensive training required to accommodate the new roles and responsibilities of shared decision making.

CHAPTER 6

Observations, Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations of Parallel Studies

Introduction

Teachers' perceptions of involvement in school decision making were examined in this study. It represented one of three studies of a more comprehensive research project undertaken to identify perceptions about decision making within the school community. Two parallel studies were conducted simultaneously as part of the research project. One examined principals' perceptions of involvement in school decision making and the other examined parents' perceptions of involvement in school decision making. The findings, conclusions, and recommendations compiled from all three studies are presented in this chapter.

In order to insure a statistically correct compilation of the data, portions of the three parallel studies were completed using similar procedures. Nine hypotheses were tested in each of the studies. Although a different target population's perceptions were examined, hypotheses were worded similarly and were analyzed with the same statistical test. The questionnaires used in the three

studies were validated through the same pilot study. All questionnaires used the same format and subscales with only minor terminological differences deemed more appropriate for each group of respondents.

Samples for each study were drawn from the elementary schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District. This allowed each of the researchers to generalize findings to educational communities in the same geographical region.

General Observations

In order to properly appreciate the findings, conclusions, and implications of this study, the reader should have a basic understanding of how the information was gathered and who the respondents to the surveys were as well as information about the school settings that provided the basis for the survey responses.

Among the most impressive findings for the researchers were observations made during the distribution of the questionnaires. The researchers conducting the parallel studies personally visited the principals of the 125 schools of this study for the purpose of planning the distribution of the questionnaires to the participants of the sample group. The researchers' primary purpose in personally contacting school principals was to gain their cooperation in order

to get as complete a response as possible from the sample. Because the researchers each had several years' experience as elementary school principals, they were aware that the principals would have a great impact on the success of reaching the individuals who were selected for the sample.

The 42 school visits of each researcher to deliver surveys, however, became both adventurous and professionally stimulating. Starting the travel to schools well before daylight in order to arrive before the busy principal started his/her day and stopping at small stores for directions became the norm for the researchers. Navigating both remote country roads and busy city streets provided equal challenges in locating the target schools. Realizing the busy schedules of principals and knowing that the task of gaining cooperation for the project was compounded by the large number of school-related research studies that were being conducted in the schools at this time only increased the researchers' anxiety as they prepared to meet the key individuals who could impact the return of the surveys. After later sharing the stories of the road, the researchers realized their fears that principals were so overwhelmed with research and other duties that they would resist helping had been unwarranted. In almost every case, the principal met the researcher with a smile, an open mind, and a willingness to

help in any way possible with the research. Many took time from supervising lunchrooms, doing paperwork, visiting classrooms, and even, in some cases, the responsibilities of teaching to meet with the researchers to go over the survey packets and clarify points where they had been asked for assistance. In all cases the willingness of the principal and the office staff to greet the strangers with a smile was appreciated. It was clear why many of the parents took the time in their surveys to write words of praise about their school, its teachers, and especially the principal.

Although the schools had common characteristics, some had a great many advantages that others did not. But through the visits, whether the school was 70-year-old building and still heated by coal or a modern structure with all the modern resources available, the researchers discovered that every school was a proud center of active learning for its community, using whatever resources were available to it to build a strong educational program for children.

Although the researchers knew that the remaining task involved long hours of analysis of the data in order to detail the actual and ideal levels of decision-making involvement of the parents, teachers, and principals of these schools, they agreed that the visits to deliver questionnaires and solicit help had provided a positive reception to the project. Perhaps just as importantly, the

visits had also provided each researcher with a refreshed realization of the individuality of the school populations to be studied.

Comprehensive Findings

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis in each study examined teachers' involvement in the budgetary process. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in the budgetary process. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -6.044. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -14.5066. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -10.4974. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated teachers should be more involved in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 11. Positive mean ranks indicate

individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Table 11

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	93	28.32	13.50	-6.0444	<.0005
Teachers	362	148.34	45.38	-14.5066	<.0005
Parents	457	233.18	117.81	-10.4974	<.0005

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis in each study examined parents' involvement in the budgetary process. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in the budgetary process. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -7.9453. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -9.6215. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -4.5864. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated parents should be more involved in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 12. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis in each study examined principals' involvement in the budgetary process. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of principals in the budgetary process. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

Table 12

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	94	45.87	20.17	-7.9453	<.0005
Teachers	351	169.88	102.99	-9.6215	<.0005
Parents	460	230.47	179.41	-4.5864	<.0005

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z-value of -8.4482. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z-value of -14.3987. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z-value of -17.5420. All three z-values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated principals should be more involved in the budgetary process in elementary schools.

The n, mean ranks, z, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 13. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than

"presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Table 13

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Budgetary Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	95	48.47	4.00	-8.4482	<.0005
Teachers	347	178.32	92.55	-14.3987	<.0005
Parents	464	235.35	95.39	-17.5420	<.0005

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis in each study examined teachers' involvement in personnel decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in personnel decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 14. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Table 14

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Personnel Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	91	45.50	00.00	-8.2385	<.0005
Teachers	350	170.83	40.25	-15.7508	<.0005
Parents	444	200.31	59.79	-16.8146	<.0005

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -8.2385. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -15.7508. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -16.8146. All three z -values

were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated teachers should be more involved in the personnel decisions in elementary schools.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis in each study examined parents' involvement in personnel decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in personnel decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -8.0939. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -12.7871. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -17.6133. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the results, principals, teachers, and parents indicated parents should be more involved in the personnel decisions in elementary schools.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 15.

Table 15

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Personnel Decisions

Group	n	Mean Ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	93	47.02	16.00	-8.0939	<0.0005
Teachers	350	146.63	88.02	-12.7871	<0.0005
Parents	464	213.42	78.42	-17.6133	<0.0005

Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis in each study examined principals' involvement in personnel decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of

principals in personnel decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 16. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Table 16

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Personnel Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	94	42.02	28.90	-5.5137	<.0005
Teachers	347	152.41	116.94	-6.3990	<.0005
Parents	443	219.98	195.91	-5.5594	<.0005

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -5.5137. The study of teachers'

perceptions revealed a z -value of -6.3990. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -5.5594. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated principals should be more involved in the personnel decisions in elementary schools.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis in each study examined teachers involvement in curricular decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of teachers in curricular decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -6.2796. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -15.3785. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -14.6642. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated teachers should be more involved in the curricular decisions in elementary schools.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 17.

Table 17

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Teachers' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Curricular Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	91	32.98	25.25	-6.2796	<.0005
Teachers	356	167.92	34.75	-15.3785	<.0005
Parents	459	206.52	127.51	-14.6642	<.0005

Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Hypothesis 8

The eighth hypothesis in each study examined parents' involvement in curricular decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of parents in curricular decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The n , mean ranks, z -value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 18. Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than

Table 18

N. Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Parents' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Curricular Decisions

Group	n	Mean ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	93	47.00	00.00	-8.3739	<.0005
Teachers	359	150.90	87.51	-11.1913	<.0005
Parents	471	236.63	84.00	-17.6133	<.0005

"presently occur." Negative mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranked test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -8.3739. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -11.1913. The study of parents' perceptions revealed a z -value of -17.6133. All three z -values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated parents should be more involved in the curricular decisions in elementary schools.

Hypothesis 9

The ninth hypothesis in each study examined principals' involvement in curricular decisions. Each null hypothesis stated that no significant difference existed between the sample group's perceptions of the actual and ideal amounts of involvement of principals in curricular decisions. Principals, teachers, and parents rejected this null hypothesis.

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used to analyze the data for this hypothesis. The study of principals' perceptions revealed a z -value of -8.2385. The study of teachers' perceptions revealed a z -value of -15.9896. The study of parents'

perceptions revealed a z-value of -11.8554. All three z-values were significant beyond the .05 level. According to the study, principals, teachers, and parents indicated principals should be more involved in the personnel decisions in elementary schools.

The n , mean ranks, z-value, and level of significance for each sample group are shown in Table 19.

Table 19

N, Mean Ranks, z-Value, and Level of Significance Between Principals', Teachers', and Parents' Perceptions of Principals' Actual and Ideal Levels of Involvement in Curricular Decisions

Group	n	Mean Ranks		z	p
		Positive	Negative		
Principals	91	45.50	00.00	-8.2385	<.0005
Teachers	354	178.89	47.11	-15.9896	<.0005
Parents	464	203.62	128.24	-11.8554	<.0005

Positive mean ranks indicate individual responses that rated "should occur" higher than "presently occur." Negative mean ranks

indicate individual responses that rated "presently occur" higher than "should occur."

Summary

Results were consistent in each area examined in these parallel studies. Principals, teachers, and parents of elementary school students wanted to be more actively involved in the decision-making process. Each group also wanted more involvement from members of the other groups. These results strongly indicated principals, parents, and teachers preferred more stakeholder involvement in decisions that affect the local school, and that shared decision making was indicated by principals, teachers, and parents as their viable opportunity for meaningful involvement in decisions made at the local school setting.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were based on the analysis of the survey data and the review of literature of the three parallel studies.

1. Teachers, principals, and parents want teachers to have more involvement in decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum in the elementary school.
2. Teachers, principals, and parents want principals to have

more involvement in decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum in the elementary school.

3. Teachers, principals, and parents want parents to have more involvement in decisions concerning budget, personnel, and curriculum in the elementary school.

4. Support from the school board, superintendent, supervisors, and other personnel above the principalship is critical to the successful implementation of shared decision making.

5. The principal is the key individual in the implementation of shared decision making, with success or failure often dependent on his/her leadership.

6. Training and preparation are essential for all stakeholders prior to the implementation of any shared decision-making project.

7. Once shared decision-making projects are successfully in place, stakeholders report an increased level of accountability at the local school setting. Such accountability is a positive impetus to improvement of schools in their mission of educating the nation's youth.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based upon the findings and conclusions of the three parallel studies. Essential to and

underlying all recommendations is planning; attempts to establish shared decision-making models must be well-planned in order to accommodate the development of realistic guidelines that provide not only for thoroughness in initiation of plans, but also for thoroughness in the evaluation and revision of plans. Only such planning can assure optimum opportunities for success.

1. Federal and state regulations should be modified to include opportunities for local school self-governance.

2. The Tennessee Department of Education should establish pilot sites across the state to initiate and validate shared decision-making models. Evaluation models should be developed in order to carefully assess the success of the implementation at the sites.

3. The autonomy and authority to make decisions regarding budget, curriculum, and personnel should reside with teachers, principals, and parents in the local school community. Guidelines for the extent of this decision-making authority should be defined in each school district where shared decision-making models are to be implemented.

4. The Tennessee Department of Education should initiate training sessions for principals, teachers, and parents interested in implementing shared decision-making projects.

5. The State Board of Education, the Tennessee Department of Education, local school boards, superintendents, and central office staff should be committed to the projects and supportive of the local school efforts.

6. Roles and responsibilities of participants should be realigned at every level within the state to modify the decision-making process so that it accommodates shared decision making.

7. The elementary schools in the First Tennessee Developmental Planning District should have the opportunity to implement shared decision-making projects.

8. Local school boards of the First Tennessee Developmental District should establish policies that allow schools to operate self-governing shared decision-making models within broad parameters of operation.

9. Local school systems of the First Tennessee Developmental District should be restructured in order to redefine roles and responsibilities for central office and local school personnel in light of a changing decision-making structure.

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APPENDIX
COVER LETTER and QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Teachers,

I am a doctoral student at East Tennessee State University. Currently, I am also a principal in the Bristol Tennessee School System. I am conducting a study concerning teacher involvement in all aspects of the school program. My purpose is to determine the actual and the ideal degree of input that exists in your school community.

Your assistance would be greatly appreciated. Please take a few moments to complete the attached survey. Read each statement carefully and respond to each scale independently. On each question indicate the level of actual input you believe to exist at this time and the ideal level of input you believe is necessary to make good school based decisions using the following rating on each scale:

- 1- No Involvement**
- 2- Little Involvement**
- 3- Some Involvement**
- 4- Much Involvement**
- 5- Total Involvement**

You will notice that there is no "I don't know category"; so please remember that this is a survey of your perceptions. Please feel free to mark the survey based on your knowledge and beliefs about the actual and ideal levels of input.

Please return your completed survey in the sealed envelope to your principal. Your responses to all items on the survey will remain totally confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

**Sincerely,
Rebecca Walters
Anderson Elementary
Bristol, Tennessee**

**Questionnaire
for
Selected Teachers**

Please complete the following items by checking the appropriate response.

1. Current Teaching Position

- K-2 6-8
 3-5 _____ Identify other teaching assignment

2. Age

- 20-29 50-59
 30-39 60-69
 40-49

3. Gender

- Male
 Female

4. Highest Degree

- Bachelor's
 Master's
 Specialist
 Doctorate

5. Career Ladder Status

- None
 Career Level I
 Career Level II
 Career Level III

6. Years of Experience

- 0-5 27-30
 6-10 Over 30
 11-16
 17-21
 22-26

7. Have you received any training in Site-Based Management?

- Yes
 No

Elementary School Involvement Survey

Please rate the level of involvement that you believe actually occurs at the present time and also the level you believe should occur using the scale:

- 1 - No Involvement
 2 - Little Involvement
 3 - Some Involvement
 4 - Much Involvement
 5 - Total Involvement (Makes Decision)

Circle the number that represents the level of involvement that the:

	<u>Presently Occurs</u>	<u>Should Occur</u>
1. Principal has in the selection of teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. Teachers have in determining grading policies	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. Parents have in the selection of custodians.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. Teachers have in the purchase of classroom equipment.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. Parents have in evaluating teacher aides	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. Principal has in determining what skills are taught in the classroom	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
7. Teachers have in setting promotion and retention policies	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. Parents have in determining how funds are raised.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. Principal has in determining what is purchased for classroom instruction in the school	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. Parents have in the evaluation of the principal's performance	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
11. Teachers have in how students are assigned to their the classroom	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
12. Teachers have in the selection of new teachers.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
13. Principal has in determining how teachers teach in their classrooms	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
14. Parents have in the evaluation of teachers' performance	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
15. Teachers have in the evaluation of custodians	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
16. Principal has in determining how money from fundraisers will be spent.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
17. Parents have in determining what is purchased for classrooms	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
18. Principal has in evaluating teacher aides.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
19. Teachers have in determining the skills taught in their classrooms.	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
20. Parents have in setting homework policies and guidelines	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

Elementary School Involvement Survey

Please rate the level of involvement that you believe actually occurs at the present time and also the level you believe should occur using the scale:

- 1 - No Involvement
 2 - Little Involvement
 3 - Some Involvement
 4 - Much Involvement
 5 - Total Involvement (Makes Decision)

Circle the number that represents the the level of involvement that the:

	<u>Presently Occurs</u>					<u>Should Occur</u>				
21. Parents have in determining grading policies.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
22. Principal has in the selection of teacher aides.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
23. Parents have in determining how students are assigned to classrooms.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
24. Teachers have in evaluating teacher aides	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
25. Parents have in selecting the materials purchased for classrooms.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
26. Principal has in the evaluation of teachers	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
27. Parents have in the selection of teacher aides	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
28. Teachers have in determining how funds are raised.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
29. Teachers have in the evaluation of principal performance	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
30. Parents have in determining the teaching techniques used in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
31. Principal has in setting homework policies and guidelines	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
32. Parents have in the selection of teachers	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
33. Principal has in the purchase of instructional equipment	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
34. Teachers have in the evaluation of other teachers.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
35. Principal has in the setting of promotion and retention policies.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
36. Parents have in the evaluation of custodians.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
37. Teachers have in the selection of teacher aides	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
38. Parents have in determining how money from fundraisers is spent	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
39. Principal has in determining how funds are raised.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
40. Teachers have in setting homework policies	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
41. Principal has in the selection of custodians	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
42. Parents have in the selection of textbooks	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

Elementary School Involvement Survey

Please rate the level of involvement that you believe actually occurs at the present time and also the level you believe should occur using the scale:

- 1 - No Involvement
 2 - Little Involvement
 3 - Some Involvement
 4 - Much Involvement
 5 - Total Involvement (Makes Decision)

Circle the number that represents the the level of involvement that the

	<u>Presently Occurs</u>					<u>Should Occur</u>				
43. Principal has in determining grading policies	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
44. Principal has in the selection of student furniture	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
45. Teachers have in determining how they teach in their classrooms	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
46. Parents have in setting promotion and retention policies	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
47. Teachers have in the selection of textbooks	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
48. Principal has in the purchase of classroom teaching equipment	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
49. Parents have in determining what skills are taught in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
50. Principal has in evaluating his/her own performance	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
51. Teachers have in determining how money from fundraisers will be spent	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
52. Parents have in the purchase of instructional equipment that is used in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
53. Principal has in the selection of textbooks	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
54. Teachers have in the purchase of teaching materials.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
55. Parents have in the selection of student furniture.	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
56. Principal has in determining how students are assigned to classrooms	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
57. Teachers have in the selection of custodial personnel	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
58. Teachers have in determining what is purchased for instruction	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
59. Teachers have in the purchase of classroom furniture	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
60. Principal has in the evaluation of custodial personnel	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

VITA

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East Tennessee State University, Johnson
City, TN; elementary education, B.S., 1968
East Tennessee State University, Johnson
City, TN; reading, M.A., 1978
East Tennessee State University, Johnson
City, TN; educational administration,
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Certification: Elementary Grades 1-9
Special Teacher of Reading
Administration and Supervision K-8
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**Professional
Experience:** Classroom Teacher, Central Elementary
School, Bristol, TN, 1968-75
Reading Clinician, Fairmount Elementary
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