

DECISION-MAKING IN CURRICULUM
MATTERS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of Graduate Studies

The University of Manitoba

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirement for the Degree
Master of Education

by

Otto Kirzinger

Spring, 1982

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

While trying to complete this study, I was fortunate to meet and work with a lot of good people. To all who have provided support and assistance in this study on decision-making, I like to express my gratitude. In particular, I want to mention:

Dr. A. D. Gregor for being supportive and always helpful,

D. J. C. Long for probing questions and editorial clarifications,

Dr. J. Rogan for her cheerful advice,

Marcel Bilodeau for his unstinting assistance in matters pertaining to statistics,

My wife Madeleine for her many re-reads and suggestions and my children for the times we could have done things together.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to obtain a broad description of curriculum decision-making patterns in a specific community college setting. Of particular interest was the degree of agreement between the faculty members' view on curriculum decision-making. In essence, this study was designed to examine the actual and the ideal curriculum decision-making patterns within three specific teaching areas of a community college and it intended to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and the existing modes of decision-making. In addition, the study attempted to identify the relationship of job satisfaction levels and the following demographic factors: teaching area, years of teaching experience, educational level, age and gender. To obtain the data which were to be tested for statistical significance, a survey instrument was constructed to elicit relevant responses.

The study revealed that (1) some significant differences exist in the levels of congruency for the types of decision examined, (2) given a choice, teachers almost invariably opt for greater joint decision-making, and they show relatively little desire for being the sole decision makers, (3) a significant positive relationship exists between the levels of congruency and the levels of job satisfaction, and (4) with the exception of gender, the demographic characteristics selected did not appear to be significantly related to the levels of job satisfaction.

The findings of the study provided insights regarding the decision-making patterns of a community college. It showed that the levels of job satisfaction relate positively to the levels of congruency in decision-making practices, and that effective implementation of curriculum change is facilitated by providing for an ongoing input by faculty members. The findings also suggested that, according to the community college teachers surveyed, decision-making for curriculum planning implies group action and consultation.

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CHAPTER 1: NATURE OF THE STUDY

PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE

The general purpose of this study was to obtain a broad description of curriculum decision-making patterns in a specific community college setting. Of particular interest was the degree of agreement between the faculty members' view on curriculum decision-making as they perceive it is practised and as they would like it to be, ideally. Specifically, this study intended to:

1. reveal who is perceived as actually making decisions and to compare these perceptions with faculty's preferences as to who should make decisions pertinent to curriculum matters in the college;

2. reveal whether, as Owens has suggested, there are decision areas to which faculty are indifferent and if there are areas which faculty views as the sole jurisdiction of college administrators;¹

3. examine whether or not a faculty member's satisfaction with his occupation is, indeed, as Day (1971) maintained, determined mostly by his perceived participation in the decision-making process;² and

4. examine the relatedness of teacher satisfaction and certain variables, namely, years of teaching experience, educational qualifications, gender, age, and teaching area.

1 Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 108.

2 T. C. Day, "Administration - Faculty Conflict over the Distribution of Control in Policy Formulation in Alberta Colleges" (Unpublished Doctorial Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1971), p. 51.

The particular college surveyed was a Manitoba Community College and, rather typically, was comprised of three types of faculty members, namely, Business, Vocational and Professional. These groups of faculty differed according to factors such as educational level, type of courses taught, type of work situation, and other educational and situational factors. In one sense, these faculty members also differ in type of occupation, however, all faculty members have teaching responsibilities; hence, they all are classified as teaching faculty members.

In terms of educational administration in a community college, decisions may not always reflect these differences. Hence, the three types of faculty members may respond differently to certain policy decisions, for it may be that their specific situational needs are indeed different. Little research has been aimed at divergences which may exist among the various types of faculty members within Canadian community colleges. It was with this in mind that the questions of the study were devised and analyzed. Faculty in three program areas - Applied Arts and Business, Industrial Technology, and Health Sciences - were selected for the survey because these three departments were expected to reveal certain deviations in terms of the desire for and involvement in curricular decision-making - be it in degree of satisfaction with the present system; or in desire for greater participation in certain curriculum matters, such as course planning, or the reorganizing of course content. The department of Applied Arts and Business, because of its diverse grouping of courses, was expected to reveal a mixed pattern among its faculty. The teachers in Industrial Technology, on one hand, were expected to desire and display a significant involvement in the determination of course content because of their

sensitivity as vocational educators to the advice of advisory boards, trade and industrial associations. On the other hand, within the Health Sciences faculty, the professional group was thought to rely more on professional organizations to determine what ought to be taught.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will shed some light on the problem of defining who should be involved in particular decision-making policies for the planning of curriculum content and what procedures might best facilitate that work. This survey may indirectly assist in determining areas or courses which require assistance from external agencies. It may also indicate areas which could benefit from a greater degree of autonomy and responsibility in the process of educational planning at the college level. In addition, it may reveal a relatedness between job satisfaction and decision-making involvement. To the extent that it does, it may be said to provide an organizational tool for college administrators and faculty since some knowledge and understanding of the behaviors and attitudes which bears on decision-making in the college may assist in coping with problems encountered there in curriculum construction and decision-making.

BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In any systematic discussion of educational decision-making, one must necessarily acknowledge the formal basis or organizational power, that is, authority. For this study, it has been borne in mind that authority or administrative power may be legitimated from a bureaucratic and/or a professional basis. On the one hand, bureaucratic authority legitimated and formalized in terms of hierarchical status and structure within the

organization demands obedience to those higher in rank. On the other hand, professional authority which derives from specific qualifications and expert knowledge commands a different form of compliance, one which is inspired mostly by perceived competency. In organizations or institutions, these two forms of authority can coexist harmoniously but they may also cohabit and breed conflict. Community colleges may be considered as quasi-professional organizations in which professional and administrative authority are found in a relationship which does not differ remarkably from that of other large educational settings.

Professionals, in general, expect to influence decision-making related to their tasks or field. Teachers in the community college consider themselves professionals and in many instances are unique subject specialists. They not only have the task of mediating a curriculum to the students, but they must constantly review course content to ensure a smooth and satisfying transition from an educational training experience to the world of work.

Many studies exist which argue that participation in decision-making tends to increase the level of satisfaction; this is seen to be the case especially with respect to participation in decisions which affect the conditions of work. Hence, the level of satisfaction may be seen as a bridge that spans the gap which may exist between professional and administrative authority.

At the high school level, several studies, including those of Bridges (1964), McKague (1968) and Oliva (1968), have indicated that a faculty member's satisfaction with his job is determined in large measure by his perceived participation in the decision-making process. Findings pertinent

to colleges are similar. In their findings, Garrison (1967), Giles and Olson (1967), Mathew (1967) and Taylor (1967) all reported that satisfaction tends to rise with the perceived influence in decision-making. The only Canadian study available observed that:

A faculty member's satisfaction with his job is determined in large measure by his perceived participation in the decision-making process.³

And that:

Although faculty wants an increase in control, their desire is for shared control with administration.⁴

The present study represents an attempt to see whether or not members of a Manitoba community college share similar perceptions on the issue. Of particular interest in the study is the desire to analyze community college decision-making and job satisfaction and to compare the findings with earlier studies on the relatedness of involvement in decision-making to job satisfaction. Therefore, the study examines who is perceived as actually making decisions and compares these perceptions with the preferences of faculty as to who should ideally make decisions in curriculum matters, examines if a faculty member's satisfaction is related to his perceived participation in the decision-making process and examines the relatedness of teacher satisfaction and certain demographic variables. An answer to these questions may illuminate some important aspects of the community college teacher's professional orientation and work satisfaction.

³ Gerald O. Kelly and Abram G. Korad, College Governance: Participation in Decision-Making (Edmonton: Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, May, 1972), p. 5.

⁴ Ibid. p. 29.

STATEMENT AND RATIONALE FOR THE HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were developed in an effort to give greater precision to the investigation of the major questions taking into account the findings concerning the variables related to curriculum decision making in a community college setting:

Hypothesis I - The amount of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make decisions varies as a function of:

- a) the teaching area and
- b) the type of decision being made.

Hypothesis II - There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the degree of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make curriculum decisions.

Hypothesis III - The level of job satisfaction is a function of:

- a) years of teaching experience,
- b) educational qualifications,
- c) gender,
- d) age and
- e) teaching area.

Owen and Steinhoff (1976) assert that organizational change, rate of innovation and the general health of an organization are largely contingent upon the amount of perceived participation by teachers. In their studies, these researchers, as well as Grover (1972) and Cohen (1975), found some significant differences between the actual and the expected pattern of decision-making in schools. They noted that while teachers, in general, like more involvement in decision-making, the type of decision clearly influences the desired degree of involvement. The degree of perceived involvement has also been linked with leadership style. Hence, it seems reasonable to expect that the three program areas examined may show variations in terms of decision-making practices and preferences.

Similarly, a great many studies exist which suggest that participation in decision-making tends to increase the level of job satisfaction. Studies by Bridges,(1964), McKague (1968) and Oliva (1968) indicate that a faculty member's satisfaction with his job is determined in large measure by his perceived participation in the decision-making process. Findings of studies which have focused on colleges are similar. In the only Canadian study, one conducted on several community colleges in Alberta, Day (1971) states that a faculty member's satisfaction with his job is determined largely by his perceived participation in the decision-making process.

A great deal of debate has centered around the factors which may account for variations in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. While general agreement seems to exist on the impact of demographic factors on job satisfaction variations, researchers, it appears, do not agree on the relevance of such variables. For instance, Seashore noted that it is logical to assume that individuals of distinctive educational background and personality might respond differently when exposed to the same work conditions.⁵ Thus, it seems that the relevance of demographic factors remains an interesting element in the investigation of job satisfaction.

⁵ Stanley E. Seashore, "Job Satisfaction: A Dynamic Predictor, of Adaptive and Defensive Behaviour," Studies in Personnel Psychology, Vol. V, No. 1, Spring, 1973, pp. 7 - 20.

METHODOLOGY

Respondent Population

The teaching population of the college consists of 280 teachers. The questionnaire was distributed to all teachers in the college's three main divisions: (1) Industrial Technology; (2) Business and Applied Arts; and (3) Health Sciences. There are an additional 52 teachers in the Continuing Education and Support Services Branch but because of their distinctive upgrading functions they were excluded. Table A depicts the distribution of the population surveyed.

TABLE A
Distribution of the Population Surveyed

Area	Distributed	Returned	Percentage Returned
Industrial Technology	148	53	35.8
Business and Applied Arts	98	63	64.37
Health Sciences	34	28	82.47
Unknown	0	2	
Total	280	146	*52.19

*Return percentage for total population surveyed, after eliminating 12 questionnaires which could not be used.

The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed to collect data and make inferences pertaining to the respondents' perceptions of curriculum decision-making in the community college (See Appendix A). A similar instrument had been used by Grover (1972) and by Cohen (1975) in an attempt to study decision-making patterns in primary schools. Both Grover and Cohen's findings pointed towards differences in the perception of who actually makes decisions and who ideally should make decisions on matters pertinent to educational procedures at that level.

The questionnaire used in this survey was structured so that the respondents could express their views on curriculum decision-making as it exists, as well as to how they would like it to be. In addition, and mainly for descriptive purposes, variables such as age, educational qualifications, program area, degree of job satisfaction and age were also included.

The questionnaire, an adaptation of Cohen's instrument used in England (1975), consisted of a series of open-ended and multiple-choice questions with the opportunity in most cases for the respondent to add to the response or to explain his reason for selecting an answer. The major differences between the writer's instrument and Cohen's was in the vocabulary used for the descriptions of the positions and functions of educational decision-makers.

The first part of the questionnaire asked respondents to provide some basic demographic information. The heart of the survey was found in

questions 6 through 16. Each of these eleven questions dealt with a particular type of curriculum decision made in the college. Each question consisted of two parts. Part "a" of the question asked the individual teacher to indicate, in accordance with his perceptions, who actually made the particular decision; and part "b" of the question asked the teacher who, in his view should make this decision.

For each of these eleven decision areas, a congruency score was calculated for each individual according to the following rule: if the response to part "b" and part "a" was identical, a congruency (between who ideally should and who actually does make decisions) was said to be present, and the individual was assigned a congruency score of 1. If, on the other hand, the response to part "b" and "a" differed (that is, no congruency) a value of 0 was given. These congruency scores were used to investigate the relationships between perceived congruency and teaching area, decision type and level of job satisfaction as enumerated in hypothesis I and hypothesis II.

Procedures of Data Collection

The draft questionnaire was first submitted to a limited number of teachers randomly selected from the college and the university levels, including the researcher's advisor, Dr. A. Gregor. Comments on content and clarity of the questions were received. Subsequently, the instrument was modified and resubmitted for further appraisal. The questionnaire and a covering letter (see also Appendix A) describing the purpose and the extent of the study were given to the College Department Heads for distribution to the 280 college teachers. It was stressed that the individuals

were to return the completed questionnaire directly to the researcher or to the Department Heads. Department Heads were used merely for distribution purposes. Most instructors, it should be noted, sent their completed questionnaire directly to the researcher.

The first return yielded 120 completed questionnaires. The follow-up produced 38 additional questionnaires. Of the 158 returned questionnaires, only 12 were not used because of their incompleteness. Thus, there was a response rate of 56.43% overall. The response rate, no doubt, was affected by a questionnaire given coincidentally fourteen days prior by a Ph.D. candidate. This prior questionnaire was very elaborate and a great many instructors showed reluctance in filling out another survey.

Procedures for Data Analysis

To test hypothesis I, a two factor (Division by Decision) mixed model analysis of variance (Anova) was performed on the congruency scores. 'Division' was the between subjects factor and had three levels (Industrial Technology, Business and Applied Arts and Health Sciences), while decision was the within-subjects factor and had eleven levels (see questionnaire, Appendix A). Significant omnibus F tests were probed with protected multiple tests.

To test hypothesis II, a Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated on an overall congruency index generated for each individual and on his response to the job satisfaction question (Question 17). The overall congruency index was calculated by summing an individual total congruency score over the eleven decision-making areas and then dividing by eleven. (A score in percentage terms was obtained by multiplying this figure by 100).

To test hypothesis III, five one factor Anovas were performed. In all five analyses, the dependent variable was the job satisfaction scores. In each analysis, the independent variable was one of the five variables enumerated in hypothesis III.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

TRENDS IN ORGANIZATIONAL RESEARCH

Although organizations were the object of early social researchers such as Weber (1920), it must be noted that only in the past decade or so have behavioral scientists investigated relationships between properties of organizational structure and job perceptions. While the early research focussed on structural aspects such as chain of command, specialization of function, span of control and the like, it paid relatively little attention to the "people" aspect of organizations. Bennis (1959) aptly summed up this point when he pointed out that classical theorists talked about "organizations without people."⁶

Nevertheless, views on organizational innovativeness and productivity, which had long been related to typical independent structural variables such as organizational level, line and staff hierarchies and size and span of control, gradually turned to areas of human relations, considering workers vis-à-vis managers in terms of physical, social and psychological connections. Thus, by 1940, following the empirical lead of the Hawthorne investigations into human relations, the dependent variables such as job satisfaction, morale, innovativeness, performance rates and turnover rates, which had long been treated as contingent upon the traditional independent structural

⁶ Lyman Porter, and Edward E. Lawler, "Properties of Organizational Structure in Relation to Job Attitudes and Job Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. LXIV, No. 1, 1965, p. 23.

variables, became the target of particular job situation studies. This interest in human relations soon modified the authoritarian management principles of the Taylor era which perceived organization members as:

...passive instruments, capable of performing work and accepting directions, but not initiating action or exerting influence in any significant way.⁷

By 1960, the advocates of the human relations emphasized the psychological and social aspects of organizations to the point that the organization was now being perceived as an organic social system:

The Western Electric studies, conducted by Mayo, Roethlisberger, and others, led the experimenters to conclude that changes in the physical environment do not necessarily act as an antecedent to changes in output, but that productivity is more likely to be increased when greater emphasis is placed upon such variables as worker participation, satisfaction, cooperation, and the morale and cohesiveness of the group.⁸

It is interesting to note that the human relations movement represented a breakthrough in theory, insight and managerial practices. It provided new ways of looking at organizational management. The hierarchical structure and the supervision provided by management were no longer viewed as the primary determinants of organizational production and efficiency. Many administrators in all kinds of organizations, including schools, were encouraged to consider such concepts as democratic procedures, group dynamics and personnel relations as factors in effective leadership and organizational performance. The classical motivational approaches of the

7 Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 14.

8 Ibid. p. 14.

pay cheque, the vertical promotion or the dismissal threat had to be broadened to include theory and technology of behavioral science. The new motivational concepts drew heavily from three highly compatible views of motivation:

- (1) McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y,
- (2) Maslow's hierarchy of prepotent needs theory, and
- (3) Herzberg's motivation - hygiene theory⁹

A survey of the research literature indicates that the studies of Rosen and Weaver (1960-61) dealt with different needs and working conditions at various levels of management. Porter and Henry (1964) concerned themselves with role perception and job attitude of managers at different organizational levels. The sociometric studies of Wiens (1968), Scharf (1967) and McKay (1964) pointed out the usefulness of a comprehensive research strategy, which not only tried to describe bureaucratic structural characteristics, but to identify and analyze the network of relationships within a formal framework, in order to provide a more complete picture of an organization and to permit the testing of hypotheses about organizational dynamics.¹⁰

As the socio-psychological studies progressed, the 1970's witnessed a more critical examination of organizational behavior. A review of relevant journals demonstrates that in the past decade research has been concerned

⁹ Robert Owens, G. Steinhoff, Carl R., Administering Change in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1976), p. 118.

¹⁰ Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler, "Properties of Organizational Structure in Relation to Job Attitudes and Job Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. LXIV, No. 1, 1965, pp. 26-29.

E. Miklos and Elmar A. Breitzkreuz, "Analysis of Influence and Social Structures in Schools," Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XIV, No. 4, December, 1968, p. 250.

with the relationship between organizational levels and effectiveness, and the importance of various influential factors. More than ever before, relationships have been viewed as dynamic and less contingent upon singular causal links. The knowledge of interactive factors such as individual needs, attitudes, communication patterns, job satisfaction, job enrichment, job preference, age, sex, rewards, decision-making practices, power, control, productivity and organizational tasks provided additional information for detecting areas of disagreement and strain and thereby offered new insights for facilitating organizational effectiveness.

The many perceived failures of recent change attempts in industrial and educational systems led to a renewed search for causal factors. How to integrate individual and organizational demands became crucial. Many studies suggested that the actor on the real scene remained reluctant to implement orders from above. The Rand studies (1975) showed that change efforts in order to be effective had to focus on both the actor and the organizational structure. For example, to upgrade lower managers or teachers without giving them more authority to carry out their new tasks was to arouse feelings of inadequacy in job performance, and, presumably, to generate ambiguity and minimum compliance. For example, Owens and Steinhoff (1976) in their efforts to encourage the use of new theory and techniques in educational administration agreed that:

Teachers work within complex organizations and are therefore constrained in their professional practice by the culture of the organization. For that reason the focus of change efforts must be directed as much on the organization

as on the individual teachers who depend on the organization in their practice. The primary target of change efforts in education is not teachers at all but is the organizational system itself.¹¹

Thus, the emphasis given by researchers to variables which affect organizational climate, productivity, effectiveness and rate of innovation had changed significantly over the years. More attention had been given to the physical, social and psychological conditions which affect human needs and relationships. The outgrowth of these efforts was a shift in perspective reflecting many researchers' contention that participatory practices are essential to the health of an organization, its rate of innovation and its general performance. This assertion reflects the belief that change attempts without a fundamental change in both organizational structure and people relationships is unlikely to produce effective changes. Such a viewpoint supports contemporary motivational and social system theory which holds that participative management makes for better decision-making processes. For when the work group affected by the consequences of a decision is actively involved in identifying the problem and in deciding a plan of action, the implementation strategy is enhanced. Participative management, however, brings into question many of the cherished beliefs and the traditional roles of administrators.

The merits of participation have been debated in various forms. Philosophically, the debate ranges from Plato's Myth of Metals, which tried

¹¹ Robert G. Owens, Carl R. Steinhoff, Administering Change in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1976), p. 12.

to explain natural individual differences to the Christian teachings that all men are brothers, and therefore equal. In contemporary society, politicians make it their duty to promise equal rights and opportunities, and at the same time to extol the inalienable rights of the individual. This dichotomy inherent to the democratic ideal creates a dilemma which makes difficult a consensus between corporate and individual demands.

The value of participation in terms of social relevance has received a great deal of attention. The acceptance is widespread that concern should be shown not only for the material and economic aspects of employment but also for the effect of work upon the well-being of individuals. Teuling (1973) suggested that the demand for participation was perhaps the outgrowth of "the fundamental cultural inequality in our society."¹² In countries such as "West Germany, Yugoslavia, Israel, Norway and Holland attempts have been made to increase the influence of non-managerial employees in organization decision-making by the introduction of formal systems of representation."¹³ And in Canada, in regards to the governance of community colleges, the provinces of "Alberta and Quebec have legislation requiring some student and faculty representation on governing bodies."¹⁴

12 W. E. Albeda, Participation in Management (Rotterdam: Rotterdam University Press, 1973), p. 101.

13 Toby D. Wall, J. A. Lischeron, Worker Participation (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1977), p. 1.

14 Gerald O. Kelly, Abram G. Konrad, College Governance (University of Alberta, 1972), p. 5.

This orientation or attempt to legislate participative practices does not arise from a vacuum. Rather, it is the reflection of social pressures emanating from diverse sources. This movement towards greater participation has, no doubt, as background the democratic principle that all individuals have equal rights and that people should be involved in decisions which affect their lives. For instance, social scientists, who have examined the lower levels of organizational decision-making, have often noted the benefits in terms of employee well-being and productivity which accrued wherever participation was encouraged. Likert (1967), for example, noted that:

Organizations are beginning to realize that their most important assets are human resources and that the managing of these resources is one of their most crucial tasks.¹⁵

In part, such utterings rest on ideology rather than on consistent research findings. However, research findings, which have noted that participation is neither a panacea nor a privilege wanted by all non-administrative employees, have been disputed on the grounds that the lack of wanting may be a lack of previous experience. In other words, apathy is the result not the cause of such behavior.

This argument seems well-taken. Bergsten (1980), when referring to adult education stated:

Many studies have shown that participation in Adult Education is not a single event but rather a recurrent behavior, as if previous participation has left some type of imprint in the form of preparedness for action.¹⁶

¹⁵ Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 27.

¹⁶ U. Bergsten, "Interest in Education Among Adult with Short Previous Formal Schooling," Adult Education, Vol. XXX, No. 3, Spring, 1980, p. 139.

Similarly, Poole (1975) argued that:

Individual passivity is the inevitable consequence of lack of autonomy and this is in turn incompatible with the notion of man able to realize his full potential and to create a truly human order.¹⁷

However, research clearly suggests that teachers do not necessarily want to be involved in all decisions; yet, they do seem to desire a greater say in policies affecting their immediate work environment. These results Pateman (1970) and Halter (1965) described as akin to findings where investigators questioned workers on the kind of participation they really desired. The majority of respondents invariably opt for greater involvement in decisions directly affecting their own job whilst correspondingly few want to participate in decisions concerning the whole establishment. Thus, some researchers have drawn distinctions by differentiating between immediate and remote participation, (Strauss and Rosenstein, 1970).¹⁸

Thus, Wall and Lischeron (1977) have remarked that:

It is with its relationship to job satisfaction that the bulk of research into immediate participation has been concerned.¹⁹

The link between these two factors has been generally regarded as axiomatic. Blumberg (1968), for instance, in an extensive review concluded:

17 Michael Poole, Workers' Participation in Industry (London: Routledge and Kegan Company, 1975), p. 1.

18 Toby D. Wall, J. A. Lischeron, Worker Participation: A critique of the literature and some fresh evidence. (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1977), p. 11.

19 Ibid. p. 10.

There is hardly a study in the entire literature which fails to demonstrate that satisfaction in work is enhanced or that other generally acknowledged benefits accrue from a genuine increase in workers' decision-making powers. Such consistency, I submit is rare in social research.²⁰

Despite this overwhelming evidence, it should be noted that what is often called the participation-satisfaction thesis has been disputed on several grounds. It has been asserted, for example, that administrators react differently to workers' attitudes and self-disposition. Thus, it may be asserted that reciprocity in behavior largely determines the levels of perceived satisfaction.

Such arguments, it seems, inevitably imply that in trying to measure satisfaction per se - a concept which not only has dynamic dimensions but is also subject to various causal factors - great care has to be taken when interpreting the results. Similarly, one could debate that the concept of participation may evoke different meanings. As Wall and Lischeron (1977) noted:

Three elements central to the concept of participation are: influence, interaction and information sharing.²¹

Thus, it is conceivable to argue that people may react differently to the very word "participation". The long-term outcomes, however, where participatory methods were implemented, have been described by Wall and Lischeron as follows:

We observed a change in quality, quantity and pattern of communication within the organization. Changes in

20 Op. cit. p. 14.

21 Op. cit. p. 37.

management and workers' perceptions lead to an increase in trust and less fear of victimization and a greater willingness to offer viewpoints.²²

Among the goals of education, one invariably expects that students be encouraged to think critically and independently. At the same time, the situation remains that schools, being structured as they are, tend to insist on specific and often unbending conformity to rules. Sergiovanni and Carver (1977) stated that:

One of the major weaknesses of American Education today is the incompatibility between how schools are operated and managed administratively and the self-actualization goals which schools hold for youngsters.²³

The dilemma cannot be resolved effectively without structural rearrangement of both the organization and the power relationship governing groups and individuals.

Other findings consider that participatory practices do seem to improve the quality of the working life, alleviate alienation, reduce absenteeism, increase productivity, improve communication and attitudes and give impetus to innovation:

Participation on theoretical grounds has been hailed as the most appropriate solution to the problems of alienation, as the best method for facilitating the development of social conscious and aware people and as the essential stepping stone to the fulfilment of higher order needs which are held to be common to all men.²⁴

22 Op. cit. p. 148.

23 Op. cit. p. 36.

24 Michael Poole, Workers' Participation in Industry (London: Routledge and Kegan Company, 1975), p. 9.

It has been argued by various writers that the degree of a person's acceptance of organizational arrangement at the emotional level may be directly related to the individual's successful integration, that is, one's general acceptance of a company or an institution's way of life. This degree of integration, in turn, becomes visible through the individual's expression of satisfaction and his degree of agreement. However, as Ouchi and Jaeger (1979) noted the ideological stance of the North American value system stands in stark contrast to the demands of organizational values. The ideology of independence that is part of the basic fabric of the American character recoils at the thought of collective commitment.²⁵ Hence, the intrinsic and often unconscious resistance to organizational demands together with the insistence on having an input in the affairs affecting the individual. Usually these demands or wants extend themselves to the level of being included in the communication flow, the wanting of a say, a voice, the desire of being consulted and having a feeling of participation in decision-making.

A number of studies conducted in industry, voluntary organizations and schools have demonstrated that the satisfaction of subordinates is related to the extent they can influence the organization's decision-making.

²⁵ J. B. Ritchie, Paul Thompson, Organization and People (San Francisco: West Publishing Company, 1980), 23.

Teachers, for example:

report greatest satisfaction with their principal and the school when they perceive that they and their principal are mutually influential.²⁶

But, Edman (1968) and Dykes (1964) remarked that teachers do not always find themselves involved in decision-making on issues which concern them. Chase (1951) found that regular opportunities to participate in educational planning and policy-making (with regard, for example, to instruction) were closely related to teachers' satisfaction with the system in which they were working. Antell (1945) reported that teachers were asked to rate a number of supervision practices according to their degree of helpfulness to teachers. The report revealed that 70 per cent of the respondents favoured those practices which gave them the opportunity to participate in the formulation of practical school policies and in the working of curriculum development.²⁷

Arnold's research (1953) noted that an adequate flow of information among the school personnel was closely related to the staff's morale and

26 Robert S. Fox, et al., Diagnosing Professional Climate of Schools (Fairfax: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1975), p. 56.

27 Marion Edman, A Self Image of Primary School Teachers (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1968), p. 77.

R. D. Dykes, "Democracy, Teachers and Educational Decision-Making," School and Society, Vol. XCII, No. 8, 1964, pp. 155-156.

H. Antell, "Teachers Appraise Supervision," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 8, 1945, pp. 606-611.

their involvement in decision-making processes. Cornell (1954) reported that teachers were not equally affected by a lack of opportunity to participate in decision-making. As measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, those most affected were teachers found to be above average in professional attitude.²⁸

A study by Cope (1975) looked at factors which may account for innovativeness in colleges. The results indicated that the dean of the college, who was considered highly innovative, differed widely in his approach from those who were deemed more conservative. Accordingly the report indicated that:

- He saw department chairmen, faculty and students as being more free to talk to him.

- He was willing to give faculty more say about academic and non-academic matters.

- He perceived decisions as being made broader throughout the college with administration, faculty and students participating in decisions affecting them.²⁹

Cock and French (1979) examined the resistance to change in a factory setting. For the four groups selected, they used three different methods: the non-participative method with group 1; the representative participation method for group 2 and the total participation method for groups 3 and 4. Their findings indicated that in contrast to the 14% of

²⁸ D. L. Arnold, "Morale as Influenced by Participation in Group Planning Action," Educational Research Bulletin, Vol. II, 1953, pp. 205-211.

L. Cornell, "When should Teachers share in Making Administrative Decision?" The Nation's School, Vol. LIII, No. 5, 1954, pp. 43-45.

²⁹ Robert G. Cope, et al., "Information for Decisions in Post-Secondary Education," Journal of Institutional Research, 15th Annual Forum, 1975, p. 36.

quits in groups 1 and 2, the groups 3 and 4 recorded no quits, increased their production and showed no signs of hostility toward their superiors.³⁰

Similarly, Miles and Ritchie (1971) in a study of 381 managers found that:

Managers who least value their subordinates' capabilities and who least often seek their contributions on department issues have the least well satisfied subordinates.³¹

Owen and Steinhoff (1976) described the most systematic study on the phenomenon of resistance to change in a factory setting - the classic case of the Weldon Manufacturing Company which was taken over by the Harvard Company. In essence, to effect the needed change, the new company applied the concept of participative management. That is, the administrators consulted the workers. The results were a rather dramatic increase in productivity. Owen and Steinhoff (1976) suggested that:

The lessons to be drawn from this as well as from many other similar cases are not limited to manufacturing firms.³²

In a study on school climate, Fox (1975) observed similar significant feelings of satisfaction derived from decision-making in a professionally staffed organization. Relevant to this study are the following observations:

Teachers who feel influential in school decision-making more often are involved in professional innovation and sharing.

Most teachers want to have more decision-making power than they have now.

30 J. B. Ritchie and Paul Thompson, Organization and People (San Francisco: West Publishing Company, 2nd ed., 1980), p. 363.

31 Ibid. p. 278.

32 Robert G. Owens and Steinhoff, Administering Change in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1976), p. 13.

Teachers who feel influential on the staff are less alienated from school.

When the principal and his staff perceive the school's social structure and priorities in the same ways, they are more likely to collaborate effectively.³³

Owens (1970), in his research on school organization behaviour, added:

Research on participation of teachers in decision-making suggests that the extent and nature of the participation affects (a) the satisfaction gained from teaching as a profession, (b) the enthusiasm of the teacher for his particular school, and (c) the attitude the teacher has towards his principal.³⁴

Similarly, Sergiovanni (1967), while examining the teachers' opportunities for personal and professional success, underlined the importance of the administrators' behaviour. To this effect, he wrote:

Basic to this understanding is the proposition that administrators will permit and encourage teachers to

- (1) exercise more autonomy in making decision...
- (2) increase individual responsibility in developing and implementing teaching programs, and
- (3) develop professional skills.³⁵

Also, a recent Manitoba study conducted by Frazer (1979), a Brandon University Professor, indicated that the nature of the relationship between a teacher and his supervisor may be more important than the specific supervisory techniques used by a supervisor. On a particular study dealing with decision-making his study revealed the following:

33 Robert S. Fox, et al., Diagnosing Professional Climate of Schools (Fairfax: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1975), p. vii.

34 Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 108.

35 Fred D. Carver and Thomas Sergiovanni, Organizational and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1969), p. 258.

Item: During each school term, my supervisor makes it possible for me to participate in the revision of curriculum programs. This supervisory behavior was a significant predictor of participation in decision-making and influence over supervision.

Nearly all respondents (97%) wanted to participate in curriculum revision.³⁶

Ever since 1950, when Worthy published his much cited article on "Organizational Structure and Employee Morale, " considerable attention has been focussed on the effects of organizational structure on employees' satisfaction. Large hierarchies, so it is held, stifle autonomy, alienate, depersonalize and hence limit commitment. In contrast, less complex or flatter structures, which allow for decentralization, tend to create more opportunities for individual self-expression and responsibility, thus creating higher levels of satisfaction.

That large hierarchical organizations or bureaucracies invariably stifle the lower ranks' perception of power and inevitably influence the degree of job satisfaction has not yet been sufficiently researched or demonstrated. Nevertheless, speculation and findings do indicate that organizational structure is of lesser significance than openness and communication - the actual participation and interaction of the organizational participants. Such basically opposite views have been discussed by

³⁶ Editorial, The Manitoba Teacher, Vol. LVIII, No. 4, December, 1979, p. 5.

Isherwood and Hoy (1972), Carpenter (1971), Sergiovanni (1967), Meltzer and Salter (1967), Porter and Lawler (1964).³⁷ Porter and Lawler (1964) reviewing a vast number of pertinent research have concluded:

It appears that the advantage of a flat structure not only decreases with increasing organization size, but that in relatively large organizations a flat structure may sometimes even be a liability.³⁸

The advocates of flat or less complex structures have pointed to the potential of greater autonomy, hence greater job satisfaction. However, Porter and Lawler did remark that:

The studies reviewed offer no clear support for the proposition that decentralization can produce either improved job attitudes or performances.³⁹

³⁷ Harrell H. Carpenter, "Formal Organizational Structure Factors and Perceived Job Satisfaction of Classroom Teachers," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. XVI, No. 4, 1971, pp. 460-465.

Leo Meltzer and James Salter, "Organizational Structure and the Performance of Job Satisfaction Physiologists," American Sociological Review, Vol. XXI, 1964, pp. 444-465.

Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler, "The Effects of Tall versus Falt Organizational Structures on Managerial Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, Vol. XVII, 1964, pp. 135-148.

Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Factors which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. V, 1967, pp. 66-82.

Geoffrey Isherwood and Wayne K. Hoy, "Bureaucracy, Powerlessness and Teacher Work Values," The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. XI, No. 1, 1973, pp. 30-54.

³⁸ Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler, "Properties of Organizational Structure in Relation to Job Attitudes and Job Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. LXIV, No. 1, 1964, p. 44.

³⁹ Ibid. p. 44.

Moeller and Charters (1966) also agreed that contrary to their hypothesis:

Sense of power was greater, not less, in the highly bureaucratic school.⁴⁰

Thus, it may well be that the degree of job satisfaction is less dependent on structural arrangement than on potential influence in decision-making. James and Jones (1980), in a study on reciprocal causation of job characteristics and job satisfaction, noted that considerable attention has been given to the theoretical and the empirical relationships between individuals' perceptions of job characteristics and job satisfaction.⁴¹ In their studies (1978 - 1979), they questioned the assumption of Guion (1973) and Johannesson (1973) who differentiated between job perception and job satisfaction. On reciprocal causation relationships they hypothesized:

That a reciprocal causation relationship existed between job satisfaction and psychological climate perceptions.⁴²

Jones and James considered challenge, autonomy and the feeling of importance to be significant measures of the psychological climate of job situations, and therefore, meaningful measures in the evaluation of job satisfaction. Interestingly enough their findings did seem to indicate that job perception tends to predispose individuals towards the construction

40 Gerald H. Moeller and W. H. Charters, "Relation of Bureaucratization to Sense of Power among Teachers," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. X, 1966, p. 444.

41 Lawrence R. James and Allan P. Jones, "Perceived Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction: An Examination of Reciprocal Causation," Personnel Psychology, Vol. XXXIII, No. 1, Spring, 1980, pp. 97-98.

42 Ibid. p. 98.

of a subjective reality, one that is compatible with existing individual characteristics and attitudes. That is, if individuals perceive their job as worthwhile, they tend to modify their idiosyncrasies in accordance with groups and situations.⁴³ Hence the association between organizational control and satisfaction on the part of organization members may be said to be directly related. However, as some organizational theorists have argued, control is basic to the distribution of rewards and punishment within an organization. In other words:

What a person gets out of an organization depends in part on who determines the way in which the organization shall operate.⁴⁴

In contemporary educational administration as well as in other public organizations, the concern of practice and research seems to focus on decision-making behavior, specifically the implementation of strategies which would permit greater creativity through shared and coordinated expertise in the use of human resources. With educational goals becoming more numerous and more complex, teachers are demanding greater professional autonomy and authority for making decisions regarding instruction and programming. Hence the particular problem of decision-making in schools today is an urgent issue. It seems that in attempting to affect educational change, one must consider the needs and ideas of all involved

43 Lawrence R. James and Allan P. Jones, "Perceived Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction: An Examination of Reciprocal Causation," Personnel Psychology, Vol. XXXIII, No. 1, Spring, 1980, p. 124.

44 Louis Cohen, Educational Research in Classrooms and Schools (London: Harper and Row Ltd., 1976), p. 229.

in a concrete way. However, it is equally obvious that if confusion and stalemate are to be avoided, it becomes essential to clarify the leadership and decision-making processes. The Rand Change Agent Study (1975) on 293 projects pertaining to change in educational practices concluded that successful implementation is characterized by mutual adaptation.⁴⁵ This concern for maximum commitment and interactive processes led McLaughlin to comment:

Unless teachers were motivated by professional concerns (as opposed to more tangible incentives such as extra pay...) they did not expend the extra time and energy requisite to the usually painful procedure of implementing innovation.⁴⁶

There is increasing reason to believe that successful educational innovation rests on gaining the full support of the teachers. In fact, to assure implementation of change, teachers ought to participate as much as possible in the creation as well as in the adaptation. This would mean that it is far better to let teachers "reinvent the wheel," so to speak, rather than urge them to operate a fully equipped vehicle. Such educational direction has been considered by many of the hypothetical studies reviewed. In general, their findings have not only indicated the potential differences between decision-making and compliance, but most of the data analysis highlighted the fact that successful innovation rests on cooperative and creative input on the part of the participants.

45 Dale Mann, Making Change Happen? (New York: Teachers' College Press, 1978), p. 20.

46 Ibid. p. 21.

Most of the studies reviewed did deplore the fact that the educational innovations undertaken as part of the curriculum reform movements in the last decades have generally failed to meet their objectives. Explanation of the failures range from the election of gadgetry (i.e., technological change), to the lack of organizational change, as well as to the failure to come to grips with the power structure of the educational institutions and their political reality. Mann (1978) pointed out that:

Until recently, few educators have selected to initiate innovations that require change in the traditional roles, behavior and structures that exist within the school organization or the classroom.⁴⁷

The new argument is that without change in the structure of the institutional setting (the culture of the school), any new practices introduced can simply become more of the same and less likely to lead to any significant change in what happens to the end product, that is, the student and the society. If educational change is to be more effective, it seems, it should consider classroom practices which will change the ways in which students, teachers, parents, and administrators relate to each other. Furthermore, if participation is to be the keynote in the charting of school decisions, then the system may have to consider developing certain functional combinations of power to ensure that necessary decisions are made in an orderly way and with as much participation as the system allows. Hence, the definition of power which each group could hold and share would have to be well determined, in order to achieve consensus and action.

⁴⁷ Dale Mann, Making Change Happen? (New York: Teachers' College Press, 1978), p. 19.

School administrators, it is argued, have been remiss in creating means for other groups to become effectively included in decision-making processes. It has also been asserted that some educational administrators were either ignorant of, or reluctant to acknowledge the political dimension inherent to contemporary school management.

There are, however, reasons for this reluctance on the part of administrators to become involved in politics. The historical model offered by Weber extolled the virtues of bureaucratic efficiency based on keeping irrational personal and emotional factors at a minimum. It provided a clear-cut division of labor predicated on functional specialization and clear rules for governing the rights and duties of all employees. Such dictates allowed for decisions cued by routine or precedents, and thus made organizational tasks manageable and predictable.

The eternal vagrancies of politics, nevertheless, did encourage the dichotomization of politics and educational administration. Mann (1976), giving a brief description of this situation, stated that:

Administrative activity was based on facts (not values); it was a science (not an art); it was responsive to merit (not influence); it dealt objectively with questions of technical implementation (not subjectively with the goals to be pursued); and it served the public interest (not some partisan interest).⁴⁸

In the same study, Mann noted:

Professional educators found that by raising academic distinction to the status of a professional litany, they

⁴⁸ Dale Mann, The Politics of Administrative Representation (Toronto: D. C. Heath and Company, 1976), p. 10.

could escape considerable burdensome meddling by the public in educational affairs.⁴⁹

However, in dealing with educational isolation or rather 'the bastion walling the public out of the schools' the same researcher added:

Contemporary reaction to this isolation - decentralization, citizen participation, community control, accountability - can be interpreted as a struggle to reintegrate political and administrative factors in education's policy.⁵⁰

This line of reasoning can be extended to the often heard - "we teach subjects not values"; - "we produce critical minds and are not concerned whether this is functional in everyday life." Such views have deep philosophical roots. The separation of theoretical and practical knowledge or the integration thereof as a means for educating generations has occupied many a mind.

Similarly, the desire of the many to become involved in affairs affecting them can be seen in part as a reaction against the traditional dichotomy of knowledge and practice. It may also be the effect of a greater awareness of the bearing of politics upon educational organizations.

As Townsend (1979) remarked:

Politics is a process by which public authorities allocate prizes and values.⁵¹

In an effort to sensitize educational administrators to the realities of the school organizational environment, Mann has emphasized that:

49 Ibid. p. 10.

50 Op. cit p. 10.

51 R. G. Townsend, "When Politics and Education Intersect," Education Canada, Vol. XIX, No. 2, Summer, 1979, p. 16.

Schools are political institutions and administrators are political actors.⁵²

Administrators, it would seem, too often see their job as avoiding conflict, running a quiet ship, overlooking trouble and keeping everyone happy. Involvement, however, of parents, teachers, or students for that matter, invariably leads to an increase in disagreement. Fortunately, the same study also remarked that as involvement increases so does support for the institution.⁵³ Similarly, The Yin and Bradeis University Research (1973) observed that when community involvement reaches the level of shared control, the probability of organizational success is enhanced.⁵⁴ The significance of participation in the development of a favorable organizational school climate had somewhat been suggested by Stelzer (1962), who argued that the sporadic outbursts that plague school politics are the results of closed decision procedures.⁵⁵

It is interesting to observe that the principal tenets of educational theories tend to reflect the following beliefs:

- (1) that people can be changed,
- (2) that once provided with information people will invariably modify their behavior, and

52 Dale Mann, The Politics of Administrative Representation (Toronto: D. C. Heath and Company, 1976), p. xxi.

53 Ibid. p. 114.

54 Op. cit. p. 102.

55 Op. cit. p. 106.

(3) that there is a basic set of values or goals on which school people agree.

Such assumptions, however, leave out the equally valid fact, that the values of professionals or quasi-professionals in school have been insufficiently consensual to allow the change-agent strategies to operate effectively. One simply has to follow the many streams of thoughts on education, for example - the humanistic school versus the behaviorists - to realize that substantial agreement on goals, values and desired outcomes is difficult. Similarly, one could argue an absence of consensus on the criteria of educational quality. Aside from these divergences, it is obvious that the very attempt for any change in education raises questions of control and power.

Indeed, to attempt to influence people or organizations is to hope that people will reconsider their goals in the light of evolving values emerging from contemporary social, political and economic realities. However, organizational structures frequently fail to encourage innovation from lower levels and from external sources; hence the power resting with superordinates tends to be seen, if not used, as a means for enforcing ritualistic behavior and preserving the status quo.

The implementation of new educational policies requires the definition of what the people involved consider important; it means allowing the expressions of feelings toward issues in relation to existing programs, modes and values, goals and functions. Otherwise, inasmuch as superordinates

continue to strike policies whose implementation remains uncertain, so the lower level employees will continue ignoring directions, making exceptions, selectively enforcing or submitting to rules and naturally perceiving certain territories as their exclusive preserves.

For a good many years, the classical theorists, together with the political and administrative scientists, have described organizations in terms of pyramidal structure with centralized control, that is, with policy-making taking place only at the upper reaches of organizations.⁵⁶ In a review of the organizational climate in the public school system, Steinhoff (1965) used this historical concept to illustrate the organizational behavior of school principals. His data led him to remark that:

Many principals are timid, submissive, and have a personal disposition to support an administrative style which minimizes the likelihood of conflict or change.⁵⁷

Other studies, for example the Rand Study (1975), noted that quite often the net effect of change attempts are outcomes which see new material and methods merely transformed to accommodate old methods. Such observations do suggest that an important ingredient of organizational behavior is to be found in the way decisions are made and carried through. Mann (1978) agreed with Kaufman (1960) when making the following statement:

Failures of implementation are, by definition, lapses of planning specification, and control...

⁵⁶ Dale Mann, Making Change Happen? (New York: Teachers' College Press, 1978), p. xvii.

⁵⁷ Carl R. Steinhoff, USDE Co-operative Research Program Contract. No. OE-4-10-225. Project, (Syracuse: University Press, 1965), p. 104.

The success or failure of an effort is judged by observing the discrepancy between the policy declaration and subordinate behavior.⁵⁸

Since a great deal of accomplishment and creativity hinges on the degree of consensus among superiors and subordinates, it becomes desirable to examine the correct mix of subordinate input and hierarchical control in the selection and planning of means and paths to greater educational efficiency. In other words, the question is how the educational system can cope with the problem of controlling and managing the services which must expand and change.

The need for a new approach to educational planning brings into the picture the structure of power and decision-making. If one examines this question in the context of the last decades, it becomes quite clear that the administrative function of decision-making calls for a review; more specifically, how in a particular setting decisions are to be made, who should participate, through which organizational mechanism and to what degree or extent.

In a typical educational setting, policy-making takes place at various levels and for various purposes. Consequently, who carries what amount of influence may appear mysterious even to the so-called "insiders". The challenging but necessary tasks for achieving policies and planning for future education has been well summarized by Gass (1970), at the Paris Conference on Policies for Educational Growth. When reflecting on desirable strategies, he stated:

⁵⁸ Dale Mann, Making Change Happen? (New York: Teachers' College Press, 1978), p. 194.

The fundamental problem of policy/planning is thus a potential conflict between a necessary technocratic basis if the system is to be effectively planned in relation to future needs, and if 'wastage' and conflict within the system are to be minimized, and the creative process of educational need and development in which individual social groups and communities can play an active part in the development and control of education.

The implication of the first requirement is that educational policy must in the future be backed by a strong planning function and that policy and planning must be drawn more closely together than they are today.⁵⁹

In an era where social and democratic leadership is advocated, policy planning calls for discussion of the major alternatives by the different social groups involved in the educational process. Therefore, a consultative and representative machinery would seem important for servicing and reshaping functions of the educational system in the years to come.

Much of the reviewed literature seemed to focus on the problem of how to make more rational decisions. Simon (1961) noted that the role of values in decision-making, while subject to much conjecture and debate, cannot be excluded:

Facts and values are inextricably intertwined in the choosing from alternative courses of action.⁶⁰

Not only do decision-makers have to contend with personal and group values as well as perceptions, but they also are dependent on the kind of information flow, both formal and informal, present within a given organizational structure. The usefulness of information available to the

⁵⁹ J. R. Gass, "An Overview of Past Trends and Future Issues." Educational Policies for the 1970's, General Report, (Paris: O.E.C.D. Publications, 1970), p. 47.

⁶⁰ Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 96.

decision-making group depends a great deal on the status the holder has within the group. Therefore, to improve decision-making performance, some encourage information networks which will facilitate the flow of information up, down and laterally within the organization. Others believe that useful decision-making information depends more on interpersonal relationships; they encourage an emotionally free and non-threatening atmosphere where information will flow freely within the organization.

Typical findings show that communications tend to center around key people, that is participants or members who belong to more than one group and serve as links in the business, industry or school body. However, Owens in his research on organizational behavior warned administrators not to be surprised at the subordinates' reluctance to communicate freely. In a study on some causes of ineffectiveness of governmental communication networks, Argyris (1967) observed that:

Competent, hardworking Foreign Service Officers expressed the need to be careful, indirect, and withdrawing; it seemed important not to make waves...

Foreign Service Officers often felt it was too risky for them, personally, to speak up.⁶¹

The result is that subordinates may withhold pertinent information from superiors. According to research, it seems that participation in decision-making, to be worthwhile, should be perceived by subordinates as genuine feedback resulting from interpersonal communication.

61 Ibid. p. 99.

As noted in the study - 'The Regents of the University of California' (1971), most managers appeared to hold two theories of participation. As Miles and Ritchie (1976) explained:

One of these...the Human Relations model viewed participation primarily as a means of obtaining cooperation - a technique which the manager could use to improve morale and reduce subordinate resistance to his policies and decision. The second...the Human Resources model, recognized the untapped potential of most organizational members and advocated participation as a means of achieving improvement...managers viewed the Human Relations model as appropriate for their subordinates while wanting their superior to follow the Human Resources logic.⁶²

Most research, it would seem, draws attention to the quality and the quantity of participation as determinants of job satisfaction and performance. Some stress the role of quality for effective participative management. It may also seem appropriate to add that while participative management is no panacea, it may well prove valuable to professional groups and their members who perceive shared decision-making as the best strategy for spanning reality and goals. In the educational sector, decision-making it seems, has become an exercise which strives to involve those affected by decisions. The reason for this political phenomenon is that educational institutions, in an effort to respond to new dimensions of individual and social needs, have had in the last two decades to contend with the problem of rapid technological growth and available financial resources. As Coon (1970) pointed out:

62 J. B. Ritchie, and P. Thompson, Organization and People (San Francisco: West Publishing Company, 1980), p. 273.

There is in consequence a major problem of involving teachers, parents and students, as such in the definition of goals and their translation into action.⁶³

The need for greater financial and social resources has obviously led to more public discussion and decisions both in the allocation of funds and in the formulation of priorities, which are then to be operationalized through curricula and teaching methods. Despite this tendency, many educational theorists still hold that until new technological teaching-learning systems have been introduced in schools, the teachers should remain the principal determinants of all teaching-learning processes. Nevertheless, the pressure for participation remains.

In an era where mass education is strongly influenced by the ideal of equal opportunity, the pedagogical role of the professional is naturally challenged by the social, the technological and the economic environments. The new educational needs, as Gass pointed out can no longer be met by structural changes alone, they must be part of a process of change in depth.⁶⁴ Indeed, the forces for change are so powerful and pervasive that the professionals can no longer afford the ivory tower. Particularly in post-secondary institutions, the ambiguity as to the what, the how much and the whom to involve in decision-making must be resolved.

63 J. R. Gass, "An Overview of Past Trends and Future Issues." Conference on Policies for Educational Growth (Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 1970), p. 27.

64 Ibid. p. 43.

In an area pivotal to their existence, post-secondary institutions, appear to lack consensus and control among staff and administrators as to the most appropriate ways of involving the professional staff in pedagogical and administrative matters. In fact, it is important that the expected or needed learning outcomes in relationship to social, technological and economic demands not be left to chance. With incessant technological growth, the pedagogue must not remain in the secluded gray area when it comes to the planning or the making of educational decisions. As Taylor (1970) once explained:

Planning a course of study for pupils, and constructing the curriculum they will follow is central to the whole educational process. Upon this planning hinges a very great deal. It defines, directs and co-ordinates what the pupil is intended to learn; gives direction and purpose to teaching; provides it with justification and gives order and coherence.⁶⁵

Yet how this planning is to be clarified and implemented, which criteria and strategies may be most suitable for effectively setting and achieving goals are not problems to be resolved overnight. In this process, it is appropriate to consider the present educational tendencies.

As Taylor remarked:

Evaluation emerges as the concept which teachers seem least to value or implement...

Along with this, and surprisingly, is their relative lack of concern with the relation between their subject and other subjects and to the curriculum as a whole...

⁶⁵ Philip, H. Taylor, How Teachers Plan their Courses (Windsor Berks: NFER Publishing Co., 1970), p. 1.

There seems no consistency in the role which the syllabus plays, and some doubt must be entertained whether teachers consider that the syllabus serves any worthwhile purpose at all.⁶⁶

Naturally, the lack of professional concern and congruency has a direct impact on the development and formulation of alternatives and goals, as well as on the articulation of innovative strategies for a productive and challenging network of educational programs. Indeed, the lack of interaction observed seems to produce much incoherence which inevitably obscures planning activities, policy-making, goal-setting, decision-making and innovation. The quest for more basic interaction and consensus on goals and strategies may become more acute in the face of declining enrollment, aging teaching population, more tenured positions and the trend towards specialization and professionalization. As Carver (1969) noted:

Teachers appear to want the authority to make certain types of decisions, not merely the opportunity to become involved with some stages of decision-making at the discretion of the administration.⁶⁷

In a study, Grover (1972) devised a decision-making measuring instrument for some 315 teachers and head teachers in primary schools. His study revealed some significant differences between the actual and expected pattern of decision-making in schools. By and large, head teachers were found to make more decisions than teachers wanted them to make. In accordance

66 Ibid. p. 1.

67 Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, Organizational and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969), p. 222.

with Owen's previous observation (1970), Grover's research indicated some distinct areas of decision-making which were generally seen as being within the head teacher's control and his alone. Also, the sex of the teacher was found to be associated with differences in orientation towards decision-making, with female teachers wishing to make significantly fewer decisions than their male counterparts. Cohen (1975) used the Grover decision-making scale as part of a larger investigation of sixteen primary schools. In some of the schools examined the discrepancy found was meaningful. This discrepancy was significant in schools whose climate was diagnosed as authoritarian and traditional. The same study observed that the gap narrowed wherever teachers actually had a role in the search for possible alternative actions.

However prone the administrator may be to consult teachers, or to whatever extent teachers may envision a role in decision-making, it seems that more consideration could be given to the general mechanisms for ensuring collaboration in the decision-making in schools. In practice, the boundary line between administrator and teacher role in decision-making must be clear. Otherwise, principals, who want to know when and how to involve teachers as advisors or as decision makers, may well be concerned about teachers running the school.

To facilitate meaningful and more 'democratic' participation in professional matters, Owens (1970) drew the following as guidelines for schools:

1. Effective participation by teachers in meaningful organizational decisions does 'pay off'.
2. Teachers do not want to be involved in every decision, nor do they expect to be.

3. An important task of the principal is to distinguish between the decisions in which teachers should be involved and those which should be handled in other ways.

4. The roles and functions of teachers in decision-making can be varied according to the nature of the problem.

5. The points in the decision-making process at which teachers are involved can be varied according to the nature of the problem.⁶⁸

In the same study, Owens also referred to what Barnard (1938) once called the 'zone of indifference'. Barnard originally coined the term to indicate that there are some areas in which the decisions of the administration will be accepted without question by the members of an organization.

Similarly, Owens noted that even though research has shown teacher participating in decision-making as 'paying-off', to him it became equally clear that:

Such participation can be overdone. Excessive involvement of teachers can produce resentment and resistance; teachers want the administrator to settle his own problems and they do not want to be excessively tied up in committee work.⁶⁹

DECISION MAKING IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

For many people, the very name Community College conjures up visions of post-secondary education reflecting local needs and presenting an array of choices both theoretical and practical. For others, the Community College evokes an almost automatic aura of participatory governance focusing on the development of training programs for general and particular needs of an adult population. Whatever image one has, the Community College has

⁶⁸ Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Toronto: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 106.

⁶⁹ Ibid. p. 108.

been defined as a public educational institution whose general purpose is to provide adult students with broad, basic and practical knowledge that will enable them to enter the work force rapidly. The little research available indicates that the development and maintenance of the community college programs necessarily imply an ongoing responsiveness to social and economic conditions together with an organizational structure which is classically hierarchical and more or less affected by political processes.

As Zoglin (1976) remarked:

The main thing is to recognize that politics are part and parcel of the democratic decision-making process and thus inextricably intertwined in Community College governance.⁷⁰

Similarly, the Oliver Report (1974), in noting some of the alleged shortcomings of Community Colleges in Manitoba, pointed out that:

Rigidity has been a principal characteristic of all aspects of the Community College, the consequence of extreme centralization of decision-making in the government. The staffs within the college institutions have lacked autonomy to such a degree that decisions affecting even the minutiae of day-to-day operations are affected.⁷¹

On the other hand, one has to admit that despite theoretical arguments in favor of greater control or input into the decision-making processes on the part of the faculty or, for that matter, the students and the community at large, empirical studies of practices and perceptions of interested

70 Mary Lou Zoglin, Power and Politics in the Community College (Palm Spring: ETC Publications, 1976), p. 34.

71 Edward Sheffield, et al., Systems of Higher Education: Canada (New York: Interbook Inc., International Council for Educational Development, 1978), p. 158.

parties are few. In particular, studies relevant to decision-making in institutions of higher education in Canada are minimal. Some earlier studies done in the United States by Garrison (1964), Giles and Olson (1976) and the Task Force of the American Association for Higher Education (1967) are said to have given impetus to a series of studies on Community Colleges - with rather similar results. A major finding of each of these studies was that the main source of administration-faculty conflicts stems from a faculty desire to become involved in the formulation of institutional policies. In reference to this particular behavior, Day (1971) noted that:

In spite of the profound implication of such a finding no attempt has been made to systematically gather data to provide an objective appraisal of the problem in Canadian institutions.⁷²

A certain amount of reluctance on the part of researchers has been explained by Rourke and Bond (1966). In an analysis of higher education managerial practices, they observed:

Over the years administrators and faculty members have opposed such studies on the grounds that educational outputs cannot be measured anyway and that there is an inherent insoluble conflict between administrative efficiency and academic effectiveness.⁷³

This sort of attitude is said to have given way to the recent demands for accountability, participation and a generalized increase in governmental

72 T. C. Day, "Administration-Faculty Conflict over the Distribution of Control in Policy Formulation in Alberta Colleges" (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1971), p. 4.

73 Francis E. Rourke and Glenn E. Bond, The Managerial Revolution in Higher Education (Baltimore: Johns-Hopkins Press, 1966), pp. 30-31.

control over institutions of higher education. Hence, perhaps, more research into the decision-making processes of educational institutions.

The available studies pertinent to Community Colleges are mostly confined to American institutions with the exceptions of a few recent Canadian surveys and reports. Mathew (1967), for example, found that Colleges which were most participative were also establishments in which the professional staff expressed the greatest satisfaction with the extent of its involvement and productivity.⁷⁴ Derrett (1968), studying faculty perception of actual and ideal decision-making relationships in six Texas public colleges, observed that:

There were significant differences among the staffs in perceptions of total amount of control in the College, that is, in the influence in decision-making exercised by all levels of college hierarchy.⁷⁵

Taylor (1967) in a study of fourteen Colleges in Texas, noted that the single most important factor in predicting faculty job satisfaction was faculty perception of the administrative policies and practices.⁷⁶ Garrison (1967), in conducting a nation-wide study which sampled opinions in regard to participation in college governance, also found that:

74 T. C. Day, "Administration-Faculty Conflict over the Distribution of Control in Policy Formulation in Alberta Colleges" (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1971), p. 31.

75 Ibid. p. 33.

76 Op. Cit. p. 35.

The main concern of faculty members was over their desire to have an active part to play in the formulation of policies which affect them as professionals.⁷⁷

He did, however, note that the opinions were by no means unanimous and that the pattern of faculty involvement was in no way well-established. Finally, Day (1971), in what he claimed to be the first Canadian study on Colleges, concluded that:

Faculty members preferred an increase in control in most areas of College governance with noticeable increases preferred in some areas not directly related to the instructional process.⁷⁸

For some educators, faculty involvement is seen as a key to student participation, as well as a potential factor in instructional innovativeness.

As Richardson (1972) has pointed out:

If faculties are not actively involved in governance, there is little hope that any attempt to involve students more actively can succeed.⁷⁹

Throughout the research literature, the notion of democratic procedures in institutional management is often viewed as an important instrument of educational leadership and behavior. Considering the socio-political dimensions of colleges, it is not surprising that researchers have been concerned with the analysis of theoretical and actual characteristics of the colleges' policy-making power in relation to professional participation and satisfaction. The question of who should make certain decisions is not an either/or proposition. Constitutionally, the Canadian provinces bear responsibility

77 Op. cit. p. 38.

78 Op. cit. p. 166.

79 Op. cit. p. 28.

for the educational system, and hence their primacy in community colleges governance is undisputed. They decide when, where and how community colleges should function. The participatory role and power of local community lay boards vary from province to province. Internally, the administrators exercise varying degrees of power, and so do the faculty and students.

That each of the groups affected by or involved in the educational goals and development of the college should have a voice, or a specific role in its decision-making processes, appears to emerge from the very purpose and character of the post-secondary institution. Nevertheless, the amount of real power each group should have is very much in contention. Similarly, the issues of lay versus professional control or provincial versus local groups, are far from being resolved. In the present study, the professionals' perception of decision-making involvement and job satisfaction was of primary interest. Accordingly a brief look at job satisfaction is necessary.

JOB SATISFACTION

Over the years, job satisfaction has received a great deal of attention from researchers. However, the current dimension of high unemployment co-existing with labour shortages, general labour unrest and high job turnover, all have given a new impetus to the search for its sources. In fact, the general change in attitude, the increasing emphasis on self-interest, the alleged decline of the work ethic and the emergence of new value systems, together with the challenge of advanced technology, are among the many possible contributors to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Hard evidence for changes in attitude and behavior are difficult to muster, yet there is sufficient credence given to much of the psychosocial assertion that different needs require different satisfiers. With an unprecedented rate of technological change, it seems that the present career-oriented society needs newer and more adaptive organizational forms which would favor democratic settings and climate, and hence heighten the levels of career or job satisfaction. The reorientation of organizational tasks and responsibilities, with greater interaction, more collaborative relationships, less regimentation and conformity inevitably suggests the recognition of psychosocio-technical systems which could improve organizational adaptability and productivity, encourage effective behavior patterns and, it is hoped, synchronize individual and organizational needs.

In harmony with research findings, the *Toronto Globe and Mail* (1973) reported that today's young people not only seek more creative roles for themselves, but they also strive to influence the goals of the enterprise.⁸⁰ The *Food Service and Hospitality News* (1980) also highlighted this concern for power-sharing techniques. People, they observed, try to control part of their own destiny.⁸¹ In Europe, the workers' participation in decisions that shape their job is recognized as essential and desirable. This general demand for democratic recognition at the workplace may be seen as the expression of new values and expectations towards work and

⁸⁰ Editorial, *Toronto Globe and Mail* (The), Jan. 25, 1973, p. 2.

⁸¹ Editorial, *Food Service and Hospitality News*, May 12, 1980, p. 5.

institutions. Eventually, the gap between rhetoric and action may be wide, but the problem of gaining real input into decision-making, as opposed to giving the workers a mere feeling of participation, looms large. A former executive director of the National Institute of Labor, More (1973), wrote:

Throughout the Continent, pressure is building to involve the factory worker in the decisions that shape his job.⁸²

While substantial research has been done in the area of job satisfaction, and while it has been shown that certain demographic traits are reliable indicators of distinct patterns of response, agreement on how to measure satisfaction is far less apparent. Perhaps, given the nature of the subject, the uncertainties are not surprising. The multiplicity of potential causes, the changes in demographics, as well as the present state of the social sciences allow only for approximations.

Evans (1969), Locke (1969), Swat and Cumming (1970), all observed the relative slowness of substantive and realistic theories in the area of job satisfaction. Wanous and Lawler (1972) commented on the lack of theory about the very meaning of job satisfaction.⁸³ Oddly enough, if one asks the workers what they value or consider as contributing factors of job satisfaction, little if any disagreement exists. The Canadian Job Satisfaction Survey (1975) revealed that 90 per cent of the workers surveyed agreed in terms of what they considered important characteristics of job satisfaction.

⁸² Gerald More, "European Workers' Participation in Management." Monthly Labour Review, February, 1973, p. 1.

⁸³ J. P. Wanous, Edward Lawler, "Measurement and Meaning of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. LVI, No. 2, April, 1972, p. 102.

The report pointed out:

Canadians have definite ideas about how the work world both does and should operate...

Canadians place importance on various job characteristics as they relate to job satisfaction.⁸⁴

In their findings, Burnstein, et al. (1975) also noted:

The single most important consideration in the minds of Canadians proved to be interesting work. This item obtained an average importance score for the sample of 3.73 out of a maximum of four.⁸⁵

By interesting work, the study specified that the workers meant:

Being given an opportunity to develop social abilities, being given a chance to do the things one does best; and being given a lot of freedom in deciding how to do the work.⁸⁶

Strauss (1974) concluded that in sharp contrast to the 1940's and 1950's, a 1969 survey listed interesting work as the workers' priority.

He remarked:

These data may be but a statistical artifact, but if confirmed by other data a substantial shift of American workers' attitude has taken place.⁸⁷

84 M. Burnstein, et al., Canadian Work Values, Findings of a Work Ethic Survey and a Job Satisfaction Survey, (Ottawa: Information Canada, Strategic Planning and Research, 1975), p. 17.

85 Ibid. p. 29.

86 Op. cit. p. 29.

87 George Strauss, "Workers Dissatisfaction: A Look at the Causes," Monthly Labour Review, February, 1974, p. 12.

Similarly, Kushell (1974) noted that:

The United States Studies by the Research Centre of the University of Michigan in 1969, 1973, and 1974 found that workers from a variety of occupational levels all ranked interesting work and authority to get the job done far ahead of good pay and job security.⁸⁸

The noted desirable job characteristics as identified by workers have received a great deal of attention by researchers. So have intrinsic and extrinsic factors, or the relative weights thereof; demographic traits; the character of work itself; and of course the characteristics of individuals in terms of need perception. Specifically, the workers' autonomy and the responsibility for job-related decisions have been identified as important contributors of job satisfaction by many social scientists. Supporters of such viewpoints advocate the workers' participation, the modification of the hierarchial rigid chain of command, job enrichment and other humanizing strategies. They, as Burnstein, et al. noted, hold that:

Job satisfaction is unequivocally an individual psychological experience, with specific consequences for the worker's physical and mental health.⁸⁹

For the adherents of this point of view, the recent studies in Europe and America reaffirmed the belief that job dissatisfaction is closely linked to psychological withdrawal, alienation, absenteeism, violence and sabotage.⁹⁰

88 Robert E. Kushell, "How to Reduce Turnover by Creating a Positive Work Climate," Personnel Journal, Vol. LVIII, No. 8, August, 1979, p. 19.

89 M. Burnstein, et al., Canadian Work Values Findings of a Work Ethic Survey and a Job Satisfaction Survey. (Ottawa: Information Canada, Strategic Planning and Research, 1975, p. 14.

90 Ibid. pp. 13-14.

Furthermore, in the introduction of the Canadian Work Survey Research (1975), Burnstein, et al. stated:

It was felt that perceived deficiencies in jobs might lead to worker disenchantment and thus to increased absenteeism or job switching or to more actively expressed discontent such as strikes.⁹¹

Different studies on factors determining job satisfaction have argued that the experience of job satisfaction is not only individualistic. It is also dynamic, and therefore dependent on a wide gamut of ever changing personal, social, economic and organizational events, resources and needs. Thus, the highly speculative character of the influential factors, together with the dynamic dimensions of jobs, account not only for the complexity of statistical configuration, but also for the development of divergent postulates.

Herzberg, et al. (1957) were the first researchers to emphasize the dynamic aspects of jobs. Their two-factor theory advanced the concept of satisfiers and dissatisfiers.⁹²

Accordingly, these researchers held that intrinsic job features such as challenge and interest were related to satisfiers, while extrinsic factors such as salary and safety were determinants of dissatisfiers. In fact, different estimates have been made of the relative contributions to job satisfaction. A number of recent studies have suggested that intrinsic job features have a greater influence on both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. This belief is at the heart of professional administrative efforts to provide employees with challenging and enriching tasks.

91 Op. cit. p. 8.

92 Op. cit. p. 27.

The search for documentation on job related factors also revealed that the prevailing conceptions and measurements of the qualities of a job are limited by the fact that:

A given individual is not constant as a responder to working conditions, but is subject to highly individualistic differences and to short-cycle changes in his response to working conditions.⁹³

Similarly, it is commonly held that the objective characteristics of the work situation induce corresponding attitudes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and that the association between working conditions and satisfaction is not constant but is moderated by uniquely individualistic attributes, such as abilities, values and expectations, and by specific demographic characteristics. Consequently, the many variables which can and do influence any attempt to measure degrees of satisfaction are fascinating.

Attempts to come to grips with the contribution or weight of the factors inherent in the global expression of either satisfaction or disenchantment of work have yielded little consensus. Seashore (1973) illustrated this highly speculative aspect of variances in job satisfaction components. He attributed about 40 to 50 per cent to the objective attributes; 30 per cent to relatively stable demographic and personality attributes; 20 per cent to unstable demographic and personality attributes; and 10 per cent to

⁹³ Stanley E. Seashore, Job Satisfaction as an Indicator of Quality of Employment, A paper, (Ottawa: Canada Department of Labor, March, 1973), p. 29.

unexplainable errors in measurement.⁹⁴ Seashore also pointed out that high achievers may appear as chronically dissatisfied. In fact, they are undergoing a continuous process of reappraising and upgrading and they are obviously keeping 'a safe level of dissatisfaction as a motivator'. He added:

That I think...is what the poet refers to as divine discontent.⁹⁵

In the United States, over the past fifty years, substantial longitudinal surveys have yielded interesting results. In particular, a study on youth found that changes in job satisfaction contribute significantly to voluntary inter-firm movements. The American Survey of Working Conditions (1969) and (1972) agreed with a notion advanced by Lawler, when it concluded:

Various measures of job satisfaction were found to be effective predictors of future turnover.⁹⁶

Quite obviously there are dissenting voices over the assessment of job satisfaction. For some economists, less time should be devoted to the restructuring of tasks; instead attempts should be made to shore up declining work values. To these analysts, job satisfaction is fine as long as it does not interfere with production.

94 Ibid. pp. 29-30.

95 Stanley E. Seashore, "Job Satisfaction A Dynamic Predictor of Adaptive and Defensive Behavior," Studies in Personnel Psychology, Vol, V, No. 1, 1973, p. 16.

96 M. Burnstein, et al., Canadian Work Values, Findings of a Work Ethic Survey and a Job Satisfaction Survey, (Ottawa: Information Canada, Strategic Planning and Research, 1975, p. 27.

The explanation of job-related attitude, behavior and outcome, it seems, depends highly on the perspective of researchers. Agreement does, however, seem to exist on the observation that people with higher income and higher education tend to place greater importance on intrinsic factors. However, while the influence of demographic traits seems well-documented, the explanation of variances remains largely speculative. Glenn et al. (1977) noted that:

Many studies have shown that among males in the United States, job satisfaction has varied directly with age. A similar relationship among females has not been well established.⁹⁷

On examining their findings, Glenn et al. concluded that while the knowledge of how job satisfaction varies by age can be useful,

an understanding of why job satisfaction varies by age would seem even more useful for improving job satisfaction. However, the reasons for this association are not understood.⁹⁸

Similarly, studies pertaining to the effect of education on satisfaction seem inconclusive. Glenn et al. (1977) noted that:

According to theory, (buttressed by some suggestive empirical evidence - see Bruce, Bongeau and Williams (1968), the direct effect of education on job satisfaction should usually be negative.⁹⁹

97 Norval D. Glenn, et al., "Age and Job Satisfaction Among Males and Females," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. LXII, No. 2, 1977, p. 189.

98 Ibid. p. 189.

99 J. P. Wanous, Edward Lawler, "Measurement and Meaning of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. LVI, No. 2, April, 1972, p. 9.

Education, it is asserted, tends to release expectations and make people dissatisfied with the performance of routine tasks required by most jobs. Herzberg, et al. (1957) have found education to have a particularly strong influence on work values. In considering an ideal job, people with lower education consider the importance of economic aspects, while those with higher education stress the importance of the quality of work.¹⁰⁰

The mixed and uncertain results in attempting to come to grips with the measuring of demographic factors and their respective contributions reflect the general disagreement on how to measure satisfaction. Wanous and Lawler (1972) noted that:

Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction with various facets of the job have traditionally been measured by simply asking people to rate their job or facets of their job.¹⁰¹

Recently, a number of conceptual definitions of job satisfaction have been used and this has led to its being measured in numerous ways. As Wanous and Lawler (1972) remarked, it is not clear whether many of the newer composite methods of measurement are in fact measuring the same thing as simple job satisfaction. In addition, Wanous and Lawler added that:

As far as the measurement of satisfaction is concerned, the data suggest that there is no one best way to measure it. The best measure may depend upon what independent or dependent variables the satisfaction measured is to be related.¹⁰²

100 Frederick Herzberg, et al., Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion, Paper, (Pittsburg: Psychological Service of Pittsburg, 1957), p. 124.

101 J. P. Wanous, Edward E. Lawler, "Measurement and Meaning of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. LII, No. 2, p. 95.

102 Ibid. p. 95.

In a review of studies pertaining to what community college instructors want, Cohen and Friedlander (1980) noted that the responses to this question,

tend to be the same whether one is viewing reports of interviews at single colleges, state wide surveys, or surveys of large samples of instructors across the nation. The answers tend to be consistent over time.¹⁰³

The researchers also noted that 78 per cent of the instructors surveyed indicated they would want the same even five years hence, that is, to remain community college instructors. And aside from better working conditions and shorter hours, the faculty in general wanted more participation in institutional decision-making; they also showed a significant reluctance for administrative and committee work.

Since job satisfaction or disenchantment is evidently relative to the workers' perception of needs and goals, it would seem that the measures of the participants' satisfaction should be considered as relevant information when considering policy-making or decision-making variations. Of course as our understanding of job satisfaction grows, we may discover meaningful patterns in the influence of both personal growth and organizational behavior.

SUMMARY

From this review of research literature it would appear that:

- (1) Faculty members want to make more decisions regarding the tasks affecting their work, specifically curriculum matters and working conditions.

¹⁰³ A. M. Cohen, J. Friedlander, Community College Review, Winter, 1980, p. 70.

(2) Faculty members' job satisfaction level is determined in large measure by their perceived participation in the decision-making process.

(3) A major source of administrative-faculty conflict is the desire of faculty to become more involved in the formulation of policies.

(4) Faculty members who were rated most participative were also the ones who expressed the highest level of satisfaction.

(5) Faculty members' perception of actual and ideal decision makers differs significantly in some of the decision areas.

(6) The gender, the age and the educational standing of the faculty member have bearings on the degree of desired involvement and each does produce variations in the level of satisfaction.

(7) There are some specific areas in which faculty wants only limited involvement.

(8) Very little research, particularly in Canadian community colleges, has yet been done in most of the aforementioned matters.

CHAPTER III: FINDINGS

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION

The data gathered with respect to the characteristics of the respondents have been summarized in Table B. As the table shows, 69.5 percent of the teaching population surveyed were males and 28.6 percent were females. The distribution of gender within the three program areas examined followed traditional lines, with the Health division showing 85.2 percent females; the Industrial and Technology area 94.0 percent male and the Business and Applied Arts section 25.8 percent female. Half of the respondents (50.1 percent) stated that they had less than 10 years of teaching experience; 21.4 percent had more than 15 years of teaching experience.

Forty-six decimal four percent of the teaching population surveyed had a university degree. This varied in accordance with program area, that is, 70.4 percent of the respondents within the Health division possessed a degree, in contrast to 36.0 percent of the teaching population within the Industrial and Technology area.

Thirty-nine decimal three percent of the population disclosed they were under 39 years of age and 17.9 percent stated they were 50 or more years old. A detailed presentation of these demographic variables is found in Appendix B (Tables 1 - 6).

TABLE B

Description of Population in Terms of Gender,
Years of Teaching Experience, Educational Level
and Age for Total Population of College Teachers
by Program Area

	Total Population		Program Area					
	Teachers Only		Health		Business & Applied Arts		Industrial & Technology	
Gender	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.
Male	97	69.5	4	14.8	45	72.6	47	94.0
Female	40	28.6	23	85.2	16	25.8	1	2.0
No Answer	3	2.1	0	0	1	1.6	2	4.0
	n=140	100.0	n=27	100.0	n=62	100.0	n=50	100.0
Yrs. of Teach. Experience	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.
Less than 2 years	12	8.6	5	18.5	4	6.5	3	6.0
2 - 5 years	18	12.9	5	18.5	8	12.9	5	10.0
6 - 10 years	40	28.6	4	14.8	19	30.6	17	34.0
11 - 15 years	39	27.9	4	14.8	19	30.6	16	32.0
More than 15 years	30	21.4	8	29.6	12	19.4	9	18.0
No Answer	1	0.7	1	3.7	0	0	0	0
	n=140	100.0	n=27	100.0	n=62	100.0	n=50	100.0
Highest Ed. Level	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.
High School or Less	6	4.3	0	0	3	4.8	3	6.0
Tech. Voc. School	5	3.6	0	0	3	4.8	2	4.0
Some Post Sec. Educ.	12	8.6	1	3.7	3	4.8	8	16.0
Comm. Coll. Cert.-Dipl.	31	22.1	5	18.5	14	22.6	11	22.0
Univ. Deg. - B.A.	65	46.4	19	70.4	28	45.1	18	36.0
Univ. Deg. M.A.-Ph.D.	20	14.3	2	7.4	10	16.1	8	16.0
Univ. Deg. LLB.-M.D.	1	0.7	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
	n=140	100.0	n=27	100.0	n=62	100.0	n=50	100.0
Age	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.	A.F.	R.F.
Under 30	12	8.6	8	29.6	2	3.2	2	4.0
30 - 39	55	39.3	9	33.3	25	40.3	21	42.0
40 - 49	47	33.6	8	29.6	24	38.7	11	28.0
50 or more	25	17.9	2	7.4	10	16.1	13	26.0
No Answer	1	0.7	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
	n=140	100.0	n=27	100.0	n=62	100.0	n=50	100.0

A.F. = Absolute Frequency
R.F. = Relative Frequency

Results Concerning Hypothesis I

Hypothesis I stated that the amount of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make decisions varies as a function of the type of faculty member and the type of decision being made. To test this overall hypothesis, a two-factor (Division by Decision) mixed model analysis of variance (Anova) was performed on the congruency scores.

'Division' was the between-subjects factor while 'Type of Decision' was the within-subjects factor. Table C presents means and standard deviations of these congruency scores as a function of divisional membership and type of decision and the results of the Anova are presented in Table D. As seen in Table D, there were no significant differences in the levels of congruency between the three divisions or program areas. ($F = 1.45$, $df = 2,108$, $p < .2396$). In addition, there was no significant interaction between divisional membership and the type of decision being made. ($F = 0.79$, $df = 20,1080$, $p < .7301$). There were, however, significant differences in the levels of congruency for the types of decision. ($F = 5.81$, $df = 10,1080$, $p < .000$).

To locate the source(s) of this significance, multiple t-tests were computed on all possible pairs of the 11 decision type means. Each two-tailed t-test was assessed against a .005 critical value to control the probability of a Type I error at .275 for the set of 55 comparisons. Table E presents the results of this analysis.

An analysis of Table E reveals a significantly lower congruency level between teaching load and all the other types of decisions except budget

TABLE C

Means and Standard Deviations for Congruency Scores
as a Function of Divisional Membership
and Type of Decision

Program Area	Means Type of Decision										
	1 Teaching Method	2 Teaching Load	3 Course Outline	4 Frequency of Evaluation	5 Teacher Record	6 Entrance Qualification	7 Expected Outcome	8 Student Evaluation	9 Curriculum Change	10 Budget Allocation	11 Exam Content
1	0.681	0.409	0.727	0.772	0.727	0.863	0.772	0.772	0.681	0.636	0.681
2	0.686	0.470	0.686	0.627	0.647	0.607	0.705	0.843	0.661	0.509	0.843
3	0.710	0.315	0.631	0.552	0.578	0.552	0.631	0.684	0.631	0.526	0.763

Program Area	Standard Deviations Type of Decision										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	0.476	0.503	0.455	0.428	0.455	0.351	0.428	0.428	0.476	0.492	0.476
2	0.468	0.504	0.468	0.488	0.482	0.493	0.460	0.367	0.476	0.504	0.367
3	0.459	0.471	0.488	0.503	0.500	0.503	0.488	0.471	0.488	0.506	0.430

TABLE D

Two-way Analysis of Variance
(Division by Type of Decision)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Level of Significance
1) Division	1.88709	2	0.94354	1.45	0.2396
Error	70.38318	108	0.65170	-	-
2) Type of Decision	10.27399	10	1.02740	5.81*	0.0000*
3) Interaction of Division by Decision	2.78765	20	0.13938	0.79	0.7301
Error	190.96009	1080	0.17681	-	-

*p<.0000

NOTE: Only one hundred and eleven observations were included in the statistical treatment of the data for hypotheses I and II instead of the one hundred and forty observations. For the presentation data in the form of frequency counts, percentages or weighted averages, the 170 observations were used. Statistical tests require that there be no missing values for any of the questions analyzed, hence, the population was reduced so that only complete data be presented.

TABLE E

Summary of T-Tests on all Possible Pairwise Differences
Between Decision Type Means

Type of Decision (Mean)	Teaching Method	Teaching Load	Course Outline	Frequency of Evaluation	Teacher Record	Entrance Qualifications	Expected Outcome	Student Evaluation	Curriculum Change	Budget Allocation	Exam Content
Teaching Method (0.693)		4.657 *	0.325	1.031	0.935	0.864	0.000	-1.422	0.593	2.408	-1.637
Teaching Load (0.405)			4.226 *	-3.673 *	-3.756 *	-3.687 *	-4.653 *	-6.206 *	-4.126 *	-2.639	-6.381 *
Course Outline (0.675)				0.727	0.590	0.604	-0.305	-1.776	0.306	2.089	-1.937
Frequency of Evaluation (0.630)					-0.154	-0.147	-1.072	-2.511	-0.434	0.372	-2.679
Teacher Record (0.639)						0.000	-0.94	-2.389	-0.290	1.516	-2.489
Entrance Qualification (0.639)							0.910	-2.395	-0.312	1.543	-2.508
Expected Outcome (0.693)								-1.479	0.631	2.385	-1.745
Student Evaluation (0.774)									2.068	3.842 *	-0.1801
Curriculum Change (0.657)										1.817	-2.224
Budget Allocation (0.540)											-3.950 *
Exam Content (0.783)											

a. Critical value for two-tailed t-test: $t_{,005,00} = \pm 2.87$
 b. Asterisk (*) denotes statistical significance

allocation. Significant differences also exist between student evaluation and budget allocation, as well as between exam content and budget allocation. It seems reasonably clear that "teaching load" is an area of contention, in that there is a lack of congruency between who is and who should make these types of decisions. This has also been noted by researchers such as Cohen and Friedlander (1980), who noted that aside from wanting greater involvement in institutional decision-making, the community college instructors' major concern revolved around better working conditions and shorter hours. It was expected that entrance qualifications and expected outcomes would show a lack of congruency between who is and who should make these types of decisions. (The murmurs in the staff rooms are often that teachers should have more say on who is accepted for courses since industry wants only graduates with certain specific qualifications.) This was not the case. Hence one can conclude that substantial agreement exists between preferences and practices and that, in reality, these decision areas are not particularly controversial in the college.

Table F shows the responses given to question 6-16, as to who actually is seen as the decision-maker(s) and who ideally should be the decision-maker(s) in regard to curriculum matters within a community college. The results indicate rather clearly that the upper echelons of the hierarchy, that is, the principals and chairpersons, are seen as having little influence on the actual curriculum decisions. Similarly, they are not seen by the teaching population as being the ideal decision-makers in this regard. This however, varies in accordance with the type of decision and also by program area.

As seen from Table F, the department head, particularly in conjunction with the teachers, is seen as having a fair amount of influence on the decision-making process. This, of course, is not surprising since the department head is in almost daily contact with the teachers and frequently deals with curricular matters. The teachers, however, see themselves as making decisions in some very specific areas, notably in methods of teaching, the allocation of money for equipment or teaching aids and the evaluation of students.

In most other areas, the majority of teachers do not see themselves either as making the decisions or perhaps as being able to do so. Almost invariably teachers opt for greater joint decision-making in conjunction with the department head and they do not show a great desire for being sole decision-makers. There are some decision areas where teachers neither see themselves as the sole decision-makers nor want to be. These include decisions regarding teaching load, entrance qualification, curriculum change and exam content. They do, however, want to be involved and consulted.

As predicted, the advisory committees are seen as having some influence, and it is felt that ideally they should have more say within certain of the decision areas. For example, as can be seen on Table F, up to 25 percent of the teachers regard advisory committees as the ideal decision-makers in regard to course content and 28.8 percent of the teachers regard the advisory committees as the ideal decision-makers in regard to entrance qualification. In some decision areas up to 14 percent of the respondents perceived no one in particular as making decisions in these areas. Perhaps this indicates that teachers do not know who actually makes the decisions in these instances.

TABLE F

Summation of all Responses (Questions 6-16) as to Who Actually is Perceived as Making Decisions and Who Ideally Should Make Decisions

(A = Actual)
(I = Ideal)

PERSON	Teaching Method		Teaching Load		Course Content		Evaluation Frequency		Teacher Record		Entrance Qual.		Expected Outcome		Student Evaluation		Curriculum Change		Budget Allocation		Exam Content	
	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %
Principal	0.7	—	2.7	—	—	—	10.4	2.7	4.1	9.9	2.0	1.4	1.4	0.7	—	—	16.7	6.3	—	—	1.4	0.7
Chairperson	—	—	1.4	0.7	—	—	6.3	2.1	4.1	4.1	0.7	0.7	—	—	0.7	—	9.6	6.3	—	—	1.4	1.4
Department Head	0.7	0.7	50.0	17.9	2.0	0.7	6.9	4.9	6.2	4.0	7.6	9.9	2.1	—	2.0	0.7	6.9	10.5	2.1	—	2.1	0
Principal, Chairperson and Department Head	0.7	1.4	18.9	11.7	6.2	4.1	9.0	11.9	10.3	19.1	19.4	17.2	9.9	4.2	2.0	0.7	29.7	21.0	—	—	15.2	6.8
Department Head & Teachers	24.0	37.0	17.1	60.0	32.4	34.5	20.0	36.4	24.0	34.2	11.1	20.0	32.9	38.9	40.0	94.1	9.7	32.9	26.2	37.2	33.1	38.4
Instructors	61.6	45.2	2.1	2.0	26.2	10.3	30.6	30.1	30.1	24.7	0.7	2.0	38.6	20.8	44.0	91.0	2.1	2.0	69.2	49.7	0.9	9.9
Advisory Committee	2.1	4.1	—	1.4	17.2	29.9	1.4	2.0	—	0.7	22.2	20.0	9.0	17.4	1.4	2.1	1.4	2.1	—	3.4	20.0	24.7
No-one really	9.9	4.1	2.1	0.7	1.4	2.1	6.3	2.1	19.7	1.4	10.4	1.4	0.7	1.4	—	—	6.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	3.4	1.4
Other	4.0	7.9	0.2	4.0	19.0	22.0	0.3	7.0	7.9	9.6	29.0	22.0	0.9	16.7	7.6	0.9	28.4	17.9	9.9	9.0	19.2	21.2

Results Concerning Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II proposed that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the degree of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make task-related and curriculum decisions.

To test this hypothesis a Spearman correlation-coefficient was calculated between the congruency and job satisfaction indices. The resulting correlation was then subjected to a test of statistical significance. Results indicated a significant positive relationship between congruency and satisfaction levels. ($r = 0.2177$, d.f. = 109, $p < .011$). Review of the existing literature and research findings led to the hypothesis that the level of congruency between preferred and the actual mode of decision-making would correlate rather closely with the teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction. The findings of this study seem to suggest that this is the case; when the degree of congruency is low so is the level of job satisfaction; when the degree of congruency is high so is the level of job satisfaction.

Results Concerning Hypothesis III

Hypothesis III predicted that the level of job satisfaction is related to the demographic characteristics of the faculty members including:

- (a) years of teaching experience,
- (b) educational qualification,
- (c) age,
- (d) program area, and
- (e) gender.

To test the hypothesis that the level of job satisfaction is a function of years of teaching experience, a oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed (level of satisfaction being the dependent variable). Table G presents means and standard deviations of these satisfaction scores as grouped by years of teaching experience. The results of the Anova are presented in Table H.

TABLE G (Means)

Teaching Experience				
Less than 2 yrs.	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	more than 15 yrs.
3.77	4.38	3.70	3.51	3.50

Standard Deviations

Teaching Experience				
Less than 2 yrs.	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	more than 15 yrs.
1.00	0.65	1.05	1.02	1.27

TABLE H

Oneway Analysis of Variance (Anova)
Level of Satisfaction by Teaching Experience

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Level of Significance
Between Groups	8.1635	4	2.0409	1.776	0.1391
Within Groups	121.8003	106	1.1491		
Total	129.5639	110			

As seen in Table G there were no significant differences in the level of satisfaction as a function of years of teaching experience.

($F = 1.776$, $df = 4,106$, $p < .1391$).

To test the hypothesis that the level of satisfaction is a function of educational qualification, a oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Table I presents the means and standard deviations of these satisfaction scores as they relate to educational qualifications. Table J presents the results of the Anova.

TABLE I (Means)

Educational Qualifications						
High School or Less	Tech. or Voc. School	Some Post Sec. Ed.	Comm. Col Cert.	University Degree BA	M.A. Ph.D.	Prof.
3.50	4.00	3.88	3.58	3.61	3.92	4.00
Standard Deviations						
Educational Qualifications						
1.22	0.70	0.60	1.24	1.10	1.14	N/A

TABLE J

Oneway Analysis of Variance (Anova)
Level of Satisfaction by Teaching Experience

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Level of Significance
Between Groups	2.5057	6	0.4176	0.341	0.9138
Within Groups	127.4581	104	1.2256		
Total	129.9638	110			

As seen in Table J there were no significant differences in the levels of satisfaction as a function of educational qualifications. ($F = 0.341$, $df = 6,104$, $p < .9138$).

To test the hypothesis that the level of satisfaction is a function of age, a oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Table K presents the means and standard deviations of these satisfaction scores as they relate to age. The results of the Anova are presented in Table L.

TABLE K (Means)

AGE			
under 30 yrs.	30-39 yrs.	40-49 yrs.	50 or more yrs.
3.63	3.69	3.57	3.90

Standard Deviations

Age			
1.02	1.04	1.153	1.11

TABLE L
 Oneway Analysis of Variance (Anova)
 Level of Satisfaction by Age

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Level of Significance
Between Groups	1.3793	3	0.4598	p.383	0.7656
Within Groups	128.5843	107	1.2017		
Total	129.9636	110			

As seen in Table K there were no significant differences in the levels of satisfaction as a function of age. ($F = 0.383$, $df = 3,107$, $p < .7656$).

To test the hypothesis that the level of satisfaction is a function of program area, a oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Table M presents the means and standard deviations of these satisfaction scores as they relate to program area. The results of the Anova are presented in Table N.

TABLE M (Means)

Program Area		
1	2	3
3.63	3.86	3.47
Standard Deviations		
Program Area		
1.17	1.09	1.00

TABLE N
Oneway Analysis of Variance (Anova)
Level of Satisfaction by Program Area

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Level of Significance
Between Groups	3.3602	2	1.6801	1.433	0.2430
Within Groups	126.6033	108	1.1723		
Total	129.9635	110			

As seen in Table N there were no significant differences in the levels of satisfaction as a function of program area. ($F = 1.433$, $df = 2, 108$, $p < .2430$).

Finally, to test the hypothesis that the level of satisfaction is a function of gender a t-test was computed on the mean satisfaction level for males and females. Results indicated that satisfaction levels significantly differed as a function of sex. ($t = 2.725$, $df = 76.1$, $p < .008$).

Table O shows the differences in satisfaction level in percentages of response to the 5 point satisfaction scale. As can be seen in Table O, none of the females answered "very dissatisfied". About twice as many females as males answered "very satisfied" and a total of 18 percent of the female respondents indicated that they were not satisfied, as compared to 39.1 percent of the male respondents. Overall, 82 percent of the female respondents indicated that they were satisfied, as compared to 60.8 percent of the male respondents.

TABLE O

A Comparison of Satisfaction Scores by Gender

Satisfaction Level	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
Very dissatisfied	0	0	9	9.3
Dissatisfied	3	7.7	8	8.2
Neither/nor	4	10.3	21	21.6
Satisfied	21	53.8	45	46.4
Very Satisfied	11	28.2	14	14.4
	39	100.0	97	100.0
Weighted Mean		4.03		3.48

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study was designed to:

1. Look at the actual and ideal decision-making patterns as they relate to curriculum matters within a college setting and to examine the patterns exhibited within the various decision areas;
2. Examine the relationship between job satisfaction, perceived involvement, and agreement with the existing modes of decision-making; and
3. Consider the relationship of a faculty member's teaching area, years of teaching experience, educational level, age and gender to his/her level of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis I stated that the amount of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make decisions varies as a function of the type of faculty member (i.e., teaching area) and the type of decision

being made. The findings suggest that there were no significant differences in the levels of congruency between the three program or teaching areas examined. Significant differences, however, were found in the levels of congruency with respect to type of decision. That is, when contrasting the congruency means between all pairs of decision types, the following pairs were found to have significant differences:

- teaching load versus teaching method
- teaching load versus course outline
- teaching load versus frequency of evaluation
- teaching load versus teaching record
- teaching load versus entrance qualifications
- teaching load versus expected outcome
- teaching load versus student evaluation
- teaching load versus exam content
- budget allocation versus student evaluation
- budget allocation versus exam content

As can be seen on Table E, the congruency means in other decision-type areas do not significantly differ. Thus, teaching load is seen as the most controversial type of decision given that its level of congruency is significantly lower than that of other decision types. A lesser area of contention also arises within the budget allocation which has a significantly lower level of congruency than the other types of decisions.

Hypothesis II stated that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the degree of perceived congruency between who should and who actually does make curriculum decisions. The results obtained

support this hypothesis. In other words, congruency scores were positively related to the level of satisfaction expressed; that is, teachers who indicated a high level of job satisfaction also showed a high level of agreement with the modes of decision-making.

Hypothesis III stated that the level of job satisfaction would be related to the demographic characteristics of the faculty member. The results obtained indicate that gender seems to account for significant differences in levels of satisfaction. The other characteristics examined did not produce significant variations in this regard. That is, length of teaching experience, program area and educational standing produced no significant variation in terms of levels of satisfaction or congruency in decision-making. One might note, however, that all those factors did produce variations in terms of percentage scores, weighted means, and congruency levels and hence may warrant further investigation. These variations are depicted on Tables 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21, Appendix E.

When actual as opposed ideal decision-making is compared, a general desire or movement toward joint decision-making is evident; in particular, teachers do not seem to want to be sole decision makers but would like to be involved, mainly in conjunction with the department head. Principals and chairpersons were not seen by the college teachers as actually making many decisions in regard to curriculum matters or as being the ideal decision makers in this regard either.

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

DISCUSSION

In general, the findings of this study seem to be consonant with previous research conclusions. For example, Owens (1970) noted that teachers do not necessarily want to be involved in all decisions, yet they do seem to desire a greater say in policies affecting their immediate work environment. Specifically, in regard to "teaching load" and "budget allocation," the responses indicate that the college teachers surveyed want significantly more say or involvement in decisions. On the other hand, there are a few other decision areas where teachers want comparatively little involvement. For instance, deciding upon the entrance qualifications for courses and upon major structural changes in course offerings of a program area are two items where the results of this study concurred with previous research which noted that there are decision-making areas which teachers see as a responsibility of the administration.

Garrison (1967) pointed out that faculty members want to play an active part in the formulation of policies which affect them as professionals. Similarly, Day (1971) found that faculty members preferred an increase in their control of most areas of college governance, and that they preferred greater control in some areas not directly related to the instructional process. In this regard, perhaps, budget allocation constitutes an appropriate

example. Barely half of the faculty members surveyed agreed with the existing mode of deciding budget allocation.

Intuitively it was expected that items relating to decisions affecting the immediate work environment (that is, teaching load and the allocation of money for the purchase of equipment or teaching aids) would show a significant deviation from the expected pattern of agreement with the existing mode of decision-making; that is, that they would show a lack of agreement between who is and who should make these types of decisions. This indeed was the case. Also, it was expected that items over which college teachers traditionally had a fair amount of control - for example, frequency of evaluation or the methods used for evaluating students - would show a fair amount of agreement with the current mode of deciding such matters. The results obtained confirmed these expectations.

Some decision areas, for instance the question of who should decide the content of the course outline and teaching methods, were intuitively expected to show a lack of agreement between who actually makes these types of decisions and who should decide such matters. Yet none was found. If one examines Table F, it seems clear that teachers in particular do not really want to be the sole decision makers in regard to course content. Course outlines or deciding what is to be taught have always evoked and provoked a considerable amount of debate within community colleges. Prospective employers like to know what is taught to the people they may employ; hence their demand for course outlines. On the other hand, many teachers seem to hold that course outlines only serve as a guide, since faithful adherence is not always possible nor desirable.

One is reminded of the findings by Taylor (1970), which noted that there seems to be no consistency in the role which the syllabus plays, and that some doubt must be entertained as to whether teachers consider that the syllabus serves any worthwhile purpose.

Prior research also indicated that female teachers usually report higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. For example, Mason et al. (1959) surveyed 7,200 beginning teachers and found that female teachers were significantly more satisfied than male teachers. A study by Grover (1977) reported similar findings. The results of this study are in agreement with these earlier findings.

In an attempt to account for the differences between males and females in the perceived levels of job satisfaction, researchers have suggested a number of reasons - females are less conflict-oriented (Mason et al., 1959); females generally want to make fewer decisions (Grover, 1977); and, according to Seashore (1973) and Burnstein et al. (1975), females hold different work values. Any explanation offered has to contend with the fact that demographic factors are subject to change. Glenn et al. (1977), when referring to the role of demographic factors in job satisfaction, noted that while their influence is well-documented, the explanation as to the specific variances which they produce in job satisfaction seems largely speculative.

There is little doubt that demographic factors do usually produce variations in the reported levels of job satisfaction. Yet, at the same time, demographic factors account for only a part of the satisfaction levels revealed. Seashore (1973) surmised that such factors account for about 30 percent of the variations and deviations encountered.

The conclusion seems rather obvious. While demographic factors have been considered as causing some rather interesting variations in the levels of job satisfaction, the results are mixed. Table 17, Appendix E, whose results follow the patterns of previous research, depicts these variations. The findings on the levels of job satisfaction vis-à-vis demographic factors give credence to this study and the findings of Taylor (1967), who stated that the single most important factor in predicting faculty job satisfaction is the faculty's perception of the administrative policies and practices. In other words the conditions of work are the major determinants of the job satisfaction levels.

The findings of this study seem to suggest that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and perceived agreement with the mode of decision-making. These findings seem to be congruent with the literature reviewed. Contemporary researchers contend that participatory practices are essential for the health of an organization, its capacity for innovation and its general performance.

When examining the job satisfaction scores in the three program areas, several trends seem to be evident. The program area which showed the lowest scores in satisfaction also showed the lowest congruency scores and the lowest rate of program innovation or curriculum change. Redefer (1964), in conducting a nation-wide study, concluded that the quality of educational programs is a reflection of the morale level. Owens (1970) noted that research on participation of teachers in decision-making suggests that the nature of the participation affects the satisfaction gained from working as a professional. Similarly, Day (1971), in a study on Canadian community colleges, remarked that a faculty member's satisfaction

is determined in large measure by his perceived participation in the decision-making process. The results obtained by this study are in agreement with these earlier studies.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings and conclusions of this study are probably important to those interested in the operation and governance of community colleges. The evident differences in preference and practice offers some clues for effective communication and arrangement of organizational structure. Similarly, it is possible that the effective implementation of curriculum change may be facilitated by having some faculty member input along with the community members at large.

The results also suggest that perhaps more resources, in terms of staff training and opportunities for more rewards and challenges, should be directed towards faculty members with ten or more years of teaching experience.

Additional research is needed on why differences exist in satisfaction levels between faculty members of the different divisions. The effect of various administrative styles on satisfaction was not studied here, but it probably should be.

The use of satisfaction levels vis-à-vis levels of agreement with decision-making patterns may provide future investigators with an effective tool for analyzing the human resources and working conditions of an educational environment. The findings could provide the impetus for inter-institutional comparisons and hence could suggest the means for testing and judging the effects of various administrative approaches.

The researcher fully recognizes that this study represents an elementary effort to learn more about the complex social and psychological factors involved in trying to interpret patterns of decision-making and job satisfaction. This is a necessary step, however, in any understanding of dynamic and complex phenomena. After all, the importance of studies in educational organization, organizational climate, teacher satisfaction, role expectation, decision-making, curriculum development and leadership has been well documented by empirical studies so far. In particular, Dreeben (1972) remarked:

The study of work places can contribute to our knowledge about what is possible and how things work.¹⁰⁴

Given the mounting complexity of educational organizations and related confusion over current needs and role expectations, educators seem preoccupied with questions regarding autonomy and participation in the making of certain decisions related to learning situations and working conditions. It should be noted that, aside from their considerable effect on instructional modes and activities, different educational climates and their forms of administrative control do create both opportunities and constraints which affect pedagogical roles and productivity in terms of learning efficiency and rate of professional growth and innovativeness.

That the present educational system is bureaucratically structured can hardly be argued. An extensive survey of literature on educational leadership and organization reveals the direct and significant impact of

104 Robert W. Traverse, Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1973), p. 451.

a bureaucratic arrangement on teachers. Predictably, in the community college surveyed, the degree to which teacher participation or involvement is accepted and desired varies according to each type of instructional area. It may be worth noting that while direct administrative control is still exercised over many of the aspects of college operation which affect rewards in teaching, the degree of work satisfaction is not necessarily contingent upon the organizational climate. Many of the potential teaching rewards are natural outcomes of a relationship created between teacher and students.

One may speculate that were the teachers more systematically involved and responsible in yearly and wide range planning of programs catering to the needs of the community, many of the perceived drawbacks of organizational red tape could be minimized. Furthermore, were the goals and programs regularly reviewed and supported cooperatively by professional and administrative forces, many of the entrepreneurial risk-taking behaviors could be harnessed for program development. It would seem that specific mechanisms for constant participation of teachers in decision-making should be established if the college is to succeed in keeping competent professionals working hard at their tasks. The overhopeful solution - 'more education for teachers or the introduction of new methods' - will continue to obscure administrative alternatives and will very likely prove inadequate, unless concrete and overall organizational changes are made to encourage and ensure professional creative input.

According to the community college teachers surveyed, decision-making for curriculum planning implies group action and consultation. This, of course, suggests communication and openness. Obviously, communication cannot be open without exposing all participants and their ideas to examination. All of which may well be easier said than done - administrators, often hard pressed to provide clear reasons for existing policies, often favour maintenance oriented behavior rather than risk ongoing and challenging democratic procedures while teachers may find it difficult to sustain ongoing participation in all or most matters of college governance. Yet, current research has found that attempts at change without fundamental alterations in both structural and human relationships are unlikely to produce effective educational change. Few examples could be cited where educational change happened without such changed relationship. As Parenti (1978) reminds us:

Decisions themselves take place in a social and systemic context that prefigures what will and will not be considered a policy choice or social alternative.¹⁰⁵

Thus, certain decision alternatives will not be on the agenda as acceptable solutions. As noted, current solutions usually range from more education of teachers to new methods. Neither approach requires changes in the source of institutional control. In the long run, however, the demands for participation in the determination of curriculum matters and working conditions may lead to new forms of participation and a redistribution of control and authority, and thus provide new means of articulating the interests of the demos:

¹⁰⁵ Michael Parenti, Power and the Powerless (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1978), p. 12.

Much of any conflict might be described as a struggle among competing perceptions for the privilege of defining the acceptable beliefs about reality.¹⁰⁶

106 Ibid. p. 197

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE WITH
ACCOMPANYING LETTER



RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE

2055 Notre Dame Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3H 0J9
Telephone 204/632-2311

January 29, 1980

Dear Colleague:

The attached questionnaire is part of a survey which seeks your opinion and assistance. The study constitutes a part of a course requirement in Educational Foundations. The purpose of this investigation is to obtain a broad description of curriculum decision-making in a college setting. Of particular interest is the degree of agreement between teachers' views on curriculum decision-making AS IT EXISTS and AS (IDEALLY) You Would Like IT TO BE.

I would appreciate your help in completing the attached questionnaire. I know that your time is limited but your honest responses are essential to the success of my project.

Once you have completed the questionnaire leave it with your Department Head. Please complete before Feb. 14th

Thanks for your time and attention. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Otto Kirzinger

Note: You are requested not to put your name anywhere on the questionnaire.

PART I - BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What is your sex? (Place answer in box) ----- 1
1. Male 2. Female
2. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
(Place answer in box)----- 2
1. Less than 2 years
2. 2 to 5 years
3. 6 - 10 years
4. 11 - 15 years
5. more than 15 years
3. a) What is the highest level of education you have attained?
(Place answer in box)----- 3
1. High school completion or less
2. Technical School or Vocational School
3. Some Post-Secondary Education
4. Community College Certificate/Diploma
5. University Degree (Bachelors)
6. University Masters/Doctorate
7. University Professional Degree Law, M.D.
- b) What other forms of education and training have you obtained?
(Place answer in box)----- 4
1. No other training
2. Apprenticeship Certification
3. Professional Accountant (C.A., R.I.A., C.G.A.)
4. Private Business/Trade School Training
5. Other Training
Specify _____
4. What is your age? (Place answer in box)----- 5
1. Under 30
2. 30 - 39
3. 40 - 49
4. 50 or more
5. In what program area do you teach? (Place answer in box)----- 6
1. Health Care and Personal Services
2. Business and Applied Arts
3. Industrial and Technology

PART II - CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING

Choose response from the list of codes with each question. If you feel that it is some 'other' grouping, mark other in the box and specify this grouping in the space provided.

6. a) Who actually decides the methods or strategies for teaching a subject? (Place answer in box)----- 7

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other
Specify _____

Office use only
 8-9

b) Ideally, who should decide the methods or strategies for teaching a subject? (Place answer in box)----- 10

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other
Specify _____

Office use only
 11-12

7. a) Who actually decides the time-table (teaching load) of a teacher? (Place answer in box)----- 13

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other
Specify _____

Office use only
 14-15

7. b) Ideally, who should decide the time-table (teaching load) of a teacher? (Place answer in box)----- 16

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal; Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

17-18

8. a) Who actually decides the content of the course outline (syllabus) for a subject? (Place answer in box)----- 19

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

20-21

b) Ideally, who should decide the content of the course outline (syllabus) for a subject? (Place answer in box)----- 22

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

23-24

9. a) Who actually decides the frequency of evaluation? 25
(Place answer in box)-----

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 26-27

b) Ideally, who should decide the frequency of evaluation? 28
(Place answer in box)-----

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 29-30

10. a) Who actually decides which records are to be kept by teachers? 31
(Place answer in box)-----

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 32-33

10. b) Ideally, who should decide which records are to be kept by teachers? (Place answer in box)----- 34

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

35-36

11. a) Who actually decides the entrance qualifications and desirable characteristics of potential students for a particular course? (Place answer in box)----- 37

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

38-39

b) Ideally, who should decide the entrance qualifications and desirable characteristics of potential students for a particular course? (Place answer in box)----- 40

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

41-42

12. a) Who actually decides the objectives or outcomes expected in terms of student knowledge or expected behaviours? (Place answer in box)----- 43

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

44-45

b) Ideally, who should decide the objectives or outcomes expected in terms of student knowledge or expected behaviours? (Place answer in box)----- 46

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

47-48

13. a) Who actually decides the method for student evaluation? (Place answer in box)----- 49

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

50-51

13. b) Ideally, who should decide the method for student evaluation?
(Place answer in box)----- 52

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 53-54

14. a) Who actually decides a change in curriculum or course structure?
(Place answer in box)----- 55

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 56-57

b) Ideally, who should decide a change in curriculum or course structure? (Place answer in box)----- 58

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only
 59-60

15. a) Who actually allocates money for buying teaching aids or equipment? (Place answer in box)----- 61

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____ Office use only 62-63

b) Ideally, who should allocate money for buying teaching aids or equipment? (Place answer in box)----- 64

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____ Office use only 65-66

16. a) Who actually decides the content of exams? (Place answer in box)----- 67

- 1. The Principal
- 2. The Chairperson
- 3. Department head
- 4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
- 5. Department head and Teachers
- 6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
- 7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
- 8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
- 9. Other

Specify _____ Office use only 68-69

16. b) Ideally, who should decide the content of exams?
(Place answer in box)----- 70

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

71-72

17. All in all, how do you feel about your present job? (Place answer in box)----- 73

1. Very dissatisfied
2. dissatisfied
3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
4. Satisfied
5. Very satisfied

18. a) When did the last major change occur in your course or subject area curriculum? (Place answer in box)----- 74

1. Within the last year
2. 2 years ago
3. 3 - 5 years ago
4. 6 - 10 years ago
5. over 10 years

b) At that time, who was the initiator? (Place answer in box)--- 75

1. The Principal
2. The Chairperson
3. Department head
4. Principal, Chairperson, Department head
5. Department head and Teachers
6. Individual Teacher or Instructor
7. Advisory Committee, Trade or Professional Association
8. Nobody really, it grows out of a combination of circumstances and people
9. Other

Specify _____

Office use only

76-77

18. c) In what area was the change made? (Place answer in box)----- 78

1. Course content
2. Teaching Strategy
3. Length of course
4. Other

Specify _____

79

APPENDIX B

TABLES AND DESCRIPTION
FOR POPULATION SURVEYED

TABLES AND DESCRIPTION FOR

TOTAL POPULATION
(TABLES 1 - 6)

Tables one to six depict the general characteristics of the total population surveyed.

- Table 1 - Frequency distribution by respondents' sex depicting the identification by gender.
- Table 1-1 - Frequency distribution by sex and program area depicting the existing proportions of male and female for each of the area surveyed.
- Table 2 - Frequency distribution by years of teaching experience.
- Table 2-2 - Frequency distribution by sex and years of teaching experience representing the proportions of male and female according to years of experience in the field.
- Table 3 - Frequency distribution by level of education depicting the distribution according to the highest level of education attained by the respondents.
- Table 3-3 - Frequency distribution by highest level of education attained and by sex depicts the educational levels of the College surveyed.
- Table 4 - Frequency distribution according to other forms of educational training depicts the professional diversity of the population.
- Table 4-4 - Frequency distribution according to other forms of educational training and sex.
- Table 5 - Frequency distribution based on the respondents' age.
- Table 5-5 - Frequency distribution according to age and sex of respondents.
- Table 6 - Frequency distribution of population surveyed according to program areas.

TABLE 1

Frequency distribution for total population surveyed based on the respondents' sex (F = frequency)

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
Male	102	62.9	71.3
Female	41	28.1	28.7
No Answer	8	2.1	—
Total	146	100.0	100.0

TABLE 1 - 1

Frequency distribution by program area and by sex (N = 137)

PROGRAM AREA	SEX	
	MALE (N = 97)	FEMALE (N = 40)
HEALTH SCIENCE	4.1%	57.5%
BUSINESS AND APPLIED ARTS	46.4%	40.0%
INDUSTRY AND TECHNOLOGY	49.5%	2.5%

The breakdown by sex disclosed a rather distinct image of the traditional division of labour. Notice the concentration of females in the Health area, a nearly equal sharing in Business and Applied Arts but a rather slim presence in Industry and Technology.

TABLE 2

Frequency distribution based on the number of years in teaching

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
Less than 2 years	12	8.2	8.3
2 to 5 years	18	12.3	12.8
6 to 10 years	41	28.1	28.3
11 to 15 years	42	28.8	29.0
More to 15 years	32	21.9	22.1
No Answer	1	0.7	—
Total	146	100.0	100.0

TABLE 2 - 2

Frequency distribution by years of teaching experience and by sex

EXPERIENCE	SEX (N = 136)	
	MALE (N = 97)	FEMALE (N = 39)
Less than 2 years	4.1%	20.5%
2 to 5 years	10.3%	17.9%
6 to 10 years	32.0%	17.9%
11 to 15 years	34.0%	15.4%
more than 15 years	19.6%	28.2%

The breakdown by sex and years of teaching experience revealed a recent tendency to hire more females. This increase in female teaching jobs at the college may be seen as a movement toward more equal job opportunity.

TABLE 3

Frequency distribution based on highest level of education attained

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
High School or less	6	4.1	4.1
Technical or Vocational Training	5	3.4	3.4
Some Post Sec. Ed.	12	8.2	8.2
Comm. College Cert. or Diploma	31	21.2	21.2
Univ. Degree	69	47.3	47.3
Univ. Degree M.A./Ph.D.	22	15.1	15.1
Univ. Prof. Degree LLB-MD	1	0.7	0.7
Total	146	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3 - 3

Frequency distribution by highest level of education and by sex

EDUCATION LEVEL	SEX (N = 137)	
	MALE (N = 97)	FEMALE (N = 40)
High school or Technical/Vocational School	11.4%	0.0%
Some Post-Secondary Education	10.3%	0.0%
Community College	21.6%	25.0%
University Degree	39.2%	65.0%
University Masters/PHD or Professional	17.5%	10.0%

This distribution by educational level and sex indicated that a greater percentage of females held a university degree. It also revealed that the majority of the College teaching staff had received University education - specifically 56.7% of the males and 75% of the females hold a degree.

TABLE 4

Frequency distribution based on other forms of educational training

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
No Other Training	22	15.1	15.6
Apprent. Certificate	25	17.1	17.7
Professional Accounting	10	6.8	7.1
Business/Trade School	33	22.6	23.4
Other	51	34.9	36.2
No Answer	5	3.4	—
Total	146	100.0	100.0

TABLE 4 - 4

Frequency distribution according to sex and other types of education

TYPE	SEX (N = 132)	
	MALE (N = 94)	FEMALE (N = 38)
No Training	11.7%	28.9%
Apprenticeship	24.5%	0.0%
Professional Accounting	8.5%	2.6%
Business/Trade School	25.5%	21.1%
Other	29.8%	47.4%

The distribution by other types of education revealed that most of the respondents have had some specific and/or professional training.

TABLE 5

Frequency distribution based on the respondent's age

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
under 30	12	8.2	8.3
30 to 39	57	39.0	39.3
40 to 49	50	34.2	34.5
50 or more	26	17.8	17.9
No Answer	1	0.7	—
Total	146	100.0	100.0

TABLE 5 - 5

Frequency distribution as to respondents' age and sex

AGE	SEX (N = 137)	
	MALE (N = 97)	FEMALE (N = 40)
under 30	2.1%	25.0%
30 to 39	44.3%	30.0%
40 to 49	34.0%	32.5%
50 or more	19.6%	12.5%

This distribution by age indicated that the concentration of respondents was located in the 30 to 39 range with 44.3% male - 30.0% female; then came the 40 - 49 range with 34.0% male and 32.5% female.

TABLE 6

Frequency distribution of population surveyed according to program areas

	Absolute F	Relative F	Adjusted F
Health Sciences	28	19.2	19.3
Business & Applied Arts	63	43.2	43.3
Industrial & Technology	53	36.3	36.6
No Answer	1	0.7	0.7
Other	1	0.7	—

APPENDIX C
GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF FINDINGS ON
TOTAL POPULATION SURVEYED

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF FINDINGS ON
TOTAL POPULATION SURVEYED

In this study, 71.3% of the population surveyed were males and 28.7% were females. Almost one-half of the respondents (49%) stated that they had less than ten years of teaching experience and 62% revealed that they had a university degree or a higher education level. Also, close to one-half of the respondents (47.6%) disclosed they were under 39 years of age and 8.3% stated they were less than 30 years old.

Within their respective educational area, almost three quarters of the population surveyed (71.9%) stated that the major curriculum changes had occurred within the last two years. The level of satisfaction, viewed on a scale of one-to-five with four representing the satisfied, was at 3.67. The average agreement on decision-making pertinent to the questions surveyed was found to be 63.85%, and the congruency of the eleven specific items examined appeared to range from a low of 44.1% to a high of 74.5%.

Items which focussed on the conditions of work seemed to show the greatest amount of discrepancy. On examining the results obtained from the three distinct divisions of program areas at the College, the differences appeared in terms of congruency for existing and desired decision-making patterns; levels of satisfaction; rate of innovativeness; educational levels; age; length of teaching experience as well as desired input from advisory committees. Similarly, the levels of satisfaction varied by program areas. This may be seen as a reflection of specific conditions and styles in supervision, as well as in the intrinsic work features for the particular areas surveyed.

It must be remembered that in terms of salary, fringe benefits and general conditions of employment no overt differences exist. Thus, style of supervision and peculiar divisional working situations may account for the differences found both in terms of congruency in decision-making as well as in the expression of satisfaction.

These findings seem to follow the results and assertions of Sergiovanni (1967) who confirmed Herzberg's theory. In other words,

The dissatisfaction factors identified for teachers tend to focus on conditions and circumstances which teachers expect to be maintained at acceptable levels.¹⁰⁷

Finally, in this analysis the conditions which tend to be largely under the control of the supervisors or the institutional policies seem to account for the items where discrepancy was greatest.

107 T. J. Sergiovanni, "Factors which affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers, "The Journal of Education Administration," Vol. V, 1967, p. 79.

SUMMATION OF RESPONSES

(Questions six to sixteen - Tables 7-8 and 9)

In this study, the numbers six to sixteen of the questionnaire required each respondent to identify the actual and the ideal decision-maker(s) according to a list of given choices or in accordance to one's personal perception if deemed that the given list did not provide for appropriate identification of the decision-maker(s).

The actual headings for the questions pertinent to task related or curriculum decisions read as follows: Who actually or ideally decides -

- Number 6 - the methods or strategies for teaching a subject;
- Number 7 - the timetable or teaching load of a teacher;
- Number 8 - the content of the course or the syllabus for a subject;
- Number 9 - the frequency of evaluation;
- Number 10 - the records which are to be kept by teachers;
- Number 11 - the entrance qualifications and other desirable characteristics of potential students for a particular course;
- Number 12 - the objectives or outcomes expected in terms of student knowledge or expected behavior;
- Number 13 - the method for student evaluation;
- Number 14 - the changes in curriculum or course structure;
- Number 15 - the allocation of money for purchasing teaching aid or equipment;
- Number 16 - the content of exams.

Tables seven, eight and nine depict the responses given by all respondents to the questionnaire's numbers six to sixteen inclusively.

Principals and/or administrators are clearly seen as either having limited or no influence at all on most curriculum matters; nor are they seen as having to exercise authority on such matters. The intermediate layer within the hierarchy, that is, the chairpersons are neither perceived as having nor as ideally having to have any influence on curriculum issues. Department heads are reported as actually having some influence on the assignment of teaching loads, entrance qualifications and teachers' records. The function of the department head is indicated as crucial to joint decision-making.

In general, there is a clear preference for joint decision-making by department head and teachers. There is also a clear desire on part of the teachers not to be the sole decision-makers in curriculum matters. The prediction that teachers do not want to be involved in certain matters is substantiated by the results. In particular, responses to questions seven, eleven, fourteen and fifteen do illustrate this tendency. However, of the responses indicating a non-participative role in actual decision-taking as well as an equally negative desire to make decisions, a large percentage of the respondents stated that they wished they would be involved but only in conjunction with the department head and other teachers. An appropriate example is found in the results obtained for question seven dealing with the assignment of teaching load decisions. Actually, when distributing the responses to the question - 'Who actually makes the decisions pertinent to the teaching load?' the number of teachers who actually and ideally saw themselves as appropriate sole decision-makers in this matter

revealed that about 2.1 percent identified themselves as actual decision-makers; approximately 3 percent stated that they ideally would want to be the sole decision-makers.

When examining all the other responses given to question seven, about 72% of the group surveyed indicated that they would like to be participants in the determination of their teaching load. It seems that in stating their views on the actual and ideal decision-maker(s), teachers in general do not want to be the sole accountable agents; nevertheless, they do indicate a desire to be more consulted or to become joint decision-makers to a greater extent. In areas where the answers to both ideal and actual were negative in terms of being or of wanting to be the sole decision-makers, a close examination of all the other possible responses revealed that involvement or consultation is wanted by a fair percentage of the population surveyed.

The results of studies conducted by Grover (1972) and Cohen (1974) noted that teachers consistently seem to expect fewer decisions from the 'Head Teachers'. Their findings also suggested that, in general, teachers seem to desire less responsibility in determining what is to be taught in schools. Nonetheless the same studies revealed a consistent trend toward teachers' desire to be involved in curriculum decision-making. In this respect, the present study clearly concurred with Grover and Cohen's findings.

Considering the fact that a teacher at the college may often be the sole authority for a specific program area, there stems the necessity for such teachers to shoulder more responsibility in decision-making. Hence, the tendency for these teachers to request that professional decisions be shared.

TABLE 7

Distribution according to identification of decision-maker(s) for teaching methods

PERSON	ACTUAL (N = 146) %	IDEAL (N = 146) %
Principal	0.7	—
Department Head	0.7	0.7
Principal, Chairperson, Dept. Head	0.7	1.4
Dept. Head and Teachers	24.0	37.0
Instructor	61.6	45.2
Advisory Committee	2.1	4.1
No-one really	5.5	4.1
Other	4.8	7.5

The breakdown by teaching methods disclosed that 66.4% of the respondents concurred on the present means of decision-making. While the majority tended to support the present method, 33.6% felt the need for a change. The highest concentration in that area being that of "Instructor" with 13% expressing a preference to share decision-making with the Department Head.

The rate of respondents under "Advisory Committee" together with a few inclusions from "Other" indicated that the Advisory Committee should have a greater participation.

TABLE 8

Distribution according to identification of decision-maker(s) for teaching load

PERSON	ACTUAL (N = 146) %	IDEAL (N = 146) %
Principal	2.7	—
Chairperson	1.4	0.7
Department Head	50.0	17.9
Principal, Chairperson, Dept. Head	18.5	11.7
Dept. Head and Teachers	17.1	60.0
Instructor	2.1	2.8
Advisory Committee	—	1.4
No-one really	2.1	0.7
Other	6.2	4.8

The distribution by teaching load indicated that while 44.1% of the respondents agreed on the present decision making process, 59.9% differed. The above data clearly showed the teachers' strong desire to share this responsibility with the Department Head.

Summation of all responses to questions 8 to 16

Actual and Ideal (n = 146)

PERSON	Q8		Q9		Q10		Q11		Q12		Q13		Q14		Q15		Q16	
	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %	A %	I %
Principal	0	0	10.4	2.7	4.1	5.5	2.8	1.4	1.4	0.7	0	0	16.7	6.3	0	0	1.4	0.7
Chairperson	0	0	6.3	2.1	4.1	4.1	0.7	0.7	0	0	0.7	0	5.6	6.3	0	0	1.4	1.4
Department Head	2.8	0.7	6.9	4.9	6.2	4.8	7.6	5.5	2.1		2.8	0.7	6.3	10.5	2.1	0	2.1	0
1, 2 & 3	6.2	4.1	9.0	11.9	10.3	15.1	19.4	17.2	5.5	4.2	2.8	2.7	25.7	21.0	0	0	15.2	6.8
Department Head & Teachers	32.4	34.5	20.8	36.4	24.0	34.2	11.1	20.0	32.5	38.9	40.0	54.1	9.7	32.9	26.2	37.2	33.1	38.4
Instructor	26.2	10.3	30.6	30.1	30.1	24.7	0.7	2.8	38.6	20.8	44.8	31.8	2.1	2.8	65.2	49.7	8.3	5.5
Advisory Committee	17.2	25.5	1.4	2.8	0	0.7	22.2	28.8	9.0	17.4	1.4	2.1	1.4	2.1	0	3.4	20.0	24.7
No-one really	1.4	2.1	6.3	2.1	13.7	1.4	10.4	1.4	0.7	1.4	0	0	6.3	0.7	0.7	0.7	3.4	1.4
Other	13.8	22.8	8.3	7.0	7.5	9.6	25.0	22.8	10.3	16.7	7.6	8.9	26.4	17.5	5.5	9.0	15.2	21.2

The above table revealed that in most instances the teachers believed that ideally the upper hierarchical levels should make fewer decisions pertaining to task and curriculum related matters. The teachers also indicated that they would like to be the sole decision-makers in fewer instances, but invariably they want to be involved to a greater degree in joint decision-making with their Department Head. In a few areas (questions 8, 11, 12 and 16), the respondents stated that the Advisory Committee should have more input. Finally, there are other areas (see data for questions 11, 14 and 16) which teachers view as belonging mostly to other decision-makers. Yet, in perusing the overall responses per question, it becomes obvious that the teachers definitely want to be involved in most decisions.

TABLE 10

Distribution according to identification of initiators for the last curriculum changes per program area.

PGM	Initiator Principal, etc.	Teacher Alone	Advisory Committee
1. Health	41.6	14.8	18.5
2. Bus. & A. Arts	16.6	41.6	1.6
3. Ind. & Tech.	20.7	18.0	8.0

As can be seen, the upper layers of the hierarchy, that is, the Principal, the Chairperson, the Department Head or a combination thereof are perceived as initiators in about 22% of the cases. It should be noted that this perception differed in each of the program areas.

One can also note that the impetus for change in the Health Division was largely external, that is, coming from the Principal and the Advisory Committee. This same division also showed the highest rate of innovativeness. Conversely, in the division Business and Applied Arts, which rated second highest in innovativeness, teachers appeared as the main instigators of change while the Principal was not once perceived as providing the stimulus for change.

On the other hand, in the Health Division, the Principal was identified as the sole initiator in 12.5% of the cases and in the Industrial Area in 8% of the cases. Perhaps these findings suggest the leadership has various sources.

TABLE 10 - 10

Distribution according to identification of initiators for the last curriculum changes

(N = 136)

PERSON	%
Principal	5.1
Chairperson	2.9
Department Head	8.1
Principal, Chairperson, Dept. Head	5.9
Dept. Head and Teachers	19.1
Instructor	27.9
Advisory Committee	7.4
No-one really	5.1
Other	18.4

The numerical breakdown of responses for the above table was as follows:

Principal	7	No answer	10
Chairperson	4	Don't know	9
Department Head	11	5-7 combined	7
1, 2 & 3	8	6-7 combined	2
Dept. Head and Teacher	26	1, 2 & 5 combined	1
Teacher	38	1, 2 & 3 combined	3
Advisory Committee	10	4, 5-7	1
Nobody Really	7		
Other	25		

TABLE 11

Distribution of last curriculum changes according to a given time frame
(N = 139)

TIME	%
Within last year	49.9
2 years ago	22.6
3 to 5 years ago	18.1
6 to 10 years ago	5.8
over 10 years ago	3.6

Here the respondents indicated that the last major curriculum changes have occurred within the last two years (specifically 72.5%)

TABLE 12

Distribution according to curriculum area where changes were made

Area	Absolute F	Adjusted F
Course content	77	57.0
Teaching strategy	12	8.9
Length of course	8	5.9
Other	38	26.7
No Answer	13	—
Total	146	100.0
Area (Other)		
Content & Length	8	24.2
Add a new course	3	9.1
Content & T. Strategy	9	27.3
Content, Strategy, & Length	10	30.3
Don't know	13	3.0
No Answer	113	—
Total	146	100.0

Table 12 shows areas where changes were made. The course section was identified as the area where most curriculum changes were implemented.

TABLE 13

Distribution according to the teachers' levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction

(N = 146)

SATISFACTION	%
Very dissatisfied	6.2
Dissatisfied	7.6
Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	17.2
Satisfied	48.3
Very Satisfied	20.7

The results obtained may be compared with the findings of Information Canada (1975). Even though such comparisons should be made with caution, the similarities are worth noting. For the question dealing with job satisfaction, Canadians responded in the following manner: 46% very satisfied; 9% not too satisfied and 2% not at all satisfied. Thus, about 89% said that they were somewhat satisfied and 11% answered that they were not satisfied.¹⁰⁸ In this study 13.8% indicated that they were not satisfied while 86.2% stated that they were somewhat satisfied. In general one could say that the college teachers surveyed are less satisfied than the average Canadian.

¹⁰⁸ M. Burnstein, et al., Canadian Work Values Findings of a Work Ethic Survey and a Job Satisfaction Survey. Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975, p. 29.

TABLE 14

Distribution according to amount of agreement on the existing decision-making patterns

(N = 146)

AREA	Congruency %	Discrepancy %
Teaching Methods	66.4	33.6
Teaching Load	44.1	55.9
Course Outline	66.2	33.8
Freq. of Evaluation	64.3	35.7
Teacher Records	61.0	39.0
Entrance Qualification	66.7	33.3
Expected Outcomes	69.4	30.6
Student Evaluation Method	74.5	25.5
Curriculum Change	62.1	37.9
Budget Allocation	55.2	44.8
Exam Content	72.4	27.6

Table 14 shows the amount of congruency and discrepancy noted among the respondents of the survey. The variation by questions ranged from a high congruency of 74.5% to 44.1% for the lowest rate of congruency with the existing decision-making patterns.

APPENDIX D

GENERAL FINDINGS BY PROGRAM AREAS

GENERAL FINDINGS BY PROGRAM AREAS

It was expected that the three program areas would show differences in terms of agreement on decision-making involvement, in the perception of wanted participation from the advisory committees and in the levels of job satisfaction.

In general, the trend was for shared decision-making between the department head and the teachers. The request for more input from the advisory boards came from the teachers within the Industrial and Health Sciences areas. There also appeared a definite shift away from the principal or the chairperson as desired decision agents for certain curriculum matters.

TABLE 15

Distribution according to congruency in decision-making on curriculum matters by program area (Category "other" excluded)

	Teaching Method	Teaching Load	Course Outline	Frequency of Evaluation	Teaching Records	Entrance Qualification	Expected Outcomes	Student Eval. Methods	Curriculum Changes	Budget Allocation	Exam Content	Average
P.G.M.												
Health	50	54	52	65	67	52	67	67	59	48	63	59.36
Bus. & A. Arts	63	44	60	53	58	50	61	79	56	43	75	58.36
Ind. & Tech.	46	32	45	50	42	60	60	61	43	40	68	49.36

Table 15, which represents the percentage of responses obtained from the teachers only, clearly indicated that the Industrial area teachers have the lowest consensus on the existing mode of decision-making related to curriculum matters. The same data also revealed that the three program areas differed in terms of agreement or congruency on the existing mode of making task or curriculum related decisions.

The data pertaining to the numbers 6 to 16 of the questionnaire will now be discussed under the eleven headings selected for examining the decision-making patterns identified by the teachers of the following program areas:

1. Health Sciences
2. Business and Applied Arts
3. Industry and Technology

1. HEALTH SCIENCES

Teaching Methods: About 50% of the respondents agreed with the existing means of making decisions pertaining to teaching methods. The most significant shift occurred in the expressed desire for greater involvement in joint decision-making with the Department Head. The data also indicated that involvement of anyone above the Department Head was judged as being unwanted.

Teaching Load: A rather dramatic shift is evident when examining the actual versus the ideal decision-makers in regard to the teaching load. While 25.9% of the respondents perceived themselves as actually being involved in conjunction with the Department Head, 77.8% expressed that

ideally they wanted to be consulted on this matter. It should be noted that not even one of the respondents identified himself as the sole decision-maker in this respect.

Course outline: About 37% of the respondents seem to want the Advisory Board as the main deciding body. Another 11% indicated they preferred the Advisory Board to act in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Frequency of Evaluation: A good 65% of the respondents agreed with the existing means of making decisions on this matter. The general trend was towards joint decision-making on the frequency of evaluation.

Teacher Records: Some 67% of the respondents agreed with the present means of deciding the matter. Instructors, in general, wanted more involvement in this matter.

Entrance qualifications: Some 40.7% of the respondents selected the Advisory Committee as the deciding body, while 11.1% perceived the Advisory Committee as an influential agent but only in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Expected Outcomes: For this decision area, 25.9% of the respondents indicated the Advisory Committee as the ideal sole determinant. Another 7.4% said they preferred the Advisory Committee to act in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Student Evaluation Method: Sixty-seven percent of the respondents agreed with the existing mode for deciding methods. In essence 74.1% indicated that ideally they wanted to decide this matter in conjunction with the Department Head.

Curriculum Change: Ninety-six decimal two percent of the changes occurred within the last two years. Seventy-seven decimal eight percent of the respondents had one or more University degrees; 63% were under 39 years of age; 50% had less than 10 years of teaching experience and 85.2% were females.

This program area rated second highest on the level of job satisfaction. It was also identified as being the youngest as well as the highest on the educational scale. Finally, of the three divisions surveyed it appeared as the most innovative group within the College.

Budget Allocation: Forty-eight percent of the respondents agreed with the existing mode of deciding budget allocation. In examining the responses for both the actual and the ideal, it seems that some confusion existed as to who is or who should be involved. In general, it appeared that any decision in this regard was expected to be made without the teachers input.

Exam Content: At least 63% of the respondents agreed with the existing mode of making decisions on exam content. Under the section ideal, 63% said they wanted to be involved with the Department Head while 33.3% indicated they would prefer being the sole decision-makers.

2. BUSINESS AND APPLIED ARTS

Teaching Methods: On this matter, 63% of the respondents agreed with the existing mode for making decisions. Some 69.4% saw themselves as actual decision-makers while none identified anyone above the Department Head as having some input. A good 46.8% said that ideally they would like to be

the sole decision-makers. The remainder opted mostly for joint decision-making with the Department Head.

Teaching Load: Some 44% of the respondents agreed with the existing mode for deciding the teaching load. However, this area appeared as a bone of contention. Most teachers expressed a desire to be consulted on this matter.

Course Outline: Twelve decimal nine percent of the respondents perceived the Advisory Committee as the deciding body. Fourteen decimal five percent viewed the Advisory Board as a worthwhile influence only in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Frequency of Evaluation: Here, some 53% of the teachers agreed on the existing procedure for deciding this matter.

Teaching Records: The majority of the respondents, that is 58% agreed on the present mode of decision-making for this item.

Entrance Qualifications: Twenty-four decimal two percent of the respondents viewed the Advisory Committee as the deciding body for this matter; while 6.4% perceived the Advisory Committee as a necessary influence only in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Expected Outcomes: On this item, a good 50% of the respondents agreed on the current decision modes or procedures. However, in the section ideal, roughly 18% opted for involving the Advisory Board while 40% indicated a desire to be involved in conjunction with the Department Head.

Student Evaluation Methods: Of all the areas surveyed, this group had the highest degree of agreement. Some 79% of the respondents indicated they were satisfied with the present decision-making pattern.

Curriculum Changes: Sixty-five decimal six percent of the curriculum changes occurred within the last two years. Sixty-two decimal nine percent of the respondents had one or more University degrees; 50% had less than 10 years of teaching experience; 41% were less than 39 years of age and 72.6% were males.

This program area rated second highest on percentage of congruency in decision-making pertinent to curriculum matters. It also indicated the highest level of job satisfaction for the College groups surveyed.

Budget Allocation: Some 40% of the respondents agreed on the existing means for deciding budget allocation. Actually 24.2% answered "don't know". The irregular distribution of responses may be viewed as a lack of consensus or as an indication of confusion on this matter.

Exam Content: A good 75% of the teachers agreed on the existing decision-making pattern, and some 54.8% identified themselves as the ideal decision-makers for exam content.

3. INDUSTRY AND TECHNOLOGY

Teaching Methods: In regard to the teaching methods, 46% of the respondents agreed on the current decision-making procedure. However, under the section ideal, the respondents expressed a wish to have more joint decision-making power.

Teaching Load: Some 32% of the teachers agreed on the actual decision-making means. Only 10% saw themselves as being consulted on this matter, while a good 66% of them said that ideally they would like to be involved in decisions on this matter.

Course Outline: Thirty-four percent of the respondents selected the Advisory Board as the deciding body. Another thirty percent wanted the Advisory Committee to act in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Frequency of Evaluation: Fifty percent of the teachers surveyed agreed on the present means of deciding the frequency of evaluation.

Teacher Records: Of the respondents, 42% agreed on the present decision-making pattern. Some 24% said that ideally they would like to be the sole decision-makers, while 34% viewed the Principal or the Chairman as the ideal decision-maker. The remainder opted for joint decision-making in conjunction with their Department Head.

Entrance Qualifications: Twenty-eight percent of the respondents perceived the Advisory Committee as the deciding body; another thirty percent viewed the Advisory Board as an important influence only in conjunction with the Department Head and the teachers.

Expected Outcomes: Here, some 60% of the respondents agreed on the present decision-making pattern. A few, that is, 20% indicated that ideally, the Advisory Committee should have more input.

Student Evaluation Methods: A good 61% of the respondents concurred with the present mode for deciding student evaluation methods. Under the section ideal, a rather large percentage of teachers, that is, 54% indicated that they would like to be involved in joint decision-making, but in conjunction with their Department Head.

Curriculum Changes: Sixty-two percent of the curriculum changes occurred within the last two years. Fifty-two percent of the respondents

had one or more University degrees; 46% were under 39 years of age; 50% had less than 10 years of teaching experience and 94% were males.

This program area indicated the lowest level of job satisfaction. It appeared as the oldest and with a lower percentage of University degree holders. In curriculum matters, it appeared as the least innovative section.

Budget Allocation: Some 40% of the respondents agreed on the current mode of deciding budget allocation. However, 46% of the respondents said that the teachers had no input on this issue.

Exam Content: Sixty-eight percent of the teachers agreed on the existing mode for deciding exam content. Under the heading ideal, some 56% of the respondents indicated that they would prefer being the sole decision-makers.

APPENDIX E

SPECIFIC FINDINGS BY PROGRAM AREA

SPECIFIC FINDINGS BY PROGRAM AREA

As hypothesized earlier, there are areas within the institution which prefer that certain curriculum decisions be made by a group of professionals and/or by Advisory Committees. Table 16 demonstrates this expected tendency.

TABLE 16

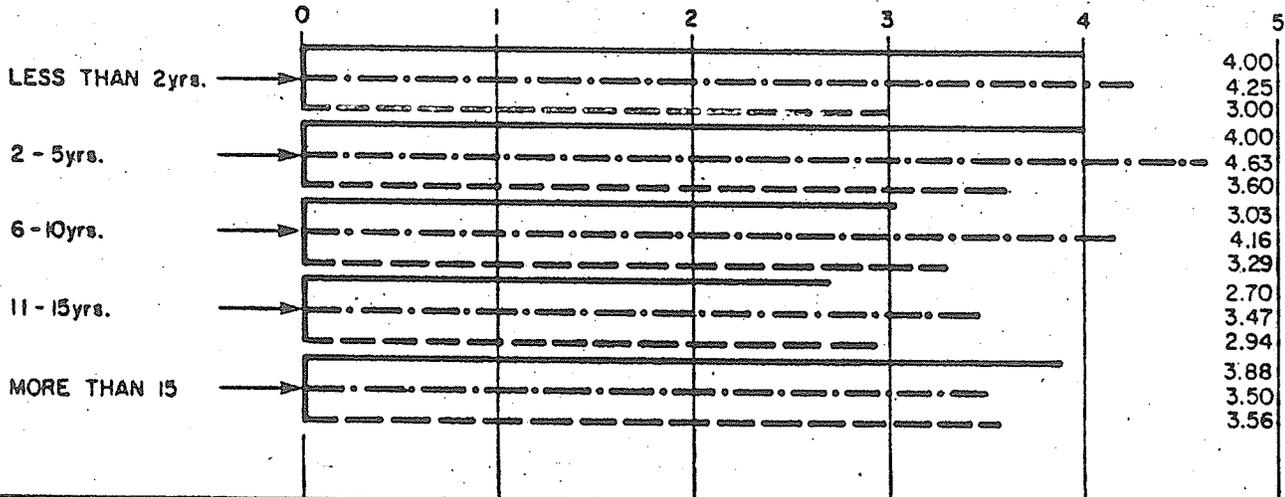
Distribution according to desired input from Advisory Committees by Program Area (PGM = 3)

PGM Health		PGM Business & A. Arts		PGM Ind. & Technology	
Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal
%	%	%	%	%	%
29.6	33.3	4.8	12.9	28.0	36.0

Table 16 revealed that, as predicted, the highest scores were rated by (1) the Health Area, and (2) by the Industry and Technology Division. Indeed, despite the present involvement of professionals and/or Advisory Committees, it is clear that these two groups of teachers have indicated the acceptance, as well as a greater need of external assistance.

TABLE 17

Variation pattern for levels of satisfaction according to years of teaching experience and program area



*NOTE RANGE IS 1-5

	< 2	2-5	6-10	11-15	> 15 yrs.
HEALTH	4.00	4.00	3.03	2.70	3.88
BUS. & A. ARTS	4.25	4.63	4.16	3.47	3.50
IND. & TECH.	3.00	3.60	3.29	2.94	3.56

Explanation of method used for determining the levels of satisfaction:

(a) The levels of satisfaction have been set as follows:

Very dissatisfied	1
Dissatisfied	2
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	3
Satisfied	4
Very Satisfied	5

(b) The weighted average of satisfaction for the total population in any area can be calculated as follows: The sum of the products calculated by levels of satisfaction divided by the total number of responses obtained.

[For this formula, the numbers indicating the levels of satisfaction have been set within parentheses e.g. (1) level one; (2) level two, etc].

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{2(1) + 3(2) + 3(3) + 13(4) + 5(5)}{26} =$$

$$\frac{2 + 6 + 9 + 56 + 25}{26} = 3.77$$

Therefore, the weighted average is 3.77.

Table 17 which summarizes the levels of satisfaction also depicts the variations by program area and by years of teaching experience. It should be noted that the levels of satisfaction were accompanied by corresponding levels of congruency in decision-making. The only exception found has to do with teachers 50 years older. In this category, the level of satisfaction was comparatively high whilst congruency in decision-making was rather low. Levinson (1978) did note that the 50's were man's most contented and autonomous years.¹⁰⁹ This perhaps explains the divergence observed. As people get older, there seems to be a slight reorientation in life and in work. Certain intrinsic and extrinsic factors, as well as values and goals change over the years. For example, Burnstein (1975) in his survey of Canadian workers observed that for the 15 to 19 year-olds the item "challenge and growth" obtained an average importance score of 3.07 out of a possible 4, versus the 45 to 64 year-olds who gave the same component of job values an average significance score of 3.37.¹¹⁰

According to these findings, job satisfaction, which is relatively high in the beginning tends to rise between the second and the fifth year,

¹⁰⁹ Daniel J. Levinson, The Seasons of Man's Life (New York: A. A. Knoff Inc., 1978), pp. 90-98.

¹¹⁰ M. Burnstein, et al., Canadian Work Values. Findings of a Work Ethic Survey and Job Satisfaction Survey. (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1975), p. 45.

goes into a slight decline between the sixth and the tenth year, reaches an all-time low between the eleventh and the fifteenth year to finally rise again in the later years.

For comparative purposes, summaries of data for the total population surveyed have been tabulated for areas relevant to this study. Namely:

1. Years of teaching experience versus level of satisfaction and congruency in decision-making (Table 18);
2. Age group versus level of satisfaction and congruency in decision-making (Table 19);
3. Education level versus level of satisfaction and congruency on decision-making (Table 20).

TABLE 18

Tabulation according to years of teaching experience, averaged level of satisfaction and congruency in decision-making for the total population surveyed

Years of Experience	Level of Satisfaction Weighted Average	Congruency in Decision-Making Simple Average %
Less than 2 years	3.75	59.40 (n = 12)
2 - 5 years	4.08	62.62 (n = 18)
6 - 10 years	3.83	56.00 (n = 40)
11 - 15 years	3.28	50.51 (n = 39)
more than 15 years	3.64	57.42 (n = 15)

In accordance with previously reviewed research, the table above depicts a pattern of related proportions which exist between levels of job satisfaction and years of teaching experience. The levels of congruency in decision-making show a corresponding trend. Also, it seems that when the level of satisfaction is high the congruency in decision-making is relatively high.

The opposite is also true. An interesting argument may well be:
How much of what causes such results or rather what is the cause of what?

TABLE 19

Tabulation according to age group versus level of satisfaction and congruency in decision-making

Age	Level of Satisfaction Weighted Average	Congruency in Decision-Making Simple Average %
Under 30	3.33	58.90 (n = 12)
30 - 39	3.42	59.17 (n = 55)
40 - 49	3.46	57.40 (n = 47)
50 or more	4.12	49.34 (n = 25)

As indicated by the above data, age does seem to affect consensus and job satisfaction. People past age fifty rate higher on level of satisfaction versus lower degree of congruency on decision-making. As noted earlier by Levinson (1978) and Burnstein (1975), certain values are rearranged according to man's growth in life.

TABLE 20

Tabulation according to education level, job satisfaction and congruency in decision-making

Educational Level	Level of Satisfaction Weighted Average	Congruency in Decision-Making Simple Average %
No Degree	3.65	55.32 (n = 59)
Degree	3.59	53.78 (n = 86)

The results tabulated above seem to concur with a pattern observed by other studies. In fact, the data coming from the college teachers did indicate that those with a higher educational level tended to show a lower level of satisfaction. A similar trend can be noted under decision-making. As Glenn et al. (1977) remarked, although the influence of demographic traits seem well-documented, the explanation of variances seem largely speculative. Yet, one cannot ignore the fact that in this area, most researchers did note that higher educational levels usually have a negative effect on job satisfaction. As table 21 indicates, the findings of this study suggest a similar trend.

It appears that the variations encountered by program area have been maintained for all the variables introduced. Hence, to cross-examine the observations, the data have been summarized in different ways.

TABLE 21

Distribution of levels of satisfaction by program area and age

Program Area	Under 30	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 or more
Health	4.00	3.13	3.38	5.00
Bus. & A. Arts	4.00	4.08	3.71	3.70
Ind. & Tech.	2.00	3.08	3.79	3.77

The variations in levels of satisfaction produced by demographic factors are worth noting. For illustrative purposes the effect of age on the level of satisfaction has been tabulated by program area. The pattern obtained seems to concur with previous observations.

TABLE 22

Distribution of congruency in decision-making by satisfaction, program area and total population

Satisfaction	Health	Bus. & A. Arts	Ind. & Tech.	Total Population
	%	%	%	%
Dissatisfied	39.39	36.36	37.88	38.02
Neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied	69.70	48.48	60.33	58.50
Satisfied	67.83	60.80	58.26	61.33
Very Satisfied	74.55	75.57	56.36	71.68

(Level very dissatisfied has been deleted because of too few responses)

As can be seen above, table 22 illustrates clearly that the respondents who answered dissatisfied showed an overall congruency percentage of 38.02 with the existing modes of decision-making versus the ones answering very satisfied who indicated an overall agreement of 71.68 with the decision-making procedures. Of interest to this study is the similarity and the consistency in variations maintained by divisions and total population in terms of satisfaction and congruency in decision-making.

TABLE 23

Distribution of responsency in percentage according to satisfaction and program area

Satisfaction	Health	Bus. & A. Arts	Ind. & Tech.
	%	%	%
Very Dissatisfied	8.0	6.5	6.0
Dissatisfied	8.0	3.2	12.0
Neither Dissatisfied nor Satisfied	12.0	11.3	28.0
Satisfied	52.0	53.3	44.0
Very Satisfied	20.0	25.8	10.0

Table 23, which shows the percentage distribution of responsency for various levels of satisfaction by program area, also indicates that one of the program areas, namely Industry and Technology, deviated to a significant extent from the other two program areas examined. When comparing table 23 to table 22, one can also observe that the respondents who answered dissatisfied and very dissatisfied showed a comparatively low rate of agreement on decision-making modes versus the greater consensus of those who answered satisfied and very satisfied.

This persistent pattern of differences exhibited by program area raises the question not only of causation but also of influence on learning outcomes or teaching effectiveness. A concern shared by Lortie (1972), who maintained that,

One of the striking features of teaching is its inseparability from organizational context of the school.¹¹¹

Lortie decried the insufficient efforts made in terms of research on the relationship between teachers and their organizational setting. He remarked that the usual research efforts dealing with teacher orientation, satisfaction, decision-making and bureaucratization are not broad enough. According to Lortie, the missing link dwells in the formulation of queries for correlating teachers' satisfaction with the true teaching outcomes, that is learning effectiveness. To this effect he noted:

As we broaden our conception of the instructionally relevant, we widen our view of what should be included in new instructional systems. Such broadening means that more and more aspects of school organization will be seen in instrumental terms as means for better instructions.¹¹²

Lortie's argument for a linkage between school effectiveness and learning outcomes is well taken. In part, this question has been answered by the many studies which linked low satisfaction to low performance, bureaucratization to low innovativeness and dehumanization. Furthermore, this question was also answered by looking at indicators such as: innovativeness, levels of satisfaction, congruency and possibly by measuring drop-out rate, turnover, rate of student employment and absenteeism. Others, such as Helpin (1966) raised the possibility of climate profiles for devising more valid criteria of school effectiveness.¹¹³ In other studies, the

¹¹¹ Robert W. Traversé Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publisher, 1973), p. 483.

¹¹² Ibid. p. 474.

¹¹³ Robert G. Owens Organizational Behavior in Schools (Toronto: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1979), p. 191.

organizational climate has been the object of researchers: Argyris (1957); Etzioni (1961); Getzel and Guba (1957). Their works included the assesement of group dynamics, leadership, interpersonal relatedness and amount of congruency between the personal needs of the individual and the demands that the organization makes on them. The inference made by these researchers was that the recognition of the individual needs cannot be totally oongruent with corporate demands. However, a conducive and open environment will permit sufficient congruency, hence minimizing potential conflicts.

Finally, a possible approach for appraising potential teaching effectiveness is to consider the rate of general innovativeness. Extensive studies in this competency seem to confirm that innovators tend to demonstrate the following characteristics:

- 1 - they are usually young,
- 2 - they are usually well-educated,
- 3 - they are usually professionally oriented, and
- 4 - they are usually cosmopolitan.

Some of the results obtained in the present study seem to concur with these observations. For illustrative purposes, the responses have been summarized according to years of teaching experience, age and education for each of the three program areas. As can readily be seen the most innovative division, Health Sciences, had the youngest population, the most highly educated personnel with the fewest years of teaching experience. The accompanying summary and table (Table 24) fairly describe this relevancy. It should also be noted that 96 percent of the curriculum changes which occurred during the last two years took place within the Health Division,

in contrast to a 65 percent in the Business and Applied Arts and a 62 percent in the Industrial and Technology Area.

SUMMARY OF SELECTED
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Years of teaching experience by PGM

1. Health Sciences 37% of the population have less than 5 years
2. Bus. & A. Arts 19% of the population have less than 5 years
3. Ind. & Tech. 15.1% of the population have less than 5 years

Age by PGM

1. Health Sciences 28.6% of the population are under 30 years
2. Bus. & A. Arts 3.2% of the population are under 30 years
3. Ind. & Tech. 3.8% of the population are under 30 years

Education by PGM

1. Health Sciences 80.9% of the population have a degree
2. Bus. & A. Arts 61.9% of the population have a degree
3. Ind. & Tech. 54.7% of the population have a degree