

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION – MAKING:
A CASE STUDY OF SOME SELECTED BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE
SHAMA AHANTA EAST METROPOLIS

BY

CHRISTINA E. AMISSAH

Dissertation submitted to the Institute for Education
Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education,
University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the award of
Master of Education Degree, in Educational Administration

MAY 2009

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature..... Date

Name: Christina E. Amissah

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Dora Baaba Aidoo

ABSTRACT

This study was about teacher participation in decision-making. It was conducted in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. In all, 152 respondents, comprising 143 teachers and 9 heads of schools from 15 schools were employed in the study. Questionnaire and interview schedule were the main instruments used for data collection. The questionnaire was used to obtain responses from the teachers while the heads of institutions were interviewed by use of interview schedule.

The data were analysed with the statistical package for social sciences, version 10.0 for windows and responses were reported by frequency and percentages. The findings of this work point to the fact that decision making is an integral part of school administration and is most often done collectively by both heads and teachers. It came to light that teacher participation in decision making affects teacher job satisfaction and willingness to work extra man-hours when they are called upon to do so.

However, the data also showed that most heads of institutions in some unusual situation are forced to take decisions without consulting their subordinates. These were situations when collective decision-making will slow down the action needed for a reasonable conclusion.

It was suggested that future research concerning decision-making should look at how effective communication and motivation of teacher affect participation in decision making in schools in Ghana.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to sincerely thank the following for the help they offered me in making this dissertation a reality. I would like to say a big thank you to my supervisor Ms. Baaba Aidoo, my husband Dr. Francis Anthony Benyah, the Benyah family, Mr. Ahmed Karikari and Mrs. Helena Montford for their support.

Thanks are also due Rev. Fr. Martin Essilfie, Mrs. Merene Botsio-Philips, Rev. Fr. Benard Ackon, Mrs. Paulina Quayson, Mercy Cobbold and Mr. Francis George Bileigh. I am also grateful to Mr. Joseph G. Amissah, Felix I. Amissah, John K. Amissah, Agnes M. Amissah, Sr. Cecilia R. Amissah and the Amissah family.

A very special thanks to Dr. and Mrs. Mark-Aaba and the administrative staff of Institutes for Educational Planning and Administration for their support.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents the late Mr. John Kofi Amissah and Mrs. Agnes Maria Amissah.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
Chapter	
ONE INTRODUCTION	1
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	10
Purpose of the Study	10
Research Questions	11
Significance of the Study	11
Delimitations of the Study	12
Limitations	12
Operational Definition of Terms	12
Chapter Organization	13
TWO REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	15
Theories of Decision-Making	15
Decision-Making	19
Factors Affecting Teacher Participation in Decision-	
Making	27

	Page
The Structure and Mode of Decision-Making Existing in the Educational System	29
Perceptions Towards Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making Process	35
Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making and Job Satisfaction	46
THREE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	61
Research Design	61
Target Population	62
Accessible Population	63
Sample Size	64
Sample and Sampling Technique	65
Research Instrument	65
Development of Instruments	67
Validity and Reliability of Instrument	69
Data Collection Procedure	69
Method of Data Analysis	70
FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	74
Section A: Biodata of Respondents	74
Results of the Responses Given by Heads of Institutions Concerning Decision Making in their Respective Schools	80
Answers to the Research Questions	84

	Page
Status of Teacher Participation in School Decision- Making Process	89
Executive/Managerial Decisions	95
Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making Process	99
FIVE SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
	107
Summary	105
Findings	108
Conclusions	109
Recommendations for Future Research	109
REFERENCES	111
APPENDICES	120
A Questionnaire for Teachers of Basic Schools	122
B Questionnaire for Head Teachers of Basic Schools	129
C Educational Statistics – 2004/2005 List of Public Basic Schools	133

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Distribution of Population of Teachers of Shama Ahanta East Metro Office	63
2.	Distribution of Respondents by Metro Education Statistic	64
3	Distribution of Questionnaires Sent Out and Retrieved	72
4	Gender of Respondents of the Research	75
5	The Ages of the Respondents	76
6	Professional Status of Respondents	77
7	Number of Years that Respondents have Spent in Present School	78
8	Number of Years Respondents have been in the Teaching Profession	79
9	Sex of Heads of Schools who took part in the Study	80
10	Ages of Heads of Schools	81
11	Marital Status of the Heads of Institutions	81
12	Professional Status	82
13	Number of Years Spent in Present School	83
14	Years of Teaching Experience	84

15	Structure of Decision Making	86
16	Technical/Instructional Decisions	89
		Page
17	Operational Decisions	92
18	Executive/Managerial Decisions	96
19	Reaction by Respondents to Statements Concerning Decision Making in their Schools	100
20	Influence of Teacher Participation Decision-Making and Job Satisfaction	103

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

According to an African philosophy, one finger does not hold ash. It calls for the support of other fingers of the hand. This means that one head or one person cannot take a decision alone but will need the support of others to make a concrete and concise decision. Decision-making cuts across all human endeavours. All human beings, husbands and wives, teachers, administrators, governments, and many others may decide to do one thing or the other depending on the circumstance.

Decision-making is a complex exercise that needs time and effort. It employs an analytical thought process, and utilizes relevant sources of information and assistance. Decision-making therefore involves selecting alternative solutions, which are subsequently implemented with the view of achieving a set objective.

It is the central element of administration. It is important therefore that administrators go about it with great care. The relevant public that is affected by a decision must be involved in making such decisions. The educational sector seems to be quiet about the situation. In most cases studies conducted on relevant public involvement in decision-making have focused on industrial organization.

What is true of industrial organizations is also true of schools or colleges. Heads of schools, like chief executive of organizations, take decisions. They also have their relevant publics – those people, subordinate or other who are affected by the decisions that are taken.

If an administrator is found to be making decisions without involving others, it means there exists a malfunction in the decision making process, and that it is not the function of the chief executive to make decisions. It is his function to monitor the decision making process to make sure that it performs at the optimum level.

There has not been much significant research on teacher involvement in school decision-making with particular reference to the Ghanaian situation. Literature on this issue is scanty. Most of the materials, which talk about teacher participation in school decision-making, are based on foreign conditions and experience.

The school, as a democratic society is where individuals as well as group views are respected. It may be suggested that schools like any industrial organization, work better and achieve their set objectives provided that the whole relevant public is involved in the decision making process. Accordingly, the rationale of involving others in a decision making process:

1. increases the number of different view point and ideas which might be relevant to the decision being made;
2. may improve school morale by showing the individuals involved that the administrator values their opinions, which may give them greater feeling

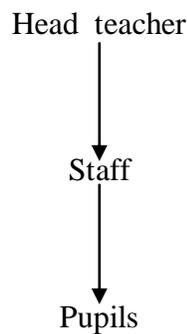
of satisfaction;

3. makes better utilization of the available expertise and problem - solving skills, which exist within the school community;
4. can aid acceptance and implementation of a decision because the people who are involved are more likely to understand the decision and be more committed to its success;
5. is consistent with democratic principles of our society, which hold that those who are affected by public institution such as the school should have some voice in how they are run

If Gorton (1980) views are plausible, then, it can be strongly suggested that there is an appreciable advantage to be gained when the relevant public of a school is involved in decision making process; especially, when the decision concerns the relevant public. Hanson (1996) views a School as a socio-political system. They are made up of individuals as well as groups of people who come together because of shared ideals, values and common goals. Schools are also bureaucratic organizations where a hierarchy of leadership roles is found. These roles are highly structured. The school is therefore seen as having impersonal, interpersonal as well as group relationships, and therefore as organizations should make decisions in order to achieve their set objectives.

Historically, the system of administration found in the schools that were first set up, were predominantly autocratic. Merland (1974) coined the term single order school pattern to refer to the structure of small schools of the past. In such single order schools, the headmaster was the 'key' figure. Asiedu-Akrofi (1978)

looks at how schools have been administered up to the mid-twentieth century. He says, in the past, teacher involvement in school administration had been a matter of upholding the view that children must be seen but must not be heard. This is also supported by Hanson (1996), who states that the school administration for some time has been bureaucratic – autocratic. Authority flows down from the head to the teachers and thence to the pupils, a one – way traffic represented thus:



No information flows from the pupils to the top through the teachers to the head teacher. The head is the boss, the ‘key figure’, in such situations, the heads of schools were seen as operating under the classical theory of administration; the head had absolute control over all. He could enter the classroom and stop teachers at any time. Teachers and pupils had to obey. The heads, at best, considered young teachers as their children who must obey.

It has been observed that schools in U.S.A limited teachers participation in school decision – making, glorifying a hierarchical, rule-govern administrative organization. In “single order” schools the headmaster was the key figure. The organizational chart of such schools had the headmaster and perhaps his deputy at the apex with all the other members of staff at the base; such school authorities, denied teachers the chance of learning to exercise their sense of judgment as well

as responsibility. This happened as a result of the autocratic nature of the heads of such schools in the past. Heads of educational institutions still hold the view that administrators should administer; and teachers should teach.

The early part of the 19th century saw the rapid growth and development of the school system and increased professionalism in the teaching field. Teachers realized that the subordinate role they had been playing in the education enterprise was not compatible with the emerging ideas of professionalism. School teachers who for a very long period, had been very submissive to the power were, no longer prepared to be the docile hand maiden of education Campbell (1977). They therefore seriously challenged the authority of the school administrators. With time, teachers became increasingly vocal and militant about their desire to be involved in the affairs of the schools Carnegie Forum (1986).

Since the colonial period, Ghanaian schools seem to have been administered in the autocratic way. It has followed the classical mode of 'one-man-show'. This came as a result of the influence of Ghana's colonial master. The recent waves of education reform in the U.S.A and other western nations have had rippling effects on African countries. Ghana has focused on changing the division of authority in educational decision-making process. Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1995). Such structural changes call for other forms of administration. In Ghana, for example, there is the government policy of decentralization. It is believed that the implementation of such policy will lead to much grassroots participation; and it is considered that such a situation

is likely to lead to much agitation on the part of teachers if they are not involved in decisions that affect them.

The rationale behind the involvement of the staff in the formulation of decisions at school level is that teachers eventually the implementers of decision, are not acceptable as administrators; they would either find means of making them unworkable or would not make them work. He concludes that only decisions that enjoy the blessings of the school staff are likely to be implemented with maximum effort.

The discontent in the teaching ranks and the demand by leaders to be involved in the decision making process have made the old authoritarian methods of administration ineffective – thus it is no longer practicable or advisable for school administrators to exercise authority in the traditional way. The administrators are now working in complex environments so if they want to be successful, they must be prepared to share their time honoured administrative prerogatives of decision making. The situation calls for increased staff involvement in the day-to-day running of the school. Despite this, some school administrators are not all that willing to share any of their administrative duties. The uncompromising behaviour of some of the schools administrators is perhaps due to the fact that they are still held accountable to the community for whatever goes on in their schools.

Jennings (1975) questions the idea of holding heads of educational institution responsible for decisions arrived at collectively. He in fact disagrees with the idea that the school administrators should be held accountable if they no

longer have the final say in the affairs of the school. He argues that if decisions are arrived at collectively, then the entire staff should be held accountable. However, in practice, it is almost impossible to hold such a body accountable. Accountability has external domain involving answerability of the school to the community while participation has internal dimension with professional involvement, but the two terms do merge somewhere along the line.

Some teachers would like greater participation while others do not want to be involved. It therefore becomes the responsibility of the educational administrator to find out the capabilities and interest of the individuals on his staff and assign them their desired level of participation. This is very necessary since both over involvement and under-involvement in the decision making process may affect the teacher's attitude to work in different ways.

Reports of committee of enquiry into staff and students grievances in Ghana reveal that some school administrators deprive teachers of their right to participate in decision making. Cases of Kadjebi Secondary School, 1969 and St. Francis Training College 1996 seemed to reveal that some of their right to participate in schools administration was deprived.

A resource handbook for teachers in basic schools developed by teachers of the West Mamprusi District in collaboration with the girl-child education project states that some head-teachers do not consult other teachers in decision-making process. Other head-teachers do not accept the issues of teachers. However, some teachers do not co-operate with head-teachers in making decisions. So in effect decision-making is not a shared function in some schools.

In actual fact decision-making process has been carried out in research by so many researchers. A common theme in decisional participation literature is the emphasis on the desirable organizational outcomes associated with increased subordinate participation. Blau and Scott (1962), working with a group of employment counselors found that increased employee participation in decision-making resulted in increased interpersonal trust, and also suggests that increased participation in decision making was associated with greater job satisfaction, work achievement, and personal integration into the organization. A further examination of the research reveals a number of other functional outcomes of employee participation, including: the encouragement of better decisions, increased productivity, and an increase in organizational commitment.

Teacher participation in the schools decision-making process can be viewed as a key link to various organizational and interpersonal phenomena. In particular, teacher involvement has been linked to many effective responses of individuals within the organization. In a new classic essay, Bridges (1967) attempted to operationalize the determinants of teacher participation in the decision making process. He suggested that teacher participation in decision making has desirable consequences when the principal involves teachers in making decisions which are located out of their “zone of indifference” That is, a teacher is interested in participating if he/she is capable of contributing to the decision and if the decision is personally relevant.

There is growing support for the notion that increased participation is not a goal for all teachers, and in fact, for some teachers involvement may be

dysfunctional. In a recent survey, Duke, Showers and Imber (1980) encountered widespread lack of enthusiasm toward involvement in school-related decisions. Many teachers were found to be apathetic or negative toward it. Some teachers who admitted to being involved in school decision-making seemed disgruntled or cynical about their involvement. These authors conclude that ones level of participation is dependent on the assessment of various potential benefits, feelings of self-efficacy, ownership, workplace democracy and potential cost, increased demand, loss of autonomy, risk of colleagues' disfavour, subversion of the collective bargaining process and threats to career advancement associated with involvement in school decision making.

The empirical evidence supporting the utility of employee participation in organizational decision-making is prominent throughout the research in the organizational settings. Yet, there is growing evidence that increased participation does not have a desirable outcome for all employees.

I would like to conclude by suggesting that teacher, subordinate be given the chance to exercise their cognitive, behavioural and affective response to the decision of the school so that they will willingly help to implement to ensure peace and maximum discipline in our basic schools.

Statement of the Problem

The Shama Ahanta East Metropolis can boast of about 395 schools and a population of 3,109 teachers from the Metro Directorate Education Office. This is a combination of both primary and junior secondary schools. Most of the schools are found in clusters. Four to five schools form a cluster. To ensure effective

administration of a school, the head teacher performs a lot of functions including planning, organizing, conducting and decision-making. The effectiveness and efficiency of the teaching and learning process depends on the nature of decisions the head of the school makes with his teachers concerning both the children and the school.

In coming out with decisions that affect a school, the head of the school may need to make consultations with other stakeholders of education. The teacher should be the first point of call in the decision-making process since s/he deals directly with the pupils. So if the teacher is responsible for the training of the child, the s/he should participate in the decision-making process, which guide the child's training. One major issue which needs to be addressed is the fact that the basic school teacher does not have a say in the admission of pupils into the school. This is solely the responsibility of the head teacher who has the ultimate power to do so, even though the teacher teaches the pupil. The study would find out the level of teacher participation in decision-making process in the basic schools of the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis and suggest ways of solving such issues.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the level of teacher participation in basic school decision-making process in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. It is intended to find the perceptions of teacher participation in basic school decision-making process in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis.

The study will tell the decision-making structures existing in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolitan Basic Schools as well as find out some of the factors associated with teacher participation in school decision-making process. The study will also determine the efforts that are being made to involve teachers in decision-making process in relation to the Internally Generated Fund of the Basic Schools in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolitan Schools.

Research Question

The following questions will guide the study:

1. What is the structure of the decision-making process in basic schools in the Shama Ahanta East?
2. What is the level of participation of teachers in decision making process in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolitan Basic Schools?
3. What are some of the factors that influence teacher participation in decision-making process?
4. In what ways does teacher participation in decision-making affect teacher job-satisfaction in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolitan Basic Schools?

Significance of the Study

This study will be of great educational significance. First, the study will help policy makers to make policies binding teachers in their professional issues. It will also help unearth the level of teacher participation in basic school decision-making process so that the issue could be addressed in the Shama Ahanta-East Metropolis.

It will serve as a body of knowledge for head teachers on the decision-making process in the basic schools in the Shama Ahanta-East Metropolis. The findings, recommendations and suggestions of the study will serve as a basis for further research for others to study.

Delimitation of the Study

This research is restricted to only basic school teachers in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. It is also restricted to all the basic school head teachers in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. It is restricted again to basic school teachers who have taught in a particular school for more than a year. It is however, restricted to the decision-making process in the basic schools in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis.

Decision-making is also delimited to areas such as: structure of decision making process, perception towards teacher participation and teacher participation and job satisfaction in decision making process in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis.

Limitation

The instrument though piloted and sharpened, some respondents could have had some difficulty in understanding what was exactly asked. Some could have exaggerated in their responses especially with the use of the Likert type scale instrument.

Operational Definition of Terms

- (1) **Decision-Making.** A term applied to the process of making human choices from a number of identified alternatives. Its scope generally

covers an interaction of participants in the determination and execution of a choice or decision as well as the logical, illogical and chance behaviour of all the people involved in the process.

- (2) **Actual Level of Participation.** This is the effectiveness of the present state of teacher participation in influencing decision-making as opposed to what it should be as outlined in the status of the basic schools.
- (3) **Perception.** The awareness, understanding or conception that one has about one's relationship to an idea, object or phenomenon as measured by respondents' reactions to given indicators.
- (4) **Ghana Education Service.** A body in charge of education that is teaching and learning of students.
- (5) **Administrator.** Someone whose job is to manage a business, organization or institution such as a school.
- (6) **Participation.** The act of taking part or having a share in an activity or event.
- (7) **Institution.** Large organization where people are provided with help, work, medical treatment, protection such as a school (Public or Private) or a hospital (For those ill in body or mind).

Organization of the Chapters

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter one is the introductory aspect of the study. It discusses the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study.

Chapter two deals with review of related literature. The views, findings and suggestions made by earlier researchers on the related topics of the study are viewed to support or refute the findings raised in the study.

The methodology of the work is treated in chapter three. The fourth chapter considers the analysis and discussion of data collected. Finally, chapter five gives the summary, the findings, presents conclusions and offers suggestions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This work is about teacher participation in decision-making in schools.

To help understand and also to give an insight into the study, a review of related literature having bearing on the study was done. The review of literature is under the following headings:

1. Theories of decision-making
2. Factors affecting teacher participation in decision-making
3. Structure and mode of decision-making
4. Perception towards teacher participation in decision-making
5. Teacher participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction

Theories of Decision-Making

So many great educationalists, administrators, researchers and others like MacGregor (1960) have put down their findings, observations and researches as far as administration and management are concerned. These authorities have proposed some theories and their assumptions. The first among these theories is Theory X (work – centred approach). This theory is a group of assumptions that results in what is referred to as the traditional or classical approach to organizations. Below are the assumptions of Theory X (work – centredness):

1. Work, if not downright distasteful, is an onerous chore to be performed in order to survive.
2. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.
3. Because of these human characteristics of dislike for work, most people get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
4. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility and has relatively little ambition. He wants security above all.

Briefly, this theory of work-centredness states that, there is no intrinsic satisfaction in work, that humans avoid it as much as possible, that positive direction is needed to achieve organizational goals and that workers possess little ambition or originality. The role of the individual worker is that of a cog in a machine. He is to be directed, coerced, if need be, and controlled so that he will put forth the effort necessary for the achievement of organizational goal. There is little encouragement of self-development and advancement.

Another school of thought also proposed a theory with some assumptions known as theory Y. Below are the assumptions:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as normal as play does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction or a source of dissatisfaction.

2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g. the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed towards organizational objectives.
4. The average human learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility: lack of ambition and emphasis on security are general consequences of experience, and not inherent human characteristics.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed.
6. Under the conditions of modern individual life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

To sum up, this theory is an approach to organizational problems that emphasize human relations and result in an organization characterized as participative. This theory regards the individual as an integral member of a group and contributing to the success of that group; thus the need arises for maximizing the ambition of each member of the group by encouraging individual growth and development. Unlike the theory X where the supervisor is a vital link in a chain of command and an agent of higher authority who only directs, controls,

punishes, theory Y replaces authority with the concept of acceptance and replaces power with persuasion and participation. He works with a group, as he is a member of it. There is another theory with its assumptions namely Theory Z, but as this theory is not going to be of great importance to this study, we are limiting the review to only the above theories.

The administrative tasks and processes are many, therefore the review is going to cover only the areas that will be relevant to the research to be made under the following specific Sub-headings.

1. Decision - Making
2. Structure and mode of decision-making process in the educational system.
3. Perceptions towards teacher participation in school decision-making process.
4. Teacher participation in decision-making and job satisfaction.

Decision-Making

Kinard (1988), states that whenever a decision must be made, the administrators need to decide whether to make it personally or to involve other people. He says, to a great extent, the nature of a problem and the impacts of the decision determine whether the administrator will be individualistic or participative. Below are some questions that Kinard suggests to shape administrators' decision-making style.

- a. Will the group generate a quality decision?
- b. Will my decision be accepted by the group?

- c. Can the group offer information of which I am unaware?
- d. How does the group view its role in decision making?
- e. How quickly must a decision be made?
- f. How is the group affected by the decision?
- g. What impact will the decision make in the group?

Kinard (1988) further says, every manager or administrator should be aware of both the benefits and the shortcomings of any case before he decides. Studies also prove that more correct decisions do come from participative decision-making but individuals make decisions more quickly. He says again that studies have proved that the sociability of group members appears to be related to performance. For example, group members who interact regularly have levels of output than to those who isolate themselves from social interaction. The medium-sized groups (five to eleven members) tend to produce more accurate decisions than smaller or larger groups. Peretomode (1991) states that administrators should involve teachers, parents, students, central office supervision, or others as appropriate to capitalize on any special insights and expertise they may be able to contribute. Others also hold the view that leaders should exhibit consideration, support their employee ideas and frequently allow them to participate in decision-making.

Decision-making is defined to identify and select a course of action to deal with a specific problem or take advantage of an opportunity and at the same time it is a process of choosing one alternative from among a set of potentially feasible

alternatives, which need re-examining and evaluation. It would be far better for a decision to be participative as stated by Kinard (1988).

Teachers in successful schools viewed shared decision-making to be a natural part of the school structure, even if “Successful School Improvement Programme” (SSIP) was no longer formally in operation. Teachers felt empowered and more satisfied with outcomes that were decided by all staff. They felt ownership of the decision and “found group decision more long lasting. Decisions that are made in an autocratic method are usually not supported by all.

In many of the unsuccessful schools the decision to become involved in SSIP was not made as a staff decision. In many instances the project was commenced without any formal opportunity to decide. Furthermore, once the project commenced, the focus for improvement tended to be on conditions that were not internal to the pedagogy of teaching and learning. Instead, the school staff tended to focus on environmental issues and issues that centred on student behaviour. In essence, in the less successful schools there were no clearly established procedures for making decisions. Although SSIP called for collaborative and shared decision-making processes, these were never clearly established.

Teachers in successful schools also indicated that the shared decision-making process or agenda from school-wide concerns were necessary. As well, they suggested that once shared decision-making became a cultural norm, decisions that did not follow that route were easily and quickly identified and

questioned for their legitimacy. In both these instances, the process of making decisions was defended and renewed in day-to-day occurrences in the school.

Effective leaders clearly delineated the areas in which their staff did not have jurisdiction; the length of the school year, for example, was off limits. Our principal from a somewhat successful school suggested a clear distinction be made between whether an item presented to staff was for discussion or decision. Another reported that he had a final say in work allotments, negotiations with central office, teacher supervision, and student discipline, but all other decisions were collaborative. A third principal stated that, once the rules were established, they had to be followed; there could be no waffling on teacher's rights to make decisions.

In typical faculty meetings a designated individual (usually the principal) presents an issue for discussion, vocal members of the faculty present their opinions, and then the full faculty votes. Most teachers feel left out, under represented, and silenced Erb (1987). Often in schools with interdisciplinary teams, teachers are given topics for all school decision-making before the scheduled faculty or governance board meeting and teams then provide input twofold. First, they have greater amounts of time to think and discuss issues before they come to a final decision Erb (1987), Leithwood & Aiken, (1995) and Merenbloom, (1991). Second, the team approach allows more informal participation in the decision-making process because greater access to data and supporting information is also usually available Kruse (1994). The processing of information and data is, of course, central to the notion of organizational learning

Kessel, (1996). Teams may also permit teachers to focus their decision-making energies in the most productive ways. Johnson (1990), Marks and Louis (1995), and Marks, Louis, and Park (1996) for example, argue that teachers obtain the greatest satisfaction from empowerment that policy setting that is not directly related to these issues may have little impact on satisfaction.

The decision-making process is a complex phenomenon and, due to its reliance on human involvement, is subject to factors which are not under the control of the organization. Individuals involved in the process possess different preferences, interests, expertise, experience, and need disposition. Lipham, Hensen & Culbertson (1974) defined decision making as a process in which “awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives among which a choice is made, based on perceived outcomes states of the system” p.125. They identified three dimensions in the decision-making process namely, decision stages – how a decision is made, decision content – what a decision deals with and decision involvement – who participated in making a decision.

Independent variables: zone of acceptance, and decision conditions conceptualized an area of decision content in which subordinates had little or no interest. He called this area the zone of indifference and maintained that subordinates accepted purely administrative decisions in this area. Others have developed models, which incorporated and extended Barnard (1938) zone of indifference. Each contended that principals should not involve teachers in every decision; rather, administrators should determine teachers’ zones of indifference

by applying a “test of relevance” (interest) and a “test of expertise” (knowledge). The combined levels of interest and expertise suggest whether or not a decision is within the teachers’ zone of indifference and, thus, aid administrators in determining when and to what extent teachers should be involved in the decision-making process. The basic premise of these models is that as the principal involves teachers in making decisions located in their zone of indifference, involvement will be less effective. Also, as the principal involves teacher in making decisions located outside their zones of indifference, involvement will be more effective. Thus, effective involvement of teachers in school decision making requires that principals determine which issues are located in teachers’ zones of indifference and which issues are not.

Besides varying involvement throughout the process, involvement may vary by issue. Involvement in decision making has been examined in relation to Parsons technical (operational at the teacher level) and managerial (school wide in scope) domains indicating that teachers desire greater involvement in technical issues than in managerial issues and that the desire to participate is not evenly distributed throughout the organization. Conley (1989) in reviewing various perspectives regarding teacher involvement within decision domains, noted that technical and managerial decision domains are related but conceptually distinct constructs, and each implies a different orientation of teacher involvement in decision making. She concluded that little attention has been placed on specifying the decisions in which teachers are expected to become involved.

The second aspect of decision involvement concerns how often an individual or group should be involved in the decision-making process. Alutto and Belasco (1973) explored this question by investigating the relationships of the extent of decision involvement to job satisfaction and found that denial of involvement in decision issues of importance resulted in lower levels of satisfaction. Their work relied on a discrepancy measure which assumed a continuum of involvement and led to the formation of three conditions:

1. Decision deprivation, involvement in fewer decisions than desired;
2. Decision equilibrium, involvement in as many decisions as desired;
3. Decision saturation, involvement in more decisions than desired.

In Alutto and Belasco's (1973) study, teachers in the decision condition of saturation scored higher in their perception of the system than those in the condition of deprivation, but not as high as those in equilibrium. These findings suggested the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between decision involvement and job satisfaction. Conway (1976) examined this relationship and found minor support for the curvilinear relationship. Conway's research marked the beginning of the use of the degree of involvement, rather than the measure of involvement or non-involvement.

The original study on which this replication was based also found that a significant relationship existed between levels of teacher involvement and job satisfaction. However, Schneider (1986) opined that conditions of equilibrium and saturation were not found to exist. Deprivation (desired involvement exceeding actual involvement) was reported across all decision issues. Furthermore,

Schneider (1984) found that teachers reported higher levels of deprivation in managerial than in technical decision issues. This finding was confirmed in a latter analysis when Schneider extending the work of Alutto and Belasco (1973) and Conway (1976) investigated the curvilinear relationship between the level of decision involvement and job satisfaction in her synthesis of three studies which covered elementary, middle/junior and senior high levels. These studies found that a moderately strong linear relationship between respondents' decision condition and job satisfaction existed at all three school levels.

In each study, fewer than 5 percent of the respondents were either at a point of equilibrium or in a condition of saturation. Generally, the point of saturation had not been reached and a general condition of decision deprivation existed among teachers.

Mohrman, Cooke & Mohrman (1995) investigated teachers' involvement in decision- making in relation to Parson's two organizational domains: technical and managerial. Using this multi-dimensional approach, these researchers found that teachers reported a higher level of actual and desired involvement in the technical domain than in the managing domain. These findings suggested that managerial issues fall inside teachers' zones of acceptance, while technical issues fall outside teachers' zone of acceptance. Schneider (1986) also found that teachers reported low levels of actual involvement and high levels of desired involvement in managerial issues, particularly in those issues pertaining to determining procedures to be used for teacher evaluation, selecting departmental chairpersons or team leaders, evaluating subject departments or teams, hiring new

faculty members, setting and revising school goals, and establishing school-wide policies.

Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley and Bauer (2004) argued that a multi-domain evaluative approach should be used to examine teacher participation in decision-making. They devised a four domain (strategic-organizational, strategic-individual, operational-organizational, and operation-individual evaluative) (respondent's self-reported degree of participation) framework for their study. They investigated the relationship between decision participation (decision deprivation/saturation) in each domain and four affective work outcomes: job satisfaction, role ambiguity, role conflict, and organizational goal commitment, and found that areas of decision deprivation could be identified. They supported the determination of specific strategies to increase teacher involvement in specific decision issues.

The question of why management, or administrative leaders, shared decision-making has found answers in a combination of factors. These factors range from attempts to co-op workers into better compliance to a genuine desire to reach higher productivity through a more informed and wiser decision-making process as a result of empowered workers. The question of why workers, or in this case, teachers, participate in decision-making is more problematic. Here two parts of perspective identifying 'factors' affect teacher participation in decision-making. Second, these factors are discussed as 'continuums' of decision-making in school. In this regard an attempt to provide a better answer to the question of why teachers participate in decision-making in schools is important.

Factors Affecting Teacher Participation in Decision-Making

The historical discussions of participation in decision-making centers on many considerations. The main motivation was to increase productivity, more and better goods from a factory, or higher student achievement from more satisfied teachers in schools. Given the context of more recent events and the literature on leadership it also needs to be discussed why ‘teachers’ choose to exercise leadership in the context of shared decision-making. Part of the answer to this question can be framed historically from the literature as factors affecting teacher participation in shared decision-making.

These factors show didactic motivations from rules for the inclusion or exclusion of teachers in decision-making to more meaningful belief in teacher empowerment. Typically, the traditional idea of management which involved deciding when and who to include was seen in Bridges (1967) view that leaders needed to administer tests of relevance and expertise in order to determine the “zones of indifference”.

1. Zone of Indifference: Test of relevance using expertise and relevance
Increased satisfaction and better implementation of decisions. Bridges (1967).
 - Decisional Deprivation levels of equilibrium to saturation variation of levels in participation to increase satisfaction Belasco & Alutto, (1973).
 - Zone of Acceptance range of acceptance decision involvement form clearly acceptance to clearly unacceptable Increase satisfaction, greater commitment, better decision (Kunz and Hoy, 1976).

2. Alienation: Measure of perceived influence on decision-making; alienation related to sense of efficacy increase sense of empowerment and self-efficacy Benson & Molone (1987).
3. Contested Ground: Political negotiated areas of shared decision-making classroom to administrative redistribution of decision-making areas, better decision (Conley 1991).
4. Empowerment: Measure of actual influence in decision-making from empowerment, involved, engaged to disengaged, increase sense of efficacy for low impact teacher (disempowered).
5. Commitment of Change capacity beliefs: Personal goals, capacity and context belief, and emotional arousal process greater commitment to decisions and synthesis of individual and organizational goals (Leithwood and Jantzi 1998).

Further to this was a shift to better understand the motivations of teachers as raised by Benson and Malone (1987) in their discussion of “alienation” and a teacher’s sense of his/her ability to act on decisions, or efficacy. The aim was to motivate teachers, mostly at the behest of administrators, to achieve organizational imperatives. That teachers shaped organizations as active participants while sometimes acknowledgement was not overly apparent.

More recent assertions in the shared decision-making literature suggested that teachers must do more than simply participate. Teachers provide leadership. Thus it seemed obvious that teachers need to be empowered to do this (Taylor and Tashakkori, 1997). The evidence suggested that teachers, acting as leaders, had a

greater commitment to change (Leithwood and Jantzi 1998). Shared decision-making was seen as a means for teachers to lead in the school and beyond the classroom. Such extended influence and involvement enhanced commitment to systematic change as it enabled a more empowered and efficacious teachers (Smylie,1992). Thus, sharing or participating in decision-making in its historical context had shifted its focus to empowering teachers to lead, not simply co-opting them into becoming better followers. For school administrators and teachers, this had implications. Schlechty (1990) pointed out that school administrators in the future must see themselves as “leaders of leaders”.

The Structure and Mode of Decision-Making

Existing in the Educational System

Decision-making structure or mode of decision-making could be defined as the method an organization adopts in arriving at decisions. Effective participation in decision-making presupposes the existence of decision-making structures. Asare-Bediako (1990) in an article “Management today” identifies five types of structures that a group can adopt in formulation of decisions. First, he talks of “decision-making by authority”, which refers to the case where someone in authority makes decisions for the group. “Decision by majority” is the second type, and this refers to the approach where the members of a group freely express their views on a given issue, with the majority feeling taken as the decision. Next, there is ‘Decision by Minority’ which describes the situation where a single person or a small group of people takes a decision for a larger group. Another type of decision-making structure, ‘Decision by Unanimity’,

which he argues is the ideal type, occur where every group member truly agrees on the decision to be taken. Finally, Asare-Bediako refers to “consensus decision-making” structure as one in which there is a lot of discussions, so that “group members who do not favour the majority alternative nevertheless understand it clearly and are prepared to support it”

The school-based decision-making council has become a linchpin in the school restructuring efforts in the state of Kentucky (Conley and Goldman, 1995). The membership of these councils, dictated by the Kentucky Education Reform Act, typically includes the principal, three teachers, and two parents. Such an organizational structure aligns with what (Cunningham and Gresso, 1993, p. 54) call a vertical team. “The purpose of the vertical team is to allow for the important exchange of information among individuals who share a common purpose but operate on different levels (of the organization) and who thus have very different organizational perspectives”. This purpose has emerged in response to the perceived ineffectiveness of leadership derived from the traditional top-down hierarchical model of school governance that has either ignored, or been isolated from, information from lower levels of the organization.

Leadership has been broadly defined as “influence processes affecting the interpretation of events for the (school), the choice of objectives for the (school), the motivation of (teachers and students) to achieve the objectives, (and) the maintenance of cooperative relationships and teamwork” (Yukl, 1994, p. 5). By bringing additional voice into the leadership of the school, power and influence are distributed among individuals who had traditionally assumed more passive

decision-making roles. Such a change in roles may produce conflict. The study examines the power bases of the principal and council-member influence on decision making as they relate to the amount of conflict experienced by principals, teachers, and parents because of their participation in the processes of a school-based, decision-making council. Its purpose is to gain an understanding of the consequences of replacing one form of leadership with another that forsakes traditional role experiences and expectations between levels of an established organizational structure.

Shanahan (1987) investigated the extent to which school heads use participative management and also assessed their success. The study indicated that a high number of school heads used participative decision-making at least in some areas of responsibility such as establishing class-room disciplinary policies, determining appropriate teaching method and maintaining discipline in the school. Shanahan's study confirmed that the use of participative decision-making structure increased commitment and greater co-operation. He also found that heads would be receptive to learn how best to apply participative decision-making structure, on whom to apply and when it can be best used. School size was found to be the variable which seemed to influence the use of participative decision-making structure, on whom to apply and when it can be best used. School size was found to be the variable that seemed to influence the use of participative decision-making structure. For example, large school size was found to inhibit active participation whereas small school size was found to promote it.

Anderson (1996) in a similar study found out the factors which were associated with the efforts of the principals to increase teacher participation in administration. He found that most heads did not use collective decision-making structure in the area of personnel practices. However, in situations directly related to class-room activities, majority of heads used collective or joint participation or gave teachers complete autonomy in making the decisions.

Eventhough, Shanahan (1987) and Anderson (1996) used different sample sizes and subjects for their study, their conclusions were the same. Shanahan's study had only heads as subjects but Arnold used heads and teachers. The researchers identified three characteristics of decision-making structures in schools. They were: collective decision-making, consultative decision-making and "one man" decision-making.

Puckett (1974) collected information about the extent and the means by which teachers in Ohio public middle schools were involved in decision-making at the school level. Heads were asked to provide insight into their beliefs about areas appropriate for teacher involvement and plans they might have had for increasing or decreasing such participation in the future. The data collected was used to provide a general description of the current status of teacher participation in decision-making in the Ohio public middle schools. Besides, the study also intended to show the future trends in participation as perceived by the head. The data collected was again compared with existing professional literature on participation and decision-making as developed theoretically and as reported by practitioners in education and certain related social sciences. Teachers were not

very much involved in the decision-making process. On the basis of the findings, it was recommended that mechanics for decision-making in Ohio State schools should be improved by providing avenues for effective teacher participation. This recommendation indicates that there are some forms of decision-making structures such as collective or joint decision-making in the educational setting which need improvement.

A survey among San Francisco school heads by (Johnson, 1996) confirmed the existence of collective decision-making structures in schools. It was observed that school heads did not need to fear that expanded teacher influence would undermine their work. It was further explained that teachers showed interest in collective work structures in school because it helped them develop professionally.

Bennet (1987) found out that the mode of decision-making at the school depends on the style of leadership at the Central Office outside the school. He investigated the way heads' perceptions of certain conditions and practices at the Central Office level were related to the methods the heads used to involve teachers on their staff in the decision-making process. One hundred and twenty primary and secondary school heads were asked to describe the decision-making mode that best characterized the way instructional decisions were made in their schools on a continuum, which ranged from "boss centred" to "subordinate centred". It was found out that a positive relationship existed between the head's allocation of decisional power and the head's perception of the leadership at the central office.

Even though, Bennet (1987) was concerned with broader concept, his views are pertinent to the purpose of this study. The power to make day-to-day educational decisions seems to be concentrated at the Central Office. In view of this, staff participation in certain decisions involving managerial and operational matters is reduced to the minimum level in some schools. Smylie (1992) expressed similar view by stating that quality decisions would evolve from group participation when all alternatives were put together for the best to be selected.

It is in the light of the above that Vroom and Yetton (1973) argued that leadership behaviour which conformed to group involvement in decision-making, was likely to be more effective than one which rejected it. They stated that disagreement could be better understood and resolved through collective decision-making. They further added that if leaders resorted to discussing problems individually with staff members, the understanding of the full range of alternatives was not likely to be realized.

It is clear from the above review that a wide range of authors agree that collective decision-making leads to higher quality decisions and greater acceptance of decisions than decisions reached by individual administrators without the participation of those affected by the decisions. Young (1984) emphasized the involvement of teachers in the process of educational decisions. He said, "If they are regarded as passive recipients of the latest gospel, it is no wonder they shrug their shoulders and carry on in the same way as before".

Perception Towards Teacher Participation in School

Decision-Making Process

People who are concerned with the education enterprise in one way or the other strive for more effective management and efficiency. School administrators saw teachers as inexperienced and therefore lacked the necessary knowledge for making managerial and operational decisions that could steer the school in the right direction. Teachers were therefore deprived of the opportunity to take part in certain decision-making at the school level.

Collaboration is increasingly extolled as an important feature in the management of excellent schools. Plans to restructure schools are developed to foster greater use of democratic processes. School administrators are therefore encouraged to include teachers and parents in their decision making for key organizational decisions (Glickman, 1993). Hoy and Tarter (1992) argues that teachers, are increasingly being admonished to move away from traditional norms of isolation and autonomy toward greater collaboration.

Despite the enthusiasm at a theoretical level, the results of attempts to implement collaborative decision making have been disappointing (Louis and Kruse, 1995). They further explained that shared decision-making may be undertaken for different reasons. Examining the goals of decision-makers may help explain the kinds of results that have been achieved. In schools, shared decision-making has typically been undertaken in order to increase the satisfaction, loyalty, and decision acceptance of teachers and parents at large. The general lack of effectiveness of participation reported in the literature may be

derive from the fact that teachers and parents have not felt that their participation was genuine. They were not exercising control over decisions that were relevant and important to them. Griffith (1996) opines that when the influence relationships in a school remain unchanged, the benefits of collaborative processes will go largely unrealized.

There is little evidence that school-based management influence relationships, renews school organizations or develops qualities of academically effective school. School-based management involvement in decision-making does not appear to substantially alter the policy-making influence of site participants generally. The influence of principals and teachers influence professionals and patrons (Duke, Showers and Imber, 1980). They continued that Principals seem to be reluctant to extend genuine influence to teachers and parents, perhaps assuming that they do not have the expertise to make valuable contributions or because they do not trust them to make decisions in the best interest of the school. Duke et al (1980) further explained that teachers may be resentful of the time they invest when they perceive that their actual influence is limited. Teacher respondents in a nationwide survey indicated that previous participation had afforded them little real influence and hence they had grown skeptical about future participation. Nonetheless, teachers asserted that they should be more involved in school and district decision making, especially with respect to issues directly affecting their immediate teaching responsibilities (Bacharach et al., 2004).

Recent calls for collaboration seem to be pressing for more genuine sharing of decision-making authority, where principals and teachers make decisions jointly. Higher quality decisions are the goals of this more genuine form of collaboration. Teachers and parents are viewed as having valuable knowledge and insights to contribute to decisions and consequently are given actual influence over the outcome of decisions. Not only are better quality decisions possible, but greater motivation and commitment on the part of teachers is often the result.

Principals in excellent schools value the perceptions and insights of their teachers and make skilful use of these resources in solving the problems facing the schools (Leitwood and Aikens, 1995). They iterated that expert principals know how to construct process with potential benefits of higher quality decisions and greater ownership and implementation of decisions, but it also can be costly in terms of time and energy, with no guarantee that potential benefits will be realized. Principals are more likely to reap the benefits of participation when the process is carefully structured to include teachers in decisions that matter to them, and when their knowledge and expertise lead to real changes in the outcome. When an administrator only pretends to be interested in their input, teachers are likely to become disillusioned with involvement.

Clearly, it would be unmanageable and counter-productive to try to include every teacher in every decision faced by a school. Hoy and Tarter (1992) have developed a model to guide administrators in issues of who to include in decision-making. It is based on the proposition that there are some decisions that

subordinates will accept without question because they are indifferent to them. These decisions are said to be in their zone of acceptance (Barnard,1938). Subordinates do not need to be involved in decisions of this kind, and in fact may resent giving up time for participation they perceive as unnecessary or meaningless. In other decisions, however, subordinates want to be involved because they have a personal stake in the outcome of the decisions and they have expertise to contribute to the solution (Hoy and Tarter, 1992).

In a school setting, when decisions fall outside teachers' zone of acceptance, involving them in decision making will increase the likelihood that the decision will be accepted. If teachers have a stake in a decision but no real expertise to add, then the principal may include them, but should structure the process as an apprenticeship so that teachers can see the appropriate expertise modeled and begin to construct a conceptual map of the factors involved. If a teacher has expertise but no stake in a particular decision, he or she can be asked to share that expertise as a consultant, but full involvement in the final decision is not necessary (Tarter and Hoy and Bliss, 1989).

According to this model, when teachers have both a stake and expertise in a decision domain they should have extensive involvement in decision making. Whether teachers should share in full decision-making authority, however, depends on whether or not the principal trusts that they are committed to organizational goals. If organizational goals are not shared throughout the faculty then a principal will want to involve teachers but maintain final decision-making authority lest decisions be co-opted by self-interest. Constructing a shared

problem-solving process may give the teachers the opportunity to be guided through a process in which organizational goals are made explicit. When possible solutions are evaluated in light of overarching goals and key values it may result in a greater sharing of those goals. If teachers can be trusted in their commitment to organizational goals, then Hoy and Tarter (1992) suggest a situation of full collaboration exists and principals should share their decision authority with other participants. In order to extend not just token participation but genuine decision-making authority to teachers, principals must trust teachers' intentions and their capabilities.

Blase (1990) says some teachers would like greater participation while others do not want to be involved. It therefore becomes the responsibility of the educational administrator to find out the capabilities and interests of individuals on his staff and assign them their desired level of participation. This is very necessary because both over involvement and under-involvement in the decision-making process may affect the teacher's attitude to work in different ways.

The school in Africa, which were established, by the missionaries and the colonial governments followed almost the same trend of autocratic administration. Jo-Ann (1998) observed that the Schools in British West Africa are the exact copy of the English system of education. Like the British educational system, the administrators of the African schools are state employees at the helm of affairs and they dictate to teachers and ignore their contribution and participation in the administration of the school.

The schools in Africa and other third world nations are undergoing rapid structural changes. In Ghana, for an example, currently, there is the government policy of decentralization. There is also the educational reform policy. The implementation of such policies would bring in its train a policy of devolution, which would significantly enhance the opportunities for teachers to become actively involved in the affairs of the school. This is likely to shift the focus of education from the Central Office to the Community level. Even though educational administrators will continue to play the central role in the life of the schools, special emphasis will certainly be placed on co-operation and consultation with the staff (conley,1988).

Denys (1980) states that, Board of Governors in American schools was at one time strongly opposed to the idea of teachers' participation in educational decisions at even the local level. It was believed that teacher participation contravened the boards' constitutional rights. This situation led to the development of different perceptions and attitude among the general public towards teacher participation in the affairs of the school. Parents thought that the teacher was trained to teach and nothing else. Administrators of educational institutions saw decision-making as their sole prerogative delegated to them by the Board of governors. In effect teachers were restricted to certain technical decisions.

Keef (1976) studied the role of teachers in school decision-making from class 1 Montana School District. The analysis of the data confirmed that significant differences existed among teachers, principals and Board members'

perceptions of teachers' involvement in school decision-making. Teachers perceived that they should be given the opportunity to get involved in all types of school decisions while administrators perceived that teachers should be involved fully in only instructional decisions. The Board of governors would like teachers to be involved in neither operational nor managerial decision.

A similar study was conducted by Merrit (1987) to examine the differences in perceptions of parents, teachers and clerical staff of their concept of shared governance in a selected urban school district of Southern Mississippi. A fifty-item shared governance opinion was used to collect data from five hundred and seventy teachers, clerical staff and parents. From the analysis of the data, the following conclusions were arrived at:

- a) There was a significant difference in the perception of shared governance among teachers' school principals, the clerical staff and parents.
- b) There was no significance in perceptions when teachers and principals were grouped into primary or secondary schools.
- c) There was a significant difference in perceptions of principals when categorized by gender and age.

The central feature of the above two studies is that people related to the educational enterprise and the general public differ in their attitude and perceptions of teacher participation in administration processes.

Richardson (1979) studied heads and teachers' attitudes and perceptions towards the implementation of school based shared decision-making in an urban school setting at Perdue. He reported that the attitude of head teachers regarding

the process of shared decision-making and their perceptions of areas for teacher participation did not differ significantly. He further observed that teachers indicated significantly less agreement than heads as to how the shared decision-making process was functioning in their schools. Principals were however found to be more in favour of the following:

1. Teachers having input in decisions.
2. Teachers having input in getting goals and priorities.
3. The heads/principals supporting the process, and
4. Teachers being provided with enough information to make decisions.

Despite the slight difference in the conclusion drawn from the above, it confirms that teachers and heads do not have the same perceptions concerning teacher participation in school administration and therefore their attitudes differ with regard to the involvement of teachers in school administration process.

A study conducted in New Jersey by Burke (1987) examined teachers' perceptions of their involvement in decision-making within a particular school district. One hundred and two teachers were randomly selected to respond to questionnaire showing their "desired" and "actual" levels of participation in fifteen decision-making areas. In addition to this, fifteen teachers were interviewed on their perceptions and participation opportunities available in the school district. Analysis of data indicated that particular level for both "desired" and "actual" was greatest for technical decisions and least for executive-managerial decisions. Again "actual" and "desired" participation in instructional decisions were not found to relate to any demographical factors like sex, age and

experience. It was also found out that the teachers who had stayed in the school for a longer period, those who were regular at staff meetings and those who lived in close proximity to the school participated more in operational and managerial decisions. Furthermore, it was observed that the desire for participation in operational decisions was higher for teachers with more experience. The study also indicated that male teachers participated more in executive managerial decisions than female teachers did.

Tamburo (1987) sampled one hundred and fifty-three primary school teachers in the Onodaga county area of New York and explored their perceptions of the actual and preferred participation in twelve school level decisional situations. The study aimed at examining the areas such as:

1. The extent of teacher participation in twelve decisional situation;
2. The degree of actual participation through a range of forms;
3. The preferred involvement in twelve decisional situations; and,
4. The relative importance of the decisional situation;

The findings showed that teachers desired more participation than they actually had the opportunity for all the twelve decisional situations. Moreover, teachers rated instructional (technical) decisions are more important than operational or managerial decisions. It was further observed that differences occurred between gender and level of experience for decisions considered to be operational and executive or managerial. For example, male teachers participate more than female teachers did in operational and managerial decisions. The findings of Burke (1987) and Tamburo (1987) generally indicated that teachers

perceived participation in instructional decisions to be relatively more important to them than operational or managerial decisions.

Factors associated with teachers participation in school administration in twenty-six schools in Victoria State of Australia is examined by Chapman (1988). Five hundred and thirteen teachers provided data through questionnaire. Another set of forty-four were interviewed. Data analyses indicated that teacher involvement was associated with factors such as age, gender, seniority and teaching experience.

Chapman's (1990) also confirmed the results of Burke (1987) and Tamburo (1987) that male teachers were more desirous to be involved in operational decisions than female teachers. It also confirmed that teachers with child rearing responsibilities and those who stay far away from the school campus were less desirous to be involved in certain school related decisions.

Holmes (1986) studied personal variables affecting the British head-teachers' perceptions towards teacher participation in school site decision-making. Particular biographical factors like sex, age, status, and length of service and school size were examined separately. It was found out that each of the factors had some influence on the desire of teachers to get involved in administrative process but the extent of the influence could not be determined. It was therefore concluded that many factors affect the desire of teachers to be involved in the administrative process.

Even though Chapman (1988) and Holmes (1986) differed on methodology (Chapman used questionnaire and interviews while Holmes used Library search), their findings generally agreed on the following that:

1. Teachers differed in their desire to be involved in school decision-making.
2. Many factors affect teachers' desire for participation in school decision-making.

The apparent consensus in the conclusion drawn by the literature reviewed is that there is no uniformity in teachers' desire to be involved in the decision-making process. This is due to the fact that teachers' perceptions of their participation in school decision-making vary. Furthermore, owing to professionalism in teaching teachers rate technical or instructional decisions as relatively more important to them than other decisional situations. Finally, the desire of teachers to participate in the school decision-making depends on the leadership style of the school principal.

Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making and Job Satisfaction

It is generally considered that the success of any human endeavor is closely related to the quality of the personnel that perform tasks necessary to the achievement of organizational goals, as well as conditions that affect their physical and mental well being. This assumption which concerns the role of human resource development in organization is as applicable to school systems as it is to any organized human effort. As noted by Likert(1961), "of all the resources at the disposal of organizations it is only people who can grow and develop and be motivated to achieve certain ends" (p.1). This is why teachers

occupy a central and vital position in any educational system and as such, their attitudes and problems have been of paramount interest not only to educational authorities and practitioners but also many researchers.

Indeed, Article 23 section 3 of the United Nations Universal Declaration on Human Rights stipulates that it is the right of everyone who works to have a just and favourable remuneration that will ensure for him and his family, an existence worthy of human dignity (The United Nations, 1998). Job satisfaction as a critical factor influencing the participation in the management of organizations, motivates employees to stay on the job and give their best. Herzberg (1987) argued along similar lines. According to him, extrinsic motivators were not enduring so he advocated for job enrichment programmes such as genuine participation of staff in the decision-making process.

McGregor (1960) pointed out that employee participation in decision-making is among the range of key success-factors for productive improvement. The effect of this technique he argued was increased satisfaction, commitment and confidence in organizations.

Alluto and acito (1974) argued that increased participation in decision-making was associated with greater job satisfaction, work achievement and personal integration in the organization. Hey stated in addition that, pseudo-democratic leadership would bring about many disadvantages ranging from apathy to open hostility. This is confirmed by Wilson (1960), who stated that lack of involvement in the decision-making process has led to unconcerned attitude and lack of effective responsibility. It was in line with the above that Terry and

Appealbaum (1988) argued that when teachers are involved in those decisions that affect them, they are more likely to be more satisfied with their job situation and their principal. He continued that the various positions taken by the researchers converge on one thing, that is, among other things, job satisfaction stems from active participation in the decision-making process. Furthermore, organizational effectiveness can be increased if workers are allowed to be involved in decision-making.

A survey conducted in the United States of America, reported that perceived distant participation in decision-making was positively associated with job performance among blue-collar employees. There was significant relationship that existed between participation in decision-making and satisfaction with job in the educational setting. For example, teachers who were in equilibrium participation were more satisfied with their job than those who were in deprived participation. (Lischeron and wall, 1975). They in a another study reported that, primary school teachers who perceived they had high participation in school decision-making as a group showed higher job satisfaction than those who perceived they had low participation. The analysis of the data indicated that teachers who perceived they had high participation in school decision-making were more satisfied with their job. It was concluded on the basis of the findings that there was positive relationship between participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction. Furthermore, it was found that primary school teachers who participated in school decision-making process exhibited more positive relationship towards their heads.

Puckett (1974) investigated into the claim of human relations group of administrators that a relationship existed between participation in decision-making and teacher job satisfaction. It was found out that perceived participation was positively correlated with job satisfaction. A teacher's satisfaction was directly related to the extent to which he was involved in the decision-making process either as an individual or in a group. Teachers' satisfaction on the job increased when the prevailing mode of decision-making was in line with practices most acceptable to the teachers. Teachers' morals and satisfaction are related to participation in planning and formulation of decisions.

In a study conducted by Alluto and Acito (1974) in the United States of America among groups of workers randomly selected from the industrial and educational setting, it was concluded that decisional climate was a major factor influencing employee satisfaction level. Apparently recognizing the potential of participation in decision-making and its effects on job satisfaction, they went on to state specifically that decisional deprived individuals were found to be negative towards their employer, less committed to the job and experienced greater job-related tensions. They were also found to have exhibited less mutual trust and were at the same time less satisfied with their boss.

According to Sugg (1955), democratically organized schools exceed those with authoritarian organization in the variety of programmes and other services. This occurs because staff involvement in management motivates them to give of their best towards the achievement of the organizational objectives. He further emphasized that the connection between decision-making style and a more

positive teacher attitude. The finding of the study showed that a teacher would be more committed to his work when he is actively involved in the decision-making process.

Ejiogu (1983) in his survey of workers orientation conducted in the industrial sector in Nigeria and Algeria respectively revealed overwhelming preference for economic returns rather than intrinsic factors. He concluded that participation in management does not feature prominently in the African work place.

Woode (1985) attributes the apparent indifference to participation in decision-making in Ghana to what he terms “Paternalism” in Ghanaian society. He explains that persons in authority positions behave and are encouraged to behave like uncles, fathers, elders and old men. For instance heads of organization are called “wofa” (uncle) “Numoi” (father) and Togbe (old man) etc, no matter what their age. Ghanaian traditional etiquette expressly forbids one to argue or dispute with one’s elders or social superiors publicly irrespective of the merits of the case. Given this state of affairs, subordinates do not openly challenge authority figures, “not even when they display their finiteness and ignorance in areas obviously beyond their reach.

In the of the above the above, the African worker, and, for that matter, Ghanaians in particular, exhibit inferiority complex of some sort when it comes to sitting in conference with their super-ordinates. In fact, Woode (1985) maintains that this situation accounts for the existence of dictators in several organizations in Ghana. It therefore, becomes clear that the best relationship can exist between

the educational administrator and his staff only if he allows his staff to be involved in the affairs of the school. Many forms of decision-making structures exist in our schools but their existence does not imply that all teachers should be desirous to be involved in school related matters. This stems from the fact that teachers have different perceptions on school decision-making and they do not have the same desire for participation. Staff participation has also got advantages such as ensuring higher quality decisions and greater commitment. There is therefore the need for educational administrators to determine the extent to which their staff members should be involved in the school decision-making process. It is strongly believed that the ability of the school principal to effectively utilize his staff in the school decision-making process will go a long way to affect their behaviour positively towards him, their attitude to work and job satisfaction.

Mumford (1972) outlines a number of approaches used in seeking to explain and enhance job satisfaction. They include the following:

1. The psychological needs approach, which stresses that the central factor in job satisfaction is the extent to which the job satisfies personal needs for security, recognition, affiliation and self-esteem;
2. The approach emphasizing the leadership skills of management in creating circumstances of job satisfaction.
3. The effort – reward bargaining approach that emphasizes the importance of incentives such as salary and job conditions; and
4. the approach that emphasizes the intrinsic nature of the work itself in providing job satisfaction (p.2)

According to Maslow (1954), one of the leading theorists on motivation, human needs can be classified into five major groups arranged in a pyramidal hierarchy beginning from physiological needs to self actualization. It is these needs that motivate human beings to act. Physiological needs have to do with the initial motivation for human beings to satisfy biological demands for food, water, oxygen sleep and exercise. Safety needs come after physiological needs are satisfied. At this stage, the individual is motivated to attend to the niceties of human life. He or she seeks security, stability and a comfortable environment. At the stage of belonging and love, the person desires affectionate relationships with friends and acceptance as a member of a group.

Next are the esteemed needs, where the individual's motivational needs becoming a contributing and leading member of the group. Self-actualization is a culminating human need that comes after the acquisition of self-esteem. Motivation at this stage acts and achieve according to one's own standards, regardless of what others might think. Being true to one's own inclinations becomes the mark of self-actualization.

The two-factor theory postulated by Glickman (1993) harmonizes with Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Based on extensive research over many years, Herzberg found out that there were positive factors that were quite distinct from negative factors that affected job performance. The negative factors that affected teachers who were not involved in decision-making from negative factors that affected job satisfaction were called dissatisfiers while the positive factors were referred to as satisfies or motivators.

Issues often cited to have the tendency to produce negative effects and thus become dissatisfiers are organizational policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, working conditions, job security and interpersonal relations. On the other hand, issues cited often as producing positive effects on performance and hence considered as motivators include the work itself, achievement, and possibility of growth, advancement and responsibility.

Herzberg (1987) noted that elimination of dissatisfiers, which were maintenance or hygiene factors, did not necessarily raise individual performance. Thus, whereas poor working conditions for instance could be a source of irritation to a worker and might make him work less hard, the correction of the situation will not necessarily make him work harder although he will no longer feel dissatisfied. The individual will accept the correction as the way it should have been in the first place. The positive factors that Herzberg called satisfiers did motivate individuals to work harder. For instance, if a teacher is given increased responsibility for making decisions about materials to use in his classroom and is encouraged to modify his teaching lessons to add more topics or projects he believes to be valuable, then he will tend to put more time and energy into improving his performance. Herzberg, therefore, cited satisfiers as the key motivators to improving work performance.

Glickman (1993) refer to attempts to draw out the link between Maslow's theory of motivation and Herzberg's research on hygiene and motivators. The relationship could be viewed by placing Herzberg's factors side by side with Maslow's stages.

Glickman (1993) note that without forcing a perfect one to one correspondence, it is apparent that Herzberg's hygiene factors, which maintain performance, correspond with Maslow's lower level needs. This interaction between hygiene and lower level needs characterizes the teacher's working to find his niche. The individual is learning to perform in an acceptable manner that is officially sanctioned by his peers, technical supervisors, and the formal organization. Herzberg's motivation factors likewise correspond with Maslow's higher stages. The interaction between motivation and higher level needs defines an area in which the teacher is going beyond competence. The individual knows performance is acceptable and now strives for excellence.

Indeed, there is an emotional orientation that every worker carries to his job. This emotional orientation has to do with the individual's general attitude towards the job. This attitude can be an expression of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Managers in all types of organizations are continually faced with the problem of the vast differences in the performance of individual employees. Some employees will perform at higher levels and need little or no direction while others appear to enjoy what attention and direction they get. The reasons for these differences in performance are varied and complex, involving the nature of the job, the behaviour of the manager and the characteristics of the employee. Mussazi (1982) believe that satisfaction has something to do with one's attitude toward an issue. He opines that variables that come together to influence one's satisfaction include, among others things include, the work environment itself, supervision, salary and bonus. The effects of these variables depend on the value

the recipient attaches to them. He also asserts that job dissatisfaction is most often accompanied by negative effects on output. Workers who are dissatisfied with their job most often experience emotional problems. They do not have the happiness to work and this tends to reflect in their day-to-day relations with others. On the other hand, according to him, satisfied employees perform above and beyond the call of duty by doing extra tasks that can help their organization to achieve success. Such workers make positive statement about the organization to outsiders; they avoid wastes, complaints and arguments; they work overtime when needed; they protect fellow employees and organizational property; they are cooperative and do not cause destructive conflicts.

Young (1984) conducted a research on the overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction with jobs of diverse degrees as well as workplace traits of teachers in a public school district in Central California in the United States of America. He found that satisfying factors of teaching have correlation with interactions and success with learners. Dissatisfiers were detected to emanate from conditions that diminished teacher performance. Young concluded that opportunity for creativity, resourcefulness, challenge, and salary earned from teaching and its adequacy are the greatest causal factors in job satisfaction.

Even though job satisfaction has been found to bring about good performance, Smyth (1989) observed from his study that satisfaction does not necessarily lead to high performance. It could also lead to low performance due to complacency. However, he admits that the job satisfaction outlook is a guarantee to high degree of performance, especially in an environment where job

dissatisfiers are present. The social prestige attached to the job rather than how an individual performs, according to Agyemang (1986), acts as a strong variable in determining the individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the job. The status perception of teachers is a very important factor for the effective performance of their job, for it affects their own perception of their personalities in the classroom and also the respect that students may accord them.

Mohrman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1975) perceives job satisfaction to be a multi-dimensional phenomenon which works together to influence one's attitude towards one's work and consequently one's performance. He found out in a study on job satisfaction among teachers in Ghana that, the fulfillment of the personal needs of teachers in a school organization generates job satisfaction among them, while the lack of fulfillment of these needs brings about dissatisfaction. He stresses that if educational authorities in Ghana wish to see that their teachers are satisfied with teaching, then in addition to fostering role agreement, the authorities should ensure that the personal needs of the teachers are met in their schools.

The policy document of the Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP) emphasizes that the motivation of teachers should not be trivialized if quality improvement in basic education is to be ensured (Ghana Education Service, 1996). Teacher job satisfaction is, indeed, very important since it helps the teachers to work conscientiously and enthusiastically to produce the needed and qualified manpower for the nation. This is why the teacher's role in development is imperative. Rice and Schneider (1994) adding their voice to

the discussion maintains that, quality education does not lie in handsome or quality ideas and programmes but rather it depends on the availability of qualified teachers and their preparedness to offer quality teaching. They agreed with other researchers that teachers are of immense importance for development and socio-cultural progress. They further explained teachers can crush the threat of abject poverty, ignorance and superstition that have engulfed most developing countries. Since the problem of job dissatisfaction can be costly and disruptive to an organization like the teaching service, it cannot be dismissed especially, if the objectives of Ghana's education reforms and the free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) policies are to be achieved as envisaged.

Education in Ghana has its roots from the western world, starting mostly as private enterprises such as the Castle Schools, Missionary Schools and a few individually owned schools. After the First World War (1914-1918), and during the era of the Trade Slump (1930 – 1940), awareness of education in Ghana became very high. Owing to the growing demand for education that ironically coincided with the Trade Slump, the number of children in primary schools rose from 53,000 to 88,000. The dwindling economic fortunes of the country made it difficult for government alone to meet this high demand for education. Consequently, encouragement was given for private participation in educational provision. The Education Act of 1961 recognized the existence of private schools as it did the public educational system, as well as their role in the formulation and implementation of educational policies (McWilliam and Kwamena -Poh, 1978).

Ghana, like other third world countries, faces a host of developmental problems, principal among which is high illiteracy rate. Obviously the public schools alone cannot provide education for the nation, hence the need for private sector involvement in educational provision. It is worthy of note that private schools have contributed and continue to contribute to the provision of formal education. The Ghana Education Service (GES) monitors the activities of these private schools to ensure that they operate within approved standards, rules and regulations guiding them. In the view of Amoako-Essien and Ankomah (2002) the private schools provide a more conducive environment for the academic improvement of even the average student. They further argued that private schooling is perceived as a mechanism for perpetuating the stratification system, in that, it provides excellent instruction and guarantees with high levels of academic performance.

Over the years, private basic schools in Ghana have been performing very well in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). According to Amoako-Essien and Ankomah (2002), academic performance in private schools is far higher than what prevails in the public schools where the bulk of the pupils receive education. The high performance of pupils in private basic schools in Ghana they explained has been attributed to a number of factors among which are effective supervision and high level of satisfaction of the teachers who teach in these private schools.

Summary of Literature Review

Since teachers play a vital role in any meaningful educational enterprise, the issue of job satisfaction among them must be a number one priority for consideration in determining factors contributing to pupil performance. The desire to find out the true picture of the job satisfaction level of teachers in private basic schools in Ghana and to have an in-depth exploration of the factors contributing to the observed level of satisfaction provided an impetus for study.

Many forms of decision-making structures exist in our schools but their existence does not imply that all teachers should be desirous to be involved in school related matters. This stems from the fact that teachers have different perceptions on school decision-making and they do not have the same desire for participation. Staff participation has also got advantages such as ensuring higher quality decisions and greater commitment. There is therefore the need for educational administrators to determine the extent to which their staff members should be involved in the school decision-making process. It is strongly believed that the ability of the school head to effectively utilize his staff in the school decision-making process will go a long way to affect their behaviour positively towards him, their attitude to work and job satisfaction.

From the review of literature, it becomes clear that, best relationship can exist between the educational administrator and his staff only if he allows his staff to be involved in the affairs of the school. However, this chapter discussed some theories of decision-making in general. It also showed what some theorist say about the concept of decision making, the factors that affect teacher participation

in decision-making, the structure and mode of decision-making process existing in the education system, the perceptions towards teacher participation in school decision making process as well as teacher participation in school decision-making process and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study is to investigate the status of teacher participation in school decision-making in some selected schools in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. It also aims at investigating the structure of the decision-making process in the selected schools, teachers' perceptions of their involvement in the decision-making process and factors associated with teacher participation in school decision-making.

This chapter examines the research design, the population, the sample and the procedure of the sample selection. It further describes the instrument used for data collection and the method to be followed in conducting the research and the data analysis.

Research Design

The research design chosen for the study was the descriptive sample survey. The descriptive survey involves collecting data in order to test hypothesis or answering questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. It determines and reports the way things are Gay (1992). The descriptive survey design is directed towards determining the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of the study. Fraenkel & Wallen, (1990) have observed that obtaining

answers from a large group of people to a set of carefully designed and administered questions, lies at the heart of survey research.

They continues that descriptive survey predominantly aims at describing, observing and documenting aspect of a situation as it naturally occurs rather than explaining them. The design has an advantage of producing a good amount of responses from a wide range or people. A descriptive survey involves posing of questions to a large number of individuals either by mail, by telephone or in person. At the same time, it provides a more accurate picture of events and seeks to explain people's perception and behaviour on the basis of data gathered at a point in time. It is appropriate when a researcher attempts to describe some aspects of a population by selecting unbiased samples of individuals who are asked to complete questionnaires, interviews or test. (Frankel & Wallen, 1990).

Bell (1993) on the contrary maintain that there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered using the descriptive survey design are clear and not misleading because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording or questions. It may also produce untrustworthy result because they delve into private matters that people may not be completely truthful about. They further maintained that questionnaires require respondents who can articulate their thoughts well and sometimes even put such thoughts in writing. The questionnaire is, therefore, limited by disability or illiteracy. Getting a sufficient number of the questionnaire completed and returned so that meaningful analysis can be made is another weakness of the descriptive survey design.

In spite of these disadvantages, the descriptive survey design was considered the most appropriate for evaluating the structure and mode of decision-making process in schools, teacher perception of their involvement in decision-making and relationship between teacher involvement in decision-making process and job satisfaction.

Target Population

For this study, the target population consisted of all teachers and head teachers in the public basic school in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. The Metropolis has 248 primary and 112 junior secondary schools, making a total of 360 schools with a population of 2,945 teachers. Out of this number 688 are pre-school teachers, 1263 are primary school teachers and the remaining 1005 are junior secondary school teachers with 969 of the population being male teachers, and 1,987 being female teachers. This is represented in the Table 3 below;

Table 1

Distribution of Population of Teachers of Shama Ahanta East Metro Office

Item	Pre School	Primary	J.S.S.	Total
No. of Schools	113	135	112	360
No. of Teachers				
Male (M)	29	389	551	969
Female (F)	659	874	454	1987

Accessible Population

It was not possible to deal with the whole of the target group due to constraints like time, finance and access. The accessible population for the study was made up of fifty basic schools in Takoradi. According to (Crosswell, 1994) the accessible population is the group from which the researcher takes the sample for the study. Specifically, the following groups formed the accessible population.

- (i) All 360 basic schools in Takoradi
- (ii) All 969 male teachers of basic schools in Takoradi
- (iii) All 1987 female teachers of basic schools in Takoradi

Sample Size

A sample is a subset of a population. It consists of individual objects or events that form the Population. Shama Ahanta East Metropolis has about 360 schools and a population of 2,956 teachers of both Primary and JSS.

The sample for the study was drawn from the District Educational Statistic Department of Shama Ahanta East Metro records' 2004/2005 list of public schools. The sample is about ten percent of the population of schools in the district. The details are presented in the table 4 below;

Table 2

Distribution of Respondents by Metro Education Statistic

Item	Pre School	Primary	J.S.S.	Total
No. of Schools	5	5	5	15
No. of Teachers	50	70	80	200
No. of Heads	5	5	5	15

The number for schools though small, was chosen for its manageability. The number for teachers though small was also chosen for its manageability. Since the simple rotary technique was employed, it was envisaged that the sample would be representative of the general teacher population. Again since the population was large, ten percent of this group was selected. Though, the law of large numbers emphasizes that large sample size turn to be more representative of the population, data collected from such a sample was envisaged to be more accurate and precise. (Crosswell, 1994).

Sampling Techniques

The procedure for the selection of the respondents was the simple lottery of the simple random sample technique. In the lottery technique, names of the schools were written on pieces of papers and put in. The basket was thoroughly shaken to cause the papers in the basket to mix well before the researcher pick one at a time until the required number was reached. The researcher found it necessary to thoroughly shake the basket so as to mix again the number of remaining schools in the basket before the next one was picked. This sampling technique ensured that every school of the population had an equal chance of being selected for the study. This method made it possible for schools to be drawn directly from the population to meet the essential criterion of randomness.

Research Instrument

Being a descriptive survey, the researcher adopted both the questionnaire and the interview guide as instruments for data collection. The questionnaire was

used to collect data from teachers. This was because of the large number of teachers involved in the study and since they can also read and write.

According to Kerlinger (1979) the questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational institutions because, if developed to answer research questions, it is a very effective instrument for securing factual information about practices and conditions of which the respondents are presumed to have knowledge and enquiring into the opinions and attitudes of the subjects. The questionnaires consisted of closed and open ended items.

The questionnaire helped the researcher to collect data from a large group of respondents. It also helped the investigator to gather information without putting pressure on the respondents since it was more or less self-administering. The use of the questionnaire would help the researcher to establish a good rapport between her and the respondents.

The interview guide was applied to the head teachers because of the few number and the fact that other pieces of information were tapped from them. It was also because we saw them face to face and more information could be tapped.

According to Guba (1985) the interview method is the oldest and most respectful conversation with purpose. The interview schedule also brings the investigator and respondent face to face more than the questionnaire. The interview for this particular study comprised of both closed and open-ended questions which called for a tick or a single Yes/No as a response.

The interview helped the researcher to meet the respondents face to face for interaction. Since the items were structured in the interview guide, they (items) aided the researcher to collect specific information from the respondents. The interview guide also assisted the investigator to explain any difficult item to the respondents. It helped to tap any other pieces of information that were not captured in the original guide.

Development of Instruments

The items for the questionnaire and interview were structured along the following major variables.

- a. Demographic Information.
- b. The structure and mode of decision-making process in the schools.
- c. Perceptions towards teacher participation in school decision-making process.
- d. Teacher participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction.

The questionnaire was made up of five sections, section A was concerned with the demographic data of respondents such as: gender, age, marital status, professional status, number of years spent in present school, teaching experience and present status of teacher. The interview was made up of four sections with section A following the same demographic data of respondent as mentioned earlier.

Section B was made up of six-item design to elicit information on the teacher participation in school decision-making process of the Shama Ahanta East

basic schools. Section C was made up of seven items designed to assess the structure of decision-making process of Shama Ahanta East basic schools.

Section D was made up of seventeen items which sought to gain information of status of teacher participation in school decision-making process.

Section E was made up of twelve items which also sought to assess influence of teacher participation in decision-making and job satisfaction. The research instrument was based on the Likert type scale in a descending order.

- 5 - Strongly Agree
- 4 - Agree
- 3 - Undecided
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly Disagree

For part of Section D, the arrangement is as follows:

- 5 - To a large extent
- 4 - To some extent
- 3 - To a less extent
- 2 - Not at all
- 1 - Do not know

Most of the questionnaire items were open-ended questions. In addition four open-ended questions were included to enable respondent to supply information which were not included in the instrument but might have some relevance to the study.

However, the interview guide was made up of four sections A-D. Section A sought to assess demographic data. Section B elicited information on structure and mode of decision-making process in the educational system. Section C however, enquired the perceptions on teacher participation in school decision-making process and Section D talked about teacher participation in decision-making and job satisfaction respectively. The interview guide was mainly Yes/No questions and answers and a collection of open-ended questions which allowed the head teacher to provide some answers which were beneficial to the work.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

The validity and reliability of the various instruments were vetted and approved by the supervising committee of the researcher for their content and face value. In addition to this the instruments were pilot-tested at the Bishop Essuah Basic School, Takoradi to facilitate the revision of some items and for the potency of the questions. Question 21 (refer to Appendix B) was restructured to elicit more specific response to questions.

Data Collection Procedure

The instrument was pre-tested at Bishop Essuah Primary and JSS in Takoradi. This school was chosen because it has a very large population of teachers and about three head-teachers. The school being double stream has the kind of teachers who will elicit the response needed for the research.

Ten teachers and two head teachers were randomly selected for the pilot study, the questionnaire was hand delivered by the researcher. This pilot study

facilitated the revision and editing of questionnaire used in the main study, to make them more effective and straight forward in eliciting the right response as well as the interview guide. The interview guide was conducted on one-on-one basis.

Method of Data Analysis

All data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Personal Computer Version 10.0 for windows (SPSS/PC+). An appropriate statistical procedure for description was frequencies, percentages means, and averages. Entries were double-keyed and error checking was conducted before analysis. Simple descriptive and comparative statistics were used to examine data in response to the relevant research questions. To aid easy and quick interpretation of data, representative graphics like tables have been used for the summary.

Completed questionnaires were given serial numbers for easy identification. In addition, a scoring key or code was developed for the various responses to facilitate the use of SPSS in the analysis.

Sections of the scales with Likert type items were scored in the following categories;

Perceptions	Scale
Value	
Very high involvement	5
High Involvement	4
Moderate	3

Low Involvement	2
No Involvement	1
OR	
Strongly agree	5
Agree	4
Undecided	3
Disagree	2
Strongly disagree	1
OR	
To a large extent	5
To some extent	4
To a less extent	3
Not at all	2
Do not know	1

Collection of data from teachers and head-teachers were fairly easy. Teachers had to be contacted several times extending the period for the collection of data to six week instead of the two weeks originally planned. On the whole, percentage retrieved was about 86.8%. Table 3 below gives the details of the number of questionnaires sent out and retrieved.

Table 3

Distribution of Questionnaires Sent Out and Retrieved

Questionnaires	Number	Percentage
Valid once	143	71.5
Non Collected	20	10.0
Cancelled	25	12.2
Non readable	12	6.0
Total	200	100

The table gives the distribution of questionnaires sent out, retrieved and used as well as retrieved but not used due to error identification. It is obvious that the valid ones amounting to 71.5% of the questionnaires were used and about 28.5% were rejected due to errors. This rendered it invalid.

The raw scores for each respondents on the structure and mode of decision making process in the schools, factors affecting teacher participation in decision-making process, perceptions towards teacher participation in school decision-making process and teacher participation in schools decision-making and job satisfaction were computed to be between 2 and 91.

The cut off point or the neutral attitude was pegged to be 45, thus respondents who scored above 45 were considered as having favourable, high or positive perceptions towards teacher participation in decision-making process in the basic schools of the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. Those respondents whose opinion fell below 45 were considered as having an unfavourable, negative

or low perceptions towards the teacher participation in decision-making process in the basic schools of the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis.

Best & Kham (1989) observe, if an opinion consists of 8 items, the following score values will be revealing.

$$8 \times 5 = 40 \text{ (most favourable/positive attitude)}$$

$$8 \times 3 = 24 \text{ (a neutral attitude)}$$

$$8 \times 1 = 8 \text{ (most unfavourable/negative attitude)}$$

The principle was adopted for the various section of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequencies were used to analyse the collected data. The four open-ended questions gave opinions which gave varied answers in relation to the topic.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with analysis and discussion of data gathered from one hundred and forty three (143) teachers selected from fifteen schools in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. The analysis and discussion were done in relation to the research question listed in chapter one of the study. The analysis and discussion also focused on demographic data.

In all 250 questionnaires were administered to the teachers and 180 were completed and returned. Of the 180 completed questionnaires, 38 had too many cancellations, about twelve were not readable, 24 had incorrect information while reluctancy and unwillingness on the part of some teachers rendered the information invalid and in accurate so some of the papers had to be discarded. This situation led to the use of 143 for analysis and out of this number, sixty-two were found to be males and eighty one were females.

Section A: Biodata of Respondents

Table 4 – 11 gives a summary of data collected for gender, age, professional status, number of years spent in a particular school and number of years of working experience of respondents. This affects both teachers and head teachers sampled for the research. These areas were to gain demographic information on respondents.

Table 4 shows the gender response; it can be seen that most of the respondents were females, 56.6% and 43.4% being males. This was to help to note the kind of respondents s/he was directly working with. This is represented in the Table 4 below.

Table 4
Gender of Respondents of the Research

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	62	43.4
Female	81	56.6
Total	143	100.0

It was also to check if the needed and qualified respondents were found in the gender given and if s/he would elicit responses though the gender was not necessarily important to this research. For statistical purpose it was necessary especially if it provided the needed respondents for the research. However, according to statistics, Burke and Tamburo (1987), contradict what they advocate that males are desirous to be involved in decision-making than females. The researcher wanted to find out the ages of the various respondents and the following statistics shown in table 5 were gathered.

Table 5

The Ages of the Respondents

Age of respondents	Frequency	Percent
Up to 30yrs	66	46.1
31-40yrs	55	38.5
41-50yrs	16	11.2
Over 51 yrs	6	4.2
Total	143	100.0

Table 5 shows that most of the respondents were in the 20-30 year group (42.1%), followed by 31-40 year group (38.5%). Those in the over 51 year group were in the least (4.2%). This distribution is suggestive in portraying a greater number of young teachers in the system due to the inception of the SSS programme that allows very young people to attain professional status. The age range was necessary in this research because it was observed that most of the young teachers fell within the specifics of the research.

According to the Ghana Education rules and regulations, a newly posted teacher was to spend at least 3-5 years at post before a transfer was effected with the exception of extreme cases. So the age was important for this programme since the needed respondents were to have spent at least two to three years in a particular school.

The second largest group, 31-40 year group, was also significant to the study, because it was going to give information relevant to the study. People within this group are also found to be stable since they would have been married

and living with their spouses. Chapman (1990) noted that in Australia, it had been observed that the majority of teachers on decision-making committees were those within the ages of 30-40 years group. This observation is relevant as the age ranges were noted to reflect the distribution of respondents in the work of decision-making process in the basic school.

The teacher wanted to find out the professional status of the respondents. This was to help identify the class of people she was dealing with. This is represented in the Table 6. It can be seen from this Table that most of the respondents (68.5%) were non-graduate professional teachers while only 31.5% were graduate professionals.

Table 6
Professional Status of Respondents

Status	Frequency	Percent
Non-graduate professional	98	68.5
Graduate Professional	45	31.5
Total	143	100.0

This is to point out that graduate teachers are mostly found in the senior secondary schools and very few of them find their way in the basic schools due to factors like proximity, transfers and accessibility. Since the number of non-graduate professional was not great it was good because the number qualified to respond to the research.

The researcher found it prudent to find out from respondents the number of years they had been teaching their present schools and how it could affect their participation in decision making. Table 7 shows the data.

Table 7

Number of Years that Respondents have Spent in Present School

Number of years	Frequency	Percent
Under 5 yrs	102	71.3
6-10yrs	34	23.8
11-15yrs	1	0.7
16-20yrs	6	4.2
Total	143	100.0

From Table 7, it is realized that quite a good number of the respondents (71.3) had spent less than 6 years in their present school. About 23.8% of the respondents had taught for over 6-10 years, while 4.2% had spent 16-20 years. Only one percent had been in present school for over 11-15 years.

Socialists agree that continued exposure to a stimulus lead to a better understanding of prevailing conditions, helping the individual to make better adjustments to these conditions. Attriback, (1992). To facilitate an informed objective assessment by teachers on their involvement in decision-making process, the respondents were all due and qualified so they were chosen for the sample. This is shown in Table 7.

The researcher also tried to find out from respondents the number of years they had been in the teaching profession. The following responses shown in Table 8 were gathered.

Table 8

Number of Years Respondents have been in the Teaching Profession

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percent
Under 10yrs	92	64.0
11-20yrs	38	27.0
21-30yrs	13	9.0
Total	143	100.0

Table 8 shows that majority of the respondents (64.0) have had less than a decade of teaching experience. About 27.0% of the respondents lie within the 11-20 years of teaching experience with only 9.0% found to have been in the 21-30years of teaching experience. Of this number of respondents 96.5% were found to be full time teachers while 5.5% were part time teachers.

This attests to the fact that teachers leave teaching for other establishments due to lack of remuneration, lack of involvement in decision-making process. This is shown by the low figure of age range 21-30 years of teaching experience. This finding is consistent with the result of a research in the US by (Allutto & Belasco, 1996), which states that teachers between 5 and 12 years experience are those desiring the highest level of participation. Sergiovanni (1991) also suggest that this constitutes the groups of teachers with the highest need deficiencies.

Result of the Responses Given by Heads of Institutions

Concerning Decision Making in their Respective Schools

In all, 9 heads of institutions out of the 15 heads of schools could be reached during the period for interview. Out of this number 3 were females and 6 were males. Chapman (1988) examines a report on research on schools in Victoria State of Australia and states that teacher involvement was associated with factors such as age, gender, seniority and working experience. Table 9 shows the distribution.

Table 9

Sex of Heads of Schools who took Part in the Study

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	6	66.7
Female	3	33.3
Total	9	100.0

The table shows that about 67% of the respondents were males and 33% female. The gender of heads of schools was to help researcher know the kind of people s/he was dealing with and that it was for statistical purposes. Also the results show that most of the respondents were in the 41-60 year brackets. Table 10 shows ages of heads of schools.

Table 10

Ages of Heads of Schools

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 30 yrs	-	-
41-50yrs	5	55.5%
Over 50yrs	4	44.4
Total	9	100.0

It could be seen from Table 10 that a little above half (55.5%) of the heads who took part in the study were within the 41-50 year bracket while the remaining 44.4 percent were in the 50 and above age category. The ages of the respondents show that they are mature and may have had some experience in teaching. About 77.8 percent of the heads were married with 11.1% being single and another 11.1% widowed. Table 11 illustrates the data

Table 11

Marital Status of the Heads of Institutions

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	7	77.8
Single	1	11.1
Widowed	1	11.1
Total	9	100.0

The data also shows that in terms of professional qualification, most of these heads were non-graduate professional. Table 12 helps illustrate the data.

Table 12

Professional Status of Headteachers

Professional Status	Frequency	Percent
Non-graduate professional	7	77.8
Graduate professional	2	22.2
Total	9	100.0

From Table 12 it could be seen that quite a majority (77.8%) of the respondents were graduate non-professional. Only 22.2% of the respondents were graduate professional. The researcher tried to find out from respondents the number of years they had spent in their current school to enable her find out how it could affect decision making. Landers and Myers (1977) in a study to assess decision-making styles of school administrator, suggests that there are differences in the various scenarios which demand decision-making. This was to assess whether such differences influenced number of years heads have spent in present school. Table 13 represents the data.

Table 13

Number of Years Headteachers have Spent in Present School

Years Spent in Present School	Frequency	Percent
Under 5yrs	3	33.3
6-10yrs	2	22.2
11-15yrs	2	22.2
16-20yrs	2	22.2
Total	9	100.0

Table 13 reveals that 33.3% of respondents had spent less than 5 years in their present school while 22.2% had been in their present school from 6-10 years, 11-15 years, and 16-20 years respectively. This satisfies GES recommendation that no head teacher stays at a post for more than five years since this breeds malpractices such as claiming ownership of the school and mismanagement of funds leading to conflict among colleagues. As regards years of teaching, table shows the distribution. (Chapman 1990) observes that administrators with different background handled administrative issues differently.

Administrators were requested to indicate their experience in teaching to enable any such differences to be observed. The information is represented in Table 14 below.

Table 14

Years of Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percent
11-20yrs	1	11.1
21-30yrs	2	22.2
Over 31yrs	6	66.7
Total	9	100.0

From Table 14, it can be realized that about more than half of the respondents had taught for over 31 years, 22.2% had taught for 21-30 years. Only 11.1% of these respondents had taught for 11-20 years. All the heads who took part in the study were working on full time basis. This finding is consistent with the result of a research in the US by (Allutto & Belasco 1996) which states that teachers with between 5 – 12 years experience are those desiring the highest level of participation.

Section B

Answers to the Research Questions

The various research questions that guided the study were answered by using the responses gathered from the various questionnaire items of the interview schedule for both the heads of institutions and the teachers respectively. In discussing the findings responses “Strongly agree” (5) and “Agree” (4) were put together to indicate active participation while “Strongly disagree” (1) and “Disagree” (2) were put together to indicate low participation. This procedure was adopted to clearly differentiate respondents’ choice to high or low teacher

participation (refer to sample questionnaire in Appendix B). The research questions were answered as follows:

Research Question One

What is the structure of the decision-making process in basic schools in the Shama Ahanta East?

In answering this research question the researcher used responses from questionnaire items 16-22 of the questionnaire for teachers and questions 8-11 of the questionnaire in the interview schedule for the teachers and the head teachers respectively. These items were specifically constructed to find out from respondents the structure of decision making in their respective schools. The responses which answered the research questions were as follows:

To begin with almost all the heads contacted indicated that they held regular staff meetings. However when asked whether they had a structure of decision making process in their school, more than half (66.7%) responded yes and the remaining 33.3% said no. All those who said they have a structure of decision in their school also said they follow the proposed structure in making decisions.

As regard whether they allow collective decision making in their school, almost all the respondents answered that had always been the norm. To elicit the necessary responses needed to find out from the teachers the structure of decision making in the schools selected for the study, the respondents were made to react to various questions purported to achieving the targeted objective.

Table 15 shows the various statements of responses given by respondents.

Table 15**Structure of Decision Making**

Statement	Responses				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
Staff meetings are frequently held in my school	16(11.2%)	18(12.6%)	-	65(45.5%)	44(30.8%)
Most of the school matters are brought to the Staff meetings for discussion and adoption	25(17.5%)	5(3.5%)	69(48.3%)	44(30.8%)	
The Head seldom has the final word in school matters	17(11.9%)	66(46.2%)	-	38(26.6%)	22(15.4%)
Teachers' suggestions are well received by the head	3(2.1%)	36(25.2%)	-	91(63.6%)	13(9.1%)
In my school decisions are always arrived at consensus	13(9.1%)	37(25.9%)	-	60(42.0%)	33(23.1%)
Minority group of teachers always oppose the majority in my school Senior teachers often dominate discussions in the staff meetings	46(32.2%)	65(45.5%)	-	21(14.7%)	11(7.7%)
	32(22.4%)	89(60.1%)	-	11(7.7%)	5(3.6%)

The data in Table 15 shows that staff meetings are frequently held (76.3%) in most of the Schools. Also majority of respondents agreed (79.10%) that most of the school matters are brought to the staff meetings for discussion and adoption. This is an agreement to what Asare Bediako (1990) calls “consensus decision-making” Structure.

However, a little above half (58.0%) disagreed, while 42.0% agreed concerning the statement that the head seldom has the final word in school matters. Most of the respondents (72.8%) were of the opinion that teachers’ suggestions are well received by their heads, only 37.3% of the respondents disagreed. More than half of the respondents (65.1%) agreed that in their school decisions were always arrived at by consensus, only 35% disagreed.

While good number of the respondents (77.7%) disagreed with the statement that in their school minority group of teachers always opposed the majority in their school, only about 22.4% of the respondents agreed. Most respondents (82.5%) disagreed with the statement that senior teachers often dominated discussions in the staff meetings; only about 11.2% and 3.6% undecided. From the above analysis, it was clear that given the cut off point at 21, all respondents who fell below 21 – 0 were of negative responses whilst respondents above 21 points were of positive response. This is applicable to all questions at various levels respectively.

Research Question Two

Are teachers actually involved in decision making process in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolitan Basic Schools?

This question was asked to find out from respondents the degree of participation of teachers in decision making in their schools. Interview items

16-21 of the interview schedule for heads of institutions and questionnaire items 23-39 of the questionnaire for teachers were employed in answering this question. These items were specifically meant to give answers to the nature of teacher participation in schools decision making in the various schools of the respondents. The responses were as follows:

All the head teachers acknowledged that teacher participation generate greater acceptance of decision taking in the school. When asked “does teacher participation in decision reduce the head teacher’s influence?” about 66.7% of the respondents answered no while 33.3% of them answered yes.

The researcher tried to find out from heads whether they saw teachers’ participation in decision making as sabotage to the efforts of the heads. A little more than half (55.6%) of the respondents said yes while 44.4% thought otherwise. Of those who said yes, about 82.5% saw some teachers as mere inhibitors who slow down progress and as such were not fit to be asked their opinion in decision making. The rest of the heads thought since they are directly responsible for what ever goes on in their schools it would be inappropriate to always seek the attention and participation of the teachers before decisions are made.

All the heads answered yes when asked whether their teachers have the feeling of being needed in the school. They also answered yes to the question whether teachers in their school feel prestigious of their job as teachers in the school. All the heads answered yes to the question whether they have the feeling that the jobs assigned to teachers in their schools were done well. One interesting fact gathered from the responses was that all the respondents said their teachers often talked about staying in the school and had no plans leaving for some other

schools. When asked “are your teachers willing and ready to accept extra responsibilities within or outside the school hours?” all of them answered yes. When asked to indicate how well such duties were executed when teachers were assigned them, almost all the respondents said the teachers do the work to the best of their ability.

Status of Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making Process

Peretomode (1991) states that administrators should involve teachers, parents, central office supervisors or others as appropriate to capitalize on any special insight and expertise on any special insight and expertise they may be able to contribute. However, most teachers feel left out, under represented, and silenced when they are not allowed to participate.

To get the status of teacher participation in School decision-making process, the researcher constructed questionnaire items aimed at finding out about decision making in schools with respect to technical/instructional activities, operational activities and managerial/executive activities in relation to the schools’ concern. Table 16 shows the data.

Table 16 shows that teachers do take part in decision making in most schools when it comes to the selection of specific textbooks to be used in the school. A little less than half of the respondents (49%) feel that teachers participate in decision making in their schools to some extent with 42% being of the view that, to greater extent teachers do take part in whatever decision concerning the selection of specific textbooks; only a small number of (7.7%) respondents felt teachers participate very little.

Table 16**Technical/Instructional Decisions**

Statements	Responses			
	Not at all	Negative To some extent	To great extent	Positive To a greater extent
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning the selection of specific textbooks	1(0.7%)	11(7.7%)	70(49.0%)	61(42.7%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning solving learning problems	3(2.1%)	10(7.0%)	81(56.6%)	49(34.3%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning determining appropriate teaching methods	24(16.8%)	8(5.6%)	53(37.1%)	58(40.6.1%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning the Establishment of general instructional policies	20(14.0%)	31(21.7%)	77(53.8%)	15(10.5%)

The researcher wanted to find out from the respondents to what extent teachers participate in the decision concerning solving learning problems. It came to light that majority of respondents are of the view that teachers do participate but the participation varies. A little more than half (56.6%) of the respondents felt that to some extent teachers do participate, while about 34.3% are of the view that teachers participation in decision making in these areas was to a greater extent. Only 7.0% felt the participation was very little and 2.1% of the respondents also of the view that teachers do not participate in these areas of decision making in their schools. When asked to indicate to what extent teachers participate in decisions concerning determining appropriate teaching methods to be employed in their various schools for effective academic work, majority of the respondents (77.7%) were of the view that teachers participate with about 40.6% of this number accepting greater participation. About 16.8% of the respondents were of the view that teachers do not participate at all when it comes to this area of decision making.

As regards the extent to which teachers participate in the decision concerning the establishment of general instructional policies, here too, a good number of the respondents (64.3%) were of the view that teachers do participate. Only 16.8 percent of these teachers felt teachers do not participate at all. Concerning operational decision-making in schools, table 17 shows the responses made by respondents in connection with statement on the issue. According to Blasé (1990) some teachers would like greater participation while others would not want to be involved depending on the work schedule. It, therefore, becomes the responsibility of the educational administrator to find out the capabilities and interests of individuals on his staff and assign them their desired level of participation.

Table 17**Operational Decisions**

Statements	Responses			
	Not at all	Negative	Positive	
		To lesser extent	To some extent	To a greater extent
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning Establishing classroom disciplinary policies	8(5.6%)	10(7.0%)	47(32.9%)	78(54.5%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning planning new structural facilities in the school	39(27.3%)	40(28.0%)	34(23.8%)	30(21.0%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning scheduling of school calendar	45(31.5%)	51(35.7%)	21(14.7%)	26(18.2%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decisions concerning assigning of teachers to classes	23(16.1%)	52(36.4%)	61(42.7%)	7(4.9%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning Assigning duties concerning extra curricular activities e.g. sports, social functions etc.	14(9.8%)	21(14.7%)	64(44.8%)	44(30.8%)

Table 17 reveals that most teachers participate to a greater extent in decisions establishing classroom disciplinary policies. A little more than half of the respondents (54.5%) affirmed that teacher do participate to a greater extent with 32% accepting participation but to some extent. Only 5.6% of the respondents felt teachers do not participate at all in these areas of decision making.

When asked to what extent do teachers participate in the Decisions concerning planning new structural facilities in the school? responses given showed that teachers were not given the opportunity to take part in decision concerning such issues. Responses were so slow as only 21% of respondents and 23% answered “to a greater extent and “to some extent” respectively. About 27.3% of the respondents are of the view that teachers do not participate at all while 28.0% thought teachers do participate but to a very little extent.

As regards the extent to which teachers participate in the decisions concerning scheduling of school calendar, results were low, indicating low participation of teachers. Only 32.9% of respondents were of the opinion that teachers participate in decisions concerning scheduling of school calendar. A relatively equal number of the respondents (31.5%) felt that teachers do not participate at all, with about 35.7% of respondents being of the view that teachers participation in decision concerning scheduling of the school calendar was to a little extent.

Concerning the extent to which teachers participate in the decisions concerning assigning of teachers to classes, about 47.6% of respondents were of

the view that teachers do participate to appreciable degree, while 16.1%, felt teachers do not participate at all. A relatively higher number of the respondents (36.4%) were of the view that the participation was very little.

When asked “to what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning assigning duties concerning extra curricular activities e.g. sports, social functions etc.?”, responses were high; about 75.6% of respondent were of the view that teachers participation are higher with only 9.8% of the respondents seeing teachers as not participating in this area of decision making.

Executive/Managerial Decisions

Managerial decisions are those which concern the controlling, directing and conducting of the school into an orderly plant for the achievement of set educational goals (Chapman 1990). To find out from respondents concerning decision making in their schools, of executive/managerial nature, the following statements and responses shown in table 18 helped arrived at the answer.

Table 18 explains that about 27% of respondents were of the view that teachers participate in the decision concerning finances (IGF). Only 37.8% of respondents were of the view that teachers do not participate. About 35.7% saw the participation as very minimal. With regards to the extent to which teachers participate in the decision concerning academic work, a little more than half of the respondents (51.1%) agreed while 19.6% felt teachers do not participate at all. About 29.4% of the respondents saw the participation rate as very little.

Table 18**Executive/Managerial Decisions**

Statements	Responses			
	Negative		Positive	
	Not at all	To a lesser extent	To some extent	To a greater extent
To what extent do teachers participate in the Decision concerning use of internally generated fund (IGF)	54(37.8)	51(35.75%)	13(9.1%)	25(17.5%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning academic work	28(19.6%)	42(29.4%)	54(37.8%)	19(13.3%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning resolving personal grievances of staff	18(12.6%)	26(18.2%)	6(53.1%)	23(16.1%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning resolving problems with the community	14(9.8%)	29(20.3%)	67(46.9%)	33(23.1%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning resolving problems with parents	34(23.8%)	30(21.0%)	44(30.8%)	26(18.2%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning admission of students	18(12.6%)	45(31.5%)	38(26.6%)	42(29.4%)
To what extent do teachers participate in the decision concerning Students' disciplinary problems	34(23.8%)	30(21.0%)	44(30.8%)	26(18.2%)

Concerning the resolution of personal grievances of staff, about 69.2% of the respondents agreed that teacher participation was so high, only a small number of the respondents felt teachers do not participate all. With regard to the extent to which teachers participate in the decision concerning resolving problems with the community, about 70% of the respondents endorsed a higher participation rate for teachers, with only 9.8% being of the view that teachers do not participate at all. About a fifth of the respondents saw the participation rate to be very little.

Concerning the extent to which teachers participate in the decision concerning resolving problems with parents, a little less than half of the respondents (33.3%) agree to a high participation rate while 28% of the respondents thought teachers do not participate at all. About 21.1% of the respondents were of the view that there was little participation rate. As regards the teacher participation in the decision concerning admission of students, about half of the respondents said teacher participation was high while 23% were of the view that teachers do not participate at all.

The extent to which teachers participate in the decision concerning students' disciplinary problems, about 55% of the respondents were of the view that teacher participation was high while 18% felt teachers do not participate at all. Only 31.5% agreed that teachers participate but the participation was very little. Pegging the cut off point at 21, it is accepted that respondents above 21 gave positive responses while those below gave negative response.

Research Question Three

What are some of the factors that influence teacher participation in decision-making process?

This question was asked to enable the researcher find out from respondents the various factors that promote greater participation or inhibit participation of teachers when it comes to decision making in their schools. The researcher asked the respondents to react to various statements concerning teachers' participation in decisions in schools. Table 6 shows the various statements and the responses given by respondents to them.

Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making Process

Bacharach et al (2004) argued that a multi-domain evaluative approach should be used to examine teacher participation in decision-making process. To find out from respondents concerning the degree of participation of teachers in connection with decision making in their schools, the researcher asked a series of questions to enable him get the kind of responses that he required. Table 19 shows the various statements purported to eliciting answers from respondents and the responses.

The data in table 19 shows that most teachers (94.4%) agree that teacher participation in school decision making enhances the quality of decision while 5.6% of them disagree. As regards whether teacher participation in school decision-making helps teachers gain professional growth, majority of the respondent (84.6%) agreed while 15.4% of them disagreed to the statement. When asked to react to the statement whether teacher participation in school decisions making makes teachers work harder, only a little more than half (59.5%) of the respondents agreed while the remaining 40.4% disagreed to the statement.

Table 19**Reaction by Respondents to Statements Concerning Decision Making in their Schools**

Statement	Responses				
	Negative	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Strongly agree
Teacher Participation in school decision making enhances the quality of decision		5(3.5%)	3(2.1%)	-	72(50.3%) 63(44.1%)
Teacher participation in school decision making helps teacher gain professional growth		4(2.8%)	18(12.6%)	-	83(58.0%) 38(26.6%)
Teacher participation in school decision making makes teachers work harder		31(21.7%)	27(18.9%)	-	42(29.4%) 43(30.1%)
Teacher participation in school decision making generates greater acceptance of decisions		-	16(11.2%)	-	102(71.3%) 25(17.5%)
Teacher participation in school decision making reduces heads influence		22(15.4%)	30(21.0%)	-	49(34.3%) 42(29.4%)
Teacher participation in school decision making promotes commitment to decisions		4(2.8%)	12(8.4%)	-	68(47.6%) 44(30.8%)

As to whether teacher participation in school decision making generates greater acceptances of decisions, about 94.6% of respondents agreed to the statement while a few of the respondents (5.4%) disagreed. When asked to indicate their opinion on the statement that whether teacher participation in school decision making reduces heads influence, more than half (63.7%) of the respondents agreed while 36.3% of the respondents disagreed. In a similar manner, majority of respondents, (78.4%) of them, agreed that teacher participation in school decision making promotes commitment to decisions while the remaining 21.6% disagreed to the statement. From all indication, giving the cut off point at 18, it was concluded that all responses above the mark 18 were of high response, while those response below the cut off point 18 were of low response.

Research Question Four

In what ways does teacher participation in decision making affect teacher job satisfaction in the Shama -Ahanta East Metropolitan Basic Schools?

This question was asked to find out from respondents how their involvement in decision making has affected their satisfaction level in the job as teachers. To answer effectively this question, responses gathered from questionnaire items 40-55 of the questionnaire for teachers were used. Also responses of heads concerning questionnaire items 16-21 of the questionnaire for heads helped in answering this question.

The researcher tried to find out from respondents the degree of participation in decision-making and its influence on job satisfaction. Table 20 shows the various statements and the responses.

Table 20

Influence of Teacher Participation in Decision-Making and Job Satisfaction

Owing to the extent of my involvement in decision making Process in my school	Responses				
	Negative			Positive	
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
I have a high degree of autonomy in my job	-	14(9.8%)	32(22.4%)	31(21.7%)	66(46.2%)
I have a feeling of belonging to my school	21(14.7%)	13(9.1%)	14(9.8%)	73(51.0%)	22(15.4%)
I have a feeling of being needed in my school	6(4.2%)	10(7.0%)	21(14.7%)	76(53.1%)	30(21.0%)
I have a prestige of job in the school	-	9(6.3%)	20(14.0%)	63(44.1%)	51(35.7%)
I have a prestige of job outside the school	6(4.2%)	5(3.5%)	15(10.5%)	68(47.6%)	49(34.3%)
I have good rapport with the head	4(2.8%)	9(6.3%)	33(23.1%)	62(43.4%)	35(24.5%)
I have taken delight in socializing during school hours	2(1.4%)	19(13.3%)	15(10.5%)	57(39.9%)	50(35.0%)
I have often talked about staying on the school	8(5.6%)	35(24.5%)	14(9.8%)	35(24.5%)	51(35.7%)
I am prepared for any extra work within school hours	4(2.8%)	49(34.3%)	15(10.5%)	53(37.1%)	22(15.4%)
I am prepared for extra work outside school hours e.g. organizing games and sports	9(6.3%)	25(17.5%)	14(9.8%)	66(46.2%)	29(20.3%)
I am satisfied with work load	15(10.5%)	9(6.3%)	29(20.3%)	61(42.7%)	29(20.3%)

Table 20 shows that most teachers (67.9%) agree that owing to the extent of their involvement in decision making process in their school, they have a high degree of autonomy in their job, but 9.8% disagreed while 22.4% were undecided. When asked to react to the extent of involvement in decision making process, respondents gave various views for belonging to their school and are as follows. About 66.4% of respondents agreed while 23.8% disagreed with 22.4% being undecided. Quite a good number of the respondents (74.1%) agreed to have a feeling of being needed in their school owing to the extent to which they participate decision making in their respective schools. About 11.2% of the respondents disagreed while 14.7% were undecided on the statement.

About 77.8% of the respondents agreed also to the statement that owing to the extent of their involvement in the decision making in their schools, they have a prestige of job in the school. Only 9% disagreed, while 14.0% were undecided. Also, about 82% of respondents were of the view that owing to the decision process in their school they have a prestige of job outside their school. Only 7.9% disagreed with 10.5% being undecided.

When asked to react to the statement, “should teaching be involved in schools’ decision making in relation to the seventh point”, about 84.9% agreed while 14.7% disagreed. Only 9.8% were undecided. About 74.9% of the respondents agreed to the statement that they have taken delight in socializing during school hours as a result of the decision making process in the school. Only 14.7% of the respondents disagreed, while 10.5% of the respondents were undecided. About 60.4% of the respondents agreed, while 30.1% disagreed to the

statement that “I have talked about staying in the school due to their involvement of the decision making process in their schools”. Only 9.8% of the respondents were undecided. Also, a little less than half of the respondents (42.5%) agreed to take any extra work within the school while 37.1% disagreed. Only 10.5% were undecided whether they were prepared to do so as a result of their involvement in decision making in their school.

When asked whether they were prepared for extra work outside school hours, for example, organizing games and sports as a result of their involvement in school decision making, about 66.5% agreed while 23.8% disagreed. Only 9.8% were undecided. Finally, about 63% of the responded agreed that they were satisfied with the work load while 16.8 disagreed. About 20.3 of the respondents were undecided to the statement that they were satisfied with their workload due to their involvement in decision making in the school.

Also, most respondents (70.1%) felt that given the opportunity to be involved in the school decision-making process, they will participate actively in matters concerning the welfare of teachers. About 85% of teachers also expressed opinion on the fact that matters concerning students admission should not be the sole responsibility of heads of schools, and that teachers must be given some chance in discussing admission procedures and which category of people they need to work with. It is interesting to note that most teachers also agreed that always allowing teachers to decide on every issue before the action is taken has the potential of slowing down development of important issues that needed to be tackled. Based on the analysis it was clear that all responses below the cut off

point at 33 were negative or low response while responses above the given cut off point yielded positive or high response respectively.

In effect Chapter Four of this research sought to elicit the responses of teachers and head teachers of Shama-Ahanta East Metropolitan area on the mode of decision making process affecting teacher participation in decision making, teacher participation in school decision making and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was about teacher participation in decision-making process in schools. Chapter One was the introduction and gave a general overview of the concept of decision making as well as the statement of the problems and some questionnaires.

Chapter Two centred on the literature review by some school of thought and individuals on the concept of decision making as to whether teachers in the Shama-Ahanta East Metropolis were involved in decision making and some factors that influenced teacher decision making. Factors that affected teacher decision making and job satisfaction in the basic schools of Shama- Ahanta East Metropolis were also discussed.

Chapter Three showed the instrument used for the study and here, the study was conducted in 15 basic schools in the Shama- Ahanta East Metropolis of the Western Region of Ghana in the early part of the year 2004.

In all 250 questionnaires were administered to the teachers and head teachers. Of all 250 questionnaires were given to teachers and 180 were completed and returned. As a result of 37 scripts being in error found with the completed questionnaires, 143 of them were found suitable for analysis. Of the 143 questionnaires that were analysed by the researcher, 62 were found to be

males and 81 were females. In the case of the head teachers, of the 15 schools, only 9 heads of institutions could be reached for interview. Out of this number 3 were females and 6 were males. Chapter Four gave the analytical view of the finding based on tables whilst chapter five disclosed some findings that related to the topic, gave conclusion and recommended some issues of need in relation to the topic as a whole.

Findings

The research yielded the following results:

1. The quality of decision making styles existing in a school environment of the
Area of study directly affects rewards and job satisfaction
2. The degree of freedom allowed teachers of Shama Ahanta East to take part in decision concerning the activities in the school contributes to the success or failure of the school in achieving its set objectives.
3. Most schools in the Shama-Ahanta East Metropolis do not use the collective decision making strategy in resolving issues.
4. There exists low teacher decision making participation rate among the teachers in the basic schools in the Shama -Ahanta East Metropolis.
5. Most teachers in the Shama -Ahanta East Metropolis are not given the opportunity to take decisions in areas such as finances but in the technical/instructional, organizational and to some extent, managerial decision-making, they are given greater chance of participation.

Conclusions

Decision-making in most schools is a means to achieve a particular target. It involves the identification and the selection of the most appropriate solution capable of providing what is needed for the solution of the problem at hand. Effective schools have been known to have arisen not by means of magic. They are said to be the end product of systematic planning and strategic decision making. Such decision making have been known to cut across all administrative functions, from planning, organizing, and staffing to directing, coordinating, and controlling.

It can be said in conclusion that in our modern day schools, teacher participation in decision making seems to be one area that educational administrators have been seen to contribute in one way or another in shaping the way a school can function effectively. Operations in modern system make it very wrong for any administrator to refuse to create an enabling environment for greater participation of teachers in decision making, if the school in question really wants to achieve a good vision.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the research findings the researcher would like to suggest that teachers in general be given the chance in the decision making process and that future research concerning decision making should look at.

1. How effectively communication and motivation of teachers affect participation in decision making in schools in Ghana.

2. The role of teacher participation in decision making in the attraction and retention of teachers in the Shama- Ahanta East Metropolis.
3. School Improvement through Teacher Decision Making
4. Effect of leadership style and decision on performance of staff and students of basic schools in the Shama -Ahanta East Metropolis.
5. Influences of shared decision-making on school and classroom activity.

Recommendation for Practice

Based on the research findings, the researcher recommends that when teachers are allowed maximum chance in the decision process in their schools, it will create a healthy atmosphere for teaching and learning. It will also ensure clam climate in the basic schools in general. I recommend that teachers of Shama Ahanta East Metropolis be given chance to participate in the decision-making of the children they teach. The Ghana Education Service should make adequate provision to involve teachers in the management of the basic schools.

REFERENCES

- Agyeman, D.K. (1988). Ideological education and nationalism in Ghana under Nkrumah and Busia. Accra: Ghana universities Press.
- Alluto J. A. & Acito R. (1974). Decisional participation and sources of job satisfaction: A study of manufacturing personnel. *Academy of Management Journal*. 17, 160-167.
- Alluto, J.A. & Belasco, J.A. (1972). Patterns of teacher participation in school system decision-making. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 2 (1), 27 – 41.
- Alluto, J. A. & Belasco, J. A. (1996). A typology for participation in organizational decision-making, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 117 - 125
- Alluto, J. A. & Belasco, J. A. (1973). A typology for participation in organizational decision-making, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, (1), 117-25.
- Amoako-Essien, M. & Ankomah, Y. A. (2002). Job satisfaction of teachers in private basic schools: A study in the Accra Metropolis of Ghana. *Journal of Management*. 1(2), 1-20.
- Anderson, G. (1991). *Cognitive politics of principals and teacher: Ideological control in an elementary school*. New York: Palmer Press.

- Appealbaum (1988). The Micro-politics of effective school-based leadership: Teachers perspectives. *Educational Leadership Quarterly*. 29 (2), 142 – 163.
- Asare-Bediako, R. (1990). Managing decision making. A Group. *Management Today*. 14, 15-25.
- Asiedu-Akrofi, K. (1978). *School organization in Africa*. Tema: Ghana Publishing Corporation.
- Attback, P.G. (1992). Key issues of textbook provision in the third world: Prospects. *Quarterly Review of Education*. 13 (3), 315 – 325.
- Bacharach, S. B., Bamberger, P., Conley, S. C. & Bauer, S. (1990). The dimensionality of decision participation in educational organizations: The value of multi-domain evaluative approach. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 26(2), 126-67.
- Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge: Havard University Press.
- Bell, J. (1993). *Doing your research project, (2nd ed.)*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Benson, N. & Mallone, P. (1987). Teachers' beliefs about shared decision-making and work alienation. *Education*. 107, 244-251.
- Bennet, J.R. (1987). *The relationship between principals' stated allocation of decision decisional power to teacher and at their perception of*

organizational conditions and practices at the central office. Syracuse: Syracuse University.

Best, J. & Khan, J. (1996). *Research in education* (7th ed.). Boston : Allyn and Bacon.

Blasé, J. (1990). Some negative effects of principles: Control oriented and protective political behaviour. *American Educational Research Journal*. 27, 727-753.

Blau, P.M. & Scott, W.R. (1962). *Formal organisations: A comparative approach*. San Francisco: Chandler Publishers.

Bridges, E. M. (1967). A model for shared decision-making in the school principalship. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 3, 49-61.

Burke, T. D. (1987). Teacher participation in school decision-making. Doctoral Dissertation. In *Dissertation Abstract International*. Rutgers State University,

Campbell, R. F. (1977). *Introduction to educational administration* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Carnegie Forum (1986). *Nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st century*, Hyattsville: MD Press.

Centre for Educational Research and innovation (1995). Dimensions of Effective School Leadership: The teachers' perspective. *American Educational Research Journal*. 24, 598-610.

- Chapman, J. D. (1988). Decentralization, devolution, and the teacher: Participation by teachers in the decision-making of schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*. 26, 1877-908
- Chapman, J. (1990). *School-Based decision making and management*. Lewes: The Falmer Press.
- Conley, S. C. & Goldman, R.M. (1995). *School-decision-making and management*. Lewes: The Falmer Press.
- Conley, S. & Goldman, R. (1995). *The myth, Mystery and Mastery of participatory decision-making in education*. Lewes: The Falmer Press.
- Conway, J. A. (1976). Test of linearity between teachers participation in Decision- making and their perceptions of their schools as organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. 21, (1), 130 -139.
- Conley, S. C. (1989). Who's on first school reform, teacher participation, and the decision making process. *Education and Urban Society*. 21(4), 366-79
- Conley, S. (1991). Teacher participation. *Review of Research in Education*. 17, 225-266.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. California: Sage.
- Culbertson, C. Hensen., R. Morrison & G. Morine. (1974). *Performance objectives for school principals*. California: McCutchan. 83-111.
- Cunningham, W.G. & Gresso, D.W. (1993). *Cultural Leadership*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

- Gay, L. R. (1987). Educational research competencies for analysis and application (3rd ed.) Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Denys, M. O. (1980). *Leadership in schools*. London: Heinemann.
- Duke, D., Showers, B. K., & Imber, M. (1980). Teachers and shared decision Making: The costs of involvement. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 16, 93-106.
- Ejiogu, A. M. (1983). Participative management in developing economy: Poison or Placebo. *The Journal of Applied Behaviour Science*. 19, (3), 239 – 247.
- Erb, F. (1987). *The politics of life in schools: Power, conflict, and cooperation*. California: Sage publications.
- Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (1990). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Ghana Education Service (1994). *Headteacher' Handbook*. Accra: Ministry of Education
- Glickman, C. (1993). *Renewing America's schools: guide for school-based action*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.
- Goodland, J. (1984). *A place called school: prospects for the future*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gorton, R. A. (1980). *School administration: challenges and opportunities for leadership* (4th ed.). IOWA: WC Brown Co. Publishers.
- Griffith, D. E. (1968). *Administration as decision-making*. New York: Thomas Crowel and Company.

- Guba, E. G. (1985, April). *Elements of a proposal*. Paper presented at the UCEA meeting, Chapel Hill, New Castle.
- Hall, B. (1986). *Leadership Support for Staff development. A school building level model*. Detroit: Wayne State University Press.
- Hanson, E. M. (1996). *Educational Administration and organizational behaviour*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hensen, C. & Culbertson, J. A. (1974). Making effective decisions. In J. A. Holmes, G. (1986). *Tomorrow's teachers*. East Lansing: The Holmes Group
- Herzberg, F. (1987). The motivation – hygiene concept and problems of manpower. *Personnel Administration* 27, 3 – 7.
- Holmes, J. G., & Rempel, J. K. (1989). Trust in close relationships. In C. Hendrick (Eds.). 187 – 220. *Close relationships*. Newbury : Sage.
- Hoy, W.K. & Tarter, T.S. (1995). *Leadership of principals, personal characteristics of teachers and professional zone of acceptance of elementary teachers*. San Francisco: American Educational Research Association.
- Jennings, A. (1975). *The participation of teaching staff in decision-making in schools: A case study in management* (2nd ed.). Milton: Keynes open University Press.
- Jo-Ann, H. (1998). School governance: The clash between teachers and principals. *Journal of Educational Administration*. 36 (1), 59-82.

- Johnson, G. S. (1990). A study of teacher Loyalty to the principal: Rule administration and hierarchical influence of principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 22 (4) 4 – 29.
- Johnson, G. S. (1996). A study of teacher loyalty to the principal: Rule administration and hierarchical influence of the principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 22 (4), 4-27.
- Keef, J. L. (1976). *Teacher professionalism and decision-making modes in selected elementary schools as determinants of job satisfaction*. Oregon: University of Oregon.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1979). *Behavioural research: A conceptual approach*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston
- Kessel. V. (1996). *An administrator's guide for evaluating programs and personnel*. Toronto: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Kinard, J. (1988, August). *Management*. Toronto: D.C. Health and Company
- Kruse, S. (1994). *The micro politics of educational leadership: From control to empowerment*. London: Cassell.
- Kunz, D. & Hoy, W. (1976). Leadership style of principals and the professional zone of acceptance of teachers. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 12(3), 49-64.
- Landers, T. J. & Myers, J.G. (1977). *Essentials of school management*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company.
- Leithwood, K, & Jantzi, D. (1998). Transformational leadership: How principals can help reform school cultures. *School Effectiveness and School*

- Improvement*. 1(4), 249-280.
- Leithwood, K. & Aikens, T. (1995). *Reframing organization artistry, choice and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey – Bass
- Likert, R. (1961). *The human organization*. New York: Mc Graw – Hall
- Lipham, J. M., Hensen, C. & Culbertson, J.A. (1974). Making effective decisions
In J.A. Culbertson, C. Hensen, R. Morrison & G. Morine. *Performance objectives for school principal*. 83 -111. California: Mc Cutchan.
- Lischeron A. & Wall, S.T. (1972). *School as collaborative Culture: Creating the future now*. New York: The Palmer Press.
- Lischeron, A. H. & Wall, A. R. (1975). *Schools as collaborative cultures: Creating the future now*. New York: The Falmer Press.
- Louis, K.S. & Kruse, S.D. (1995). *Professionalism and Community: Perception on urban schools*. California: Corwin.
- Maeroff, G. (1988). *The Empowerment of teachers. Overcoming the Crisis of Confidence*. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Marks, H. & Louis, K. (1999). Teacher Empowerment and the Capacity for Organizational Learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 35, 707-750.
- Marks, H., Louis, K. & Park, T. (1996). Creating a culture for teacher's professional growth. *Journal of School Leadership*. 9 (4), 311-20.
- Maslow (1954). *Motivation personality*. New York: Harper.
- McClelland, D.C. (1962). Business drive and national achievement. *Harvard Business Review*. 40, 13-19.

- McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McCraw – Hill Company.
- McWilliam H. O. A. & Kwamena-Poh, M. A (1978). The development of education in Ghana. London: Longman Co. Ltd.
- Merland, F. (1974). *Pastoral care*. London: Hienneman Press.
- Merenbloom (1991). *Empowering teachers' what successful principals do*. California: Corwin Press.
- Merritt, D. R. (1987). *The concept of shared governance in urban school district as perceived by selected teachers, principals, central office administrators, classified employees and parent*. Mississippi : University of Mississippi
- Mohrman, C., Zaltman, G. & Deshpande, R. (1975). *How Secondary Schools contribute to academic success*. Berkeley: Mc Cutchman.
- Mohrman, A.M., Cooke, R. A., & Mohrman, S. A., (1995). Participation in decision-making: A multi-dimensional perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 14(1), 13-19.
- Mumford, S. (1972). Teacher participation in school decision-making: Assessing willingness to participate. *Educational Evaluation and Policy*. 14(1), 53-67.
- Musaazi, J.C.S. (1982). *The theory and practice of educational administrations*. London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

- Peretomode, V. F. (1991). *Educational administration applied concepts of theoretical perspectives for students and practitioners*. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.
- Philips (1989). *Shared decision-making in an age of reform. Updating School Board Policies*. 20, 1 – 4.
- Puckett, B. M. (1975). *Participation of teachers in decision-making as reported by Ohio middle school principals*. Stanford : Stanford University.
- Rice, E.M. & Schneider G.T (1994). A decade of Teacher Empowerment: An empirical analysis of teacher involvement in decision-making. 1980 – 1991. *Journal of Educational Administration*. 32 (1); 43 – 58.
- Richardson, S. (1979). *Teachers' workplace: The social organisation of schools*. Harlow: Longman.
- Schlechty, P. (1990). *Schools for the 21st Century*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Schneider. G. T. (1984). Teacher involvement in decision-making: Zones of acceptance, decision conditions and Job satisfaction. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*. 18 (1), 25-32.
- Schneider, G. T. (1986). The Myth of curvilinearity: An analysis of decision-making and involvement and job satisfaction. *Planning and Changing*. 17 (3), 146-58.
- Schultz, B. (1952). The effects of personality and situational variables on behavioural trust. *Journal of personality and social psychology*. 25, 419 – 427.

- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1991). *The principalship: A reflective practice. (2nd ed)*.
Boston : Allyn and Bacon.
- Shamaham, S.J. (1987). School-based decision-making councils, conflict, leader, power and social influence in vertical team. *Journal of Educational Administration*. 39 (1), 47 – 66.
- Siddle, M. (1978). *Organisational effectiveness: A behavioural view*. Santa Monica: Goodyear.
- Smylie, M. (1992). Teacher participation in school decision-making: Assessing willingness to participate. *Educational Evaluation and Policy*. 14 (1), 53 – 67.
- Speed, N.E. (1979). *Decision participation and staff satisfaction in middle and junior higher schools that individualise instruction*. Madison: Wiscosin Research and Development Centre for Cognitive Learning.
- Smylie, M. (1995). New perspectives on teacher leadership. *The Elementary School Journal*. 96(1), 5 - 9.
- Smyth, J. J. (1989). *Critical perspective on educational leadership*. London: Palmer press.
- Sugg, W. B. (1955). A study of relation between personal development and the working pattern of principals. Florida: University of Florida.
- Tamburo, P. P. (1987). Elementary school teachers perceptions of participation in twelve building level decisions situations. Syracuse: University of Syracuse.

- Taylor, D. & Tashakkori, A. (1997). Toward an understanding of teachers desire for participation in decision-making. *Journal of School Leadership* 7, 609-628.
- Tarter, C. J., Hoy, W. K. & Bliss, J. (1989). Principal leadership in organizational commitment: The principal must deliver. *Planning and Changing*. 20 (3), 13 –140.
- Tarter, C.J., Hoy, W.K. & Forsuth, S. (1995). Middle school climate, faculty trust and effectiveness: A path analysis. *Journal of Research and Development in education*. 29, 41 – 49.
- United Nations (1998). *United Nations Universal declaration on human right*. New York: United Nations.
- Vroom, V.H. & Vetton, P.W. (1973). *Leadership and decision-making*. Pittsburg: University of Pittstury Press.
- Wilson, S.A. (1966). *Leadership and the new science*. San Francisco: Berreth-Koehler.
- Woode, N. S. (1985). What is wrong with public administration in Ghana. *Journal of Management Studies*. 3(3), 10 -22.
- Young, B.C.S. (1984). Factors that determine the attractiveness of the teaching profession in Brunei Darussalam. *Journal of Education for teaching*. 20 (1), 113-124.
- Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organisations* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS OF BASIC SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

A research is being conducted into the level of teacher participation in the decision-making process in the basic schools of Shama-Ahanta East Metropolis. It would be appreciated if you would help by sparing some of your time to respond to this questionnaire. Be assured that all information volunteered for this exercise will be treated as confidential and utilized only for research purpose.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please fill in the spaces provided below the information required, or where respond choices are provided. Tick 'X' in the appropriate box next to the appropriate answer (s)

1. Gender:

i. Male []

ii. Female []

2. Age:

i. up to 30yrs []

ii. 31 – 40 yrs. []

iii. 41 – 50 yrs. []

iv. Over 51 yrs. []

3. Marital Status:

i. Married []

ii. Divorced []

iii. Single []

iv. Widowed []

4. Professional status:
 - i. Non-graduate professional []
 - ii. Graduate professional []
 - iii. Graduate non-professional []

5. Number of years spent in present school:
 - i. Under 5 yrs. []
 - ii. 6 – 10 yrs. []
 - iii. 11 – 15 yrs. []
 - iv. 16 – 20 yrs. []
 - v. Over 21 yrs. []

6. Years of teaching experience:
 - i. Under 10 yrs. []
 - ii. 11 – 20 yrs. []
 - iii. 21 – 29 yrs. []
 - iv. Over 30 yrs. []

7. Present status of teacher:
 - i. Full time []
 - ii. Part time []
 - iii. Contract []

SECTION B

TEACHER’S PERCEPTIONS ON TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL DECISION-MAKING PROCESS:

The following statements relate to teachers’ perception on teacher participation in basic school decision-making process.

For each question listed below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by Placing an ‘X’ on the appropriate answer.

Scale notation;

5. - strongly agree
4. - agree
3. - undecided
2. - disagree
1. - strongly disagree

**TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL
DECISION-MAKING PROCESS**

8.	Enhances the quality of decisions:	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Helps teachers gain professional growth	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Makes teacher's work harder	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Generates greater acceptance of decisions	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Reduces heads influence	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Promotes commitment to decisions	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION C

**THE STRUCTURE OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN THE
SCHOOL**

The following statements relate to the structure of decision-making process in the basic school. Please indicate the extent by placing an 'X' on the appropriate answer.

16.	Staff meetings are frequently held in my school	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Most of the school matters are brought to staff meetings for discussion and adoption	5	4	3	2	1
18.	The head seldom has the final word in school matters	5	4	3	2	1
19.	Teachers' suggestions are well received by the head	5	4	3	2	1
20.	In my school decisions are always arrived at by consensus	5	4	3	2	1
21.	Minority group of teachers always opposes the majority in my school	5	4	3	2	1
22.	Senior teachers often dominate discussions in					

the staff meetings 5 4 3 2 1

SECTION D

STATUS OF TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL DECISION- MAKING PROCESS

The following statements relate to actual teacher participation in basic school decision-making process. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by placing an 'X' on the appropriate answer.

- 5 - To a great extent
- 4 - To some extent
- 3 - To a lesser extent
- 2 - Not at all
- 1 - None of the above

Technical/Instructional Decisions:

- 23. Selecting specific textbooks 5 4 3 2 1
- 24. Solving learning problems 5 4 3 2 1
- 25. Determining appropriate teaching methods 5 4 3 2 1
- 26. Establishing general instructional policies 5 4 3 2 1

Operational decisions:

- 27. Establishing classroom disciplinary policies 5 4 3 2 1
- 28. Planning new structural facilities in the school 5 4 3 2 1
- 29. Planning new projects, e.g. starting a school 5 4 3 2 1
- 30. Scheduling of school calendar 5 4 3 2 1
- 31. Assigning of teachers to classes 5 4 3 2 1
- 32. Assigning duties concerning extra curricular activities e.g. sports, social functions etc. 5 4 3 2 1

Executive/Managerial Decisions:

- 33. Determining use of IGF 5 4 3 2 1
- 34. Resolving academic issues 5 4 3 2 1
- 35. Resolving personal grievances of staff 5 4 3 2 1
- 36. Resolving problems with the community 5 4 3 2 1

37.	Resolving problems with parents	5	4	3	2	1
38.	Admission of students	5	4	3	2	1
39.	Students' disciplinary problems	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION E

INFLUENCE OF TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements relate to teacher participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by placing an 'X' on the appropriate answer.

- 5 - strongly agree
- 4 - agree
- 3 - undecided
- 2 - disagree
- 1 - strongly disagree

Owing to the extent of my involvement in the decision-making process in my school, I have:

40.	A high degree of autonomy in my job	5	4	3	2	1
41.	A feeling of belonging to my school	5	4	3	2	1
42.	A feeling of being needed in my school	5	4	3	2	1
43.	Prestige of job in the school	5	4	3	2	1
44.	Prestige of job outside the school	5	4	3	2	1
45.	Good report with the head	5	4	3	2	1
46.	Accomplish my work with vigour and pleasure	5	4	3	2	1
47.	Take delight in socializing during school hours	5	4	3	2	1
48.	Often talk about staying on the school	5	4	3	2	1
49.	I am prepared for any extra work within School hours [e.g. organizing remedial classes]	5	4	3	2	1

50. I am prepared for any extra work outside school
Hours e.g. organizing games and sports 5 4 3 2 1

51. I am satisfied with my workload 5 4 3 2 1

52. Given the opportunity to be involved in the school decision-making
Process, which decisional situation do you most like to participate in?

.....
.....

b. Please give reasons for your answer in the following.

.....
.....
.....
.....

53. Give two decisional situations in which you feel your participation is
necessary:

.....
.....
.....
.....

b. Any other information?.....

.....
.....

54. List two factors which you think prevent you from participating fully
In the decision-making process of your school

i.
ii.

b. Any other information?.....

.....

.....
.....

55. Please, use the space below for any other comments that you like to make:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thanks for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEAD TEACHERS OF BASIC SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

A research is being conducted into the level of teacher participation in the decision-making process in the basic schools of Shama Ahanta East Metropolis. It would be appreciated if you would help by sparing some of your time to respond to this questionnaire.

Be assured that all information volunteered for this exercise will be treated as confidential and utilized only for research purpose.

PART 1

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please fill in the spaces provided below the information required, or where respond choices are provided.. Tick 'X' in the appropriate box next to the appropriate answer (s)

1. Gender

- i. Male [] ii. Female []

2. Age

- i. Below 30 yrs [] ii. 31 – 40 yrs []
iii. 41 – 50 yrs [] iv. Over 51 yrs []

3. Marital Status:

- i. Married []
ii. Divorced []
iii. Single []

- iv. Widowed []
- 4. Professional Status:
 - i. Non-graduate professional []
 - ii. Graduate professional []
- 5. Number of years spent in present school:
 - i. Under 5 yrs []
 - ii. 6 – 10 []
 - iii. 11– 15 yrs []
 - iv. 16 – 20 yrs []
 - v. Over 21 yrs []
- 6. Years of teaching experience:
 - i. Under 10 yrs []
 - ii. 11 – 20 yrs []
 - iii. 21 – 30 yrs []
 - iv. Over 31 yrs []
- 7. Present status of teacher:
 - i. Full time []
 - ii. Part time []
 - iii. Contract []

The following statement relate to the structure of decision

SECTION B

STRUCTURE AND MODE OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

-making process in the basic school. Please indicate the extend by placing an ‘X’ on the appropriate number.

- 8. Do you hold staff meeting? Yes/No.
- 9. Do you have a structure of decision-making process in the school?

Yes/No.

10. Do you follow the proposed structure of decision-making? Yes/No.
b. Any other information?
11. Do you give room for collective decision-making? Yes / No.
Give reasons for your choice.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

SECTION B

PERCEPTIONS ON TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL

DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

The following statement relate to teachers perception on teacher participation in basic school decision-making process. Please indicate the extend by placing an ‘X’ on the appropriate answer.

12. Does teacher participation in decision-making delay actions which need to be taken promptly?
Yes / No.
13. Does teacher participation generate greater acceptance of decision-Making? Yes / No.
14. Does teacher participation in decision-making reduces the head teachers’ influence.
i. Yes [] ii. No []
15. Does the teacher serve as sabotage to the efforts of the head teacher?
b. How?
.....

SECTION C

**TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND JOB
SATISFACTION**

The following statement relate to the actual teacher participation in basic school decision-making process. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by placing an 'X' on the appropriate number.

- 16. Does your teacher have the feeling of being needed in the school?
i. Yes [] ii. No []
- 17. Do they feel prestigious of job in the school?
i. Yes [] ii. No []
- 18. Do you have the feeling the job assigned to a teacher is well done?
i. Yes [] ii. No []
- 19. Does your teacher often talk about staying on the school?
i. Yes [] ii. No []
- 20. Are your teachers willing and ready to accept extra responsibility
Within or outside the school hours? [e.g. Organizing games & sports /
extra – remedial classes?].
i. Yes [] ii. No []
- 21. How well is the work done by the teachers involved?
.....
.....

Thank you for your cooperation.