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Teacher empowerment : its relationship to school structure and teacher motivation.

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TEACHER EMPOWERMENT: ITS RELATIONSHIP TO SCHOOL

STRUCTURE AND TEACHER MOTIVATION

A Dissertation Presented

by

NANCY J. SMITH

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Approved as to style and content by:

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Patricia Anthony, Member

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Howard and my children Katherine and Jonathan with my deepest love.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There is little we accomplish in our life's span that is solely the result of our own effort. The completion of this dissertation and of the doctoral program affords me the opportunity of acknowledging those individuals who have helped me in this particular endeavor.

Professor Kenneth Ertel, the chairperson of my dissertation committee, has been a constant source of support and encouragement. Like any good teacher, he has always instilled in me confidence in my own ability. I am genuinely grateful for all his help.

I wish to express my thanks to the other members of my committee, Professor Patricia Anthony and Professor Frank Lattuca. Their willingness to give of their time on my behalf is truly appreciated.

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I am grateful to my professional colleagues and personal friends who have been a source of encouragement to me.

I am deeply indebted to Carol Karafotis, an admired colleague and valued friend. She has been a constant source of inspiration and encouragement throughout the doctoral program.

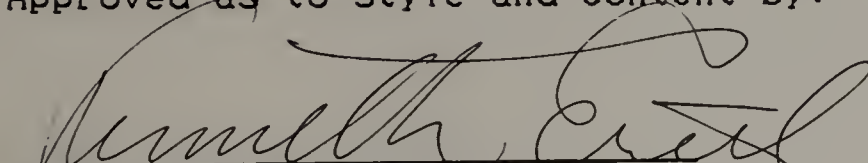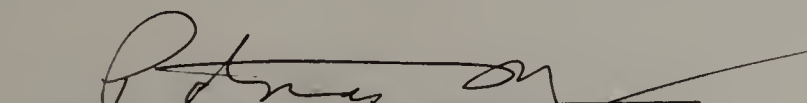Finally, I am most grateful to my husband Howard and my children Katherine and Jonathan for their love and understanding.

ABSTRACT

TEACHER EMPOWERMENT: ITS RELATIONSHIP TO SCHOOL
STRUCTURE AND TEACHER MOTIVATION

SEPTEMBER 1990

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This study investigated the concept of teacher
empowerment and its relationship to school structure and
teacher motivation. The focus of the study was on
elementary classroom teachers of kindergarten to fifth
grade level. The sample (N=192) was drawn from 21
selected schools representing eight different school
districts in southeastern Massachusetts.

The researcher utilized a survey questionnaire to
test two basic hypotheses: (1) Teachers' perceptions of
school structure influence the degree of teacher
empowerment evidenced in the school; (2) a school
structure based on the teacher empowerment concept
enhances teacher motivation.

Those teachers who perceived their school structure
as democratic reported the presence of more teacher
empowerment elements in the school environment and

demonstrated greater teacher empowerment than did those teachers who perceived their school structure as autocratic or laissez faire.

Teachers who perceived their school structure as democratic indicated that their teaching motivation is provided from a greater variety of sources than do those teachers who perceived their school structure as autocratic or laissez faire.

Based on the research findings, the researcher concluded that teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic report more opportunities to exercise teacher empowerment and consequently, evidence greater empowerment than do those in a perceived autocratic or laissez faire structure.

The researcher also concluded that a democratic school structure is a facilitating environment for teacher empowerment and enhances teacher motivation by providing a wide range of motivational sources for teachers.

Descriptors: Teacher empowerment, teacher motivation, school structure, restructuring schools, participative decision-making.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The "rising tide of mediocrity" has ebbed and in
its wake, education, while remaining afloat, is still
adrift. A number of national commissions, most notably
the National Commission on Excellence in Education,
examined the state of American schooling in the early
1980s. Many of the reports recommended mechanical
solutions to complex educational problems (Good &
Brophy, 1985). " The first wave set out to raise
standards, increase accountability, lengthen school days
and years, and generally raise the rigor of American
public education" (Michaels, 1988, p. 3). "The first
wave of reform in the 1980s standardized the curriculum
on the apparent assumption that all students are the
same" (Liebermann, 1988b, p. 649). In the schools,
however, diversity is the norm and the move for
standardization is counterproductive to providing an
appropriate learning environment for every student
(Wise, 1979).

Defenders of public education, in response to the
charges of the first wave, cited the research
surrounding school effectiveness studies (Brookover,
Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, & Wisenbaker, 1979; Edmonds &
Fredericksen, 1978; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston,

& Smith, 1979; Weber, 1971) as evidence that the schools were doing a good job in educating students. From these studies, an attempt was made to transfer the research knowledge from effective schools to other schools in order to quell the voices of critics.

The leap from the specific to the general is often a precarious one. School effectiveness studies were conducted primarily in urban elementary schools inhabited by poor children. One might assume that studies of other school types might result in similar findings but that remains open to question. Schools are dynamic organizations comprised of any number of interactive variables. Results may be contingent on the situation. What is true and successful in one school setting may have no effect or be negatively related to effectiveness in another school setting (Sweeney, 1982).

Background

Generally, the role of the teacher in the present organizational structure has been overlooked or oversimplified. "Educational reform movements have taken teachers for granted and treated them as classroom furniture rather than as thinking, possibly disputatious human beings" (Ravitch, 1985, p. 19). "The teacher is the basis of schooling. . . . Yet, many of the reforms proposed for elementary and secondary education seem not

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to take note of the primacy of the teacher" (Maeroff, 1988, p. xiii). Reformers forgot that the curriculum needs someone to teach it, that students need someone to instruct them, and that principals as instructional leaders need someone to follow them. One might have suspected that a "second wave of reform" would be quick to follow.

The second wave of reform was initiated, in part, by a report from the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. The Carnegie Report, A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, stressed the need for a restructuring of the nation's schools and the creation of a professional environment to enable educators to decide how best to meet state and local goals for children while holding them accountable for student progress (pp. 57-58).

Educational scholars are in agreement that second wave reform proposes far more than a superficial approach to addressing the problems of education. "The clear message of second-wave reform is that we need to examine our basic philosophical beliefs about teaching, learning, the nature of human beings, and the kinds of environments that maximize growth for teachers and students alike" (Michaels, 1988, p. 3). Ann Lieberman, writing in Educational Leadership, notes that the second

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wave of reform raises fundamental issues of restructuring schools and the roles of teachers (Lieberman, 1988a).

A framework or construct was needed out of which to think and research issues of restructuring schools and the role of teachers. Teacher empowerment is the construct within which this research study was conducted. Teacher empowerment is not a new concept, but it is a relatively new construct. Different facets of teacher empowerment can be found in the literature of the past 25 years. The newness of the teacher empowerment construct is in its focus and scope. In the past, facets of teacher empowerment, such as participative leadership, have been studied from the perspective of the leader. Other facets of teacher empowerment, such as collaboration and collegiality, have been studied and researched from the perspective of the organization. The present teacher empowerment construct, by contrast, focuses on teachers as a crucial element of continued school reform efforts.

This study was designed as one of a concomitant series to be conducted by doctoral students matriculating in the University of Massachusetts at Amherst/Bridgewater State College collaborative doctoral program. It explored facets of teacher empowerment and

utilized the constructs presented by Carol Karafotis
(1990) in a dissertation titled Teacher Empowerment and
the Restructuring of Schools.

Statement of the Problem

The problem is first to understand what the
concept of teacher empowerment means and then to explore
the potential effects of implementation on other related
factors. Teacher empowerment represents a change in the
status quo and is, therefore, difficult to implement.
Sarason (1971) argues that school people are no
different from those in other culturally distinct
organizations--they do not seek change or respond
enthusiastically to it.

Teacher empowerment as a concept focuses on shared
power within the school organization. Sharing is a
consistent theme found in the literature surrounding
empowerment. Participation, collaboration,
collegiality, shared leadership, and school-based
management are the terms most frequently used to
describe the key elements of empowerment. In the school
setting, the principal is perceived as the individual
who has the power, and it is assumed he/she will share
that power with staff members. Teacher empowerment also

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has been equated with teacher autonomy, with an expansion of the leadership team, and with teacher professionalization.

If the emphasis of current reform efforts at the federal and state levels is on restructuring the schools and examining the roles of teachers, the present school structure and the role of teachers must be assessed to determine the relationship of these factors to teacher empowerment. This research study focused specifically on school structure, teacher empowerment, and teacher motivation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of teacher empowerment to school organizational structure. The study investigated the potential relationship of teacher empowerment to teacher motivation. The objectives of the study were:

> (1) to identify the elements of a school's organizational structure that influence teacher empowerment;
>
> (2) to determine if a relationship exists between teacher empowerment and teacher motivation.

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The following research questions guided the investigation:

(1) To what extent do teachers' perceptions of school structure influence teacher empowerment?

(2) To what extent does teacher empowerment influence school structure?

(3) To what extent is teacher empowerment a factor in enhancing motivation, and how does it add to motivational theory?

Definition of Terms

The terms used in this study are defined below.

Carnegie Schools: professional models of schools established by the Massachusetts legislature under Chapter 727 for the following purposes:

(1) to restructure the environment for teaching, freeing teachers to decide how best to meet state and local goals for children;

(2) to foster professional discretion, autonomy, and accountability by first providing teachers with opportunities to participate in the setting of goals for their schools and then evaluating the success of schools in achieving these agreed-upon standards of performance;

(3) to provide a variety of approaches to school

organization, leadership, and governance;

(4) to provide teachers with the support staff

needed to be more effective and productive

(Report of the Special Commission on the

Conditions of Teaching, August, 1987, p. 9).

Classroom teacher: a teacher currently teaching in any

grade level from kindergarten to grade 5 including

Special Needs and Resource Room.

Motivation: that which energizes, directs, and sustains

behavior (Steers & Porter, 1975, p. 553).

Organization: a group or cooperative system in which

there is: (1) an accepted pattern of purposes;

(2) a sense of identification and belonging;

(3) continuity of interaction; (4) differentiation of

function; and (5) conscious integration (Gross, 1968,

p. 52).

Organizational climate: the total affective system of a

human group or organization, including feelings and

attitudes toward the system, subsystems,

superordinate systems, or other systems of persons,

tasks, procedures, conceptualizations, or things

(Newell, 1978, p. 170).

Organizational structure: system of governance in an

organization which includes patterns of communication,

goal-setting, problem-solving, and decision-making with regard to policy and program.

Teacher Empowerment: a term applied to the process of strengthening the teaching profession by providing teachers access both to knowledge and to decision-making opportunities within the school (Maeroff, 1988). Teacher empowerment is also described as encouraging teachers to have an internalized locus of control in order to give them the freedom, authority, and responsibility to act within the framework provided by policy and law. An internalized locus of control provides teachers with opportunities to make decisions within their own area of professional expertise (Frymier, 1987). Teacher autonomy and professional-ization are also terms found in the teacher empowerment literature.

Potential Significance of the Study

This study was proposed as one of a long-range series of doctoral studies focused on the teacher empowerment concept. This study was intended to help clarify the relationship between the concept of teacher empowerment and current reform efforts to restructure schools and the role of teachers.

Why teacher empowerment? Legislation and policy mandates on education at the federal and state levels

are directed toward the restructuring of schools. Educational research must precede as well as validate the legislation and policy changes to determine what effects the proposed changes have on student learning. Research is also required so that those in decision-making roles can project what future consequences might result from those changes.

Chapter 727, known as the Carnegie Schools Program, was enacted by the Massachusetts state legislature in 1987. It calls for restructuring the schools by empowering public school teachers and other professional staff members to help redesign school governance. Educators from the elementary school to the university level stand to be affected by such legislation. Therefore, it is imperative that those most affected by a change be actively involved in the process.

This study will add to the research which exists in the area of teacher empowerment. It will help to clarify the concept and provide further understanding about the implementation of teacher empowerment and its effects.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of this research study are limited to public elementary school classroom teachers from selected schools in southeastern Massachusetts. The

investigation was further limited by the ability and
willingness of respondents to report accurately their
perceptions about the school structure, teacher
empowerment, and the nature of their own motivation.
Finally, any conclusions or recommendations will be
valid only for those schools with populations similar to
those in the population tested.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review is an expansion of the
research done on the current state of teacher
empowerment as presented by Carol Karafotis (1990). The
literature review is confined to three major headings as
they relate to the research topic. The first section
explores the literature surrounding empowerment in
general and teacher empowerment in particular. The
second section focuses on organizational structure, and
the last section reviews motivation theory and
literature as they relate to the school setting.

Meaning of Empowerment

There is a growing body of literature which
addresses the meaning of empowerment as a concept and a
process. The etymology of the word itself is a good
place to begin any discussion of empowerment. The root
word is power from the Latin word posse and means "to be
able; to have the ability to act or produce an effect."
Empower is "to bring into a state of ability or capacity
to act." Empowerment is the "action or process of
bringing into a state of ability or capacity to act."
The number of books and articles written about
empowerment as a process for restructuring schools is

increasing. Education has taken a cue from the business

management literature which speaks to the issue of

empowerment. Peter Block's book The Empowered Manager

discusses empowerment from the perspective of the power

person in the organization. Leaders empower themselves

and create conditions under which others can do the same

(Block, 1987). He goes on further to state that

"empowering ourselves comes from acting on our

enlightened self-interest" (p. 99).

To act in an empowered manner implies a willingness

to act on our own choices and accept the responsibility

for exercising that autonomy:

> Autonomy pertains to a human being's capacity for
> independent survival, independent thinking,
> independent judgment; . . . . It means that we do
> not attempt to live by unthinking conformity and
> the suspension of independent critical judgment.
> (Branden, 1985, p. 112)

Empowerment further implies that those in leadership

positions believe that people, if left to their own

authority, have the ability to act responsibly in their

own regard and compatibly with organizational goals:

> What we can do for each other as people, then, is
> first to believe in each other's capability, and
> secondly, to help each other find the devices, the
> highly individual ways, that will transform
> individual capability to power. Such help would be
> properly termed "empowering."
> (Ashcroft, 1987, p. 150)

Bennis (1985) identifies four components of empowerment:

(1) Significance: workers are given the feeling of being at the active center of the social order;

(2) Competence: workers are able to develop and learn on the job;

(3) Community: workers are joined in a common purpose and have a feeling of family;

(4) Enjoyment: workers have fun as a result of working together, achieving goals, and learning (pp. 82-84).

The responsibility for empowering individuals in an organization, according to Bennis, rests squarely with the person in power.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) also focus on the person in power when describing empowerment. Empowerment is "enabling others to act, encouraging collaboration, and building teams" (p. 10). "Empowering others requires working side by side with them" (p. 167). It is "essentially the process of turning followers into leaders themselves" (p. 179). These authors note that the strategies used to empower others are similar to those used to strengthen commitment. The commitment is to a course of action, action being an element of empowerment. Individuals engage in the goal-setting

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process and possess discretion and self-determination in their jobs.

The previous references to empowerment have as their focus what the person in power must do or share to enable others in the organization to be empowered. This perspective is but one of many to consider in reviewing the facets of empowerment. The next section of the literature review will consider teacher empowerment and some of its economic, political, and social implications.

Teacher Empowerment

Teacher empowerment, in the context of this research project, signifies a process of strengthening the teaching profession by giving teachers access to knowledge and providing them with decision-making opportunities within the school (Maeroff, 1988). Teacher empowerment is described as encouraging teachers to have an internal locus of control in order to give them the freedom, authority, and responsibility to act within the framework provided by policy and law. Teacher empowerment further implies that teachers have opportunities to make decisions within their own area of professional expertise (Frymier, 1987).

Although teacher empowerment is the focus of this research project, it is important to acknowledge the

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ramifications of the concept within the broader context
of society. Michael Apple (1987) asserts that most
educators ignore the conditions of the larger society
and, therefore, ". . . place educational questions in a
separate compartment, one that does not easily allow for
interaction with the relations of class, gender, and
racial power that give education its social meaning"
(p. 63).

Current emphasis on school reform by legislators
is motivated by educational considerations, but it may
be more motivated by economic and political
considerations. Smyth (1989) even suggests that policy-
making technocrats have constructed "the mythology that
somehow schools and teachers are the cause of the
economic failure" (p. 3). He further suggests that
recent attempts to reform schooling in the United States
have been motivated by the desire to ensure that what
goes on inside schools is directly responsive to the
economic needs outside of schools.

The major concern of policy makers is not
the American dream of social equality, but rather,
the changing world economy and the new international
division of labor (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1985). A recent
issue of a popular periodical bore that out when its
cover read, "JOBS: Skills young Americans need to

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succeed--Why schools and companies are failing them"
(U.S. News & WORLD REPORT, June 26, 1989).

Similarly, the Committee for Economic Development
(1987) stated: "This nation cannot continue to compete
and prosper in the global arena when more than one-fifth
of our children live in poverty and one-third grow up in
ignorance. And if the nation cannot compete, it cannot
lead." (p. 4)

Shor and Freire (1987) acknowledge that education
did not create the economic base in society; however,
education is shaped by the economy and as such, it is
capable of being influenced by economic life. Society
shapes education according to the interests of those who
have power. If educators are to have a hand in
directing the course of education, they cannot afford,
in the spirit of the present reform movement, to be
ignorant or naive. They must be cognizant of where the
power truly resides:

> Power will have to be viewed as both a negative
> and positive force, as something that works both on
> and through people. This view of power has
> significant implications for redefining the
> relationship between social control and schooling.
> (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1985, p. 216)

Aronowitz and Giroux (1985) further maintain that
the construct of social control which promotes social
and self-empowerment provides the theoretical starting
point for critical learning and practice.

Goodlad also acknowledges the political climate in which schools must operate when he states:

> The conduct of schooling is largely a political enterprise. The schools must be organized, financed, managed, and conducted for the welfare of children and youth through those legislative, executive, and judicial processes characterizing our public affairs generally. Schooling, then, is conducted within a framework of power and struggle for power. It is no more protected from abuse of power than are other political enterprises. (Goodlad, 1976, p. 57)

Sanchez (1976) shares Goodlad's opinion that educational ideas are essentially ". . . political in nature. They raise questions about who shall have power over schools" (p. xi).

The contested nature of power and its derivative empowerment are apparent in the foregoing references to "struggle for" and "power over." It is the social application of power and empowerment, frequently interpreted as the imposition of one person's will over another, that creates the negativity and confusion (Ashcroft, 1987).

Sergiovanni (1987b) suggests that empowerment is an investment whereby successful leaders distribute power to enable others

> . . . to accomplish things that they think are important, to experience a greater sense of efficacy. They understand that teachers need to be empowered to act--to be given the necessary responsibility that releases their potential and makes their actions and decisions count. (p. 121)

Maeroff (1988) equates teacher empowerment with professionalization. It is the " . . . power to exercise one's craft with confidence and to help shape the way that the job is to be done" (p. 4). Three factors are necessary to implement the concept of teacher empowerment according to Maeroff: boosting the status of teachers, making teachers more knowledgeable, and granting them access to power.

Historically, the teaching profession has always been subject to public scrutiny and censure. Teachers have been dictated to with regard to appropriate dress, alcohol consumption, and deportment. Respect given to teachers in the past was comparable to that reserved for members of the clergy. Consequently, teachers were expected to act as though they were members of the clergy. In our present culture, respect is signaled by the amount of autonomy, money, and recognition afforded an individual. Teachers today do not enjoy an abundance of any one of these things. "They are undervalued by themselves and by others. As long as this remains true, teachers will feel powerless in their own regard" (Maeroff, 1988, pp. 18-19).

The second component of teacher empowerment is that of knowledge. The issue here is not pedagogical authority; it is instead the authority of expertise.

Such authority enables a teacher to make valid curriculum judgments in the students' behalf:

> Hypothetically, professional knowledge could be transmitted to teachers ad infinitum, but there is no defensible purpose if the system does not provide them the authority and power to function in accordance with their professional understandings. (Mertens & Yarger, 1988, p. 35)

Lortie (1986) speaks to this same issue when he argues that something must be done to raise the "authority ceiling" of teachers (p. 572). Teachers will not be respected if they are perceived as inept and unknowledgeable in their profession. Further, they will not be confident if they cannot respond to the intellectual challenges of teaching. A lack of confidence can only add to a sense of powerlessness and militate against efforts of empowerment.

The third component of teacher empowerment is access to power. Teachers may be given respect and may possess the authority of expertise, but in order to exert influence, they must also have the support and encouragement of influential individuals both inside and outside the school structure.

The control of teaching by teachers, however, is inextricably related to external social forces (Apple, 1987). Among those social forces are legislative and administrative bodies that are more likely to run the school according to managerial and industrial needs. Teachers have made great strides in gaining both the

skills and the right to have a significant say about their lives, personally and professionally, inside and outside the classroom. Apple (1987,1982) asserts teachers are in danger of losing the skills and rights that they have so slowly gained over the course of this century. To speak of teacher-proof curricula is to acknowledge, in Apple's words, the "de-skilling of teachers. . . . In the process [of de-skilling], the things which make teaching a professional activity-- the control of one's expertise and time--are also dissipated" (Apple, 1987, p. 70).

In summary, legislative mandates, social, economical, and political forces, as well as the belief systems of those individuals who stand to be most affected by teacher empowerment, plus many more factors give testimony to the contested nature of empowerment as a concept and a process. Teacher empowerment is not merely a matter of what others must do for teachers. It is a shared responsibility in which teachers must also decide what they are willing to do for themselves. Teachers must have the opportunity to become genuine professionals with the status, knowledge, and access to power comparable to other professionals. In the words of A Nation Prepared by the Carnegie Forum (1986): "Professionals are presumed to know what they are doing and are paid to exercise their judgment" (p. 57).

Since teacher empowerment must take place within the context of the school as an organization, it is important to consider those organizational elements perceived to affect teacher empowerment. The next section of the literature review deals with the organizational structure of the school as it relates to those factors affecting teacher empowerment.

Organizational Structure

Schools are complex organizations whose relation to the larger society is mediated by, among other things, social movements; these have their own agendas, which help determine the configuration of school life (Giroux, 1983).

The configuration of school life is the subject of the second more recent reform movement, restructuring schools, in which teacher empowerment is a pivotal process. The first reform movement, described as top-down, treated teachers and administrators as the problem with schools. Conversely, the second reform movement, a bottom-up perspective, looks to teachers and administrators as the solution to the problem with schools. Second-wave reform, embodied by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Consortium of Restructured Schools, the Massachusetts Carnegie School Program, the National Coalition of

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Essential Schools, the National Education Association's

Mastery in Learning Project, and the American Federation

of Teachers' Research-into-Practice Practitioners

Network are guided by this one underlying principle.

The present school configuration or structure must be

fundamentally changed to address problems of a long-

standing nature in the nation's schools.

The proposed changes as exemplified by the fore-

mentioned programs have been met with fear and

apprehension, on the one hand, and hope and optimism on

the other. NEA members at the 1989 annual meeting in

Washington, D.C., left the gathering with a commitment

to continue the struggle for teacher empowerment despite

administrator resistance ("Teachers commit to local

power," Education USA, July 10, 1989). The 1986

Carnegie Forum's report which called for teacher

professionalization will of necessity change the

principal's role. That principals are apprehensive

about this impending change is evidenced by the words of

one high school principal at the annual meeting of the

National Association of Secondary School Principals in

New Orleans. He warned that teacher empowerment could

lead to a "dangerous" disempowerment of school

principals. This same individual expressed the fear

that, with the evolution of teacher empowerment and what

he perceived as the lessening of the principal's role,

schools would then suffer from a lack of leadership ("Principals dealing with new roles," Education USA, March 6, 1989).

The previously mentioned references are not in any way to suggest that fear and apprehension describe all administrators, while hope and optimism characterize all teachers with regard to the current reform movement. There are, to be sure, fearful, apprehensive teachers and hopeful, optimistic administrators.

What type of school structure will support and facilitate the process of teacher empowerment?

> An appropriate organizational structure [is] directly and obviously related to goals, technology, task and workforce values and attitudes. The effective organization is further characterized by a commitment to continual growth and learning, mutual influence, and flexible, participative decision-making. (Dunphy, 1981, pp. 26-27)

Empowerment is distinguished in the literature by participation in decision-making, collaboration, collegiality, shared leadership, and work teams. If teacher empowerment is a goal of the school, then the organizational structure of the school must be configured in such a way that sharing is encouraged and promoted.

Most school structures are singularized by a hierarchy of authority--the pyramid. There is little participation in decision-making and a dependence on rules and procedures. The school structure resembles

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what Kanter (1983) describes as a maintenance-oriented

structure for routine operations. This type of

structure is necessary for the organization to carry out

those tasks that it already knows how to do. Within the

school, there are conditions under which routinization

is necessary and beneficial. However, the school

becomes subject to the stagnation and boredom which

result from mere routine.

Another structure is needed for addressing those

problems not solved in a routine manner. Kanter (1983)

describes this second type of organizational structure:

> The problem-solving participative organization, on
> the other hand, is change-oriented . . . . A
> different set of decision-making channels and
> reporting relationships is in operation, and the
> organization as a whole is flexible and flat.
> . . . opportunity and power can be expanded far
> beyond what is available in the regular
> hierarchical organization. (pp. 204-205)

It is the balance of both structures, hierarchical and

participative, which offers a mechanism for fulfilling

obligations and creating opportunities within the school

organization.

The present structures of most schools isolate

teachers and do not allow for the possibilities of

participative decision-making and positive social

interaction (Giroux, 1983). The isolated nature of

teaching has been described as one of the greatest

obstacles to the professional development of teachers.

Sarason (1971) wrote of "the loneliness of teachers"

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and current literature describes the isolation of

teachers. Infrequent opportunity to interact with one's

colleagues during the school day is a fact:

> They [teachers] still teach classes all day long,
> with little or no time for preparation, analysis,
> or evaluation of their work. They still spend all
> of their professional time alone with students,
> leaving little or no time for work with other adult
> professionals to improve their knowledge and
> skills. Nor are they thought worthy of such
> endeavors or capable of developing the requisite
> expertise. (Holmes Group, 1986, p. 7)

Sizer (1984) charges that, though the schools'

current design is clearly unproductive, the kind of

schools America may want are " . . . predictable

conduits for a smattering of information and vehicles

for the rituals of society. They may want some

improvement, but not fundamental reassessment or honest

reflection on the structure of school" (p. 200). The

present school structure and the vision society holds

for its schools seem to inhibit collegiality and the

empowerment it can produce.

Isherwood and Hoy (1973) found that teachers in

authoritarian schools had a greater sense of

powerlessness than did their counterparts in collegial

schools. They also determined that authoritarian

schools seem to have a greater alienating effect on more

teachers than do collegial schools. Therefore, any

strategy designed to implement teacher empowerment must

include tactics for bringing teachers together in a

collegial atmosphere: "Tactics cannot be allowed to contradict strategy. Because of that, you cannot have authoritarian tactics to materialize democratic dreams" (Shor & Freire, 1987, p. 57).

It will be no easy matter to implement changes which will lead to the professionalization of teaching and teacher empowerment: "The move to professionalize teaching will inevitably conflict with the bureaucratic orientation of schools and of school people who have held positions of authority in the hierarchy" (Lieberman, 1988b, p. 649). The principal is the most likely individual for promoting collegiality and sharing leadership. Yet, if the principal is insecure in his/her own role and perceives that his/her power is limited, it is unlikely that an interaction between teachers or a sharing of leadership will be encouraged. The principal may fear that his/her power will be diminished or that his/her authority will be undermined by a group of united teachers. This fear is based on the belief that an adversarial role exists between administrators and teachers. It is a belief shared as widely by teachers as by administrators.

Shared leadership by the principal is one important factor for the successful implementation of teacher empowerment. Another factor required for the successful implementation of teacher empowerment is access to what

Kanter (1983) describes as organizational power tools--information, resources, and support. It is not enough to set up conditions whereby teachers can spend more time with one another and administrators in a collegial atmosphere. Teachers must be permitted access to information as appropriate to their specific spheres of interest and responsibility. Access to information is imperative if teachers are to truly participate in appropriate educational decisions. To deny teachers access to information and then to expect that responsible decisions will be made is ludicrous. Such actions by principals are also calculated to discourage future teacher efforts at participation in decisions.

Sergiovanni (1987a) has enunciated a list of principles that should guide the decisions of principals and staff as school structures are developed. The principle of empowerment and its ramifications are described below.

> Feelings of empowerment among teachers contribute to ownership and increase commitment and motivation to work. When teachers feel more like Pawns than Origins of their own behavior, they respond with reduced commitment, mechanical behavior, indifference, and, in extreme cases, dissatisfaction and alienation. In successful schools, organizational structures enhance empowerment among teachers. (p. 317)

Economic resources such as funds, materials, space, and time are needed for teachers to be able to exercise any measure of autonomy in their profession. The

political support made available to teachers is also crucial for their empowerment. The best programs and ideas are doomed in the absence of approval, endorsement, and legitimacy.

In summary, teacher empowerment, among other things, requires a collegial environment which will promote the collaboration of teachers who have the necessary knowledge, resources, and support to make schools better for students and themselves. What is the purpose of promoting a collegial, collaborative atmosphere in the school setting and of granting teachers access to the power tools of information, resources, and support? No matter what changes are proposed in the context of schools, the bottom line must always take into account what effect such changes will have on student learning:

> Any plan to strengthen teaching as a profession should take the improvement of instruction and schools as its motivating force. Is there any other valid reason for the public's caring whether or not teaching is strengthened as a profession? We think not. (Mertens & Yarger, 1988, p. 35)

There is considerable overlap in the literature surrounding teacher empowerment and that of teacher motivation. The next section will present a brief overview of the psychological theories which form the basic structure for much of the research and literature surrounding work motivation. It will also include a

review of motivation literature and compare elements of
teacher motivation to facets of teacher empowerment.

Motivation

Current scientific research indicates that
motivation comes from within an individual and cannot be
imposed from without. Motivation is made up of all
those inner strivings and conditions described as
wishes, desires, drives, etc. It is an inner state
that activates or moves individuals (Berelson & Steiner,
1964). Owens (1981) describes motivation as "an
intervening variable between human needs and behavior.
Behavior is an attempt to satisfy the needs that
motivate the individual: behavior is the means by which
the individual seeks to satisfy needs" (p. 106).

Sergiovanni (1987a) distinguishes work motivation
in the following manner:

> Motivation to work, on the other hand, refers
> to the desire and willingness of a person to
> take some action, to make some decisions, to
> exert some psychological, social, or physical
> energy in pursuit of some goal or end state
> that she or he perceives as desirable.
> (Sergiovanni, 1987a, p. 244)

A review of the literature reveals the diversity of
psychological theories underlying motivation in general
and work motivation in particular. This section
contains a brief overview of the psychological theories
which form the basis for much of the research and

literature surrounding work motivation (Mitchell, Ortiz, & Mitchell, 1987). Selected research studies are included to the extent that they are applicable to the school environment.

Psychological Theories

The three psychological theories found in motivation research and literature are behaviorist psychologies, need psychologies, and cognitive psychologies. Each of these theories is further considered either from an "ahistorical" (static) perspective or from an "historical" (dynamic) perspective.

Lewin (1935) described "historical and "ahistorical" perspectives on behavior. Vroom (1964) has summarized Lewin's description below.

> Lewin (1935) distinguished between historical and ahistorical explanations of behavior. He pointed out that the former had its roots in Aristotelian thinking and the latter in Galilean thinking. From an ahistorical point of view, behavior at a given time is viewed as depending only on events existing at that time. The problem is one of accounting for the actions of a person from a knowledge of the properties of his life space at the time the actions are occurring. From an historical standpoint, behavior is dependent on events occurring at an earlier time. The historical problem is to determine the way in which the behavior of a person at one point in time is affected by past situations he has experienced and the responses he made to them. Freud's constant emphasis on the dependence of adult behavior on events which occurred in childhood and Hull's

stress on reinforcement of previous responses provide us with good examples of historical explanations. (pp. 13-14)

In short, ahistorical theories assume that the human motivation to act can be treated as if it were static. It ignores the history of an individual. The focus is on identifying individual traits or social circumstances that energize or initiate human behavior. Conversely, historical theories suggest that the human motivation to act is dynamic. The focus is on learning processes that direct, channel, and change human behavior.

Behaviorist Theories. Behaviorists believe that all behavior, human and animal, can be explained in terms of habits established when instinctive or accidental responses to environmental stimulation are "reinforced" by some kind of reward. B.F. Skinner (1953, 1971) is the most widely read and recognized authority on behaviorist psychology. He argued that children learn to use language and that individuals are motivated in work behavior in precisely the same way that pigeons can be taught to peck at colored lights--by having appropriate responses reinforced or rewarded. In other words, behavior is controlled by its consequences.

Static behaviorists focus on reinforcement of desired behavior and therefore, overlook or ignore completely the mental states of individuals when

studying their behavior. Static theorists assume that
both the individual worker and the individual
distributing the reward know what behavior is being
rewarded. Many reward systems in organizations, such as
incentive or performance-pay programs, are based on a
behaviorist perspective.

Dynamic behaviorists, on the other hand, focus on
the concept of conditioning and highlight the
nonrational aspects of relationships between rewards and
human behavior. When applied to work motivation,
dynamic theory presumes that rewards can be used to
encourage unintended and possibly unconscious behaviors
among workers. According to this theory, workers are
not necessarily cognizant of the behaviors which yield
rewards or what work experiences result in the pleasures
they desire. The focus of behaviorism is on the
potential of a perceptual gap between work behavior and
reward experiences (Mitchell et al., 1987).

Criticism of behaviorist theory has been widespread
and varied. Skinner himself (1974) lists 20 specific
criticisms commonly leveled at behaviorism.
Understandably, he believes all the criticisms are
unjustified. In general, criticism of behaviorism and
resistance to the application of its principles can be
traced to three major controversies. These are: (1)
that the application of reinforcement techniques ignores

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the individuality of human beings; (2) that the application of reinforcement techniques restricts an individual's freedom of choice; (3) and that the emphasis of an external reward system overlooks the intrinsic motivation that the job itself can provide to workers. What is true of most theories is also true for behaviorist theory, that is, depending on one's perspective, a case can be built to support any view.

The appeal of behaviorism rests in the relative simplicity of its basic propositions which are easy to research. However, interpretation of experimental results is substantially more difficult.

Need Theories. Any review of motivational literature generally includes Abraham Maslow. His studies centered around major theories of personality and religions of the world. Though not intended for use in education or management theory, his work has found wide application in both of these areas.

Maslow's model, an "ahistorical" type, consists of two fundamental premises. First, the human being is viewed as a "wanting" animal, motivated by a desire to satisfy specific types of needs. Based on his clinical observations, Maslow (1943, 1954) suggested that most individuals pursue with varying intensities the following needs: (1) physiological, (2) safety,

(3) belongingness, (4) esteem, and (5) self-actualization or fulfillment.

The second fundamental premise states that the needs are ordered sequentially in a specific hierarchy. Once the lower needs are satisfied (e.g., the need for food, shelter), there is a moving up the ladder, so to speak, in an effort to satisfy the next higher need. Those needs which are satisfied are not motivators; the needs that move individuals toward achievement are those that are unsatisfied.

Maslow's work (1943), "A Theory of Human Motivation," includes two additional needs, the cognitive and the aesthetic. Cognitive need is the need to know and understand. Aesthetic need includes a desire or need to move toward beauty and away from ugliness. These two needs generally have been omitted from Maslow's theory as it was applied to organizational settings. One can only wonder what possibilities the theory may have held for educational research if the cognitive need had been included in Maslow's hierarchy.

Alderfer (1969) proposed a modified need hierarchy theory based on Maslow's work. Alderfer's theory suggests three need levels or categories: (1) existence needs, (2) relatedness needs, and (3) growth needs. The model is cited in the literature as the ERG theory. It should be noted that each of Alderfer's need levels

corresponds to one or another of Maslow's hierarchical need categories.

Like Maslow, Alderfer suggested that individuals move up the hierarchy from existence needs to those of relatedness and growth as lower-level needs are satisfied. However, there are two major differences between Maslow's model and that of Alderfer. First, Maslow suggested that progression from one need level to the next was dependent upon satisfaction of the lower-level needs. Alderfer went on to state that in addition to this process, there is also a frustration-regression process. This process postulates that when an individual is frustrated in the satisfaction of needs, other needs will reemerge as primary and an individual's effort may be expended in order to fulfill the emergent needs.

The second major difference is that Alderfer suggested that more than one need may be activated at the same point in time. There is a flexibility in Alderfer's model that is lacking in that of Maslow. Alderfer's theory closely resembles a third needs model, Murray's manifest needs theory.

Murray and his associates worked at the Harvard Psychological Clinic during the 1930s. Based on his clinical observations, Murray (1938) perceived an individual's personality as being composed of many

needs, for example, the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, order, and power. These needs were viewed by Murray as primarily learned behavior, as opposed to innate tendencies, and could be latent or activated. A latent need is not seen by Murray as a weak one. Rather, he suggested that the need has been inhibited as a result of environmental factors. According to Murray, poor performance in a job situation, instead of being attributed to the lack of an achievement motive, could result from the absence of a challenging task. One might infer that the provision of a challenging task would arouse the achievement need and energize achievement-oriented behavior.

Murray's model, like that of Maslow, is based on a set of needs and is the result of clinical observations rather than empirical research. Murray, however, does not suggest a hierarchy of needs. Therefore, an individual could manifest a high need for achievement, a high need for power, and a low need for affiliation at the same time. Murray's theory exhibits a greater specificity and description of needs than does that of Maslow. Maslow's model has been subjected to much criticism when attempts have been made to apply his theory to the research on work motivation, while Murray's model has been relatively free of such criticism. This is probably due to the fact that

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Maslow's theory has been more widely read and studied than has Murray's model.

Frederick Herzberg and his associates added another dimension to work motivation theory and research. Based on research findings, Herzberg and his associates concluded that job satisfaction does not consist of a continuum with satisfaction and dissatisfaction at opposite ends. Rather, the researchers postulated that two separate, independent, and distinct sets of job factors exist for explaining job satisfaction. These two sets of factors were described by Herzberg as motivation and hygiene factors.

According to Herzberg, job-satisfiers, which he terms motivation factors, are directly related to the job itself. Motivation factors include achievement and responsibility, for example. Job dissatisfiers, which Herzberg described as hygiene factors, form the second set of factors. These factors are directly related to the conditions of the work--salary or small classes in the case of the teacher. Herzberg's hygiene factors involve Maslow's lower needs (physiological, safety, and possibly belongingness) while motivators correspond to Maslow's higher-order needs of esteem and self-actualization or fulfillment. The motivation to work beyond the required minimum comes from the satisfier set

of factors--achievement, recognition, work itself, and responsibility (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Each motivating factor identified by Herzberg's research can be found in the teacher empowerment literature. The absence of motivators is perceived to be closely associated with a feeling of powerlessness that is the antithesis of empowerment.

Sergiovanni (1967) replicated Herzberg's research in a school environment. His research on factors affecting teacher satisfaction showed the greatest deficiency in the esteem need, as well as large deficiencies in autonomy and self-actualization needs. Based on his research findings in 1967, Sergiovanni suggested that "esteem remains a powerful motivator for today's teachers. This simply means that today's teachers will work harder for rewards at the esteem level than for other rewards" (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980, p. 94). It is important to note that Sergiovanni does not suggest that the security needs of teachers should be discounted or overlooked. If Maslow's theory is valid, then a significant deprivation in the security area for teachers will lead to a reordering of the motivational hierarchy. Security then will become the motivator rather than esteem.

Further studies by Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) corroborated Sergiovanni's research. These later

studies also indicated larger deficiencies in the higher-level needs (esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization) for teachers.

The esteem need is closely related to one of the factors identified by Maeroff (1988) as necessary to implementing the concept of teacher empowerment, boosting the status of teachers. Status was perceived by Maeroff as a function of autonomy, money, and recognition. Lack of autonomy and recognition are factors affecting both teacher empowerment and teacher motivation. Lack of autonomy can only lead to persistent feelings of powerlessness, a sense that one has no control over one's own destiny. At the same time, despite one's intrinsic motivation, continued lack of recognition leads to discouragement and feelings of resentment and bitterness. Lauroesch and Furey (1986) determined that "limited eventual earning capacity--even more than present salary--is the single most dissatisfying aspect of a teaching career" (p. 246).

Developmental need theory has not been widely applied to work motivation theory or research. Argyris (1957, 1964) is one of the few theorists who has insisted that organizational conditions can and do affect adult needs. He suggests that an individual's personality can be stunted when faced with an environment constantly lacking challenge. Conversely,

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Argyris, in agreement with Erikson (1950) asserts that
under the right circumstances as an individual matures
or develops, he/she moves beyond the need for immediate
gratification moves toward autonomy and a pattern of
self-expression. Argyris states that an individual's
needs change with time and circumstances rendering
organizational rewards or incentives essentially
meaningless.

Sizer (1987) asserts that talented professionals
want to grow in responsibility as their careers develop.
They do not want essentially the same responsibility at
the end of a career as at the beginning: "Talented
people want to be trusted with important things. The
talented teachers need to be identified, labeled, and
paid properly, but they also need to gain authority over
their work" (Sizer, 1987, p. 31).

Parenthetically, there is a growing body of
literature and research on the topic of adult
development and adult stages of growth (Krupp,
1981,1982; Levinson, 1978). Such literature and
research is finding increasingly wide application in
education as administrators are faced with veteran
classroom teachers whose motivation and career goals may
have changed substantially with time.

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<u>Cognitive Theories</u>. Cognitive theorists in general view motivation as future-oriented. They perceive the beliefs, expectations, and anticipations of an individual concerning future events as the major factors governing human behavior. G.H. Mead (1934), one of the best known cognitive psychologists, argued that motivation is dependent not only on human developmental or genetic characteristics, but also upon the development of social and personal meaning systems.

Among the static ahistorical theories, expectancy theory has been the most widely applied to work motivation theory. Expectancy theory is also referred to in the literature as valence-instrumentality expectancy (VIE) and value theory. Victor Vroom (1964) popularized the theory and other researchers have expanded and revised the basic concepts postulated by Vroom. This review will limit a consideration of expectancy theory to the model as stated by Vroom:

> Vroom's theory assumes that " . . . the choices
> made by a person among alternative courses of
> action are lawfully related to psychological events
> occurring contemporaneously with the behavior"
> (1964, pp. 14-15). Vroom suggested that behavior
> is a result of conscious choices among
> alternatives. The choices or behaviors are related
> to psychological processes, especially perception
> and the formation of beliefs and attitudes. Human
> behavior, as described by Vroom, is perceived as a
> function of the interactive processes between the
> characteristics of an individual . . . and his or
> her perceived environment . . . and organization
> climate. (Steers & Porter, 1975, p. 181)

There are three key concepts crucial to an understanding of expectancy theory: (1) valence, (2) instrumentality, and (3) expectancy. Each of these concepts constitutes a belief. The first concept, valence, is defined as "affective orientations toward particular outcomes" (Vroom, p. 14). Valence refers to the perceived worth or attractiveness of potential outcomes or rewards for working in an organization. It is important to note it is the perceived worth of a reward or outcome that an individual anticipates receiving, not the satisfaction actually derived, which constitutes valence. Valence may be positive, meaning an outcome that one would prefer having to not having. An outcome that an individual would prefer to avoid is said to be negatively valent. If a particular outcome makes no difference to an individual, the outcome has zero valence for that person.

The second concept on which expectancy theory depends is that of instrumentality. Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence or perceived worth will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement. Vroom suggests that we consider instrumentality as a probability belief linking one outcome (performance level or achievement) to other outcomes, ranging from 1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome

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is certain if the first outcome is achieved), through
zero (meaning that there is no likely relationship
between the attainment of the first outcome and the
attainment of the second), to -1.0 (meaning that the
attainment of the second outcome is certain without the
first and that it is impossible <u>with</u> it).

If a person believes that working diligently is
instrumental in attaining other gratifying outcomes--
a raise, recognition, or advancement--then he/she will
place high valence or worth upon working diligently.
Persons who work in sales or on commission recognize the
instrumentality of high level performance for the
acquisition of a monetary reward. The connection
between the two outcomes is quite clear.

The third key concept of Vroom's theory is that of
<u>expectancy</u>. At first glance, it does not appear to be
substantively different from the concept of
instrumentality: "An expectancy is defined as a
momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a
particular act will be followed by a particular outcome"
(Vroom, 1964, p. 16). Expectancy is referred to as a
subjective probability by psychologists. It is a
measure of an individual's belief about whether a
particular outcome is possible. It assumes values from
zero, indicating zero subjective probability that an act

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will be followed by an outcome, to 1, indicating
certainty the act will be followed by the outcome.

To distinguish the essential difference between
expectancy and instrumentality, it may be helpful to
keep the following in mind: expectancies are perceived
probabilities, while instrumentalities are perceived
correlations. The essence of expectancy theory seems to
be that individuals are motivated to work hard when they
believe working hard will probably result in desirable
rewards.

In the 1970s educational research based on
expectancy theory began to be published. Mowday (1978)
found that school principals with higher expectancy
motivation were more active in attempting to influence
district decisions. Herrick (1973) reported that
schools with high centralization and stratification
levels were staffed with teachers having low forces of
expectancy motivation. Miskel's study (1980) of
secondary and higher education teachers used a
longitudinal approach and the data suggested that
expectancy motivation of teachers was positively related
to student achievement, student and teacher attitudes,
and communication among educators. The relationships
were stable over a seven-month period of time (Miskel,
1982, p. 74).

There are a number of criticisms of expectancy theory. One criticism is that expectancy theory is unable to explain large variances in criterion variables such as effort and performance.

Dynamic cognitive theories are the most complex of all the theories found in work behavior literature. Theorists like Dewey (1920), Husserl (1962), and Heidegger (1972) have formulated the psychological structure for those theories which focus on an understanding of the processes that energize and sustain human behavior. The human ability to think, perceive, anticipate, evaluate, and judge life's experiences, actual and potential.

Equity theory is another version of cognitive psychology that has been applied to work motivation issues. A consideration of equity theory will complete the literature review of motivational theory.

Equity theory is one of several motivational theories dealing with social comparison or social exchange processes. These theories postulate that human motivation is governed predominantly by how a person feels he/she is treated compared to those around him/her. The underlying premise in equity theory states that one's effort, performance, and satisfaction on the job are directly related to the degree of equity or inequity that he/she perceives in the work environment.

Adams's theory (1965) is probably the most carefully formulated statement of equity theory in which inputs and outcomes are the major components. Inputs are those things an individual contributes to the exchange, such as training, experience, or effort on the job. Outcomes are those things an individual gains from the exchange, such as pay, work assignments, or status symbols. The value of inputs and outcomes is determined by how important these things are to an individual.

Equity exists when the ratio of an individual's outcomes to inputs is equal to the ratio of another individual's outcomes and inputs. Inequity is said to exist when the ratio of an individual's outcomes to inputs is unequal to the ratio of another individual's outcomes and inputs. It should be noted that it is an individual's perception of the situation, rather than the objective characteristics of the situation, that determines the conditions of equity or inequity. It is the perception of inequity that motivates an individual to rectify the situation by cognitive or behavioral means.

An individual will employ a number of methods in order to reduce or resolve situations he/she perceives to be inequitable. Adams (1965) describes six possible methods of restoring equity: (1) altering inputs; (2) altering outcomes; (3) cognitively distorting inputs

or outcomes; (4) leaving the field; (5) taking actions
designed to change the inputs or outcomes of the
comparison other; or (6) changing the comparison other.
The alternative that an individual selects to restore
equity is dependent upon the characteristics of the
situation. Generally, it is easier to distort the
comparison other's inputs or outcomes than to distort
one's own inputs or outcomes.

Equity theory has been applied to work motivation
issues primarily as these relate to employee performance
and monetary rewards. Because its fundamental premises
are rooted in social exchange processes, however, equity
theory may be useful in providing greater understanding
of social relationships in the school environment, for
example, teacher-principal, teacher-teacher, or teacher-
student.

Summary. The purpose of this section was to review
the diverse psychological theories underlying motivation
in general and work motivation in particular. A review
of the educational research and literature on teacher
motivation reveals a dominance of the static need
theories developed by Abraham Maslow and Frederick
Herzberg. The more recent literature on motivation
shows a shift toward cognitive theories that view
human beings as information-processing systems. Human
behavior is perceived to be the result of the

individual's interpretation of events in the environment rather than of the actual nature of the events.

Behaviorism is the simplest of the psychological theories considered. Its premises are also the easiest to research. However, as was noted earlier, the difficulty rests in endeavoring to interpret research results. The complexity increases as one progresses to need theory and finally to dynamic cognitive theory. Dynamic cognitivism comes closest to offering an understanding and explanation of the complex nature of human behavior. However, the postulates of dynamic cognitivism, while providing an understanding and explanation of human behavior, have not generally been tested in an empirical manner.

Research has demonstrated that there is no one best way to lead. Similarly, there is no one best way to motivate. Motivational factors in a school setting at a given time are different for different individuals, different for the same individuals and occasionally, the same for different individuals. A reflection on the vast array of literature surrounding the topic of work motivation has led this writer to several conclusions, one being that the best perspective to adopt in the course of this research study is probably one of eclectic contingency. This writer acknowledges the link between desired behavior and positive reinforcement,

recognizes the various needs which give rise to a wealth
of human responses, and rejoices in the unpredictability
of human behavior which is demonstrated time and again
in life's situations. The underlying philosophical
stance adopted by this writer will meet one self-imposed
criterion: Such a stance must be compatible with the
underlying philosophy of teacher empowerment which views
individuals as capable of being autonomous yet
collaborative, free yet responsible, independent yet
accountable, decisive yet reflective, and empowered yet
collegial.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

This chapter provides an overview of the operational plan under which the research study was conducted. The chapter includes descriptions of the following: design of the study, instrumentation, a description of the sample population, data collection techniques and data analysis procedures.

Design of the Study

The research design was both descriptive and correlational in nature. The study described various elements of school organizational structure, teacher empowerment, and factors affecting teacher motivation identified by study participants. The study was correlational as the intent was to determine the degree of association if any between teacher empowerment and school structure. The study also endeavored to determine the degree of association if any between teacher empowerment and teacher motivation.

The following research questions guided the investigation:

(1) To what extent do teachers' perceptions of school structure influence teacher empowerment?

(2) To what extent does teacher empowerment influence school structure?

(3) To what extent is teacher empowerment a factor in enhancing motivation and how does it add to motivational theory?

Instrumentation

The researcher constructed a survey questionnaire to achieve the research objectives. A draft of the questionnaire was administered in September 1989 to a sub-sample of classroom teachers (n=12) comparable to the population to be investigated. The pilot study was intended to develop the instrumentation, to define the issues, and to provide face validation of the items in the final questionnaire.

Following the pilot study, the researcher obtained instrument evaluation from the respondents for the purpose of revision and modification. The researcher prepared a final questionnaire based on the comments and evaluation of respondents, a sample of which is included in the appendices.

The first section of the questionnaire was designed to elicit demographic information and job-related data. Such items included the following: highest level of formal education completed, sex, age, present grade

level assignment, total years of teaching experience, and number of years in the present school.

The second part of the questionnaire was designed to determine respondents' perceptions about school structure. Teachers were provided with a description of three possible school structures: autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic. Teachers were asked to decide which description most closely approximated their own school's structure.

The third section of the survey consisted of 28 statements designed to measure teachers' perceptions regarding school structure, teacher empowerment, and motivation in teaching. Responses were recorded on a Likert five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

The fourth part of the survey consisted of six pairs of descriptive words set up on a five-point semantic differential scale. Respondents were asked to indicate on a continuum the word in each pair which best described their attitude toward themselves in relation to their teaching.

The fifth section of the survey consisted of nine possible sources of teacher motivation as identified in the educational research literature. Teachers were

asked to rank the nine areas in terms of how important the factors were to them as staff members of their present schools.

The Subjects

Elementary classroom teachers from 21 schools representing 8 school districts in southeastern Massachusetts constituted the sample of subjects for this research study. The 21 schools in this sample were selected on the basis of geographic convenience. Participation by the teachers was voluntary.

District superintendents were contacted for permission to communicate with school principals and to survey teachers in their schools. The schools, while differing in enrollment from approximately 140 students to 650 students, were similar in their grade levels (K-5) and curricula.

Procedure for Sample Selection

The eight area superintendents were contacted by mail in October 1989 for permission to survey teachers within their districts. This initial letter of request and explanation was followed by a telephone call to the superintendents for the purpose of clarifying any questions regarding the research project.

After permission was given by each superintendent, principals of the participating schools were contacted by telephone. In most cases, the superintendents had already apprised the principals of the research project and enlisted their support. All of the principals also granted permission for their teachers to be surveyed. Principals were informed that copies of the survey and a letter of explanation would be mailed to the school during the first week in November.

Data Collection

The principal of each school agreed to act as a facilitator in the distribution and collection of the survey questionnaires. Each school was provided with a self-addressed stamped envelope. Each participant was also provided with a business envelope in which to place the completed survey. This was to ensure the confidentiality promised in the cover letter to respondents.

A total of 346 surveys was mailed to the 21 schools taking part in the research project. The majority of the schools returned the completed surveys within the requested time frame. The researcher made follow-up telephone calls to four schools not meeting the deadline, and by December 6, 1989, all schools had

made returns. Of the 346 surveys mailed, 206 surveys (60%) were returned.

Data Treatment and Analysis

The completed survey questionnaires provided data, the analysis of which identified participants' perceptions of school structure, teacher empowerment, and teacher motivation. The researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX) to analyze the data. Frequency counts and percentages were reported where appropriate. In addition, statistical procedures which were carried out included the paired-t ratio and the product-moment correlation coefficient.

The paired-t ratio is a statistical test of the hypothesis of difference between two sample means where the sample selection is not independent. The null hypothesis states there is no difference between two sample means. If the probability for the t test is greater than or equal to 0.05, the statistical decision is to accept the null hypothesis. The test is not significant: that is, results are due to chance. If the probability for the t test is less than or equal to 0.05, the statistical decision is to reject the null hypothesis. The test is significant: that is, the results are probably not due to chance.

Two levels of alpha error are generally used in statistical analysis, 0.05 and 0.01. If the decision to reject the null hypothesis is an incorrect one, it is termed the alpha error. Whenever the possibility exists for rejecting the null hypothesis, the probability statement is added to indicate the level of risk involved. For purposes of this research study, the alpha error was set at 0.05. This means the researcher acknowledges that she may be in error 5% of the time when the decision is made to reject the null hypothesis. Put another way, this also means that the researcher has a confidence level of 95% when rejecting the null hypothesis.

The Pearson r, or the product-moment correlation coefficient, is used to test the hypothesis of association, that is, whether or not there is a relationship between two sets of measurements (Sprinthall, 1987, p. 422). For the Pearson r, the null hypothesis states that ρ (Greek letter, rho) is equal to zero; that is, there is no correlation in the population, regardless of the value that has been obtained for the sample. The alpha error (i.e., when an incorrect decision is made to reject the null hypothesis) for the Pearson r, is also set at 0.05. The researcher is confident that she will be correct 95% of

the time when the statistical decision is made to reject
the null hypothesis.

A detailed description of the data analysis and
results of the study are presented in chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA AND RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship of teacher empowerment to school organizational structure. The study further investigated the potential relationship of teacher empowerment to teacher motivation. This chapter presents an overview of the demographic information collected and an analysis of the data related to the research questions which guided the study.

This study focused on a sample of elementary classroom teachers in grades kindergarten through five. An elementary classroom teacher was defined, for the purposes of this study, as a teacher currently teaching in any grade level from kindergarten to grade 5 including Special Needs and Resource Room. Specialist teachers of art, health, music, and physical education were not included.

The data were collected from survey questionnaires distributed by mail during November, 1989. As was noted earlier, there were 346 surveys distributed among the teachers, and 206 surveys were returned. One hundred ninety-two teachers provided responses to both the demographic section and the remaining sections of the questionnaire. These 192 surveys were used for data

analysis. Any teacher failing to answer the survey item
designed to assess his/her description of the existing
school structure was not included in the data analysis.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
(SPSSX) was used to provide statistical analyses of the
data from the questionnaire. The results of these
analyses are found in the following sections.

Profile of the Study Population

Twenty-one schools from eight different school
systems were selected for the sample. Of the 346
surveys distributed to the schools, 206 surveys (60%)
were returned. Subjects were asked to report
information regarding the following: highest
educational level attained, gender, age, grade level
currently being taught, number of years in the present
school, and total years of teaching experience. The
following section is a summary of the demographic data
provided by respondents with tables and charts where
these are appropriate.

Table 1

Highest Level of Education

(N = 192)

Degree	Percentage
Bachelor's degree	63
Master's degree	11
Master's degree plus	24
Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study	0
Doctorate	0
Missing	2

Table 2

Gender of Respondents

(N = 192)

Gender	Percentage
Female	91
Male	7
Missing	2

Table 3

Age Groupings of Teachers in Sample

(N = 192)

62

Age	Percentage
21-25	3
26-30	4
31-35	6
36-40	22
41-45	32
46-50	20
51-55	8
56-60	2
60+	2
Missing	1

Age Groupings of Teachers in Sample

(N = 192)

Table 4

Present Grade Level Assignment

(N = 192)

63

Grade	Percentage
Kindergarten	9
Transitional	2
Grade 1	18
Grade 2	21
Grade 3	17
Grade 4	14
Grade 5	8
*Other	8
Missing	3

*Resource Room, Special Needs,

Reading Teacher

Table 5

Years of Experience in Present School

(N = 192)

64

Years	Percentage
0-5	40
6-10	13
11-15	15
16-20	18
21-25	7
26-30	4
30+	1
Missing	2

Table 6

Total Teaching Experience

(N = 192)

65

Years	Percentage
0-5	11
6-10	7
11-15	23
16-20	28
21-25	16
26-30	6
31-35	3
35+	1
Missing	5

Subjects of the research study generally evidenced the following characteristics: possess a bachelor's degree, are female, and 41-45 years of age (see Tables 1-3). The average number of years taught in the present school is 10 (see Table 5). The average number of years of total teaching experience is 16 (see Table 6). The responses indicated in Table 2 suggest that women still dominate elementary classroom teaching positions.

While acknowledging the effects of adult life cycle patterns (Krupp, 1981, 1982; Levinson, 1978) and specific career issues related to the aging process (Evans, 1989), the researcher has not focused on these factors in the context of this research study.

Table 7

Perception of School Structure

(N = 192)

Structure	Percentage
Autocratic	13
Laissez Faire	6
Democratic	81

The researcher noted that in the majority of schools, there was a consensus regarding the perceived school structure. However, in certain instances, the same school governance structure was reported to be autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic, depending on the perspective and perception of the respondent. For this reason, the unit of analysis is the perceived school structure (see Table 7). The three groups which emerged--autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic--are representative of those teachers who believe their

school structure most closely approximates the descriptors provided.

Throughout the course of this research study, the term autocratic group will refer to those respondents who perceive their school structure as a top-down governance with the building administrator making most of the decisions. The term laissez faire group will refer to those respondents who perceive their school structure as somewhat unclear, with minimal communication, and no definite pattern of decision-making. The term democratic group will refer to those respondents who perceive their school structure as characterized by horizontal as well as vertical communication, shared goal-setting, problem-solving, and decision-making.

These reference terms for the three school structure groups are used consistently throughout the study. It is important for the reader to note that the label does not characterize or describe the respondents' teaching styles or attitudes but rather their perceptions of the school governance structure.

Part three of the survey consisted of 28 statements. The first nine statements were designed to elicit information regarding teachers' perceptions of school structure. The next nine items were statements related to teacher empowerment. The final ten items in this section focused on teacher motivation.

Responses were recorded on a Likert five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Strongly agree is designated as "SA"; agree = "A"; undecided = "U"; disagree = "D"; and strongly disagree = "SD."

Results are tabulated on the following pages for each of the three perceived school structures, autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic. Values are reported in percentages and have been rounded off. Values for the mean and standard deviation are reported to two significant figures. Unavailable or unreported data are indicated by a dash -.

Because two of the groups, autocratic (n = 25) and laissez faire (n = 12) turned out to be relatively small samples, the decision was made to collapse the data from five response categories to three response categories for further analysis using the paired-t test and the Pearson correlation coefficient. At this point, however, it is appropriate to present the original responses for consideration.

The statements in this section of the survey focused on elements in the school structure that were perceived by the researcher as providing opportunities for teachers to exercise empowerment within the existing structure.

Table 8

Responses for School Structure Items

Item	Responses

1. Information
   provided for
   teaching
   decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	13	50	4	21	12	2.7	1.3
Laissez Faire	-	25	17	50	8	3.4	.99
Democratic	34	56	5	5	-	1.8	.75

2. Encouraged
   to participate
   in decisions

Autocratic	8	21	8	46	17	3.4	1.2
Laissez Faire	8	34	16	42	-	2.9	1.1
Democratic	44	44	7	5	-	1.7	.79

Table 8 continued

Item				Responses				

3. Opportunity
   to participate
   in decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	-	25	12	46	17	3.5	1.1
Laissez Faire	17	25	8	42	8	3.0	1.3
Democratic	36	57	3	4	-	1.7	.70

4. Autonomy
   provided for
   teaching
   decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	12	42	8	30	8	2.8	1.2
Laissez Faire	8	84	-	8	-	2.1	.67
Democratic	42	46	7	5	-	1.8	.80

5. Regular
   staff
   meetings held
   and decision-making
   shared

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	9	36	14	23	18	3.0	1.3
Laissez Faire	-	46	-	36	18	3.3	1.3
Democratic	45	45	6	4	-	1.7	.76

Table 8 continued

Item   Responses

6. Building
   administrator
   makes most
   decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	21	50	-	25	4	2.4	1.2
Laissez Faire	-	25	33	42	-	3.2	.84
Democratic	-	5	6	53	36	4.2	.77

7. Staff
   collaboration
   encouraged

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	4	29	4	46	17	3.4	1.2
Laissez Faire	-	17	17	50	16	3.7	.98
Democratic	20	45	16	18	1	2.4	1.0

8. Teachers work
   together
   harmoniously

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	37	46	4	8	5	2.0	1.1
Laissez Faire	17	67	8	8	-	2.1	.79
Democratic	38	53	4	5	-	1.7	.74

9. Building
   administrator
   makes most
   decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	17	50	13	21	-	2.4	1.0
Laissez Faire	8	34	25	33	-	2.8	.85
Democratic	18	63	11	8	-	2.1	.78

Discussion

Survey items in this section were designed to determine the extent of opportunities for teacher empowerment (see Table 8).

Access to information has been identified as an important factor in the empowerment process. Teachers must be provided with the necessary information before they are able to make responsible professional decisions.

Fifteen respondents (63%) of the autocratic group agree that they are provided with the necessary information to make teaching-related decisions. The laissez faire group responses reflect no strong agreement with Item #1, while only three respondents (25%) agree that they have necessary information provided to make teaching-related decisions. The democratic group reports substantially high agreement with Item #1. One hundred thirty-nine respondents (90%) report they are provided with the necessary information for decision-making.

The principal or building administrator has been identified as having a pivotal role in the process of teacher empowerment. Opportunity for teacher participation in shared decision-making will be increased by encouragement from the principal or building administrator.

The autocratic group reports strong disagreement with Item #2. Seven respondents (29%) indicate they are encouraged by the principal to participate in school decisions. The laissez faire group reflects responses comparable to those of the autocratic group. Five respondents (42%) report encouragement by the principal with regard to participation in school decisions. The democratic group reports high agreement with Item #2. One hundred thirty-six respondents (88%) indicate they are encouraged by the principal to participate in decisions.

Opportunity to participate in the decision-making process is one of the most important elements of teacher empowerment as reported in the literature. Six respondents (25%) of the autocratic group indicate they have the opportunity to participate in decisions. Fifteen respondents (63%) indicate they do not have the opportunity. The laissez faire group is somewhat divided in their responses to Item #3. Five respondents (42%) agree they have the opportunity to participate in decisions. Six respondents (50%) disagree with the statement. One hundred forty-three respondents (93%) of the democratic group agree they have the opportunity to participate in decisions (see Item #3).

Autonomy that is balanced with responsibility and accountability within the realm of one's own

professional expertise is another element of teacher
empowerment. Thirteen respondents (54%) of the
autocratic group agree they have the autonomy needed to
make decisions related to their teaching assignments.
Eleven respondents (92%) of the laissez faire group
report having the necessary autonomy to make teaching-
related decisions. One hundred thirty-four respondents
(88%) of the democratic group agree that they have the
necessary autonomy to make teaching-related decisions
(see Item #4).

A formal school structure, such as the holding of
regularly scheduled meetings, was determined to be a
necessary component for teacher empowerment. The
statement was intentionally "double-barreled." It
required respondents to consider whether or not the
elements of both regular staff meetings and opportuni-
ties for all staff members to participate were present.
The researcher determined that it is the presence of
both elements that facilitates the process of teacher
empowerment.

Ten respondents (44%) of the autocratic group agree
with the statement, while nine respondents (41%)
disagree. Five respondents (46%) of the laissez faire
group agree with the statement and six respondents (54%)
disagree. The democratic group reports high agreement
with this statement. One hundred thirty-nine

respondents (90%) indicate that staff meetings are held

regularly and all teachers are able to participate in

the decision-making (see Item #5).

Item #6 was included in the survey as a cross-check

on other items related to the decision-making process in

a given school. Agreement on this item is perceived by

the researcher as indicative of a school structure that

is inhibiting to teacher empowerment. Seventeen

respondents (71%) of the autocratic group agree that

the building administrator is the prime decision-maker

in their school. Three respondents (25%) of the laissez

faire group agree that the administrator makes most of

the decisions in their school. The democratic group

shows little agreement with this item. Eight

respondents (5%) agree, while 136 respondents (88%)

disagree that the building administrator is the prime

decision-maker in their school (see Item #6).

Collaboration among staff members is another

element of teacher empowerment. It is a way in which

teachers are able to share their skills and expertise in

a professional manner, while helping to combat the

isolationism that is characteristic of the teaching

profession.

Eight respondents (33%) of the autocratic group

agree that building administrators provide the time and

resources for staff collaboration on educational

projects. Two respondents (17%) of the laissez faire

group report building administrators provide the time

and resources for staff collaboration on educational

projects. One hundred respondents (65%) of the

democratic group agree that building administrators

provide the time and resources for staff collaboration

on educational projects (see Item #7).

Cooperation in a harmonious manner is another

indicator of a school setting where teacher empowerment

is facilitated. All three comparison groups are in

close agreement with survey Item #8. Twenty respondents

(83%) of the autocratic group report agreement. Ten

respondents (84%) of the laissez faire group agree that

the teachers work together harmoniously in their

schools. One hundred forty-one (91%) of the democratic

group agree that the teachers work together harmoniously

in their school (see Item #8).

Little's work (1982) on collegiality norms in the

school workplace suggest that conversation among

teachers in effective schools is focused on professional

matters and the sharing of ideas. The nature of

teachers' conversation with one another is indicative

of professionalism. Sixteen respondents (67%) of the

autocratic group report that conversation in their

schools frequently focuses on professional matters.

Five respondents (42%) of the laissez faire group agree

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that conversation is frequently of a professional nature. One hundred twenty-four respondents (77%) of the democratic group agree that conversation among staff members frequently focuses on professional issues related to teaching (see Item #9).

Teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic report more extensive opportunities to exercise teacher empowerment within the existing school structure than did those of the perceived autocratic or laissez faire group. As a group, they also evidence greater consensus on more survey items than did respondents in the other two comparison groups (see Table 8).

The statements in this section were designed by the
researcher to gain information related to teacher
empowerment. The intent was: (1) to assess the extent
and areas of teacher participation in decision-making;
(2) to assess teachers' sense of efficacy and competence
in their own regard. Each of the factors is described
in the literature as indicative of teacher empowerment.

Table 9

Responses for Teacher Empowerment Items

Item						Responses	
10. Participate in teaching-related decisions							
	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	13	37	12	25	12	2.9	1.3
Laissez Faire	25	58	8	8	-	2.0	.85
Democratic	25	69	4	2	-	1.8	.58

Table 9 continued

Item   Responses

11. Participate
    in school-
    wide decisions   79

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	-	13	4	50	33	4.0	.96
Laissez Faire	-	8	50	42	-	3.3	.65
Democratic	14	59	15	12	-	2.3	.86

12. Experiment
    in teaching
    without
    consulting

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	25	46	8	13	8	2.3	1.2
Laissez Faire	33	50	-	17	-	2.0	1.0
Democratic	15	57	3	24	1	2.4	1.0

13. Respond to
    situation
    and inform
    afterward

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	17	61	-	17	4	2.3	1.1
Laissez Faire	17	67	8	8	-	2.1	.79
Democratic	10	46	18	23	3	2.6	1.0

Table 9 continued

Item							Responses	

14. Consult administrator and follow decision

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
				Percentage			
Autocratic	8	30	4	46	12	3.2	1.3
Laissez Faire	–	18	18	64	–	3.4	.82
Democratic	3	37	25	33	1	2.9	.94

15. Sense of value because of profession

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	50	29	13	8	–	1.8	.97
Laissez Faire	58	42	–	–	–	1.4	.51
Democratic	43	50	4	2	1	1.7	.71

16. Able to effect school-wide change

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	–	25	8	50	17	3.6	1.1
Laissez Faire	–	42	33	25	–	2.8	.84
Democratic	13	50	22	14	1	2.4	.92

Table 9 continued

Item						Responses		

17. Competence
    to make
    classroom
    decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	75	21	4	–	–	1.3	.55
Laissez Faire	58	42	–	–	–	1.4	.52
Democratic	66	34	–	–	–	1.3	.48

18. Competence
    to make
    school-wide
    decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	29	38	17	8	8	2.3	1.2
Laissez Faire	17	58	17	8	–	2.2	.84
Democratic	22	49	21	8	–	2.2	.86

Discussion

Participation in decisions which relate to one's
own area of professional expertise is one of the most
crucial elements of teacher empowerment. Survey items
in the school structure section were designed to assess
opportunity to participate in decisions. Survey items
in the section on teacher empowerment were designed to
assess whether teachers do participate in different
areas of school decision-making (see Table 9).

Twelve respondents (50%) of the autocratic group
agree that they participate in teaching-related
decisions. Ten respondents (83%) of the laissez faire
group report that they participate in teaching-related
decisions. One hundred forty-four respondents (94%) of
the democratic group report they participate in
teaching-related decisions (see Item #10).

Teacher empowerment leads to a broader base of
decision-making when teachers participate. Teachers are
not merely confined to classroom decisions. They
collaborate and participate in decisions which affect
the whole school and the total learning environment.

Three respondents (13%) of the autocratic group
report that they participate in school-wide decisions.
One respondent (8%) of the laissez faire group agrees
that he/she participates in school-wide decisions. One
hundred respondents (73%) of the democratic group report
participation in decisions which affect the governance
of the whole school (see Item #11).

The confidence in one's own professional
judgment in experimenting with different ideas and
teaching strategies without consulting administrators is
another indicator of teacher empowerment.

Seventeen respondents (71%) of the autocratic group
report that they experiment in their teaching without
consulting administrators. Fifty-four percent of this

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group report building administrators afforded them autonomy in teaching-related decisions (Item #4). Ten respondents (83%) of the laissez faire group indicate they experiment with teaching strategies without consulting administrators. Ninety-two percent of this group agreed they have the autonomy to make teaching-related decisions (Item #4). One hundred nine respondents (72%) of the democratic group indicate they experiment with teaching strategies without consulting administrators. Eighty-eight percent of this group agreed they are provided with the autonomy needed to make teaching-related decisions (see Items #4 and #12).

The confidence in one's ability to assess a situation, to act, and to accept the responsibility for the action taken are all indicative of teacher empowerment. An empowered individual does not perceive that he/she must frequently consult the person in authority before responding to a situation at hand.

Eighteen respondents (78%) of the autocratic group indicate that they respond to a situation requiring action first, and then inform administrators. Ten respondents (84%) of the laissez faire group indicate that they respond to a situation requiring action first, and then inform administrators. Eighty-six respondents (56%) of the democratic group report that they respond

to a situation requiring action first, and then inform administrators (see Item #13).

Item #14 was included in the survey as a cross-check. Nine respondents (38%) of the autocratic group indicate they inform administrators of a situation requiring action and then follow the direction of the administrator. Two respondents (18%) of the laissez faire group indicate that they inform administrators of a situation requiring action and then follow the direction of the administrator. Sixty-one respondents (40%) of the democratic group agree that they inform administrators of a situation requiring action and then follow the direction of the administrator (see Item #14).

Professional status is described as another indicator of teacher empowerment. This statement designedly linked teachers' sense of personal value to their professional status.

Nineteen respondents (79%) of the autocratic group agree that they have a sense of personal value because they are teachers. Twelve respondents (100%) of the laissez faire report that they have a sense of personal value as a result of being teachers. One hundred forty-three respondents (93%) of the democratic group indicate they possess a sense of personal value because of their profession (see Item #15).

Empowerment is characterized by the conviction that one has the ability to effect desired change within the professional workplace. Item #16 was designed to determine how extensive teachers perceive their ability is to effect school-wide change.

Six respondents (25%) of the autocratic group perceive that they are able to effect procedural changes in the school. Five respondents (42%) of the laissez-faire group indicate they are able to effect procedural changes within the school. Ninety-seven respondents (63%) of the democratic group report being able to effect procedural changes within the school (see Item #16).

The acknowledgment of one's competence in the professional domain is also cited in the literature as an element of teacher empowerment. All three groups report being competent to make educational decisions affecting the classroom to a substantial degree.

Twenty-three respondents (96%) of the autocratic group report they are competent to make educational decisions affecting the classroom. Twelve respondents (100%) of the laissez faire group indicate they are competent to make educational decisions affecting the classroom. One hundred fifty-five respondents (100%) of the democratic group agree that they have the competence

to make educational decisions affecting the classroom
(see Item #17).

Item #18 is an extension of Item #17. It was
designed to note any difference in teachers' sense of
competence in making school-wide decisions.

Sixteen respondents (67%) of the autocratic group
believe they have the competence to make school-wide
decisions. Nine respondents (75%) of the laissez faire
group believe they possess the competence to make
school-wide decisions. One hundred nine (71%) of the
democratic group report they have the competence to make
school-wide decisions (see Item #18).

Teachers who perceived their school structure as
democratic reported more extensive participation in
shared decision-making than did those in the other
two comparison groups. All three groups report having
the competence to make classroom-related decisions and
school-wide decisions. For all groups also, the
teachers' sense of efficacy and competence in their own
regard exceeds reported participation in decision-
making.

Teacher Motivation Items

The ten statements in this section were designed by the researcher to gain information related to teacher motivation. The intent was to determine any association between motivation in teaching and school structure as well as any relation between motivation in teaching and teacher empowerment.

Table 10

Responses for Teacher Motivation Items

Item						Responses	
19. Motivated because empowered to make decisions							
	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	12	24	12	48	4	3.1	1.2
Laissez Faire	8	34	–	58	–	3.1	1.2
Democratic	19	56	10	14	1	2.2	.95
20. Motivated from working with students							
Autocratic	72	24	4	–	–	1.3	.56
Laissez Faire	67	33	–	–	–	1.3	.49
Democratic	65	34	1	–	–	1.3	.49

Table 10 continued

Item   Responses

21. Motivated
    from working
    with colleagues

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	8	60	8	24	-	2.5	.96
Laissez Faire	16	67	17	-	-	2.0	.60
Democratic	22	62	9	6	1	2.0	.82

22. Motivated by
    recognition
    from
    administrators

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	-	28	16	36	20	3.5	1.1
Laissez Faire	-	17	25	42	16	3.6	1.0
Democratic	12	57	15	13	3	2.4	.96

23. Motivated
    because I
    make a
    difference

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	52	44	4	-	-	1.5	.59
Laissez Faire	58	42	-	-	-	1.4	.52
Democratic	54	41	3	2	-	1.5	.65

Table 10 continued

Item   Responses

24. Motivated
    because
    participate in
    decision-making

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	–	20	8	48	24	3.8	1.0
Laissez Faire	–	17	17	66	–	3.5	.80
Democratic	8	46	26	19	1	2.6	.91

25. Motivated
    because
    administrators
    make decisions

Autocratic	–	16	32	52	–	4.4	.76
Laissez Faire	–	8	67	25	–	4.2	.58
Democratic	–	4	10	64	22	4.0	.70

26. Motivated
    because of
    collegiality

Autocratic	4	16	16	44	20	3.6	1.1
Laissez Faire	17	33	16	17	17	2.8	1.4
Democratic	15	54	14	15	2	2.4	.97

Table 10 continued

Item	Responses

27. Ability to
    participate in
    decision-making

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
			Percentage				
Autocratic	4	28	8	52	8	3.3	1.1
Laissez Faire	-	25	33	42	-	3.2	.84
Democratic	10	59	14	14	3	2.4	.94

28. Motivated
    because have
    control in
    classroom
    decisions

	SA	A	U	D	SD	MEAN	STDEV
Autocratic	22	39	13	26	-	2.4	1.1
Laissez Faire	42	50	-	8	-	1.8	.87
Democratic	49	45	4	1	-	1.6	.70

Discussion

Being able to participate in job-related decisions
is cited in the literature as a potential source of
teacher motivation. Item #19 was designed to determine
any association between empowerment and teacher
motivation. Nine respondents (36%) of the autocratic
group report that empowerment in job-related decisions
is a source of motivation to them. Twelve respondents
(50%) of this group indicate they participate in

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teaching-related decisions (Item #10) and three respondents (13%) indicate they participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). Five respondents (42%) of the laissez faire group agree that empowerment to make job-related decisions is a source of motivation. Eighty-three percent of the group report they participate in teaching-related decisions (Item #10). Only eight percent indicate they participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). One hundred fifteen respondents (75%) of the democratic group indicate they are motivated by empowerment to make job-related decisions. Ninety-four percent report they participate in teaching-related decisions (Item #10). Seventy-one percent of the group report that they participate in school-wide decisions (see Items #11 and #19).

Working with students is the essence of teaching. Several studies suggest that teachers' primary motivation is the satisfaction derived from working with their students (e.g., Lortie, 1975). Twenty-four respondents (96%) of the autocratic group report they are motivated by the satisfaction they receive from working with students. Twelve respondents (100%) of the laissez faire group agree they are motivated by working with their students. One hundred fifty-three

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respondents (99%) of the democratic group indicate they are motivated by working with their students (see Item #20).

Traditionally, teaching is an isolating profession and does not provide many opportunities for collegial interaction, either socially or professionally. Item #21 was designed to determine whether or not working with colleagues is a source of teaching motivation. Seventeen respondents (68%) of the autocratic group report they are motivated by satisfaction from working with colleagues. Eighty-three percent of this group indicate that teachers in their school work together harmoniously (Item #8). Ten respondents (83 %) of the laissez faire group indicate they are motivated by satisfaction from working with colleagues. Eighty-four percent report that teachers in their school work together harmoniously (Item #8). One hundred twenty-eight respondents (84%) of the democratic group agree they are motivated by the satisfaction they receive from working with colleagues. Ninety-one percent report that teachers in their school work together harmoniously (see Items #8 and #21).

Research studies on teacher motivation indicate that achievement and recognition are important motivators. Encouragement by the principal to participate in the decision-making process is one way in

which building administrators can give recognition to teachers. Seven respondents (28%) of the autocratic group report they are motivated by the recognition they receive from building administrators. Twenty-eight percent of the group report being encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in the school (Item #2). Two respondents (17%) of the laissez faire group indicate they are motivated by the recognition they receive from building administrators. Forty-two percent report being encouraged to participate in decision-making in the school (Item #2). One hundred six respondents (69%) of the democratic group agree that recognition from building administrators is a source of motivation to them. Eighty-eight percent report they are encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in the school (see Items #2 and #22).

Sense of achievement is one of the chief motivators reported by teachers. Item #23 was designed to assess teachers' sense of achievement with regard to their students as a source of motivation. Twenty-four respondents (96%) of the autocratic group report they are motivated in teaching because they believe they make a difference in the lives of their students. Twelve respondents (100%) of the laissez-faire group indicate they are motivated by the belief they make a difference

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In the lives of their students. One hundred forty-seven respondents (93%) of the democratic group agree they are motivated by the belief that they make a difference in the lives of their students (see Item #23).

The opportunity to participate in decisions which affect oneself in the professional domain is reported to be a source of motivation. Five respondents (20%) of the autocratic group report that participation in the decision-making process in the school is a source of motivation. Thirteen percent of the group report they participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). Two respondents (17%) of the laissez faire group indicate that participation in the decision-making process in the school is a source of motivation. Eight percent report they participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). Eighty-three respondents (54%) of the democratic group agree that they are motivated because they participate in the decision-making process in the school. Seventy-one percent report participation in school-wide decisions (see Items #11 and #24).

Item #25 was designed to determine if there were teachers who were motivated because they did not participate in decision-making. Is freedom from decision-making a motivator for any teachers? None of the respondents in the autocratic group suggested they are motivated because building administrators make most

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of the decisions. Seventy-one percent report that a
building administrator makes most of the decisions in
the school (Item #6). None of the respondents in the
laissez faire group suggested they were motivated
because building administrators make most of the
decisions. Twenty-five percent report that a building
administrator makes most of the decisions in the school
(Item #6). Seven respondents (4%) of the democratic
group report that they are motivated because a building
administrator makes most of the decisions in the school
(see Items #6 and #25).

Collaboration, communication, and participation in
decisions within a collegial school atmosphere are
elements of teacher empowerment. Item #26 was designed
to determine whether collegiality was perceived as a
source of motivation. Five respondents (20%) of the
autocratic group indicate that collegiality among all
staff members is a source of motivation. By comparison,
80% report that teachers in their school work together
harmoniously (Item #8). Six respondents (50%) of the
laissez faire group suggest that they are motivated
because of the collegiality experienced among all staff
members. Eighty-three percent of the group indicatethat
teachers in their school work together harmoniously
(Item #8). One hundred five respondents (69%) of the
democratic group report that collegiality among all

95

staff members is a source of motivation. Ninety-one percent of the group agreed that teachers in the school work together harmoniously (see Items #8 and #26).

Participation in decision-making is one of the central elements of teacher empowerment and is, therefore, the focus of many of the survey items. Eight respondents (32%) of the autocratic group indicate that being able to participate in the decision-making process is a source of motivation. Thirteen percent of the group report they do participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). Three respondents (25%) of the laissez faire group agree that being able to participate in the decision-making process is a source of motivation to them. Eight percent indicate they do participate in school-wide decisions (Item #11). One hundred five respondents (69%) of the democratic group agree that being able to participate in the decision-making process is a source of motivation. Seventy-one percent indicate they do participate in school-wide decisions (see Items #11 and #27).

The autonomy of the "closed classroom door" has been cited in the literature as a barrier to school change or reform efforts. Teachers are afforded a great deal of latitude and discretion in their classrooms. Item #28 was included to determine any association between teacher autonomy in the classroom and motivation

in teaching. Fourteen respondents (61%) of the autocratic group report they are motivated because they feel they have control over what takes place in their classroom. Fifty percent (50%) of the group indicate they participate in decisions related to the teaching process (Item #10). Eleven respondents (92%) of the laissez faire group agree they are motivated because they feel they have control over what takes place in their classroom. Eighty-three percent report they participate in decisions related to the teaching process (Item #10). One hundred forty-five respondents (94%) of the democratic group indicate they are motivated because they feel they have control over what takes place in their classroom. Ninety-four percent of the group also report that they participate in decisions related to the teaching process (see Items #10 and #28).

The responses for the autocratic and laissez faire groups are similar (see Table 10). Respondents from these two groups report that working with students and the belief that they make a difference in their students' lives are major sources of motivation. Participation in decision-making and recognition from building administrators are not sources of motivation to any great extent. Teachers who perceived their school structure as democratic report more sources of teaching

motivation than do those teachers who perceive their school structure as autocratic or laissez faire.

Part four of the survey consisted of six pairs of descriptive words set up on a five-point semantic differential. Respondents were asked to indicate on a continuum the word which best described their attitude toward themselves in relation to their teaching.

Table 11

Teacher Attitudes

	Content				Discontent
	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	16	52	24	4	4
Laissez faire	25	42	17	16	-
Democratic	37	49	13	1	-

	Pessimistic				Optimistic
	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	4	24	24	36	12
Laissez faire	-	8	25	50	17
Democratic	-	1	19	47	33

Table 11 continued

Enthusiastic / Depressed

	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	40	44	12	–	4
Laissez faire	42	33	25	–	–
Democratic	51	41	6	2	–

Powerless / Empowered

	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	20	36	28	16	–
Laissez faire	17	8	42	25	8
Democratic	–	5	28	50	17

Bored / Interested

	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	4	4	8	56	28
Laissez faire	–	–	–	58	42
Democratic	1	1	5	39	54

Table 11 continued

	Motivated			Indifferent	
	1	2	3	4	5
			Percentage		
Autocratic	36	44	12	4	4
Laissez faire	50	25	25	-	-
Democratic	53	36	6	4	1

Discussion

Those respondents who perceive their school
structure as democratic tend to describe themselves
with more positive attitudes in relation to their
teaching (see Table 11). In general, the democratic
group also reports more positive attitudes than the
other two comparison groups. Conversely, those teachers
who perceive their school structure as autocratic tend
to describe themselves with less positive attitudes in
relation to their teaching.

Sources of Teacher Motivation

Part five of the survey consisted of nine sources
of teacher motivation as identified in the educational
research literature. Teachers were asked to rank the
nine areas in terms of how important the factors were to
them as staff members in their present school. The

following tables report the rankings for each of the three school structure groups: autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic. The rankings were ordered by using the mode for each motivating factor. In cases where there were ties, they are reported as such.

Table 12

Sources of Teacher Motivation

Autocratic Group
(n = 25)

Modal Rank	Motivation Source
1	Working with students
2	Sense of achievement
3	Attitudes & policies of administration
4	Responsibility inherent in teaching
5	Job security
5	Opportunity for personal growth
6	Work environment
7	(Not given)
8	Recognition
9	Status

Discussion

Fourteen respondents (58%) of the teachers in the autocratic group place working with students as their most important motivator. Sense of achievement was ranked as the second most important motivator by 11

respondents (46%) of the group. Attitudes and policies
of administration is ranked as the third most important
motivator by five respondents (21%) of the autocratic
group. This is the only group which reports administra-
tive attitudes and policies as one of the top three
sources of motivation in their teaching (see Table 12).

Table 13

Sources of Teacher Motivation

> Laissez Faire Group
> (n = 12)

Modal Rank	Motivation Source
1	Working with students
2	Responsibility in teaching
3	Sense of achievement
4	Opportunity for personal growth
4	Job security
5	(Not given)
6	(Not given)
7	Recognition
7	Status
8	Work environment
9	Attitudes & policies of administration

Discussion

Seven respondents (58%) of the teachers in the laissez faire group report working with students as their most important motivator. Responsibility inherent in teaching was ranked the second most important source of motivation by four respondents (33%) of the laissez faire group. Sense of achievement was considered the third most important motivator by six respondents (50%) of the group (see Table 13).

Table 14

Sources of Teacher Motivation

Democratic Group
     (n = 155)

Modal Rank	Source of Motivation
1	Working with students
2	Sense of achievement
3	Responsibility in teaching
4	Opportunity for personal growth
5	Work environment
6	Attitudes & policies of administration
7	Job security
8	Recognition
9	Status

Discussion

One hundred three (67%) of the democratic group
rank working with students as the primary source of
motivation. Sense of achievement is ranked as the
second most important motivator by 71 respondents (46%)
of this group. Responsibility in teaching is the third
most important motivator for 40 respondents (26%) of the
group (see Table 14).

The results from each of the three comparison
groups are comparable to other motivational studies
involving teachers. Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) wrote
that the ranking of status and recognition should not be
interpreted as meaning that such motivators are
unimportant to teachers. They suggested instead that
teachers' expectations with regard to these motivators
diminish with time. It is difficult to be motivated by
that which is consistently lacking or unavailable.

The purpose of the research study was to determine
any measure of association between teacher empowerment
and school structure. To what extent do teachers'
perceptions of school structure influence teacher
empowerment? To what extent does teacher empowerment
influence school structure? A second purpose of the
research study was also to determine any correlation
between teacher empowerment and teacher motivation. To

what extent does teacher empowerment enhance teacher motivation and does it add to motivational theory?

Because responses from two of the perceived school structure groups, autocratic and laissez faire, resulted in small sample sizes, (autocratic, $n=25$ and laissez faire, $n=12$), the researcher decided to collapse the original five response categories to three response categories for this further analysis. Responses for "strongly agree" and "agree" were collapsed into a single "agree" category. These were given a numerical value of "1." The undecided category remained the same and has a numerical value of "2." Responses for "strongly disagree" and "disagree" were collapsed into a single "disagree" category and were given a numerical value of "3."

The final section of data reporting and analysis is the result of conducting two statistical measures in order to provide further information regarding the variables of interest. The paired-t ratio and the Pearson r, also known as the product-moment correlation coefficient, were determined to be the appropriate statistical tests.

Selected statements from part three of the survey were subjected to the paired-t test and the product-moment correlation coefficient was also determined. Statements related to school structure were paired with

statements from the section on teacher empowerment.
Statements from the section on teacher empowerment were
paired with statements from the section on teacher
motivation. In each case, the results and data analysis
are reported for each of the three perceived school
structure groups, autocratic, laissez faire, and
democratic. These cases are numbered from 1 through 8
for purposes of identification and ease of reference.

At this point in the data analysis, the focus of
the discussion is on the variables of interest, school
structure, teacher empowerment, and teacher motivation
as they relate to the three comparison groups of
perceived school structure, autocratic, laissez faire,
and democratic. It is appropriate once again to remind
the reader that the labels, autocratic, laissez faire,
and democratic, refer to the respondents' perceptions of
their school governance structures and not to the
teaching styles or attitudes of the respondents.

CASE 1

Item 3: I have the opportunity to participate
in the decision making process in this school.

Item 10: I participate in decisions which
relate to the teaching process.

Table 15

Case 1

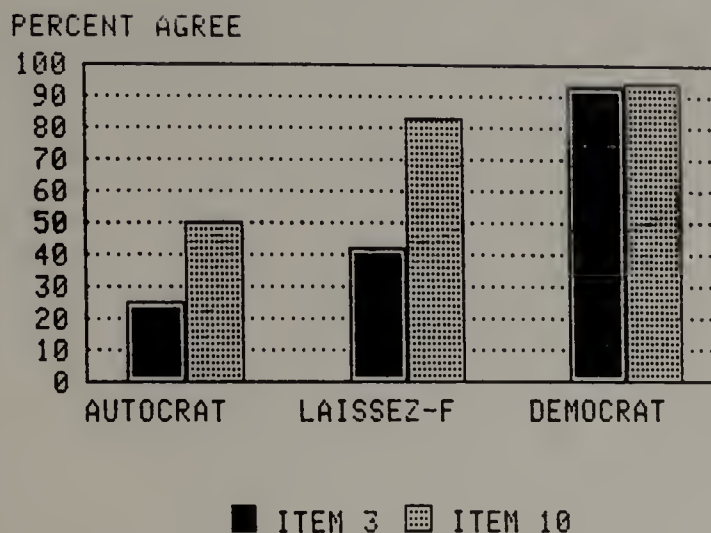|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	23	12	153
mean #3	2.3	2.1	1.1
mean #10	1.9	1.3	1.1
t value	1.93	2.28	.82
Prob. t	.066	.044	.413
r value	.308	-.184	.170
Prob. r	.152	.568	.036

Figure 1. Opportunity to participate vs. participation in teaching decisions

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states

there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant.

Even though the statistical decision is to accept the null hypothesis, to say that there is no difference in the two sample means is not to suggest that the two means are equal. Both values of the means are in the vicinity of the "undecided" range. Only six respondents (25%) of this group agree they have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in the school. Twelve respondents (50%) agree they participate in teaching-related decisions (see Figure 1).

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant.

Five respondents (42%) of the laissez faire group report they have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in the school. However, six respondents (50%) disagree with the statement. This ambivalence within the group is reflected in the value

of the mean (2.1). Ten respondents (83%) of the group
report they participate in decisions which relate to
the teaching process.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the
paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null
hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample
means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the
decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states
there is no correlation or association between the two
variables of interest. There is a correlation between
the two variables of interest; the test is significant
(see Table 15).

For the democratic group, there is strong and close
agreement with both of the statements as can be seen in
Figure 1. One hundred forty-three respondents (93%)
agree they have the opportunity to participate in the
decision-making process in the school. One hundred
forty-four respondents (94%) report they do participate
in teaching-related decisions. In the context of these
two statements, the results of the t test and the
Pearson r are most supportive of the researcher's
hypothesis that teacher empowerment is a function of
perceived school structure.

CASE 2

Item 3: I have the opportunity to participate
in the decision making process in this school.

Item 18: I have the competence to make
educational decisions which affect the whole school.

Table 16

Case 2

	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	23	12	153
mean #3	2.3	2.1	1.1
mean #18	1.5	1.3	1.4
t value	3.56	2.14	-4.6
Prob. t	.002	.056	.000
r value	.119	-.047	.163
Prob. r	.589	.885	.044
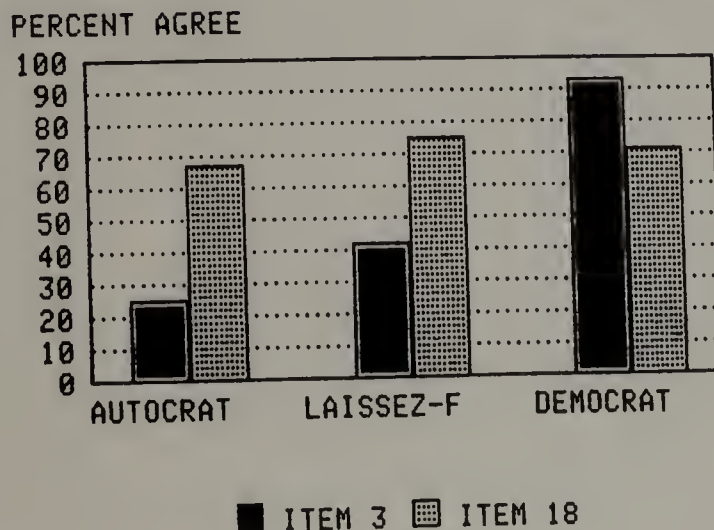
Figure 2. Opportunity to participate vs. competence to make school-wide decisions

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest. The test is not significant.

It is interesting to note that, although 15 respondents (63%) of the group disagree that they have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in the school, almost the same number--16 respondents (67%)--indicate they have the competence to make educational decisions which affect the whole school. The issue does not appear to be a lack of confidence in regard to teachers' own competence.

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant. Results of the tests for this group do not lend support one way or another to the research hypothesis.

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Democratic Group. Based on the results for the

paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null

hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample

means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the

decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states

there is no correlation or association between the two

variables of interest. There is a correlation between

the two variables of interest for the democratic group;

the test is significant.

The results for this group are somewhat supportive

of the researcher's hypothesis. The support is weakened

by the fact that there is a difference in the means (see

Table 16). However, when one considers that 143

respondents (93%) of the group agree they have the

opportunity to participate in decision-making and 109

respondents (71%) perceive they have the competence to

make school-wide decisions, these results lend further

support to the research hypothesis (see Figure 2).

CASE 3

Item 6: A building administrator makes most

of the decisions in this school with little or no input

from teachers.

Item 11: I participate in decisions which

affect governance of the whole school.

Table 17

Case 3

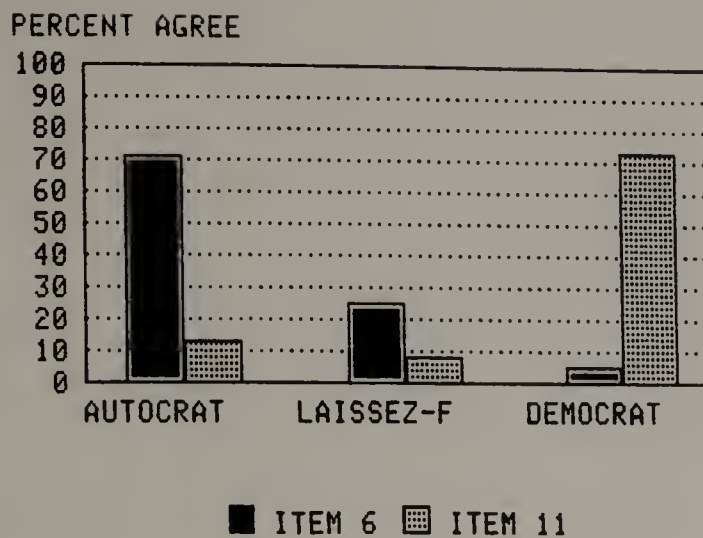|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	23	12	153
mean #6	1.6	2.2	2.8
mean #11	2.7	2.3	1.4
t value	-3.78	-.52	17.92
Prob. t	.001	.615	.000
r value	-.394	-.111	-.362
Prob. r	.063	.730	.000

Figure 3. Building administrator makes most decisions vs. participation in school-wide decisions.

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states

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there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant.

These results are expected for the autocratic group. Since 17 respondents (71%) report that a building administrator makes most of the decisions, one might expect that the value of the two sample means would be different. The correlation coefficient is negative, but it is not within the 0.05 level of statistical significance (see Table 17).

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant. Results of the tests for this group do not lend support one way or another to the research hypothesis.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two

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variables of interest. There is a correlation between
the two variables of interest; the test is significant.
In the context of these two statements (see Figure 3),
the results of the t test and the Pearson r are most
supportive of the researcher's hypothesis that teacher
empowerment is a function of perceived school structure.
The negative correlation indicates that high scores on
one variable associate with low scores on the second
variable, and vice versa.

CASE 4

Item 11: I participate in decisions which
affect the governance of this school.

Item 27: Being able to participate in the
decision-making process is a source of motivation in my
teaching.

Table 18

Case 4

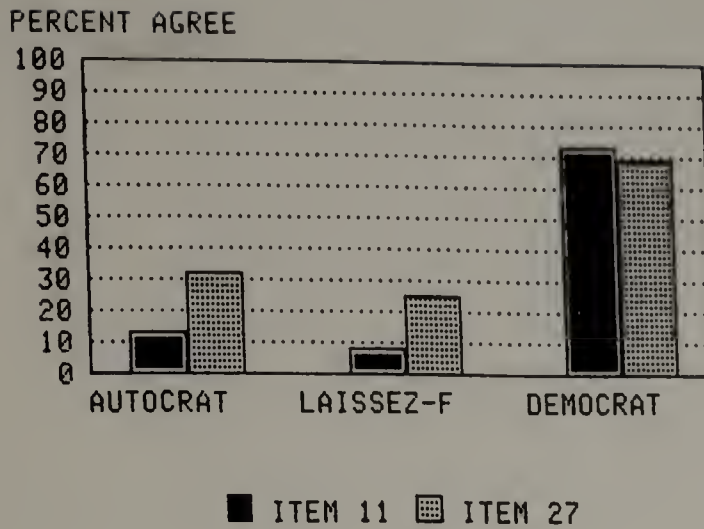|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	24	12	151
mean #11	2.7	2.3	1.4
mean #27	2.2	2.2	1.5
t value	2.11	.62	-1.06
Prob. t	.046	.551	.290
r value	.183	.223	.216
Prob. r	.391	.486	.008

PERCENT AGREE

Figure 4. Participation in school-wide decisions vs. motivation from being able to participate

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant. Results of the tests for this group do not lend support, one way or another to the research hypothesis.

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states

there is no correlation or association between the two
variables of interest; the test is not significant.
Results of the tests for this group do not lend support,
one way or another to the research hypothesis.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the
paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null
hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample
means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the
decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states
there is no correlation or association between the two
variables of interest. There is a correlation between
the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

In the context of these two statements, the results
of the t test and the Pearson r are most supportive of
the researcher's hypothesis that teacher motivation is
related to teacher empowerment (see Table 18). Those
teachers who report participation in school-wide
decisions indicate they are motivated by being able to
participate in the decision-making process (see
Figure 4).

CASE 5

Statement 10: I participate in decisions which
relate to the teaching process.

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Statement 19: I am motivated as a teacher by the
knowledge that I am empowered to make job-related
decisions.

Table 19

Case 5

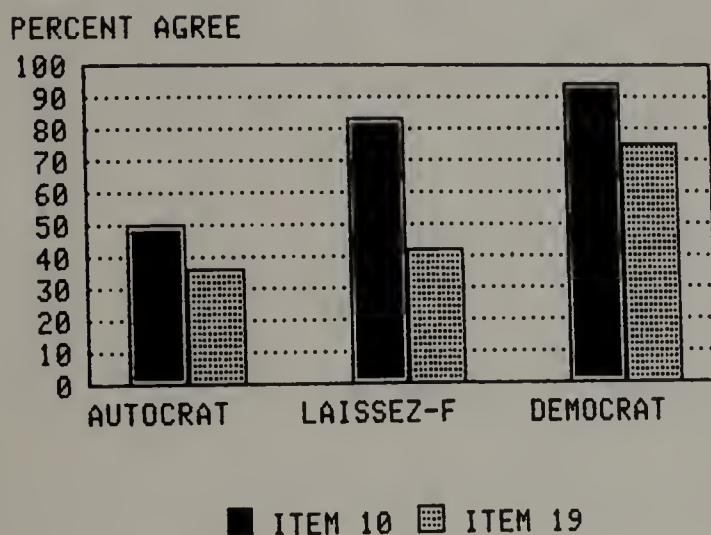|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	24	12	151
mean #10	1.9	1.2	1.1
mean #19	2.1	2.2	1.4
t value	-1.30	-2.42	-5.23
Prob. t	.207	.034	.000
r value	.503	-.213	.225
Prob. r	.012	.506	.005

Figure 5. Participation in teaching decisions vs.
motivation from empowerment

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the
paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null
hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample
means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the
decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states
there is no correlation or association between the two
variables of interest. There is a correlation between
the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

The values for the two sample means suggest an
ambivalence within the group on these items (see
Table 19). Twelve respondents (50%) of the group
report they participate in decisions related to
teaching. Nine respondents (36%) indicate they are
motivated by the knowledge they are empowered to make
job-related decisions (see Figure 5). At the other end
of the continuum, nine respondents (38%) of the group
report they do not participate in teaching-related
decisions. Thirteen respondents (52%) of the group
report they are not motivated by the knowledge they
are empowered to make job-related decisions.

The correlation of the two variables in the context
of this group seems to suggest that those who report
participation in teaching-related decisions also report
motivation from the knowledge they are empowered.
Conversely, those who indicate they do not participate

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in teaching-related decisions also indicate they are not motivated by the knowledge that they are empowered. Results are considered to be somewhat supportive of the researcher's hypothesis that teacher motivation is related to teacher empowerment.

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant. Results of the tests for this group do not lend support, one way or another to the research hypothesis.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest. There is a correlation between the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

The results for this group are somewhat supportive of the researcher's hypothesis. Though the statistical

decision is to reject the hypothesis of difference, there is a high percentage of agreement in the group with regard to both items (see Figure 5). One hundred respondents (94%) report they participate in teaching-related decisions, while 115 respondents (75%) of the democratic group report they are motivated by the knowledge that they are empowered. The researcher believes the results lend support to the research hypothesis.

CASE 6

Item 11: I participate in decisions which affect the governance of this school.

Item 24: I am motivated in teaching because I participate in the decision-making process in this school.

Table 20

Case 6

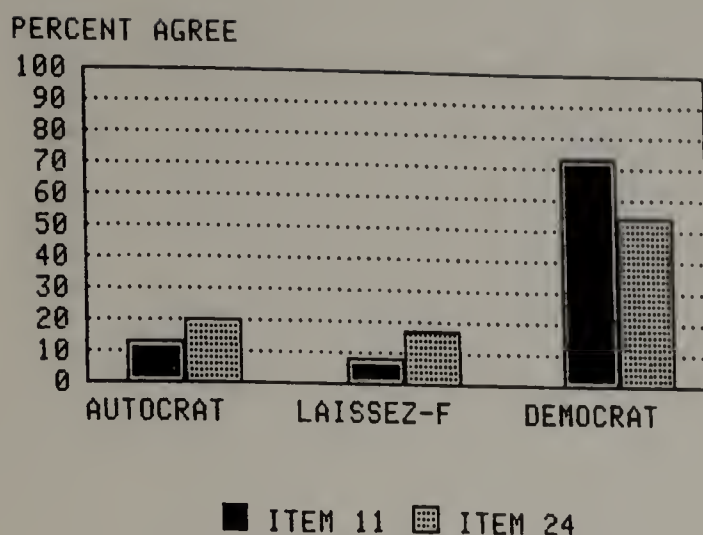|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	24	12	152
mean #11	2.7	2.3	1.4
mean #24	2.5	2.5	1.7
t value	1.31	-.69	-3.78
Prob. t	.203	.504	.000
r value	.491	.350	.341
Prob. r	.015	.265	.000

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PERCENT AGREE

■ ITEM 11 ▦ ITEM 24

Figure 6. Participation in school-wide decisions vs.
motivation from participation in decisions

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the

paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null

hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample

means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the

decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states

there is no correlation or association between the two

variables of interest. There is a correlation between

the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

Three respondents (13%) of this group report they

participate in school-wide decisions. Five respondents

(20%) report that they are motivated in teaching because

they participate in the decision-making process in the

school (see Figure 6). In contrast, 83% indicate they do not participate in school-wide decisions and 72% indicate they are not motivated because they participate in the decision-making process in the school.

Results are supportive of the research hypothesis in a negative fashion; that is, one cannot be motivated by that which one does not do. Those who identify their school structures as autocratic report less participation in decision-making and correspondingly lower motivation in relation to participation in decision-making (see Figure 6).

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant. Results of the tests for this group do not lend support, one way or another, to the research hypothesis.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two the two variables of interest; the test is significant (see Table 20).

Even though the rigor of statistical support is not evident for the paired-t test, the results for this group are somewhat supportive of the researcher's hypothesis. There is a correlation between participation in school-wide decisions and motivation as a result of participation in the decision-making process. One hundred twelve respondents (71%) report they participate in school-wide decisions, while 83 respondents (54%) of the democratic group report that they are motivated by participation in the decision-making process (Figure 6).

CASE 7

Item 18: I have the competence to make educational decisions which affect the whole school.

Item 19: I am motivated as a teacher by the knowledge that I am empowered to make job-related decisions.

Table 21

Case 7

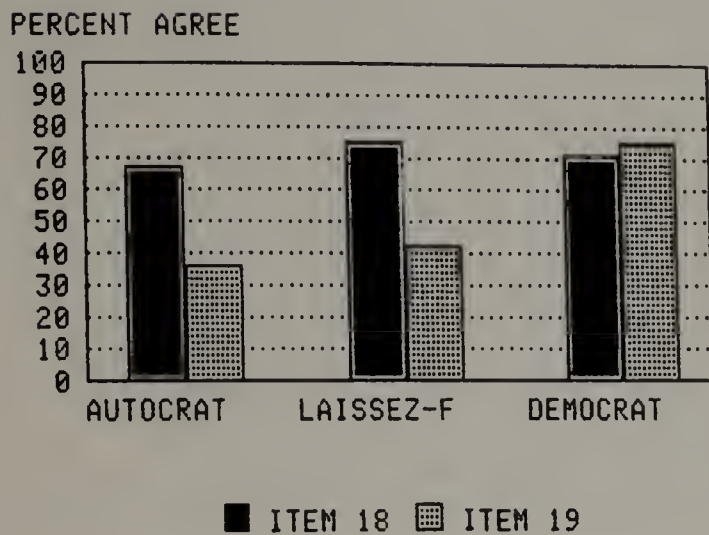|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	24	12	152
mean #18	1.5	1.3	1.4
mean #19	2.1	2.2	1.4
t value	-2.90	-2.28	-.46
Prob. t	.008	.044	.645
r value	.265	-.090	.179
Prob. r	.211	.780	.027

PERCENT AGREE

■ ITEM 18 ▦ ITEM 19

Figure 7. Competence to make school-wide decisions vs. motivation from empowerment

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states

there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

Results of the tests do not lend statistical support one way or another to the research hypothesis. However, it is interesting to note that 16 respondents (67%) of the group indicate they have the competence to make school-wide decisions, but only six respondents (25%) report the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process and three respondents (13%) report they participate in school-wide decisions. Despite the confidence in their ability to make school-wide decisions, these teachers do not report being motivated by the knowledge they are empowered to make job-related decisions (see Figure 7).

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is not significant.

Results of the tests for the laissez faire group do not lend support to the research hypothesis. Nine respondents (75%) report they have the competence to make school-wide decisions, while one respondent (8%)

indicates he/she participates in school-wide decisions. Five respondents (42%) indicate that they have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest. There is a correlation between the two variables of interest; the test is significant (see Table 21).

The results from the test for the democratic group are most supportive of the research hypothesis suggesting an association between teacher empowerment and teacher motivation. One hundred nine respondents (71%) report they have the competence to make school-wide decisions, and 100 respondents (75%) indicate they are motivated by the knowledge that they are empowered to make job-related decisions (see Figure 7).

CASE 8

Item 18: I have the competence to make decisions which affect the whole school.

Item 27: Being able to participate in the decision making process is a source of motivation in my teaching.

Table 22

Case 8

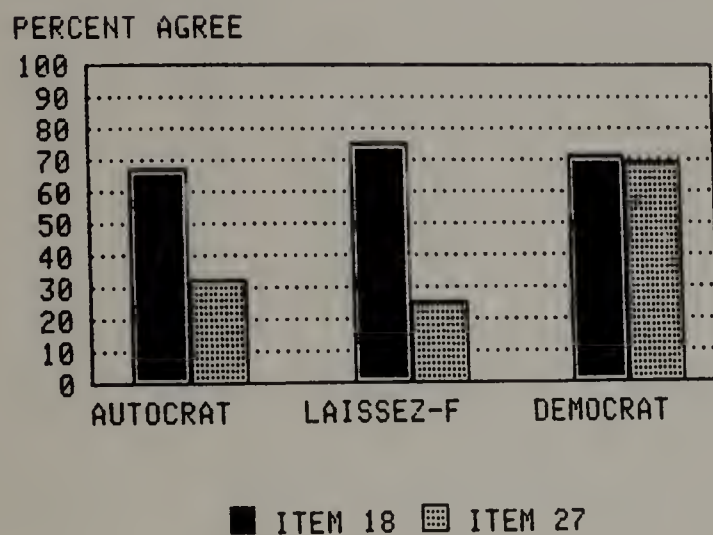|	Autocratic	Laissez F	Democratic
n	24	12	151
mean #18	1.5	1.3	1.4
mean #27	2.2	2.2	1.5
t value	-2.64	-2.80	-1.45
Prob. t	.015	.017	.148
r value	-.295	.056	.185
Prob. r	.161	.863	.023

Figure 8. Competence to make school-wide decisions vs. motivation by being able to participate in decisions

Autocratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null

hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

Results of the tests for this group were expected, but do not lend strong statistical support to the research hypothesis (see Table 22). There is a negative correlation between the two variables of interest; however, the result is not within the alpha error set at 0.05.

Laissez Faire Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis. There is a difference in the two sample means; the test is significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest. The test is not significant. Results for this group do not lend support to the research hypothesis.

Democratic Group. Based on the results for the paired-t ratio, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis. There is no difference in the two sample means; the test is not significant.

Based on the results for the Pearson r, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis which states there is no correlation or association between the two variables of interest. There is a correlation between the two variables of interest; the test is significant.

One hundred nine respondents (70%) of the group indicate they have the competence to make school-wide decisions. One hundred five respondents (69%) agree that being able to participate in the decision-making process is a source of motivation (see Figure 8). Results for the democratic group are supportive of the research hypothesis which sought to show a relationship between teacher empowerment and teacher motivation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research study was to
investigate the relationship of teacher empowerment to
school structure. A second purpose of the study was to
investigate the potential relationship of teacher
empowerment to teacher motivation.

The study was conducted in the fall of 1989.
Twenty-one kindergarten to fifth grade elementary
schools from eight different school districts
participated in the study.

Elementary classroom teachers, currently teaching
in any grade level from kindergarten to fifth grade
including special needs and resource room teachers, were
asked to complete a five part survey. The purpose of
the survey was to assess teachers' perceptions of their
school structure, to identify elements of teacher
empowerment present in the school structure, to assess
teachers' reported level of empowerment, to determine
sources of teaching motivation and to assess their
relative importance to teachers.

The results of the survey questionnaire were used
to investigate teacher empowerment and the other two
variables of interest, school structure and teacher
motivation. The investigation centered around three

research questions. Research questions which guided the study were:

1. To what extent do teachers' perceptions of school structure influence teacher empowerment?

2. To what extent does teacher empowerment influence school structure?

3. To what extent is teacher empowerment a factor in enhancing motivation and how does it add to motivational theory?

The following section will summarize the findings of the study as they relate to each research question.

Research Question 1

To what extent do teachers' perceptions of school structure influence teacher empowerment?

Teachers who perceive their school structure as autocratic ($\underline{n}=25$) report less opportunity for participative decision-making and a lack of encouragement by the principal for them to participate in decisions and for them to participate in staff collaboration on educational projects. Information and autonomy are provided by the principal as these relate to the teaching assignment. Staff members work together harmoniously and professional issues are reportedly the focus of staff conversation. Collaboration as it depends on the teachers themselves is present.

Those teachers who perceive their school structures as autocratic report that the opportunity and encouragement to participate in shared decisions is unavailable. They also report limited participation in teaching-related decisions; experimentation with teaching strategies without consulting administrators; and response to situations which require action, while informing administrators after the fact. They report having the competence to make classroom and school-wide decisions and deriving a sense of personal value from their profession. Teachers who perceive their school structure as autocratic evidence less empowerment than do those teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic.

Data analysis using the paired-t test and the Pearson r yielded no significant correlation between the two variables of interest, school structure and teacher empowerment for the autocratic group.

Teachers who perceived their school structure as autocratic gave responses similar to the other comparison groups, when describing their attitudes toward themselves with respect to their teaching. They describe themselves as content, enthusiastic, interested, and motivated. To a lesser degree, they are somewhat optimistic. Of the three groups, these teachers report feeling the least empowered. The

responses from this group suggest that a school structure perceived as autocratic is not a facilitating environment for teacher empowerment.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as laissez faire ($n=12$) report that the primary element of teacher empowerment present in the school is the autonomy in teaching-related decisions. They also report, however, that there is little available information to make teaching-related decisions and a lack of encouragement by the principal for staff collaboration in educational projects.

The responses on many survey items indicate an ambivalence within the group. It is unclear whether or not staff members have the opportunity or are encouraged by the principal to share in decisions. It is also unclear how decisions are reached.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as laissez faire report that fewer elements of teacher empowerment are present in their school environment than do those teachers whose school structure is perceived as autocratic. Despite this fact, teachers in the laissez faire group show evidence of _more_ empowerment than do those teachers in the perceived autocratic group. They report participating to a great extent in teaching-related decisions; experimenting in instructional strategies without consulting administrators; responding

to situations which require action, then informing
administrators after the fact; having the competence to
make both classroom and school-wide decisions; and
deriving a sense of personal value from their
profession.

For this group, the absence of certain elements of
teacher empowerment (e.g., opportunity for participation
in making decisions and information provided for making
decisions) does not appear to affect their sense of
empowerment. When describing themselves in relation to
their profession, teachers who perceive their school
structures as laissez faire show a profile similar to
those in the perceived autocratic group. They do not
describe themselves as being empowered to any great
degree.

Data analysis using the paired-t test and the
Pearson r show no significant correlation between school
structure and teacher empowerment.

While not meeting the standards of statistical
rigor, the results do suggest an ambivalence within this
group. Because of the small sample size (n=12), it is
not possible to determine whether the ambivalence noted
is a result of the school structure, or whether it is a
reflection of the individual teachers themselves. There
is no significant correlation between school structure
and teacher empowerment evidenced for this group.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic (n=155) report that all the elements of teacher empowerment as measured by the survey are present to a substantial degree. Building administrators provide both the information and autonomy needed to make teaching-related decisions. Staff members have the opportunity to participate in decision-making and they are encouraged to do so. Regularly scheduled staff meetings provide a format for shared decision-making by all staff members. Staff collaboration on educational issues is encouraged by the principal. Staff members work together harmoniously and professional issues are the focus of staff conversation.

There is a consistency of response for this group throughout the survey. It is characterized by close agreement on a majority of the items and reflected in a general consensus. There is significant correlation between school structure and teacher empowerment apparent for this group.

The responses of these same teachers to the teacher empowerment items are also characterized by close agreement and a general consensus within the group. This is true for all the survey items in the section except two. As was noted earlier, the group was somewhat divided with regard to: (1) responding to a situation which required action and then informing

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administrators after the fact; and (2) informing
administrators of the situation first and then following
their decision. It is unclear why this is the case in
light of this group's responses throughout the survey.

When describing their attitudes about themselves in
relation to their profession, teachers in the perceived
democratic structure are the most positive of the three
groups. One hundred four respondents (67%) used the
descriptor "empowered" in relation to themselves.
Teachers in the other two comparison groups did not
describe themselves as "empowered" to any extent.

Data analyses using the paired-t test and the
Pearson r show significant correlation between school
structure and teacher empowerment.

Responses from this group suggest that a school
structure perceived as democratic gives evidence of more
teacher empowerment elements than does one perceived as
autocratic or laissez faire. Teachers in the perceived
democratic group also show greater evidence of
empowerment as measured by their responses to those
survey items related to teacher empowerment. The
results suggest that a democratic school structure is a
facilitative and supportive environment for teacher
empowerment.

Research Question 2

To what extent does teacher empowerment influence
school structure?

Those teachers whose school structure is perceived
as autocratic evidence teacher empowerment that is
limited to the classroom domain and to interaction with
other teachers.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as
autocratic report only the following elements of teacher
empowerment present in their schools: (1) Necessary
information for teaching-related decisions is provided;
(2) teachers work together harmoniously; and (3)
conversation is of a professional nature. The lack of
opportunity and encouragement to participate in shared
decision-making by the principal is seen as a key
element in limiting the extent of teacher empowerment.

Those teachers whose school structure is perceived
as laissez faire, like the perceived autocratic group,
also evidence teacher empowerment that is restricted to
the classroom domain and to interaction with other
teachers.

Teachers whose school structure is perceived as
laissez faire report that the following teacher
empowerment elements are present: (1) having the needed
autonomy to make teaching-related decisions; (2) being
able to experiment with new teaching strategies and

respond to situations which require action without
consulting administrators first; (3) having a sense of
personal value due to their profession; and (4) having
the competence to make both classroom and school-wide
decisions. The exercise of teacher empowerment for this
group is somewhat more extensive than the perceived
autocratic group. Teacher empowerment is primarily
exercised in relation to the classroom and interaction
with other colleagues.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as
democratic evidence teacher empowerment to the greatest
extent and degree, when compared to the other two
groups. This group is the only one which reported
having the ability to participate in school-wide
decisions and to effect change within the school. The
domain of decision-making for this group is not
restricted to the classroom, but also includes school-
wide matters.

The researcher decided that it was not possible in
the context of this research study to determine what
influence teacher empowerment has on school structure.

Research Question 3

To what extent is teacher empowerment a factor in
enhancing motivation and how does it add to motivational
theory?

Working with students and believing that they make
a difference in their students' lives are major sources
of motivation to teachers who perceive their school
structure as autocratic. Classroom autonomy and working
with colleagues are also reported as sources of teaching
motivation.

Empowerment in job-related decisions, participation
in decision-making, and recognition from the principal
are not identified as motivators in teaching.

When ranking sources of motivation, teachers in a
perceived autocratic school structure list the top three
teaching motivators as: (1) working with students; (2)
having a sense of achievement; and (3) being influenced
by the attitudes and policies of administrators. For
these teachers, empowerment as a source of motivation
is limited to the autonomy of the classroom and to
collegiality.

Teachers who perceive their school structures as
laissez faire indicate that working with students,
holding the belief that they make a difference in their
students' lives, and having classroom autonomy are major
sources of motivation.

When asked to rank sources of motivation, they
listed: (1) working with students; (2) assuming the
responsibility inherent in teaching; and (3) having a

sense of achievement as the three major sources of teaching motivation.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic report that working with students, holding the belief that they make a difference in their students' lives, having classroom autonomy, experiencing collegiality, and receiving recognition are major sources of motivation.

Teachers in the perceived democratic school structure further indicate they are motivated by the knowledge that they are empowered to make job-related decisions by being able to participate in decision-making and by actual participation in decision-making in the school. This is the only group which reports these factors as sources of motivation to any great extent.

When ranking their sources of teaching motivation, these teachers reported: (1) working with students; (2) having a sense of achievement; and (3) assuming the responsibility inherent in teaching as the three most important motivators.

Teachers who perceive their school structures as democratic identify more sources of teaching motivation than did teachers in the other two comparison groups.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher
has drawn the following conclusions:

1. Teachers' perceptions of school structure influence
teacher empowerment elements reported present in the
school.

Discussion

Teachers who perceive their school structure as
autocratic report the following elements of teacher
empowerment present: (1) the availability of necessary
information and sufficient autonomy to make teaching-
related decisions; (2) the harmonious collaboration of
the staff; and (3) the frequent professional
conversation of the staff.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as
laissez faire report only the following elements of
teacher empowerment present: (1) sufficient autonomy to
make teaching-related decisions; and (2) the harmonious
collaboration of the staff.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as
democratic indicate that all the teacher empowerment
elements as measured by the survey items are present.
These elements are: (1) the availability of necessary
information and sufficient autonomy to make teaching-

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related decisions; (2) the opportunity to participate in decision-making; (3) the encouragement by the principal to participate in decision-making; (4) the opportunity of all staff members to share decision-making at regularly scheduled staff meetings; (5) the encouragement by the principal for staff collaboration on educational issues; (6) the harmonious collaboration of the staff; and (7) the frequent professional conversation of the staff.

From the responses of the three comparison groups, the researcher concludes that teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic indicate that more teacher empowerment elements are present to a substantial degree. Because of the consistency in agreement and general consensus throughout the survey questionnaire for this group, the researcher also concludes these results are representative of the total population.

The small sample size for the perceived autocratic and perceived laissez faire structures yielded inconclusive evidence. The researcher does not believe the results from these groups permit any degree of generalization.

2. Teachers' perceptions of school structure influence the degree of teacher empowerment exercised by these teachers.

Discussion

Teachers who perceive their school structure as autocratic report: (1) having limited participation in teaching-related decisions; (2) experimenting in teaching strategies autonomously; (3) responding to situations first and informing administrators after the fact; (4) having the competence to make both classroom and school-wide decisions; and (5) deriving a sense of personal value as a result of their profession.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as laissez faire report: (1) having high participation in teaching-related decisions; (2) experimenting in teaching strategies autonomously; (3) responding to situations first and informing administrators after the fact; (4) having the competence to make both classroom and school-wide decisions; and (5) deriving a sense of personal value as a result of their profession.

Teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic evidence teacher empowerment to the greatest extent and degree in comparison to the other two groups. They report: (1) having comparatively high participation in both teaching-related decisions and school-wide decisions; (2) deriving a high sense of personal value because of their profession; (3) experimenting in teaching strategies autonomously; (4) having the competence to make both classroom and school-

wide decisions; and (5) having the ability to effect school-wide change. The domain of decision-making for this group includes the total school, not simply the classroom.

From the responses of the three comparison groups, the researcher concludes that teachers who perceive their school structures as democratic exercise teacher empowerment to a greater extent and degree than do those teachers in the other two comparison groups. Because of the consistency in agreement and general consensus throughout the survey questionnaire for this group, the researcher also concludes these results may be generalized to the wider population.

3. A school structure based on the teacher empowerment concept enhances teacher motivation.

Discussion

The findings from this research study indicate that a school structure perceived as democratic is characterized by the presence of many teacher empowerment elements. These teacher empowerment elements constitute an environment which facilitates the exercise of teacher empowerment by staff members. One significant element is the opportunity to participate in decision-making, not only as it relates to the

classroom, but also to school-wide issues which have an impact on the learning process.

Those teachers who perceive their school structure as democratic indicate that their teaching motivation is provided by a greater variety of sources than the other two comparison groups. To the extent that a school structure is based on the teacher empowerment concept, that structure affords a myriad of motivational opportunities. Such a school structure does not result in a limiting environment, but instead empowers teachers to exercise their professional autonomy, responsibility, and authority to act within the framework provided by policy and law (Frymier, 1987).

If motivation is limited to a narrow spectrum, there is the risk that in the absence of those few motivators, individuals will become indifferent. Having nothing else to fall back on, they lack the energy and the motivation to go beyond only that which is required.

Teacher empowerment, though neither a panacea nor the only way to address the motivational issues of teachers, does draw on and integrate many facets of the motivational theories cited in the literature review. To the extent that teacher empowerment does this, the researcher concludes teacher motivation is enhanced.

Recommendations for Further Study

Several areas deserving further study are suggested:

1. There is a need for replication of this study with sufficiently large samples of teachers who perceive their school structures as autocratic or laissez faire to test for statistical significance.

2. A longitudinal case study is suggested for determining to what extent teacher empowerment affects school structure.

3. A comparative analysis is suggested of the effective schools' research and teacher empowerment literature and research. Is the concept of teacher empowerment compatible with the research surrounding effective schools?

4. Further research and study on schools as specific kinds of organizations is required in order to improve our understanding of teachers' motivational issues:

> Schools are human organizations in the sense that
> they have human purposes and pursue these purposes
> by working directly with students as both processes
> and products. Further, the technology of the
> schools is labor intensive as opposed to being
> dominated by machinery or other technical processes
> and devices. Intensive human qualities of work in
> schools require that not only should student and
> adult motivation receive significant attention in
> any theory of administration but that strategies of
> motivation should possess humanistic character-
> istics. (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980, p. 94)

The school has as one of its goals helping students
to develop their potential--intellectually, socially
and emotionally. It is difficult to envision this
goal being realized in an environment where teachers are
not afforded the same opportunity to develop and utilize
their own potential. An empowering school structure is
one in which teachers are empowered and motivated, not
for their students alone, but for their own sakes as
well.

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENTATION

COVER LETTER ACCOMPANYING SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Nancy Smith
45 Golf Street
North Dartmouth, MA
02747

Dear Colleague,

I am a doctoral student in the University of
Massachusetts at Amherst/Bridgewater State College
collaborative program. In order to complete my studies,
I need your input and help in completing the enclosed
survey.

The following survey is designed to provide
information about teacher empowerment, school structure,
and teacher motivation. I would appreciate your
perception and opinion regarding these topics. Please
complete the form as carefully and frankly as possible.
Remember there are no right or wrong answers. It is
your perception and honest opinion in which I am most
interested. All individual responses will be kept in
strict confidence. To insure confidentiality, I ask
that you return the completed form to -

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy Smith

TEACHER EMPOWERMENT SURVEY

A. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

    _____ Bachelor's degree

    _____ Master's degree

    _____ Master's degree plus _____

    _____ Certificate of Advanced Study de ee

    _____ Doctorate

B. Are you?

    _____ Female   _____ Male

C. Please check your age category.

21-25 years___	36-40 years___	51-55 ye s___
26-30 years___	41-45 years___	56-60 y rs___
31-35 years___	46-50 years___	61+ ye s___

D. Which grade level do you teach?

_____ Kindergarten	_____ Grade
_____ Transitional	_____ Grade
_____ Grade 1	_____ Grade
_____ Grade 2	_____ Other

E. How many years of experience <u>prior to this year</u> have you had as a:

a. Teacher in this school
(do not count this school year)   _____years

b. Total teaching experience   _____years

SCHOOL STRUCTURE

School structure may be defined as a system of
governance in the school, which includes patterns of
communication, goal-setting, problem-solving, and
decision-making with regard to policy and program.
Descriptions of three different school structures are
given below. Please read each description completely
before answering the follow-up question.

AUTOCRATIC

-Communication is characterized as top-down
 with an emphasis on rules and regulations
-School-wide goals are determined by the
 administrator
-Problems are identified and solutions are
 generated by the administrator
-Decisions are made by the administrator with
 no participation by teachers

LAISSEZ FAIRE

-Communication from administration is minimal
 or non-existent
-School-wide goals are unclear; goals may
 result from individual teachers setting their
 own personal goals for the classroom
-Problems are identified and solved by
 individual teachers, alone or in groups,
 without participation or direction from
 the administrator
-Decisions are made by individual teachers,
 alone or in groups, without participation or
 direction from the administrator

DEMOCRATIC

-Communication takes place among teachers as
 well as between teachers and the
 administrator
-School-wide goals are determined by teachers
 and the administrator
-Problems are identified and solutions are
 proposed by teachers and the administrator
-Decisions are made by those individuals who
 will be affected by the decision

Based on the descriptions given, I believe my school structure most closely approximates--(please check your response)

AUTOCRATIC_____ LAISSEZ FAIRE_____ DEMOCRATIC_____

Below are statements related to SCHOOL STRUCTURE. Circle the response which most nearly describes your opinion regarding the statement. The choices are: STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), UNDECIDED (U), DISAGREE (D), STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD)

1. Building administrators provide me with the information needed to make decisions related to my teaching assignment. assignment.
SA   A   U   D   SD

2. I am encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in this school.
SA   A   U   D   SD

3. I have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in this school.
SA   A   U   D   SD

4. Building administrators provide me with the autonomy needed to make decisions related to my teaching assignment.
SA   A   U   D   SD

5. Regular staff meetings and/or grade level meetings are held in this school and all teachers are able to participate in the decision-making process.
SA   A   U   D   SD

6. A building administrator makes most of the decisions in this school, with little or no input from teachers.
SA   A   U   D   SD

7.   Building administrators   SA   A   U   D   SD
     encourage staff collaboration
     on educational projects by
     providing time and resources.

8.   As a rule, teachers in   SA   A   U   D   SD
     this school work together
     harmoniously.

9.   Conversation among staff   SA   A   U   D   SD
     members frequently focuses
     on professional issues
     related to teaching.

TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

     Teacher empowerment is described in the literature
as a process which encourages teachers to have an
internal locus of control in order to give them freedom,
authority, and responsibility to act within the
framework provided by policy and law. It provides
teachers with opportunities to make decisions within
their own area of professional expertise.

Below are statements related to TEACHER EMPOWERMENT.
Circle the response which most nearly describes your
opinion regarding the statement. The choices are:
STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), UNDECIDED (U), DISAGREE
(D), STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD).

10. I participate in decisions   SA   A   U   D   SD
     which relate to the
     the teaching process.

11. I participate in decisions   SA   A   U   D   SD
     which affect the governance
     of this school.

12. I experiment with new   SA   A   U   D   SD
     teaching ideas and
     strategies without
     consulting administrators.

13. When a situation arises   SA   A   U   D   SD
    that requires action, I
    usually respond to the
    situation and inform
    administrators after
    the fact.

14. When a situation arises   SA   A   U   D   SD
    that requires action, I
    usually inform administrators
    and follow their decision.

15. I have a sense of personal   SA   A   U   D   SD
    value because I am a teacher.

16. I am able to effect   SA   A   U   D   SD
    procedural changes
    in this school.

17. I have the competence to   SA   A   U   D   SD
    make educational decisions
    which affect my classroom.

18. I have the competence   SA   A   U   D   SD
    to make educational
    decisions which affect
    the whole school.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is described in the literature as that which energizes, directs, and sustains behavior (Steers & Porter, 1975, p. 553).

Below are statements related to TEACHER MOTIVATION. Circle the response which most nearly describes your opinion regarding the statement. The choices are: STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), UNDECIDED (U), DISAGREE (D), STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD).

19. I am motivated as a teacher   SA   A   U   D   SD
    by the knowledge that I am
    empowered to make job-related
    decisions.

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20. I am motivated as a teacher   SA   A   U   D   SD
    by the satisfaction I
    receive from working
    with students.

21. I am motivated as a teacher   SA   A   U   D   SD
    by the satisfaction I
    receive from working
    with my colleagues.

22. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    by the recognition I
    receive from building
    administrators.

23. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    because I believe I
    make a difference
    in the lives of my students.

24. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    because I participate in
    the decision-making
    process in this school.

25. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    because building
    administrators make most
    of the decisions in this school.

26. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    because of the collegiality,
    or sense of equality I
    experience among all
    staff members.

27. Being able to participate   SA   A   U   D   SD
    in the decision-making
    process is a source of
    motivation in my teaching.

28. I am motivated in teaching   SA   A   U   D   SD
    because I feel I have
    control over what takes
    place in my classroom.

SELF-CONCEPT

There are several words listed below in pairs on a continuum. Please circle the number closest to the word in the pair which best describes how you feel about yourself _in relation to your teaching._

Content   Discontent

   1   2   3   4   5

Pessimistic   Optimistic

   1   2   3   4   5

Enthusiastic   Depressed

   1   2   3   4   5

Powerless   Empowered

   1   2   3   4   5

Bored   Interested

   1   2   3   4   5

Motivated   Indifferent

   1   2   3   4   5

G. Listed below are possible sources of teacher motivation. Please rank these nine areas in terms of how important they are to you as a staff member of this school. Place a "1" after the most important area, a "2" after the second most important, and so forth, until you have placed a "9" after that which you consider to be the least important of these nine sources of teacher motivation.

IMPORTANCE RANK
TO ME

a. Sense of achievement   _____

b. Working with students   _____

c. Opportunity for personal growth   _____

d. Responsibility inherent in teaching   _____

e. Recognition   _____

f. Job security   _____

g. Status   _____

h. Work environment (e.g., organizational   _____
    climate and physical conditions)

i. Attitudes and policies of
    administration   _____

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE CORRESPONDENCE

SAMPLE LETTER TO SUPERINTENDENTS WHOSE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

PARTICIPATED IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

Nancy Smith
45 Golf Street
N. Dartmouth, MA 02747
November 12, 1989

Edward J. Tynan
Superintendent of Schools
P.O. Box 955
Hyannis, MA 02601

Dear Dr. Tynan:

Thank you sincerely for allowing me to survey the
elementary classroom teachers in your school system.
Copies of the survey, along with a cover letter
addressed to the respective principals, were mailed on
November 4 with the request that the completed surveys
be returned to me by November 17.

I had contacted the principals by telephone prior
to the mailing. Each of the principals was gracious and
willing to accommodate my request. I thank you for
that! I am now in the process of sitting back, hoping
and praying for sufficient returns to be able to "build
a case."

If there is any way that I would be able to return
a favor in the future, please contact me. Thank you
again for your support and encouragement.

Best wishes for a Happy Thanksgiving holiday!

Sincerely,

Nancy Smith

SAMPLE LETTER SENT TO PRINCIPALS

FOLLOWING RETURN OF SURVEYS

Nancy Smith
45 Golf Street
N. Dartmouth, MA   02747
November 27, 1989

Mr. Raymond Kenney
Teaticket Elementary School
45 Maravista Ext.
Teaticket, MA   02536

Dear Mr. Kenney:

Thank you so very much for your help in the
distribution, collection, and return of the teacher
empowerment surveys. Generally, I have had better than
average returns from all those elementary schools
participating in the research project. That is due in
no small measure to the support and help I received from
you and your staff.

Please convey my genuine gratitude to all those teachers
who were willing to share their perceptions and to give
their time on my behalf. As an elementary classroom
teacher, I am well aware of how precious a commodity
time is.

If there is any way that I can be of service to your
school in the future, please do not hesitate to contact
me.

My best wishes to you and your teachers for an
especially happy holiday season as well as a happy and
healthy New Year.

                              Sincerely,

                              Nancy Smith

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