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Total Quality Management: An industrial/organizational psychology perspective

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TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT: AN INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

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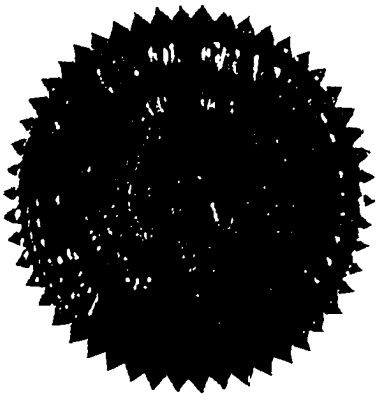

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between Total Quality Management and Employee involvement. Employees of Stephen F. Austin State University were surveyed to ascertain their perceptions relative to their contributions to decision making at the university. This particular population was studied because the current administration was in the process of implementing a TQM oriented initiative. The overall conclusion was that employees were not content with their level of contribution to the decision making process, especially in terms of the overall functioning of the university. The results of the study suggested that there is a discrepancy between what organizational leaders might be saying about employee involvement and what they are actually doing to encourage it.

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LITERATURE REVIEW

The rhetoric pertaining to quality, and to the importance of human resources, over the past twenty years has failed to address the many problems facing American business and American society in general. The fact that talk was not followed by action has contributed much to America's recent economic and social decline. "Total Quality Management" (TQM) is an approach which has the potential to rectify the mistakes of the past, because it not only addresses the issue of quality, but it addresses the issue of how best to utilize human resources as well. This literature review is an attempt to examine the phenomenon of TQM and to obtain a better understanding of the psychological foundation upon which it rests. One should conclude from this paper that TQM, or at least the principles upon which it is based, offers a viable alternative to traditional management practices and is deeply rooted in the past research of industrial/ organizational and social psychology.

There has been much debate as to how the apparent decline in American competitiveness can be successfully resolved (Hayes & Abernathy, 1980; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992). Much of the literature suggests that it is a focus on quality which will enable the United

States to once again assume its position as the undisputed leader in the global community. One learns from a further study of the literature, however, that emphasizing quality is not something new; in fact, for several decades a "quality revolution" has been taking place in America. Out of this revolution has evolved a phenomenon which is recognized by most as "Total Quality Management" (TQM).

Historical Development of TQM

In order to grasp an understanding of TQM it is necessary to have a basic understanding of the quality revolution which is alluded to above. It is apparent from a review of the literature pertaining to quality that this movement was more or less forced upon the United States because of its business practices following World War II. As the literature (Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Hiam, 1992; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; and Tenner & Detoro, 1992) suggests, during the war most industries were primarily focused on meeting the needs of the military. This military focus resulted in an extended period during which very little attention was given to the needs of consumers. Therefore, following the war, the demand for consumer products increased rapidly and the United States was the only industrialized nation capable of meeting these increasing demands. With its manufacturing capabilities fully intact, the United States was able to completely

dominate the global marketplace. Other major industrialized areas of the world, such as Japan and Europe, were forced to concentrate on reconstruction, while the United States was free to focus on developing entirely new industries and on opening new markets. Because of the devastation and destruction left by the war, the United States was certainly superior to other countries in terms of manufacturing capabilities, however, the United States was also superior in terms of financial resources, technology, and the skills of its workers. Furthermore, following the war the best and brightest Americans were attracted to the business community, while similar individuals in other countries were attracted to the military and government service (Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992).

Obviously, conditions being as they were, American companies were left unchallenged. They were faced with what appeared to be a limitless market and consumers who were willing and eager to purchase their products with little regard for quality. This led companies to focus entirely on production and very little consideration was given to quality. Though, over time, consumer attitudes toward quality changed, the business practices of American companies changed very little. Therefore, they were unprepared for the competition they were soon to be faced with from foreign companies, particularly Japanese companies.

Much of the literature (Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Hiam, 1992; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; and Tenner & Detoro, 1992) suggests that the quality movement in the United States evolved out of the quality movement in Japan. However, the literature further indicates that it was Americans, such as W. Edwards Deming, who influenced the Japanese to pursue total quality (Dobyns & Crawford-Mason, 1991). Deming's ideas about management and the pursuit of quality, as well as the ideas of other Americans, were very well received by the Japanese. In America, however, not much attention was given to their ideas. While the Japanese were actively pursuing what many today would consider TQM, American companies were only beginning to recognize the importance of quality. As the Japanese began to rapidly chip away at the United States share of the global market, American companies were just beginning to realize that consumers had changed their attitudes toward quality. With this realization the quality movement had finally begun in the United States.

The quality revolution in the United States was much different than the movement taking place in Japan. Business leaders in Japan were being taught to incorporate a pursuit of product quality into the strategic planning and management of their organizations, while American business leaders had a much more narrow view of pursuing quality. American companies saw quality as something that needed to be addressed, however, the importance in addressing it was

contingent on the costs and primarily pertained to the physical attributes of the manufactured products. Starr (1978) exemplifies perfectly the attitude of the day by suggesting that "not always, but almost always, to achieve better quality, one must increase costs" (p.532). The thrust of quality in American industry during this time was centered around quality control. Rather than attempting to continuously improve a product by continuously improving the manner in which it is produced, American companies attempted to provide quality products by determining standards and specifications, and then finding ways to control production so as to meet these specifications. Furthermore, the customer had a minimal role in determining what specifications and standards the company used. As Hiam (1992) points out, the essence of quality for American companies was to catch defects at the end of the production process, rather than attempting to prevent them from taking place. Unfortunately, it was this approach towards pursuing quality which characterized the quality movement in the United States up to the late 1970's and early 1980's.

As alluded to above, the quality revolution in Japan was significantly influenced by Americans. It was not until the Japanese had begun to effectively challenge the position of the United States that American companies were led to seek the advice of these individuals. W. Edwards Deming is probably the most well-known of the "quality gurus",

however, there are those who suggest that some of his recognized achievements are somewhat embellished (Bowles & Hammond, 1991). Others who should be recognized as contributing to the quality movement in America are Joseph Juran, Philip Crosby, and Armand V. Feigenbaum (Tenner & Detoro, 1992). Though these individuals are recognized for their contributions to this movement, Total Quality Management, as it is currently discussed in the literature, is more closely associated with the philosophy of Deming.

Dobyns and Crawford-Mason (1991) suggest that while Juran, Crosby, and Feigenbaum were more pragmatic in terms of their contribution to the quality movement, Deming took more of a philosophical approach. Deming believed the quality problem in America was primarily the fault of management, however, he did not believe that there was simply a three-step process which could resolve the problems. The others tended to concentrate on persuading management to concentrate on the issue of product quality and they provided ways for management to do so. Deming on the other hand, believed that for American business to truly turn itself around, there must be an entire cultural change within the organizations, and he further contended that such a change must take place throughout American society (Deming,1986). His philosophy consists of fourteen points which are provided in Figure 1. Dobyns and Crawford-Mason point out that Deming not only emphasized focusing on the

Figure 1 - Deming's 14 Points For Management

1. Create constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service.

2. Adopt the new philosophy.

3. Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality.

4. End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag alone. Instead minimize total cost by working with a single supplier.

5. Improve constantly and forever every process for planning, production and service.

6. Institute training on the job.

7. Adopt and institute leadership.

8. Drive out fear.

9. Break down barriers between staff areas.

10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force.

11. Eliminate numerical quotas for the work force and numerical goals for management.

12. Remove barriers that rob people of pride of workmanship. Eliminate the annual rating or merit system.

13. Institute a vigorous program of education and self-improvement for everybody.

14. Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation.

Source: Bowles & Hammond, 1991

work process, but he emphasized that there must be a focus on how people respond to the work process. According to Dobyns and Crawford-Mason, Deming contended that until American managers began to realize that people should have the right to enjoy their work, it would be extremely difficult to provide any type of true revitalization within an organization.

Walton (1986) indicates that Deming's contributions in the area of management and quality began via his expertise in statistics. The knowledge which he had to offer concerning the use of statistics in controlling quality was significant, however it was ignored by Americans. Tenner and Detoro (1992) state that Deming was greatly influenced by Walter Shewart. Apparently, Deming was interested in Shewart's work relevant to sampling and control charts, and he went to study under him. From his experience with Shewart, Deming became an expert in sampling, and according to Tenner and Detoro, Deming assisted others in teaching Shewart'stechniques to the engineers who were responsible for the production of war material during World War II. Without going into much further detail on the life of Deming, it is important to note that his extensive work experience led him to develop a philosophy on how management should pursue quality. His philosophy became known to leaders in Japan, and he was invited to address a group, known as the Union of Japanese Scientists and Engineers, on

his philosophy.

Bowles and Hammond (1991) point out that Deming's primary assertion was that " constancy of purpose serves as an agent releasing the power of intrinsic motivation by creating joy, pride, and happiness in work and in learning for all employees"(p.203). Tenner and Detoro (1992) further explain that Deming emphasized the significance of upper management in establishing quality in the products being produced. Bowles and Hammond contend that the Japanese were interested in having this philosophy shared with the leaders of their business community, which is why they invited Deming to speak. Much of the literature suggests that he was invited to discuss his ideas concerning statistical process control, however, in reality the Japanese were interested in his views concerning upper management. They brought him there to emphasize that quality was not the sole responsibility of the worker, and that it required proper leadership from management to implement a pursuit of quality. Tenner and Detoro further explain that Deming emphasizes this fact by explaining that it was the "system" of work which determined quality of production or service, and that management created the system, not the worker.

What Is TQM?

What is meant by the term *Total Quality Management* depends on who one talks to or what one reads. While many

consider it to be a method of management, others consider it to be a philosophy upon which to base the culture of an organization. For most, however, Total Quality Management is recognized as the label given to the current phase of the American quality revolution. Schmidt and Finnigan (1992) suggest that the phrase or label was coined by a behavioral scientist in the U.S. Navy, Nancy Warren, in 1985. Though discussed in most circles as the most effective way to manage quality, it is becoming more frequently recognized as the most effective approach towards enhancing the quality of management.

The acronym, TQM, has become synonymous with many different quality programs in the United States, which is one of the reasons that many find the phenomenon somewhat nebulous. Jacob (1993) points out that it might be time to lose the acronym. In fact, he suggests Total Quality Management has become so ingrained into many companies that they have no label for it; its simply one aspect of the way they conduct their business.

Anthony, Perrewe, and Kacmar (1993) provide an excellent definition of TQM, which identifies the underlying premise. According to Anthony et al,

> "TQM is a strategic, integrated management system for achieving customer satisfaction that involves all managers and employees and uses quantitative methods to continuously improve an organization's processes. TQM is designed to achieve customer satisfaction, make continuous improvements, and give responsibility to everyone. To achieve this goal, the organization must develop performance standards and valid ways of

> measuring these standards. It must strive to focus on the customer, on communication, and on employee involvement." (p.388)

For the purpose of this particular research project, Total Quality Management is discussed within the parameters of this definition which emphasizes these principles - customer focus, employee involvement, and continuous process improvement. The principle of employee involvement or empowerment is the primary focus of this study, however, the other two principles are covered briefly.

Customer Focus

The literature (Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; Tenner & Detoro, 1992; Barry, 1991; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Hiam, 1992; Kinlaw, 1992; and Schuler & Harris, 1992) indicates that focusing on the customer involves identifying the customer and then determining the wants, needs, and expectations of the customer. Contrary to the rhetoric espoused by most American companies, not much attention has traditionally been given to the customer beyond attempts to manipulate him/her. Hiam points out that in the past companies were unable to satisfy their customers sufficiently because they did not understand what the customer perceived as costs and benefits. They did not understand because they did not communicate with the customer. Furthermore, since the customers' perceptions were not clearly understood, the company was unable to consider the customer in decisions affecting quality (Hiam,

1992). Therefore, within the realm of TQM, quality is defined by the customer. Tenner and Detoro (1992) point out, as do Barry (1991) and Hiam, that it is not enough to understand what the customer perceives as quality and then conform to that requirement. They suggest that the customer's perception of quality is constantly changing, therefore the company must be prepared to adapt to this change. Total quality management allows the company to do just that. An emphasis on continuous improvement through customer focus will lead the organization to establish "partnerships" with its customers, which will allow the organization to recognize changes in the customers' expectations and satisfaction.

One final note relevant to customers is the concept of internal, as well as, external customers (Tenner & Detoro, 1992; Barry, 1991; and Kinlaw, 1992). Tenner and Detoro emphasize that it is critical for everyone in the organization to recognize who receives the product of their individual work as well as the final product of their organization. Focusing on the internal customer allows the organization to further reduce defective work and thus increases the ability to satisfy the external customer.

Continuous Process Improvement

Tenner and Detoro (1992) point out that historically American companies have pursued quality by addressing each specific output of the work process and by focusing on a set

standard. TQM emphasizes preventing deviation and systematically improving the underlying key processes. This aspect of TQM is directly related to the quality control concept discussed earlier. One might recall that the initial stages of the quality revolution were centered around quality control. A company would determine standards and specifications based on what it believed would be acceptable to the consumer. Once these standards and specifications were determined, the company would concentrate on controlling the work process so as to meet these specifications. Therefore, a company's pursuit of quality consisted of catching defects at the end of the process rather than preventing the defects from occurring. TQM stresses a different approach. Rather than simply attempting to meet the specifications, which the company believes the customer will accept, TQM emphasizes exceeding the customer's expectations. Quality is defined, not as what one hopes the customer will accept, but as surpassing the standards of the customer. Furthermore, TQM emphasizes incorporating a pursuit of continuous improvement into the work process, rather than attempting to catch defects at the end of the process. For example, instead of attempting to catch defective products at the end of the work process before the product goes to the customer, the company focuses on enabling the workers to perform their jobs so as to prevent the defective product from being produced. This

might include providing the employees with proper training, conducting preventive maintenance on the machinery, and/or maintaining continuous communication with suppliers.

Hiam (1992) stresses that too often the traditional approach to dealing with quality problems was to find out who is at fault. Working under these conditions discourages employees from attempting to innovate because they are overly concerned with making mistakes. Deming (1986) suggested that in order to alleviate this problem there must be a concerted effort on the part of all members of management to "drive fear out of the work place". Hiam emphasizes that it is imperative within the realm of TQM to recognize that the process is the problem rather than the individual. Once the focus is shifted to the process the true quality improvement can begin. Tenner and Detoro (1992) suggest that process improvement involves identifying the problem relative to the process, identifying and documenting the process, measuring performance, and then utilize statistical process control or some similar quantitative approach to determine why the problem occurred. Once this procedure has been followed it is possible to develop and test possible solutions.

Employee Participation and Involvement

As alluded to above, TQM's principle of employee involvement or empowerment is the primary focus of this study. From the remaining portion of this literature review

one should notice that an emphasis on employee involvement is not a revolutionary management technique, but a concept which has been advocated for decades by many in the field of I/O psychology. Throughout the literature on TQM (Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; Tenner & Detoro, 1992; Anthony et al, 1993; Bowen & Lawler, 1992), as well as the literature pertaining to the future of American management practices (Boyett & Conn, 1991; Cotton, 1993; Kiechel, 1993; Peters, 1992), liberating the work force is discussed extensively. Many contend that it is an emphasis on people which distinguishes TQM from the rest of the quality movement in America, and that it is the emphasis on employee involvement which makes TQM so beneficial to the organization (Anthony et al, 1993; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1992; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992).

The results of the MAPI-WYATT survey suggest that there is a strong relationship between TQM and employee involvement. This survey was a joint effort involving the MAPI, which is the Manufacturers' Alliance for Productivity and Innovation, and the Wyatt Company, which is an international human resources consulting firm. They surveyed 118 companies, which represent a broad cross-section of industries, hoping to determine the effects of quality improvement on employee issues in manufacturing companies. According to the survey, of the 118 companies that responded, 58% indicated that the primary motivation

for implementing a Total Quality Management initiative was to "capture the ideas and suggestions of the employees", and 84% indicated that their company's "strategic quality planning included consideration of employee involvement" (MAPI-WYATT, 1993). The primary reason for mentioning this survey is that it demonstrates that employee involvement is important to the majority of these 118 companies which are attempting to implement TQM and it suggests that employee involvement is an element of TQM.

The study conducted by Lawler, Mohrman, and Ledford (1992) also indicates that employee involvement is significant to TQM. Their research consisted of surveying the top 1000 companies in the United States. This particular study was conducted in 1990, however, they had conducted a similar study in 1987. According to Lawler et al, 80% of the companies surveyed in 1987 indicated that they had some type of employee involvement initiative within their organization. They found that this number had changed very little over the three year period between 1987-1990. One other interesting finding was that more than two-thirds of the *Fortune 1000* companies considered employee involvement and TQM to be dependent on each other. The two studies are significant in that they both suggest that employee involvement is considered important by a large majority of American companies, and both suggest that TQM and employee involvement are dependent on one another.

One might note before concluding this discussion of the two studies that the research is based on the responses of the company leaders. This is significant for several reasons. The main reason that it is significant is that the views of the other employees within the organizations are not known, therefore it is very difficult to ascertain whether employee involvement exists or not. It is my contention that one cannot truly determine the presence or absence of employee involvement without hearing from the employees. This assertion is one of the underlying premises of this study, and will be addressed later in this paper.

Bowles and Hammond (1991) suggest that within the realm of TQM the individual is empowered by being provided more of a stake in the system. Through training, the individual is provided the skills and knowledge which are necessary to incorporate quality into every aspect of the work process. Furthermore, the literature (Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992) indicates that the employee should be involved in the success of the company as well as the struggles. Most can agree that traditionally the American worker has been expected to feel "rewarded" by the fact that the success of the company provides them with a job. However, during times of company hardship, the employee gets hit the hardest with threats of lay-offs, down-sizing, pay-cuts, etc., while the members of management (specifically, upper-management) continue to receive bonuses, salary increases, etc. This

type of inequity is not present within an organization that adheres to the principles of TQM (Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992). Finally, employee involvement suggests that quality efforts will be rewarded and recognized and individuals will work together as teams to pursue the goals of the company or organization.

Research Pertaining to Employee Involvement

There has been quite a bit of research conducted in the area of employee involvement which suggests that it can only be beneficial to an organization. Many have suggested that it is the impact that employee involvement has on the attitude of the employee which makes it important (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Schweiger & Leana, 1986), while others have found that it enhances productivity (Katzell & Guzzo, 1983; Guzzo, Jette, & Katzell, 1985; Spector, 1986), which is enticing to management. Sashkin (1986) contends that employee involvement must be adhered to because it is the ethical thing to do. Whatever the reason, it must be noted that theorists have been promoting employee participation for quite a while now.

Throughout the literature (Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Cotton, 1993; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; Yager, 1979) the most widely discussed form of employee involvement is the quality circle. The quality circle, in a general sense, consists of a small group of employees who voluntarily meet

to discuss quality issues or other work related issues (Buch & Spangler, 1990). According to Munchus (1983), the idea of quality circles originated in Japan, and in America's short-sighted attempt to surpass the Japanese by copying them, quality circles were soon being formed in America. Yager (1979) concluded from his research on quality circles that, for the Japanese, one of the primary purposes for the quality circles was to enhance the development of employees. Yager indicates that quality circles were advocated to develop the individual, encourage creativity, as well as develop the management potential of individuals. In regards to participation Buch and Spangler suggest that

> "As an approach to participative management, Quality Circles incorporate the philosophy that employees at all levels want to be involved in decisions that affect their jobs, and that those closest to a given job are in the best position to evaluate the problems and provide solutions." (p.574)

Cotton (1993) points out that Quality Circles are similar to another approach to employee involvement which will be discussed, known as self-managed work teams, or more currently such entities are referred to as self-directed work teams (Fisher, 1993). The primary difference is in the degree to which employees are given autonomy to make their own decisions. Quality Circles enable the organization to hear directly from those closest to the process how quality can be improved, however, management makes the final decision as to what action will be taken. One will notice

in the discussion of teams, that there is not a manager to report to but a team leader, who in concert with the rest of the team makes the decision. The last point that should be made concerning quality circles is that they are becoming less prominent as the concept of teams becomes more and more popular.

As alluded to in the last paragraph, self-directed work teams are becoming more and more prevalent in those companies which are implementing TQM (Miles & McCloskey, 1993; Pearson, 1992; Caudron, 1993; Aubrey & Felkins, 1988). Lawler and Mohrman (1985) suggested that Quality Circles are advantageous to those organizations seeking to increase the degree to which employees are involved, however, they further suggest that in order to develop a participative culture, a more expansive strategy must be used. Much of the literature (Jessup, 1990; Wall et al , 1986; Wellins & George, 1991; Fisher, 1993) suggests such a strategy must involve the concept of autonomous or self-directed work teams. Pearson (1992) suggest that the team concept is firmly rooted in the participative management research and socio-technical theory. The self-directed work team is very similar to the Quality Circle, except, as mentioned above, there is a greater degree of discretion by team members as to decision making.

Manz (1992) points out that self-management and self-managing teams must exist only as a temporary phase in the

evolution towards an empowered work force. According to Manz, self-managed teams, as they are currently being utilized and institutionalized, might ironically limit the amount of employee involvement rather than enhance it. He advocates the need to move towards self-*leading* work teams. Essentially, he is advocating providing total autonomy to the work force. There has been research conducted recently which has demonstrated that the implementation of self-directed work teams is effective. Pearson (1992) found that the establishment of autonomous work teams enhanced the employees' perceptions towards decision-making, job scope, job satisfaction, productivity, and attendance. To conclude, it appears that there might be serious advantages for both the organization as well as the individual to implementing a team approach to managing the work processes. Though the two approaches which have been discussed above are not the only approaches which have been used to initiate the involvement of employees within an organization, they are the most prominent throughout the literature.

TQM, as it is discussed throughout the literature, is indeed a new approach to managing human resources. However, the theories of management upon which TQM is based are not new. Simply speaking, the "packaging" is different. One might review the literature pertaining to I/O psychology and management and notice that many of the principles relevant to employee involvement and management which are advocated

by the proponents of TQM are very similar to principles and theories which were suggested in the 1940's, 50's, and 60's. The remainder of this literature review will examine those theories most relevant to TQM.

Psychological Foundation Of TQM

Maslow (1943) proposed a theory which suggested that individuals were motivated by the desire to satisfy different needs. Though, as much of the literature points out (Landy, 1989; Argyle, 1989), Maslow did not develop his theory with work motivation specifically in mind, he has contributed a great deal to the way in which workers are treated on the job. Much of Maslow's theory identifies needs, however, the other significant component deals with explaining how needs relate to other needs. According to Maslow, there are five categories of needs, which individuals attempt to satisfy - physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs. Maslow suggests that these needs are arranged in a hierarchy, with physiological needs being at the bottom and self-actualization needs being at the top. He labeled the physiological and safety needs as basic needs and the social, self-esteem and self-actualization needs as higher-order needs. Though the theory has received a great deal of attention over the past decades, the one aspect which has stood out the most is the concept of self-actualization.

According to Maslow, one is constantly striving to achieve self-actualization, however, very few ever reach this stage. Upon reaching this stage the process changes, and the individual continuously seeks self-fulfillment, through more outer-directed activities.

One might contend that there are many similarities between TQM and Maslow's theory, in that the corporation seeking total quality is somewhat like the individual seeking to become self-actualized. The customer-focus aspect of TQM is very similar to the outer-directed aspect of self-actualization. The self-actualized individual is no longer self absorbed with removing painful unfulfilled needs such as hunger, loneliness, or lack of esteem, but instead such an individual is focused on others' needs and pain. Similarly, the TQM company seeks to focus on serving the customer. Furthermore, the self-actualized individual has a genuine awareness of his strength and weaknesses. This allows the individual to work on decreasing the weaknesses and enhancing the strengths. In the same way, companies adhering to TQM no longer are concerned with finding someone to blame, but instead are interested in finding the root of problems so as to prevent them from happening again. Finally, while Maslow was interested in developing a theory which would enhance the psychological health of individuals, TQM is an approach to enhancing the organizational health of corporations.

Another individual concerned with the psychological health of individuals within organizations was Chris Argyris. Argyris (1964) suggested that organizations were based on energy and the primary source of this energy was the "psychological energy" of the individuals within the organization. He further suggested that one's psychological success was directly related to one's psychological energy. One's psychological success, according to Argyris, depends on two factors. The first factor is the degree to which individuals value themselves. His contention was that individuals "aspire to experience an increasing sense of competence". The second factor is the degree to which the organization provides the individual with the opportunity to define, pursue, and accomplish goals. Argyris further believed that the society in which one lives also influences their psychological success. Argyris suggested that the organizational structure of American business was not conducive to psychological health, and thus they were unable to tap into the psychological energy of the individuals.

The psychological research which has been conducted in the area of participatory management has also contributed to the development of TQM. One individual in particular who has contributed in this area is Rensis Likert. Likert (1961) conducted leadership research which led to some extremely influential findings concerning management. The results of his study suggested that those managers who were

highly productive tended to be employee-centered, while the managers who were less productive tended to be more job-centered. According to Likert, those in the poor productivity group focused more on keeping employees busy performing a specialized task in a specialized way at a satisfactory rate determined by time standards. Schmidt and Finnigan (1992) point out that Likert observed that the highly productive managers were utilizing principles of supportive relationships. Likert suggested that organizations would be more effective if it viewed itself as a cluster of groups, with leaders rather than mangers. Repeatedly the contention has been made that TQM advocates a new way of managing people. One need only look at the research and theories found in the I/O psychology and management literature to observe that it is not a new way to manage. McGregor (1960) proposed a theory of management which has significantly influenced the evolution of TQM. According to McGregor, traditional management practices in the United States were based on assumptions, which he contended were incorrect. Argyle (1989) points out that McGregor was influenced by Maslow's theory and in fact he based his ideas on Maslow's theory. Mcgregor advocated changing the beliefs that he contended management had about employees. He proposed two types of belief systems which he suggested managers had about workers. Though much of the literature suggests that he intended only to use these two

beliefs as examples, they have come to represent a very influential theory.

According to McGregor(1960) there are two basic theories which indicate the beliefs held about people. "Theory X" suggests that people must have their behavior modified and controlled, because intrinsically they are not concerned with the organization, nor do they care to do a good job. "Theory "Y on the other hand suggests that individuals are indeed intrinsically motivated to do a good job, have the capacity to accept responsibility, the potential to improve and develop, and the desire to work toward the goals of the organization. Landy (1989) points out that McGregor was suggesting that resistance and apathy of workers was learned by being conditioned by the organizational system. According to Landy's interpretation of McGregor, resistance and apathy are the result of the individual's personality or situation. McGregor emphasized that for the optimal working situation and productivity enhancement it was necessary for management to make a collaborative effort with employees to integrate the goals of the individual with goals of the organization. Total Quality Management is based on the concept of "Theory Y", in fact, Schmidt and Finnigan (1992) point out that TQM efforts will fail unless "theory Y" is understood by those attempting to implement the philosophy.

One final theorist who must be addressed is Frederick

Herzberg. Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor Theory of Motivation and his conceptualization of job enrichment have contributed a great deal to the study of industrial/organizational psychology and management. One should conclude from the following discussion of his work that he has also contributed to the evolution of TQM. Herzberg's theory of motivation was based on his contention that individuals are motivated by two sets of needs, hygiene and motivator needs. Similar to Maslow's theory, the hygiene needs pertain to basic survival needs, while the motivator needs pertain to personal growth and self-fulfillment. Though Maslow suggested that there were several groups of needs which motivated an individual, these different groups fit rather nicely into the two different sets of needs described by Herzberg. According to Herzberg, there are specific factors within the work place associated with the two sets of needs. Relevant to hygiene needs, he suggests that there are extrinsically motivating factors which pertain to the job environment, such as "company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security". In terms of motivator needs, Herzberg contends that there are intrinsically motivating factors which pertain to the job content, such as "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth".

There is another aspect of Herzberg's (1968) theory which must be addressed in order to discuss job enrichment, which is significant to the discussion of TQM and employee involvement. Herzberg suggests that one perceives his/her job in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and he contends that the two are independent. He concluded from his research that one's level of dissatisfaction is related to hygiene factors, while one's level of satisfaction is related to motivators. Herzberg (1982) further contends that the individual functions at either a hygiene seeking level or a motivation seeking level, and the most effective way to motivate an individual is to emphasize the motivation seeking level and enable the individual to meet motivator needs. Based on this contention, Herzberg developed the concept of job enrichment. Simply stated, job enrichment involves changing one's job around so that it is more challenging as well as rewarding. He suggests that, by making the job more interesting and allowing the individual more freedom as to how the job should be performed, the individual will develop an enhanced feeling of self-worth and an increased sense of accomplishment, responsibility, and autonomy. This, in turn, will lead to greater job satisfaction and motivation.

As mentioned above, the concept of job enrichment ties in nicely with TQM. Throughout the literature (Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Schmidt and Finnigan, 1992; Miles &

McCloskey, 1993) TQM is discussed in terms of empowerment and employee involvement, which one could contend are similar to the concept of job enrichment. All three terms suggest giving the employees more power over their jobs and increasing their sense of responsibility and autonomy. Although TQM might not directly correspond with the theories and ideas of Herzberg, it is important to note that he was advocating throughout the 1960's some of the same principles which proponents of TQM are advocating today. In fact, the sole purpose of examining Herzberg's theory, as well as the others which have been addressed in this literature review, has been to illustrate how TQM has been significantly influenced by psychology.

TQM's advocacy of employee involvement requires that most American companies take significant steps to change the culture of their organization. These steps are significant in that TQM requires both a change in how the organization is managed and it requires a change in how the employee perceives himself/herself relevant to the organization. In terms of management, the literature repeatedly points out the difference between management and leadership. Management within the realm of TQM is not concerned with controlling the employee, but with empowering the employee. Through supportive leadership an environment is established which unleashes the potential of the individual in terms of creativity, innovation, problem-solving, etc. Schmidt and

Finnigan (1992), as well as Boyett & Conn (1991) and Covey (1991), suggest that as TQM evolves and becomes more common place within our society, there will be little distinction between management and employees. The team concept replaces such a relationship with managers being replaced by leaders.

The primary purpose of this literature review was to examine the concept of Total Quality Management and to suggest that, though it continues to grow in popularity as a new way of managing, etc., it is in actuality simply the product of many years of research and theorizing. One cannot discuss TQM without acknowledging that quality improvement via process improvement is important, however, it must further be acknowledged that there is a powerful psychological element to TQM, which I contend will be the reason for its success. One can find a great deal of support for such a view. However, there are those who suggest that increased employee participation may hinder the competitiveness of companies rather than enhance it. Baloff and Doherty (1989) conducted a study which led them to conclude that participation might have negative consequences within an organization. According to their article, Baloff and Doherty found that participation can lead to negative consequences in three different ways. First, they suggest that those employees who are encouraged to participate may be subjected to peer-group pressure because of a perceived collaboration with management in ways that might endanger

employee interests. The second type of negative consequence was that middle managers might attempt to coerce the employees during their participation or they may retaliate against the employees if the results of participation are unsatisfactory to the managers. The final negative consequence which Baloff and Doherty suggest might occur is that the participators might find it difficult to adapt psychologically at the end of a highly motivating participation effort if they are forced to return to a narrow rigidly traditional routine.

The literature suggests that Total Quality Management is unique to other aspects of the quality movement in America in that it emphasizes total involvement of employees. This is indeed significant, however, it cannot be considered revolutionary. Industrial/ organizational psychologists have continually suggested that organizations should be more attentive to the needs of their employees. They have further contended that allowing employees to have a stake in the system will enhance the satisfaction that people will find in their jobs. The majority of those in positions of management tended to either ignore such contentions, or they simply paid lip service to the ideas. Once again theorists are advocating that the organization needs to attend to the needs of the workers if they want to compete in the new global economy and it will be interesting to see if the corporate leaders are indeed heeding their

advice.

Statement of Purpose

The literature suggests that employee involvement is critical to an organization's successful implementation of Total Quality Management (TQM); therefore, the purpose of this research was to contribute to the study of TQM by focusing on the aspect of employee involvement. The supporting research in this area (Lawler et al, 1992; MAPI-WYATT, 1993) has only studied the topic of employee involvement from the perspective of organizational leaders, however, this study sought to examine the topic from the perspective of the employees. Certainly for employee involvement to exist within an organization it is essential for the organizational leaders to encourage it, however, saying that it exists does not make it so. One cannot truly ascertain whether an organization is adhering to the principle of employee involvement unless the opinions, perceptions, and thoughts of the employees are observed. This was the objective of this study.

The most effective way to study the relationship between TQM and employee involvement would be to observe an organization which has implemented a TQM oriented program. Observing the organization over an extended period of time would further enhance the validity of such a study. Therefore, this particular research project will serve as

the first phase of a longitudinal study which will focus on the relationship between TQM and employee involvement within a TQM oriented organization. The primary purpose of the present research was to study the extent to which employee involvement currently exists within an organization based on the perceptions of the employees. More specifically, I wanted to determine the extent to which employees think they contribute to the strategic decision making of the organization. Furthermore, I sought to identify the current attitudes of the employees toward the organization. Finally, I looked at the extent to which employees were aware of the organization's TQM efforts. It was my contention that by examining these three areas - contribution to decision making, attitudes toward the organization, and awareness of TQM efforts, one can better determine the extent to which employee involvement exists within the organization.

Not only will this type of information enhance our understanding of employee involvement and its relation to TQM, but it will also contribute to the functioning of organizations attempting to implement TQM initiatives. Much of the literature (Lawler et al, 1992; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Tenner & Detoro, 1992) suggests that implementing TQM oriented initiatives requires a cultural change within most organizations, which has a direct effect on the individuals within these organizations.

One might further contend that such a change not only affects the individuals, but its successful implementation depends on them. Therefore, it seems that obtaining a better understanding of how the employees perceive the organization and their roles within the organization can only contribute to the successful implementation of such a change. The feedback obtained from the present study should certainly benefit the organization in this regard.

METHOD

Subjects

The employee population (administration/staff, faculty, and hourly) of Stephen F. Austin State University (SFA) was the focus of this research. The population was selected because of SFA's current attempt to implement a total quality management initiative (SFA 98). All 1211 employees were given the opportunity to participate and they were all treated in accordance to the "Ethical Principles of Psychologists" (American Psychological Association, 1981).

The 1211 employees were sent an employee opinion survey via university mail and 386 chose to participate by returning the survey, establishing a return rate of 31.87%. Due to the fact that one of the focal points of the research was perceived change in contribution to decision making over the past two years, those respondents (47) who indicated that they had been with the university for less than two years were deleted from the study. It should be noted that 15 of the remaining respondents did not indicate their length of tenure with the university, however, they were not deleted from the study. These 15 respondents were included in the data analyses because they all indicated a perceived change over the past two years on at least one of the survey

items and/or they provided significant comments suggesting that they had been with university for an extended period of time. The average age for the remaining 339 respondents was 45 years old and the average length of time they had been with the university was 11 years. The sample population's make-up by gender was 54% male and 46% female.

Administration/Staff

As indicated above, the population was separated into three groups. The administration/staff population consisted of executive administrators, deans, department heads, managers, secretaries, and professional employees. This group consisted of 383 people making up 32% of the research population of 1211. One-hundred and fifty-six of the 383 chose to participate in the study by returning their survey, establishing a 41% return rate. Twenty-seven respondents were deleted from the study for reasons mentioned above. The remaining 129 respondents made up 39% of the 339 surveys returned by the entire population that were used for data analysis. These 129 respondents had an average age of 42 years and had been with the university an average of 10 years. The group's make-up by gender was 42% male and 58% female.

Faculty

The group classified as faculty consisted of all professors, associate professors, assistant professors, and lecturers. Twenty-four percent (293 people) of the research

population of 1211 was made up of faculty members. Of the 293 faculty members, 164 participated in the study by returning their survey, providing a 56% return rate. However, 10 participants were deleted from the study for reasons previously mentioned. The remaining 154 respondents made up 46.5% of the 339 surveys returned by the entire population that were used in data analysis. These 154 Faculty members had an average age of 48 years and had been with the university an average of 14 years. The group's make-up by gender was 67% male and 33% female.

Hourly

The group classified as hourly consisted of all employees who were paid by the hour. This group (535 people) made up 44% of the research population of 1211. Fifty-eight of the 535 hourly employees participated in the study by returning their survey, providing a 10.8% return rate. However, 10 subjects were deleted from the study for reasons mentioned above. The remaining 48 respondents made up 14.5% of the 339 surveys from the entire population that were used for data analysis. These 48 Hourly employees had an average age of 40 years and had been with the university for an average of seven years. The group's make-up by gender was 44% male and 56% female.

Materials

The data were obtained by conducting survey research

and interviews. The survey (see Appendix A) addressed the three areas alluded to earlier, which are contribution to decision making, employee attitudes toward SFA, and employee awareness of SFA's TQM initiative. The questions pertaining to decision making were primarily based on the information obtained from the interviews. The primary focus of the survey was on the extent to which employees perceived their level of participation at SFA. There were also some questions which addressed the employees' attitudes toward their jobs, departments and SFA, as well as their awareness of the TQM initiative (SFA 98). The survey was accompanied by a cover letter from the president of SFA, as well as a cover letter from the researcher. The cover letter from the researcher addressed the consent of the participants and the participants were informed that returning the survey was their indication of consent.

The interview consisted of having the employees identify those decisions which they thought were most relevant to them. Different areas of decision making were suggested to the employees and they were asked to indicate the extent to which they thought they contributed to the relative decisions, whether they were content with their level of contribution, and whether they perceived a change in their level of contribution compared to 2 years ago. Employees were also asked to suggest any additional areas of decision making which were not addressed by the researcher

and to comment on the SFA 98 initiative which is currently being implemented.

Procedure

The study was initiated by attaining a sample of 30 employees to be interviewed. Prior to obtaining the sample, the population was divided into three groups - Administration, Faculty, & Hourly Employees. The administration group was further divided into business administration (vice presidents, supervisors/managers, professional employees) and academic administration (department heads, deans). Ten employees were randomly selected from each group, with five individuals coming from academic administration, five individuals coming from business administration, ten faculty members, and ten hourly employees.

There were some additional constraints placed on the selection process. In terms of the administration and hourly employee groups, no more than one individual was selected from a given department or school. Each of the seven schools were represented by those faculty members which were selected, however, no more than two individuals were selected from a given school.

The sample was selected by utilizing a random numbers table. At the time of the study there were 725 individuals on the faculty/administration 1993 roster; therefore, the

last three digits of the random numbers were used to select the participants from these groups. The researcher obtained the first random number by standing over the numbers table with eyes closed and dropping a pen. The number closest to the pen mark served as the first number. The researcher proceeded by moving down the column of numbers until ten individuals had been selected from the faculty and administrative groups. Once ten participants had been selected from each of these two groups, the researcher repeated the process to select ten hourly employees. The hourly employees were selected apart from faculty and administration because a separate roster was used. There were 535 hourly employees at the time of the study; therefore, the last three digits of the random numbers were again used. Upon selecting all 30 participants, the researcher made appointments to meet with each individual and proceed to conduct the interviews. One might note that the sample of 30 employees was a biased sample, which suggests that it did not fully represent the population being examined. Though I initially considered interviewing a stratified random sample of employees, I concluded that, due to limited resources, it would not have been feasible to work with the sample size which this approach would have required. Therefore, the sample was stratified so as to incorporate different points of view, and each employee was randomly selected within each stratum. For example, the

faculty population was stratified by school, which allowed all seven schools to have at least one faculty member representing their perspective. This was a biased sample because the percentage of people within each stratum did not correspond with the percentage of the population. This is significant because it limits any generalizations which might be made from the sample to the population. This noted, it is equally important to recognize that the primary purpose of the interviews was to obtain information which enabled the researcher to develop a much more useful and valid survey instrument, which was distributed to the entire population.

Before concluding this section of the study it is necessary to discuss the importance of confidentiality. The APA Code of Ethics (American Psychological Association, 1981) emphasizes that a researcher should never violate a participant's right to privacy. Furthermore, it emphasizes that the information obtained during a study must be treated as highly confidential and should never be made available to others without the consent of the participant. Confidentiality is not only important because it is emphasized in the APA Code of Ethics, but it is essential to conducting this type of research. By ensuring confidentiality the researcher is able to obtain more information from the participant and the information is much more likely to be valid. No one except the researcher and

his thesis director had access to the information obtained from each individual interview. Each individual was asked to sign a consent form (See Appendix B) indicating their consent to participate in the interview. In terms of the surveys, participants were instructed to leave their names off of the instrument and their consent was given by returning the survey.

The survey was developed using the data obtained from the interviews. The survey assessed three aspects of contribution to decision making. The first aspect which was assessed was the employees' perceived level of contribution to decision making relevant to their jobs, department, and SFA (see p.121 of Appendix A). The second aspect assessed was the employees' contentment with their perceived level of contribution to decision making relevant to their jobs, department, and SFA (see p.122 of Appendix A). Finally, the third aspect was the employees' perceptions of change, relevant to the past two years, in their level of contribution to decision making relevant to their jobs, department, and SFA (see p.123 of Appendix A). The survey also assessed the employees' overall satisfaction with their jobs, with their supervisors, and with SFA (see questions 1-3 of survey, p.124 Appendix A), as well as their level of awareness and contentment with the SFA's TQM initiative (see questions 4-6 of survey, p.124 Appendix A).

Hypotheses

Though the study was primarily exploratory in nature, the researcher was also interested in examining the differences between the different levels of employees. There were four primary hypotheses upon which the study was based. These hypotheses were as follows:

I. Those in Administrative/Staff positions may perceive themselves as contributing more to decision making than Faculty members and Faculty members more than Hourly employees.

The rationale for this hypothesis was based on the assertions made throughout the literature (Argyle, 1989; Barry, 1991; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992) which suggest that in traditional American organizations the strategic decision making has been a top down process. That is, the leaders of the organizations have traditionally made all of the decisions and then told the managers what to do, who, in turn, told the rest of the employees what to do.

II. Those in Administrative/Staff positions may be more content with their level of contribution than Hourly employees and Hourly employees may be more content than

Faculty members.

The rationale for this assertion was twofold. As alluded to above, the literature suggests that the leaders of traditional organizations have made most of the strategic decisions. Therefore, one would expect that those who make most of the decisions would be most content with their level of contribution. In terms of faculty members and hourly employees, faculty members might participate more in decision making than do hourly employees, however, the faculty members might feel much more strongly about their ideas because of their extensive education. Therefore, when they are allowed to provide their ideas to the leaders of the university for consideration, it is very disconcerting when their ideas are not accepted. Furthermore, the faculty members' jobs are more directly related to the mission of the institution, therefore, they would expect to have a more significant role in the decision making process. Finally, faculty members might be less content with their level of contribution because they have had a more prolonged exposure to participation than have the hourly employees, therefore, they will simply want to participate more. The age old adage "give them an inch and they will want a mile" comes to mind.

The differences between the three groups and their Perceptions of Change in Level of Contribution were also

examined. However, the researcher did not have a rationale upon which to base a hypothesis, therefore, this was purely exploratory.

III. Administration/Staff employees may be more satisfied with their jobs, supervisors, and SFA than Faculty members, who may be more satisfied with their jobs, supervisors, and SFA than Hourly employees.

The primary rationale for this hypothesis was based on the past research conducted in organizations. Hoppock (1935), Weaver (1977), and Hofstede (1979) all found that level of occupation and job satisfaction were positively correlated. Much of the past research has also demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between satisfaction with pay and job satisfaction. It seems fairly logical that those who are paid more will be more satisfied with their pay, and thus they will be more satisfied with their jobs. In fact, Dyer and Theriault (1976) concluded that this was indeed true. They found that the more people are paid the more they are satisfied with their pay and the more they are satisfied with their job.

IV. Two other dependent variables that the groups were to be compared on were Perceived Level of Contribution to SFA 98 Initiative and Contentment with perceived level

of contribution to SFA 98. It was anticipated that those in Administrative/Staff positions may perceive themselves to have contributed more to the SFA 98 initiative than Faculty members and Faculty members more than Hourly employees.

The rational for this hypothesis corresponds with the reasoning for the first hypothesis, which was that strategic decision making within the traditional American organization has been a top down process. Therefore, those at the lowest levels of the hierarchy may perceive the least amount of contribution, with perceived level of contribution increasing as one approaches the highest levels of the hierarchy.

Finally, there were three more hypotheses upon which the study was based. These hypotheses address the relationships between Perceived Level of Contribution to Decision Making, Contentment with Level of Contribution, Job Satisfaction, and Perceived Level of Contribution to SFA 98. The three hypotheses were as follows:

V. Perceived Level of Contribution and Job Satisfaction may be positively correlated. In order to rule out job level, the relationship was examined three times for each level.

VI. The relationship between Contentment with Level of Contribution and Job Satisfaction may also be positive and to rule out the effects of job level the relationship was examined for each level.

VII. Perception of Change in Level of Contribution and Job Satisfaction may be positively correlated. Job level was ruled out by examining the relationship for each level.

RESULTS

Prior to discussing the results of the research, it is important to note that the first two hypotheses pertain to the first 13 items on the survey. The survey instructed the respondents to indicate their perceived level of contribution to decision making relevant to the 13 different areas of decision making. They were then instructed to indicate their level of contentment with their perceived contribution for each of the 13 items. Therefore, the results pertaining to the first two hypotheses will be discussed in terms of the 13 areas of decision making, which are as follows:

(1) Overall Functioning of Your Job
(2) Job Content - What you do on daily basis
(3) Job Scheduling - When/Where you do your job
(4) Personnel Policies - When you can take personal leave, vacation, breaks, etc.; Sick leave policy

(5) Overall Functioning of Your Department
(6) Budgeting Decisions - Such as acquisition of capital equipment, office supplies, cleaning supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc.
(7) Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay & raises, promotions, performance evaluations, training new employees,etc.
(8) Scheduling - Who should do what job, who should work with whom, what shift should people work, what areas people should work in, etc.
(9) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the department. Such as curriculum decisions, decisions relating to preventive maintenance, etc.

(10) Overall Functioning of SFA STATE UNIVERSITY
(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of Funds (between different departments/schools, between athletics

and academics, between library and other student services, etc.)

(12) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the University. Such as admission standards, core curriculum, improvements in physical attributes of the university (grounds and buildings).

(13) Personnel Policies - Such as sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, hours you will work, etc.

Analysis of Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis was that Administrative/Staff employees would have a higher perceived level of contribution to decision making than Faculty members and that Faculty members would have higher perceived level of contribution to decision making than Hourly employees. The results (see Tables 1 and 2) indicated that this was not always the case. In fact, the hypothesis was completely supported for only four of the 13 areas of decision making. It was supported for decision making pertaining to departmental budgeting decisions, departmental personnel decisions, departmental planning decisions, and university planning decisions.

One should further note, however, that with the exception of contributing to decisions pertaining to one's overall job, the hypothesis was partially supported relative to the other areas of decision making. In terms of the following areas of decision making -- job scheduling, job-related personnel policy, overall functioning of one's department, departmental scheduling decisions, overall functioning of SFA, university budgeting decisions, and

Table 1. Results of ANOVA's Comparing Administration/Staff, Faculty, and Hourly Employees On Contribution To Decision Making

Variables	*Means*			*F*	*p-value*
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*		
Overall Job	74.32	71.71	66.96	1.68	< .190
Job Content	76.16	80.52	65.22	12.02	< .001
Job Scheduling	72.46	61.00	63.59	7.19	< .001
Personnel Policies	72.27	54.22	64.44	15.53	< .001
Overall Department	63.03	41.19	42.74	15.76	< .001
Budget Decisions	52.33	32.01	17.78	34.47	< .001
Personnel Decisions	50.39	31.17	8.15	42.38	< .001
Scheduling	55.23	29.34	24.46	29.71	< .001
Planning	55.71	43.16	21.02	26.27	< .001
Overall University	18.57	10.49	16.13	3.35	< .037
Budgeting Decisions	8.72	2.92	1.63	8.43	< .001
Planning	14.73	10.39	2.72	8.42	< .001
Personnel Policies	18.36	5.56	10.33	11.96	< .001

* Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the question: How much do contribute to decision making relevant to the 13 areas of decision making?

0% =No Contribution
25% =Very Little
50% =Some
75% =A Lot
100% =Total Decision Making Authority

Table 2. Results of Dunn-Sidak Tests Comparing Administration/Staff With Faculty Members and Faculty Members with Hourly Employees On Contribution To Decision Making

Variables	*Means*			*Adm/Staff and Faculty*		*Faculty and Hourly*	
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*	*tDS*	*p-value*	*tDS*	*p-value*
Overall Job	74.32	71.71	66.96	NA	NA	NA	NA
Job Content	76.16	80.52	65.22	NA	NA	-4.89	<.005
Job Scheduling	72.46	61.00	63.59	3.74	<.005	NA	NA
Personnel Policies	72.27	54.22	64.44	5.56	<.005	NA	NA
Overall Department	63.03	41.19	42.74	5.35	<.005	NA	NA
Budget Decisions	52.33	32.01	17.78	6.29	<.005	-3.11	<.005
Personnel Decisions	50.39	31.17	8.15	5.78	<.005	-4.66	<.005
Scheduling	55.23	29.34	24.46	6.93	<.005	-0.93	>.05
Planning	55.71	43.16	21.02	3.77	<.005	-4.66	<.005
Overall University	18.57	10.49	16.13	2.54	<.025	NA	NA
Budgeting Decisions	8.72	2.92	1.63	3.66	<.005	-0.58	>.05
Planning	14.73	10.39	2.72	2.11	<.05	-2.65	<.025
Personnel Policies	18.36	5.56	10.33	4.88	<.005	NA	NA

university-wide personnel policy -- Administrative/Staff employees indicated a higher perceived level of contribution than Faculty members. Faculty members indicated a higher perceived level of contribution to decision making than Hourly employees in terms of decisions associated with job content.

One final observation which may be made based on these results is the degree to which perceived level of contribution steadily decreases from the job level to the departmental level and, finally, to the university level for all three groups (see Table 3). This apparent trend was examined further by analyzing the differences between the means within each group, as well as within the entire employee population, for perceived level of contribution to decision making associated with one's overall job, department, and the overall university. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA indicated that for all employees ($F(2,300) = 398.50$, $p<.0001$), Administrative/Staff employees ($F(2,110) = 174.66$, $p<.0001$), Faculty members ($F(2,128) = 281.94$, $p<.0001$), and Hourly employees ($F(2,52) = 33.24$, $p<.0001$) the average responses given for the three survey items were significantly different. This downward trend will be discussed further in the final discussion section. What follows is a breakdown of the first hypothesis for each of the 13 areas of decision making.

Table 3. Perceived Contribution To Decision Making

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	Mean	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std.Dev*	*N*
Overall Job	72.12	18.07	182	74.32	19.40	74	71.71	13.75	76	66.96	24.58	28
Job Content	76.71	19.07	337	76.16	16.79	129	80.52	19.23	154	65.22	21.39	46
Job Scheduling	66.04	25.72	332	72.46	24.47	128	61.00	25.82	150	63.59	27.24	46
Personnel Policies	62.99	28.16	329	72.27	22.46	128	54.22	30.50	148	64.44	25.83	45
Overall Department	49.66	27.02	194	63.03	23.09	71	41.49	22.31	87	42.74	35.47	31
Budget Decisions	38.05	29.63	335	52.33	29.88	129	32.01	25.21	153	17.78	24.20	45
Personnel Decisions	35.39	31.18	337	50.39	34.37	129	31.17	24.37	154	8.15	15.86	46
Scheduling	38.76	33.89	335	55.23	36.53	129	29.34	26.12	152	24.46	30.50	46
Planning	44.97	29.78	331	55.71	29.91	127	43.16	26.62	152	21.02	24.67	44
Overall University	14.41	19.83	188	18.57	20.27	70	10.49	15.65	82	16.13	26.26	31
Budgeting Decisions	4.97	13.48	337	8.72	17.86	129	2.92	9.46	154	1.63	8.17	46
Planning	10.76	17.50	337	14.73	20.87	129	10.39	15.58	154	2.72	9.47	46
Personnel Policies	10.97	22.41	335	18.36	28.84	128	5.56	13.52	153	10.33	22.10	46

(1) Overall Functioning of Your Job

The individual group means for this area of decision making shown in Table 1 appear to suggest that the hypothesis may have been supported. However, after analyzing the data using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), it was concluded that the differences between the three groups were not significant, $F(2,175) = 1.68$, $p<.1886$. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported relevant to this area of decision making.

(2) Job Content - What you do on a daily basis

The individual group data (see Table 1) for this area of decision making suggests that the hypothesis may have been partially supported. In fact, the ANOVA indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different, $F(2,326) = 12.018$, $p<.001$. Further analysis was conducted using the Dunn-Sidak test which indicated that the average response given by Faculty members (M=80.52%) was significantly higher than that provided by Hourly employees (M=65.22%), $tDS(326) = -4.89$, $p<.005$. Due to the fact that the average response provided by Faculty members was higher than the average response given by those in Administrative/Staff positions (M=76.16%) it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was not completely supported.

(3) Job Scheduling - When and where you do your job

According to the ANOVA results, $F(2,321) = 7.1935$,

$p<.0009$, the mean responses for each of the three groups were significantly different. Further analysis indicated that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=72.46\%$) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members ($M=61\%$), $tDS(321) = 3.735$, $p<.005$. However, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was not completely supported because the average response given by Hourly employees ($M=63.59\%$) was not lower than that of Faculty members ($M=61\%$).

(4) Personnel Policies - When you can take personal leave, vacation, breaks, # of breaks, etc.; Sick leave policy

The descriptive data for the individual groups relevant to this area of decision making indicate that the hypothesis may not have been completely supported. The ANOVA results, $F(2,318) = 15.53$, $p<.001$, indicated that the average responses for the three groups were significantly different, and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test comparing Administrative/Staff employees to Faculty members, $tDS(318) = 5.557$, $p<.005$, indicated that the average response given by the former group ($M=72.27\%$) was higher than the average response given by the latter ($M=54.22\%$). Though Administrative/Staff employees did give a higher average response than Faculty members, the average response given by Faculty members was not higher than that of Hourly employees ($M=64.44\%$). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to job-specific personnel policy

decisions, was not completely supported.

(5) Overall Functioning of Your Department

The ANOVA results, $F(2,186) = 15.756$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by each group and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(186) = 5.348$, $p<.005$, confirmed that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=63.03\%$) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members ($M=41.49\%$), however, the average response given by Hourly employees ($M=42.74\%$) was also slightly higher than that given by Faculty members. Based on these results it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was not completely supported because the average response given by Faculty members was not higher than that of Hourly employees.

(6) Budgeting Decisions - Such as the acquisition of capital equipment, office supplies, cleaning supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc.

The descriptive data for the individual groups suggest that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, may have been supported. The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,324) = 34.470$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses provided by the three groups and the results of the Dunn-Sidak tests which compared Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, $tDS(324) = 6.288$, $p<.005$, and Faculty members with Hourly employees, $tDS(324) = -3.106$, $p<.005$,

indicated that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was supported. Those employees holding Administrative/ Staff positions gave an average response (M=52.33%) which was higher than that of Faculty members (M=32.01%), who, in turn, gave a higher average response than that of Hourly employees (M=17.78%).

(7) Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay & raises, promotions, performance evaluations, training new employees, etc

The statistical analysis of the data using ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups, $F(2,326) = 42.382$, $p<.001$. The results of the Dunn-Sidak tests, which compared Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, $tDS(326) = 5.776$, $p<.005$, and Faculty members with Hourly employees, $tDS(326) = -4.664$, $p<.005$, confirmed that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was supported. Administrative/Staff employees gave an average response of 50.39%, which was higher than the average response given by Faculty members (M=31.17%), which was higher than the average response given by Hourly employees (M=8.15%).

(8) Scheduling - Who should do what job, who should work with whom, what shift people work, what areas people will work in, etc

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,324) = 29.708$, $p<.001$, indicated that the hypothesis may have been supported, however, the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(324) = -$

.93, p>.05, which compared the average response given by Faculty members (M=29.34%) with that of Hourly employees (M=24.46%), indicated that the average responses for these two groups was not significantly different. The results of the Dunn-Sidak test, tDS(324) = 6.929, p<.005, comparing Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, indicated that the average response given by Administrative/ Staff employees (M=55.23%) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members. Therefore, based on the results, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was not completely supported.

(9) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the department. Such as curriculum decisions, decisions pertaining to preventive maintenance, etc

The results of the ANOVA, F(2,320) = 26.270, p<.001, indicate that the average responses given by the three groups for this item were significantly different, providing initial support for the hypothesis. The results of the Dunn-Sidak tests, which compared the average response of Administrative/Staff employees (M=55.71%) with that of Faculty members (M=43.16%), tDS(320) = 3.766, p<.005, and the average response of Faculty members with that of Hourly employees (M=21.02%), tDS(320) = -4.664, p<.005, indicated that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees was significantly higher than that of Faculty members, who, in turn, gave an average response which was significantly higher than that of Hourly employees.

Therefore, based on the statistical data, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to departmental planning decisions, was supported.

(10) Overall Functioning of SFA STATE UNIVERSITY

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,180) = 3.348$, $p<.037$, indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different and the Dunn-Sidak test indicated that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=18.57\%$) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members ($M=10.49\%$), $tDS(180) = 2.54$, $p<.025$. However, due to the fact that the average response given by Faculty members was not higher than that of Hourly employees ($M=16.13\%$), it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to the overall functioning of SFA, was not completely supported.

(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of Funds(between different departments/schools, between athletics and academics, between library and other student services, etc.)

The results of the ANOVA indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different, $F(2,326) = 8.428$, $p<.001$, and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, which compared Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, $tDS(326) = 3.658$, $p<.005$, indicated that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=8.72\%$) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members ($M=2.92\%$). However, the results of the

Dunn-Sidak test comparing Faculty members and Hourly employees, tDS(326) = -.58, p>.05, did not indicate that Faculty members gave an average response which was significantly higher than that of Hourly employees (M=1.63%). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to budgeting decisions associated with the overall functioning of SFA, was not completely supported.

(12) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the University. Such as admission standards, core curriculum, improvements in the physical attributes of the university (e.g. building and grounds)

The results of the ANOVA, F(2,326) = 8.419, p<.001, indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different and the results of the Dunn-Sidak tests, which compared Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, tDS(326) = 2.108, p<.05, and Faculty members with Hourly employees, tDS(326) = -2.648, p<.025, indicated that the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees (M=14.73%) was significantly higher than that of Faculty members (M=10.39%), which was significantly higher than that of Hourly employees (M=2.72%). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to planning decisions associated with the overall functioning of SFA, was supported.

(13) Personnel Policies - Such as sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, hours you will work, etc

The results of the ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses of the

three groups, and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test comparing Administrative/Staff employees with Faculty members, $t_{DS}(324) = 4.881$, $p<.005$, indicated that the average response given by the Administrative/ Staff employees ($M=18.36\%$) was significantly higher than that given by Faculty members ($M=5.56\%$). However, the average response for Hourly employees ($M=10.33\%$) was also higher than that of Faculty members. Therefore, based on the data analysis, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to personnel policy decisions associated with the university as a whole, was not completely supported because the average response given by Faculty members was not higher than that of Hourly employees.

Analysis of Hypothesis II

The second major hypothesis of this study was that Administrative/Staff employees would be more content with their perceived level of contribution than Hourly employees and Hourly employees would be more content with their perceived level of contribution than Faculty members. The results (see Tables 4 and 5) indicated that the hypothesis was not supported at all relative to decisions associated with the overall functioning of SFA and university-wide planning decisions and it was only partially supported for the remaining 11 areas of decision making.

In terms of decisions pertaining to the following areas

Table 4. Results of ANOVA's Comparing Administration/Staff, Faculty, and Hourly Employees On Contentment With Level Of Contribution

Variables	*Means*			*F*	*p-value*
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*		
Overall Job	4.30	3.75	4.17	4.25	< .016
Job Content	4.26	3.79	4.39	7.82	< .001
Job Scheduling	4.20	3.70	4.01	3.87	< .022
Personnel Policies	4.27	3.80	3.89	5.43	< .005
Overall Department	4.03	3.15	3.33	11.16	< .001
Budget Decisions	3.87	3.04	3.31	12.40	< .001
Personnel Decisions	3.77	2.81	3.21	13.37	< .001
Scheduling	3.94	3.00	3.29	17.05	< .001
Planning	3.80	2.91	3.44	10.25	< .001
Overall University	3.18	2.91	2.58	5.17	< .007
Budgeting Decisions	3.10	2.93	2.31	16.81	< .001
Planning	3.14	2.84	2.46	11.58	< .001
Personnel Policies	3.35	2.96	2.65	16.71	< .001

* Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the question: How content are you with your level of contribution to decision making?

1=Very Discontent
2=Discontent
3=Neutral
4=Content
5=Very Content

Table 5. Results of Dunn-Sidak Tests Comparing Administration/Staff With Hourly Employees and Hourly Employees With Faculty Members On Contentment With Level Of Contribution

Variables	*Means*			*Adm/Staff and Hourly*		*Faculty and Hourly*	
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*	*tDS*	*p-value*	*tDS*	*p-value*
Overall Job	4.30	3.75	4.17	2.91	<.005	NA	NA
Job Content	4.26	3.79	4.39	3.02	<.005	NA	NA
Job Scheduling	4.20	3.70	4.01	2.75	<.025	NA	NA
Personnel Policies	4.27	3.80	3.89	2.53	<.025	NA	NA
Overall Department	4.03	3.15	3.33	3.92	<.005	NA	NA
Budget Decisions	3.87	3.04	3.31	4.28	<.005	NA	NA
Personnel Decisions	3.77	2.81	3.21	4.69	<.005	NA	NA
Scheduling	3.94	3.00	3.29	4.94	<.005	NA	NA
Planning	3.80	2.91	3.44	4.43	<.005	NA	NA
Overall University	3.18	2.91	2.58	1.12	>.05	-1.37	>.05
Budgeting Decisions	3.10	2.93	2.31	0.85	>.05	-3.15	<.005
Planning	3.14	2.84	2.46	1.45	>.05	-1.94	>.05
Personnel Policies	3.35	2.96	2.65	2.08	<.05	-1.62	>.05

of decision making -- overall functioning of one's job, job content, job scheduling, job-related personnel policy, overall functioning of one's department, departmental budgeting decisions, departmental personnel decisions, departmental scheduling decisions, departmental planning decisions, and university-wide personnel policy -- Administrative/ Staff employees did indicate greater contentment than Hourly employees, however, Hourly employees did not indicate greater contentment than Faculty members. In terms of university budgeting decisions, Hourly employees indicated greater contentment than Faculty members, however, Administrative/Staff employees did not indicate greater contentment than Faculty members.

Once again, one may observe the apparent downward trend which was mentioned during the discussion of the results for the previous hypothesis. As one can see in Table 6, contentment steadily decreases from the job level to the departmental level and, finally, to the university level. As was the case with perceived contribution, the repeated measures ANOVA indicated that the means for contentment with contribution to decision making associated with one's overall job, department, and the overall university were significantly different for all employees ($F(2,312) = 96.17$, $p<.0001$), Administrative/Staff employees ($F(2,114) = 34.89$, $p<.0001$), Faculty members ($F(2,134)= 65.97$, $p<.0001$), and Hourly employees ($F(2,54) = 8.41$, $p<.001$). This trend will

Table 6. Reported Contentment With Level Of Contribution To Decision Making

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	Mean	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std.Dev*	*N*
Overall Job	4.14	0.94	190	4.30	0.83	76	4.17	0.86	78	3.75	1.14	32
Job Content	4.23	0.95	334	4.26	0.87	127	4.39	0.92	151	3.79	1.01	48
Job Scheduling	4.04	1.09	328	4.20	0.99	127	4.01	1.10	146	3.70	1.20	47
Personnel Policies	4.01	1.10	328	4.27	0.87	127	3.89	1.15	147	3.80	1.28	46
Overall Department	3.54	1.15	199	4.03	0.89	72	3.33	1.19	87	3.15	1.16	34
Budget Decisions	3.46	1.19	327	3.87	0.98	123	3.31	1.21	148	3.04	1.29	48
Personnel Decisions	3.35	1.26	329	3.77	1.12	125	3.21	1.24	148	2.81	1.30	48
Scheduling	3.50	1.19	329	3.94	1.03	126	3.29	1.17	147	3.00	1.24	48
Planning	3.48	1.22	325	3.80	1.07	123	3.44	1.22	147	2.91	1.27	47
Overall University	2.83	1.18	189	3.18	1.15	66	2.58	1.13	86	2.91	1.17	32
Budgeting Decisions	2.69	1.22	327	3.10	1.12	124	2.31	1.16	150	2.93	1.25	45
Planning	2.75	1.21	327	3.14	1.16	124	2.46	1.14	150	2.84	1.22	45
Personnel Policies	2.95	1.16	328	3.35	1.06	124	2.65	1.11	150	2.96	1.25	46

also be addressed in the final discussion section. What follows is a breakdown of the second hypothesis for the 13 areas of decision making.

(1) Overall Functioning of Your Job

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,183) = 4.248$, $p<.016$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses of the three groups and the Dunn-Sidak test comparing Administrative/Staff employees with Hourly employees indicated that the Administrative/Staff employees were more content with their level of perceived contribution than Hourly employees, $tDS(183)= 2.907$, $p<.005$. The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=4.3$) was higher than the average response given by Hourly employees ($M=3.75$), however, the average response given by Faculty members ($M=4.17$) was also higher than that of Hourly employees. Based on the results, it was concluded that the hypothesis was not completely supported because the average response given by Hourly employees was not higher than that of Faculty members.

(2) Job Content - What you do on a daily basis

The ANOVA results, $F(2,323) = 7.819$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups and the Dunn-Sidak test comparing Administrative/Staff and Hourly employees indicated that Administrative/Staff employees ($M=4.26$) were more content than Hourly employees ($M=3.79$), $tDS(323) =$

3.02, $p<.005$. However, the average response given by Faculty members ($M=4.39$) was higher than both of the other groups, therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to decision making associated with job content, was not completely supported.

(3) Job Scheduling - When and where you do your job

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,317) = 3.874$, $p<.022$, indicated that the groups were significantly different in terms of their average responses and the Dunn-Sidak test indicated that Administrative/Staff employees were more content than Hourly employees, $tDS(317) = 2.745$, $p<.025$. The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=4.2$) was higher than that of Hourly employees ($M=3.7$), however, the average response given by Hourly employees was not higher than that of Faculty members ($M=4.01$). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to decision making associated with job scheduling, was not completely supported.

(4) Personnel Policies - When you can take personal leave, vacation, breaks, # of breaks, etc.; sick leave policy

The results of the ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(317) = 2.526$, $p<.025$, confirmed that Administrative/Staff employees were more content than Hourly employees with their level of contribution to job-specific personnel

decisions. The average response given by Administrative/ Staff employees (M=4.27) was higher than that of Hourly employees (M=3.8), however, the average response given by Hourly employees was not higher than that given by Faculty members (M=3.89). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making was not completely supported.

(5) Overall Functioning of Your Department

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,190) = 11.159$, $p<.001$, indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(190) = 3.919$, $p<.005$, indicated that the Administrative/Staff employees (M=4.03) were more content with their perceived level of contribution to this area of decision-making than were Hourly employees (M=3.15). The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees was higher than the average response given by Hourly employees, however, Faculty members also had a higher average response (M=3.33) than Hourly employees. Therefore, based on the results, it was concluded that the hypothesis was not completely supported, relevant to perceived contribution to the overall functioning of one's department.

(6) Budget Decisions - Such as the acquisition of capital equipment, office supplies, cleaning supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc

The ANOVA results, $F(2,316) = 12.403$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average

responses given by the three groups and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $t_{DS}(316) = 4.275$, $p<.005$, confirmed that the Administrative/Staff employees were more content with their perceived level of contribution to this area of decision making than were Hourly employees. The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=3.87$) was higher than that of Hourly employees ($M=3.04$) as was the average response given by Faculty members ($M=3.31$). Based on the results it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to departmental budgeting decisions, was not completely supported.

(7) **Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay & bonuses, promotions, performance evaluations, training new employees, etc**

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,318) = 13.374$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $t_{DS}(318) = 4.688$, $p<.005$, indicated that Administrative/Staff employees were more content with their perceived level of contribution to this area of decision-making than were Hourly employees. The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=3.77$) was higher than that of Hourly employees ($M=2.81$), however, the average response given by Hourly employees was not higher than that of Faculty members ($M=3.21$). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to departmental personnel decisions, was not completely

supported.

(8) Scheduling - Who should do what job, who should work with whom, what shift will people work, what areas will people work in, etc

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,318) = 17.047$, $p<.001$, indicated that the groups' average responses were significantly different and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(318) = 4.94$, $p<.005$, indicated that Administrative/Staff employees ($M=3.94$) were more content with their perceived level of contribution, relevant to this area of decision making, than Hourly employees ($M=3$). However, because Hourly employees were not more content than Faculty members ($M=3.29$), it was concluded, based on the results, that the hypothesis, relevant to departmental scheduling decisions, was not completely supported.

(9) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the department. Such as curriculum decisions, decisions pertaining to preventive maintenance, etc

The ANOVA results, $F(2,314) = 10.247$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups and the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(314) = 4.43$, $p<.005$, indicated that Administrative/Staff employees ($M=3.8$) were more content with their perceived level of contribution to departmental planning decisions than were Hourly employees ($M=2.91$). The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees was higher than that of Hourly employees, however, so was the average response given by Faculty members ($M=3.44$).

Based on the results, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this area of decision making, was not completely supported because Hourly employees were not more content than Faculty members.

(10) Overall Functioning of SFA STATE UNIVERSITY

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,181) = 5.172$, $p<.007$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses of the three groups. Further analysis did not indicate that Administrative/ Staff employees ($M=3.18$) were more content than Hourly employees ($M=2.91$), $tDS(181) = 1.117$, $p>.05$. Furthermore, the results did not indicate that Hourly employees were more content than Faculty members ($M=2.58$), $tDS(181) = -1.37$, $p>.05$. Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to decisions associated with the overall functioning of the university, was not supported.

(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of funds(between different departments/schools, between athletics and academics, between library and other student services, etc.)

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,316) = 16.807$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses of the three groups. However, the results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDs(316) = .85$, $p>.05$, indicated that there was not a significant difference between the average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=3.1$) and Hourly employees ($M=2.93$). The

results of the Dunn-Sidak test comparing Faculty members and Hourly employees did indicate that Hourly employees were more content than Faculty members (M=2.31), $tDS(316) = -3.147$, $p<.005$, which led to the conclusion that the hypothesis, relevant to budgeting decisions associated with the overall functioning of the university, was not completely supported.

(12) Planning - Setting goals and objectives for the university. Such as admission standards, core curriculum, improvements in the physical attributes of the university (buildings and grounds)

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,316) = 11.580$, $p<.001$, indicated that the average responses given by the three groups were significantly different. Further analysis using Dunn-Sidak tests indicated that the average responses given by Administrative/Staff (M=3.14) and Hourly employees (M=2.84) were not significantly different, $tDS(316) = 1.445$, $p>.05$, nor were the average responses given by Faculty members (M=2.46) and Hourly employees significantly different, $tDs(316) = -1.94$, $p>.05$. Based on these results, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to planning decisions associated with the overall functioning of the university, was not supported.

(13) Personnel Policies - Sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, Hours you will work, etc

The ANOVA $F(2,317)=13.57$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses of the three groups. Further analysis indicated that the

difference between the average responses given by Administrative/Staff employees (M=3.35) and Hourly employees (M=2.96) was significant, tDS(317) = 2.08, p<.05. However, the difference between the average responses given by Hourly employees and Faculty members (M=2.65) was not significant, tDS(317) = -1.621, p>.05. Therefore, based on these results it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to university-wide personnel decisions, was not completely supported.

Analysis of Hypothesis III

The third major hypothesis was that Administrative/ Staff employees would be more satisfied with their jobs, supervisors, and SFA than Faculty members and Faculty members would be more satisfied with their jobs, supervisors, and SFA than Hourly employees. Before examining the results relevant to the third hypothesis, one might note that it pertains to three specific survey items which addressed different aspects of job satisfaction. The hypothesis and its pertinent results will be discussed in terms of these three items.

The results (see Tables 7 and 8) indicated that the hypothesis was only partially supported. In terms of "receiving personal satisfaction from one's job", Faculty members did indicate greater satisfaction than Hourly employees, however, satisfaction for Faculty members and

Table 7. Results of ANOVA's Comparing Administration/Staff, Faculty and Hourly Employees on Job Satisfaction Variables

Variables	*Means*			*F*	*p-value*
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*		
I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job.	1.79	1.86	2.40	7.80	< .001
I enjoy working for SFA.	1.70	2.22	2.00	10.80	< .001
I get along well with my immediate supervisor.	1.55	1.73	1.65	1.29	< .276

* Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the three items above:

1=Strongly Agree
2=Agree
3=Neutral
4=Disagree
5=Strongly Disagree

Table 8. Results of Dunn-Sidak Tests Comparing Administration/Staff With Faculty Members and Faculty Members With Hourly Employees On Job Satisfaction Variables

Variables	*Means*			*Admin/Staff and Faculty*		*Faculty and Hourly*	
	Adm/Sta	*Faculty*	*Hourly*	*tDS*	*p-value*	*tDS*	*p-value*
I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my	1.79	1.86	2.40	-0.60	>.05	-3.49	<.005
I enjoy working for SFA.	1.70	2.22	2.00	-4.64	<.005	NA	NA
I get along well with my immediate	1.55	1.73	1.65	NA	NA	NA	NA

Administrative/Staff employees was not found to be significantly different. As for "working at SFA", Administrative/Staff employees enjoyed working for SFA more than Faculty members, however, Faculty members did not enjoy working for SFA more than Hourly employees. Finally, the hypothesis was not given any support relative to the employees' relationships with their immediate supervisors. What follows is a breakdown of the third hypothesis for the three different measures of job satisfaction.

(1) I Receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job

The statistical analysis of the data using ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups, $F(2,325)=7.799$, $p<.001$. Further analysis indicated that Faculty members, on average, did receive more personal satisfaction from their jobs ($M=1.86$) than did Hourly employees ($M=2.40$), $tDS(325) = 3.49$, $p<.005$; however, the difference between the average responses given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=1.79$) and Faculty members was not significant, $tDS(325) = -.596$, $p>.05$. Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis was not completely supported.

(2) I enjoy working for SFA

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,325)=10.791$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between

the three groups in terms of their average responses to this item. Further analysis indicated that Administrative/Staff employees, on average (M=1.70), enjoyed working for SFA more than Faculty members (M=2.22), tDS(325) = -4.644, p<.005, which led to the conclusion that the hypothesis, relevant to this survey item, was not completely supported, as the average response given by Faculty members was not lower than that of Hourly employees (M=2.00).

(3) I get along well with my immediate supervisor

The ANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between the average responses of the three groups, F(2,326)=1.292, p<.276. Based on these results, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to this survey item, was not supported.

Analysis of Hypothesis IV

The fourth major hypothesis for the study was that Administrative/Staff employees would have a higher level of perceived contribution to the SFA 98 initiative and they would be more content with their perceived level of contribution than Faculty members, who, in turn, would have a higher level of perceived contribution to the SFA 98 initiative and be more content with their level of contribution than Hourly employees. The hypothesis was measured by two survey items and the results (see Tables 9 and 10) indicated that it was only partially supported for

Table 9. Results of ANOVA's Comparing Administration/Staff, Faculty, and Hourly Employees On SFA 98 Variables

Variables	*Means*			*F*	*p-value*
	Adm/Staff	*Faculty*	*Hourly*		
How much did you contribute to SFA	1.98	2.09	1.36	8.96	< .001
How content are you with this level of contribution?	2.86	2.93	2.78	0.43	< .654

* Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the question: How much did you contribute to SFA 98?

1=No Contribution
2=Very Little
3=Some
4=A Lot
5=Many Of My Ideas Were Used

** Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the question: How content are you with this level of contribution?

1=Very Content
2=Content
3=Neutral
4=Discontent
5=Very Discontent

Table 10. Results Dunn-Sidak Tests Comparing Administration/Staff and Faculty Employees and Faculty and Hourly Employees On SFA 98 Variables

Variables	*Means*			*Admin/Staff and Faculty*		*Faculty and Hourly*	
	Adm/Sta	*Faculty*	*Hourly*	*tDS*	*p-value*	*tDS*	*p-value*
How much did you contribute to SFA 98?	1.98	2.09	1.36	NA	NA	-4.2	<.005
How content are you with this level of contribution?	2.86	2.93	2.78	NA	NA	NA	NA

one item and not supported at all for the other. In terms of contribution to SFA 98, Faculty members did indicate a higher perceived level of contribution than that of Hourly employees, however, Administrative/Staff employees did not indicate a higher level of contribution than Faculty members. In terms of contentment with level of contribution to SFA 98, the hypothesis was not supported. What follows is an analysis of the results for each of the survey items pertaining to hypothesis IV.

(1) How much did you contribute to the SFA 98 initiative?

The results of the ANOVA, $F(2,324)=8.955$, $p<.001$, indicated that there was a significant difference between the three groups relevant to their average responses given for this item. The results of the Dunn-Sidak test, $tDS(324) = -4.20$, $p<.005$, indicated that Faculty members, on average ($M=2.09$), perceived a higher level of contribution to the SFA 98 initiative than Hourly employees ($M=1.36$). The average response given by Administrative/Staff employees ($M=1.98$) was lower than that given by Faculty members, therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesis, relevant to perceived level of contribution to SFA 98, was not completely supported.

(2) How content are you with this level of Contribution?

The ANOVA, $F(2,323)=.4251$, $p<.654$, indicated that there was not a significant difference between the average responses given by the three groups, therefore, it was

concluded that the hypothesis was not supported.

Analysis of Hypothesis V

The fifth major hypothesis of this study was that those who perceived higher levels of contribution to decision-making would be more satisfied with their jobs than those who indicate lower levels of contribution to decision-making. As alluded to above, job satisfaction was measured by three different survey items which pertained to receiving personal satisfaction from one's job, enjoying working for the university, and having a positive relationship with one's immediate supervisor. One should note that job satisfaction, as measured by these three items, was reverse scored (1=high job satisfaction and 5=low job satisfaction). Therefore, negative correlation coefficients in Table 11 indicate support for this hypothesis. Examining the correlation coefficients in Table 11 for all employees, one can see that all of the correlations were negative, which suggests that the hypothesis was supported. Table 11 also indicates that all but a limited number of the correlations for the three individual groups of employees were negative, which offers further support for the hypothesis.

Though the relationship which was hypothesized does appear to exist, the relatively low level of the correlations suggests that the relationship is not very

Table 11. Correlations Of Perceived Contribution With Job Satisfaction

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	JobSat	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*
Overall Job	-0.26**	-0.16**	-0.21**	-0.37**	-0.17	-0.17	0.00	0.04	-0.20	-0.50**	-0.52**	-0.41**
Job Content	-0.18**	-0.04	-0.14**	-0.12	-0.08	-0.10	-0.12	-0.03	-0.31**	-0.31**	-0.25	-0.22
Job Scheduling	-0.15**	-0.21**	-0.14*	-0.11	-0.08	-0.05	-0.17*	-0.22**	-0.27**	-0.18	-0.22	-0.08
Personnel Policies	-0.12**	-0.21**	-0.13	-0.07	-0.06	0.00	-0.18**	-0.26**	-0.19*	-0.21	-0.25	-0.28
Overall Department	-0.28**	-0.26**	-0.25**	-0.34**	-0.08	-0.04	-0.32**	-0.25	-0.36*	-0.20	-0.34	-0.21
Budget Decisions	-0.26**	-0.22**	-0.17**	-0.28**	-0.15	-0.08	-0.27**	-0.21	-0.31**	-0.10	-0.18	0.04
Personnel Decisions	-0.30**	-0.23**	-0.17**	-0.26**	-0.17	-0.10	-0.32**	-0.30	-0.27**	-0.30**	-0.17	-0.12
Scheduling	-0.23**	-0.17**	-0.17**	-0.26**	-0.02	-0.10	-0.26**	-0.20	-0.29*	-0.07	-0.21	-0.07
Planning	-0.37**	-0.24**	-0.26**	-0.38**	-0.14	-0.16	-0.37**	-0.31	-0.44**	-0.26	-0.28	-0.07
Overall University	-0.22**	-0.22**	-0.14	-0.26**	-0.24*	-0.11	-0.36**	-0.16	-0.20	0.04	-0.23	-0.06
Budgeting Decisions	-0.19**	-0.19**	-0.12	-0.24**	-0.19*	-0.11	-0.18*	-0.20*	-0.12	0.06	-0.08	0.00
Planning	-0.26**	-0.20**	-0.14	-0.30*	-0.18*	-0.16	-0.20*	-0.24**	-0.15	-0.06	-0.01	-0.16
Personnel Policies	-0.10	-0.13*	-0.10	-0.13	-0.02	-0.09	-0.16	-0.16*	-0.11	0.15	-0.04	-0.02
Average r	-0.22	-0.19	-0.17	-0.24	-0.12	-0.10	-0.21	-0.20	-0.23	-0.19	-0.21	-0.13
Average rsquare	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.02

**.01, *.05

Scale:

JobSat="I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job."
Enjoy ="I enjoy working for SFA."
Super ="I get along well with my immediate supervisor."

strong. The average correlations in Table 11 further emphasize this apparent weakness. Based on the average coefficients of determination (r^2), it was concluded that very little of the variance in job satisfaction is explained by perceived level of contribution.

Based solely on the results presented in Table 11, one might conclude with a fair amount of confidence that the hypothesis was supported. However, prior to drawing such a conclusion, further analysis is warranted. There are only two possible outcomes for each of the correlation coefficients in table 11 - they will be either positive or negative. Therefore, how significant is it that all but a few of the correlations are negative? This question was addressed using the probability function rule associated with binomial distributions. According to Kirk (1990), the probability of finding a negative correlation between receiving personal satisfaction from one's job and each of the 13 different areas of contribution can be determined using the probability function rule:

$$p(X=r) = {}_nC_r\, p^r q^{n-r}$$

where p(X=r) is the probability that random variable X equals r negative correlations, ${}_nC_r$ is the combination of n objects taken r at a time, p is the probability of success (obtaining a negative correlation) and q equals 1-p, or the probability of failure (obtaining a positive correlation). Applying this function rule, the probability of all 13

correlations being negative for any of the three different measures of job satisfaction is extremely small, p(X=13) = .000122. This suggests that it is very unlikely that the negative correlations occurred by chance, which lends further support to the hypothesis. The only relationship which does not appear to be significant is that for hourly employees between having a positive relationship with one's supervisor and perceived level of contribution, p(X=9) = .087. In summary, it was concluded that, although the relationship between perceived level of contribution to decision-making and job satisfaction appears to be fairly weak, the overall results indicate that the hypothesis was supported.

Analysis of Hypothesis VI

The sixth major hypothesis of the study was that those who indicated more contentment with their perceived level of contribution to decision-making would be more satisfied with their jobs than those who indicated less contentment with their perceived level of contribution. As indicated in the discussion of the previous hypothesis, job satisfaction was reverse scored. Therefore, a negative correlation coefficient suggests support for the hypothesis.

As one can see in Table 12, all of the correlations were negative, whether one looks at all employees, or one looks at the individual groups. In comparison with the

Table 12 Correlations Of Reported Contentment With Level Of Perceived Contribution With Job Satisfaction

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	JobSat	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*
Overall Job	-0.44**	-0.27**	-0.30**	-0.58**	-0.35**	-0.31**	-0.33**	-0.22	-0.35**	-0.54**	-0.36**	-0.48**
Job Content	-0.44**	-0.28**	-0.29**	-0.59**	-0.37**	-0.26**	-0.37**	-0.29**	-0.38**	-0.31**	-0.29*	-0.29
Job Scheduling	-0.36**	-0.30**	-0.33**	-0.46**	-0.24**	-0.21*	-0.33**	-0.36**	-0.39**	-0.21	-0.26	-0.50**
Personnel Policies	-0.27**	-0.28**	-0.23**	-0.40**	-0.20**	-0.22*	-0.19*	-0.26**	-0.23**	-0.27	-0.32*	-0.29
Overall Department	-0.44**	-0.41**	-0.43**	-0.53**	-0.39**	-0.28*	-0.37**	-0.36**	-0.47**	-0.55**	-0.52**	-0.43*
Budget Decisions	-0.39**	-0.37**	-0.43**	-0.43**	-0.32**	-0.31**	-0.56**	-0.37**	-0.52**	-0.39**	-0.33*	-0.40**
Personnel Decisions	-0.47**	-0.41**	-0.48**	-0.53**	-0.39**	-0.38**	-0.42**	-0.42**	-0.58**	-0.44**	-0.29	-0.41**
Scheduling	-0.44**	-0.39**	-0.47**	-0.50**	-0.26**	-0.41**	-0.41**	-0.43**	-0.60**	-0.33**	-0.28	-0.20
Planning	-0.48**	-0.37**	-0.48**	-0.50**	-0.24**	-0.38**	-0.45**	-0.41**	-0.60**	-0.41**	-0.37*	-0.33*
Overall University	-0.28**	-0.37**	-0.22**	-0.37**	-0.36**	-0.19	-0.19	-0.27*	-0.13	-0.31	-0.39*	-0.28
Budgeting Decisions	-0.25**	-0.35**	-0.22**	-0.36**	-0.33**	-0.19*	-0.22**	-0.31**	-0.21*	-0.22	-0.15	-0.19
Planning	-0.25**	-0.35**	-0.21**	-0.35**	-0.32**	-0.19*	-0.23**	-0.34**	-0.21**	-0.15	-0.13	-0.14
Personnel Policies	-0.25**	-0.34**	-0.23**	-0.27**	-0.25**	-0.15	-0.24**	-0.32**	-0.24	-0.24**	-0.19	-0.20
Average r	-0.37	-0.35	-0.33	-0.45	-0.31	-0.27	-0.32	-0.34	-0.38	-0.34	-0.30	-0.32
Average rsquare	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.20	0.10	0.07	0.10	0.11	0.14	0.11	0.09	0.10

**.01,*.05

Scale:

JobSat = "I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job."
Enjoy = "I enjoy working for SFA."
Super = "I get along well with my immediate supervisor."

correlation coefficients and average correlation coefficients found in Table 11, those in Table 12 are obviously higher. This suggests that the relationship between contentment with level of contribution and job satisfaction is stronger than the relationship between perceived level of contribution and job satisfaction. One might conclude from these results that it is not so much how much you contribute to decision-making, but the extent to which you are content with your level of contribution that relates to job satisfaction. Based on the results presented in Table 12, as well as the results based on the probability function discussed earlier, it was concluded that the hypothesis was supported.

Analysis of Hypothesis VII

The final major hypothesis of this study was that those who perceived a positive change in their level of contribution would be more satisfied with their jobs than those who perceived a negative change. As was the case for the two previous hypotheses, negative correlations indicate support for the hypothesis. One might note that perceived change in level of contribution was measured using a Likert scale (1=contribute much less and 5=contribute much more). Once again, all of the correlations were negative (see Table 13), whether one looked at employees as an overall group or at the individual groups. The relationship between

Table 13 Correlations Of Perceived Change In Level Of Contribution With Job Satisfaction

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	JobSat	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*	*JobSat*	*Enjoy*	*Super*
Overall Job	-0.18 *	-0.21**	-0.21**	-0.15	-0.26*	-0.31**	-0.17	-0.16	-0.12	-0.19	-0.08	-0.30
Job Content	-0.21**	-0.25**	-0.21**	-0.17	-0.26**	-0.12	-0.18*	-0.20*	-0.23**	-0.26	-0.07	-0.17
Job Scheduling	-0.25**	-0.26**	-0.18**	-0.19 *	-0.22 *	-0.13	-0.26**	-0.23**	-0.26**	-0.27	-0.16	-0.03
Personnel Policies	-0.26 **	-0.24**	-0.15**	-0.19 *	-0.12	-0.15	-0.34**	-0.28**	-0.23**	-0.31**	-0.11	-0.11
Overall Department	-0.28**	-0.31**	-0.28**	-0.37**	-0.19	-0.35**	-0.19	-0.30**	-0.31**	-0.11	-0.26	-0.03
Budget Decisions	-0.32**	-0.28**	-0.29**	-0.29 **	-0.25**	-0.32**	-0.29**	-0.26**	-0.34**	-0.34**	-0.23	-0.16
Personnel Decisions	-0.35**	-0.31**	-0.32**	-0.28 **	-0.34**	-0.34**	-0.35**	-0.32**	-0.38**	-0.31 *	-0.08	-0.11
Scheduling	-0.25 **	-0.26**	-0.28**	-0.25**	-0.24**	-0.30**	-0.23**	-0.29**	-0.42**	-0.23	-0.08	-0.06
Planning	-0.35 **	-0.29**	-0.32**	-0.32**	-0.31**	-0.36**	-0.30**	-0.30**	-0.38 **	-0.42**	-0.22	-0.22
Overall University	-0.34 **	-0.34**	-0.26**	-0.24	-0.26*	-0.35**	-0.39**	-0.33**	-0.20	-0.12	-0.10	-0.19
Budgeting Decisions	-0.29 **	-0.34 **	-0.22**	-0.16	-0.17	-0.22*	-0.28**	-0.35**	-0.13	-0.33	-0.16	-0.42**
Planning	-0.29 **	-0.29**	-0.17**	-0.13	-0.07	-0.19*	-0.28**	-0.33**	-0.09	-0.33	-0.08	-0.24
Personnel Policies	-0.30 **	-0.31**	-0.21**	-0.18 *	-0.17	-0.22 *	-0.27**	-0.32**	-0.11	-0.41**	-0.15	-0.38*
Average r	-0.28	-0.28	-0.24	-0.23	-0.22	-0.26	-0.27	-0.28	-0.25	-0.28	-0.14	-0.19
Average rsquare	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.02	0.04

**.01,*.05

Scale:
JobSat = "I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job."
Enjoy = "I enjoy working for SFA."
Super = "I get along well with my immediate supervisor."

perceived change and job satisfaction is apparently stronger than the relationship between perceived level of contribution and job satisfaction. This suggests that the extent to which one perceives a positive change in their level of contribution pertains more to job satisfaction than to one's perceived level of contribution. One might further note, however, that the level of the average correlations are not as high as those for contentment. Finally, based on the results it was concluded that the hypothesis was supported, however, it was also concluded that perceived change in level of contribution explains very little of the variance in job satisfaction.

Exploratory Analyses

Though the primary purpose of this research was to test the seven stated hypotheses, one might note that it was also conducted to serve as the initial phase of a longitudinal study. Therefore, additional exploratory analyses were conducted, in part, to establish baseline data for the longitudinal study, as well as to satisfy the curiosity of the researcher. The additional exploratory analyses focused on the comments provided by survey respondents, the data pertaining to perceived change in level of contribution to decision making and the demographic data.

Survey Respondents' Comments

Survey respondents were given two opportunities to

provide additional comments. They were given the opportunity to comment on their contribution to decision making and they were asked to comment on the university's TQM initiative, SFA 98. Forty-three percent (55/129) of the Administrative/Staff employees, 55% (84/154) of the Faculty members, and 44% (21/48) of the Hourly employees chose to provide additional comments.

Relative to their contribution to decision making, 26% (33/129) of the Administrative/Staff employees chose to provide additional comments. The 33 respondents generated 52 comments of which 75% were negative and 25% were positive. As one can see in Table 14, the two most frequent comments were negative and had frequencies of 13 and 7. The two most frequent comments were:

1. Staff employees are given little encouragement or opportunity to contribute to decision making. (f=13)

2. Faculty and staff should be paid more competitive salaries. (f=7)

Relative to their contribution to decision making 36% (56/154) of Faculty members chose to make comments. The 56 faculty members generated 73 comments of which 74% were negative and 26% were positive. The two most frequent comments made by Faculty members were negative and had frequencies of 16 and 12, as one can see in Table 15. The two most frequent comments were:

Table 14 Most Frequent Comments Made By Administrative/Staff Employees Concerning Their Contribution To Decision-Making

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*	*Freq*	*%*
1. Staff employees are given little encouragement or opportunity to contribute to decision making.	13	25%	1. I am pleased with the leadership of SFA and the move toward decentralization of decision making, as well as the emphasis on TQM, is a welcome development.	6	12%
2. Faculty and staff should be paid more competitive salaries.	7	14%			
3. All employees should be given equal opportunity to contribute regardless of position or educational attainment.	6	12%			
4. Downpowering and the practice of TQM has been evident in rhetoric only, in that more responsibility is passed down but little decision making authority comes with it.	4	8%			

(Frequency -- Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(% -- Freq/Total # of comments provided by Administrative/Staff employees relative to contributions to decision making)
(Total # of comments provided = 52)

Table 15 Most Frequent Comments Made By Faculty Members Concerning Their Contribution To Decision-Making

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*	*Freq*	*%*
1. Faculty members are not given the opportunity to make significant contributions to decision making and if they are given the opportunity to contribute their input is given little weight or it is ignored.	16	22%	1. In general, I am satisfied with my level of contribution to decision making.	7	10%
2. I am disappointed with the decision making process in my department and the departmental leadership.	12	16%	2. I am satisfied with my level of contribution to decision making at the departmental level.	6	8%
3. All major decisions are made by the administration with little or no regard for the input provided by faculty members.	10	14%			
4. Faculty members are being "deprofessionalized", in that they are consistently removed from any real decision making or academic planning.	5	7%			
5. SFA, as an organization, is poorly managed.	4	6%			

(Freq - Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(% - Freq./Total # of comments provided by Faculty relative to contributions to decision making)
(Total # of comments provided = 73)

1. Faculty members are not given the opportunity to make significant contributions to decision making and if they are given the opportunity to contribute their input is given very little weight or ignored. (f=16)

2. I am disappointed with the decision making process in my department and the departmental leadership. (f=12)

Thirty-one percent (15/48) of the Hourly employees chose to comment on their contribution to decision-making. The 15 Hourly employees generated 19 commentsof which 100% were negative. As one can see in Table 16, the two most frequent comments had frequencies of 6 and were:

1. An effort must be made to involve more employees in the decision-making process, especially when the decision deals directly with your area of work and expertise. (f=6)

2. As an organization, SFA does not seem to place much value on its human resources, which is evident in the administration's uncaring attitude toward those at the bottom. (f=6)

As indicated above, respondents were also given the opportunity to comment on the SFA 98 initiative. They were asked to offer suggestions as to how the SFA 98 initiative might be improved upon. Thirty-four percent (44/129) of the Administrative/Staff employees chose to respond to the following open-ended question: In your opinion, how might the SFA 98 initiative be improved? The 44 Administrative/ Staff employees generated 88 comments of which 82% were negative and 18% were positive. One might note that comments which were designated as negative were those which were negative toward the process, as well as toward SFA 98.

Table 16 Most Frequent Comments Made By Hourly Employees Concerning Their Contribution To Decision-Making

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*
1. An effort must be made to involve all employees in the decision making process, especially when the decision deals directly with one's area of work and/or expertise.	6	32%	There were no positive comments
2. As an organization, SFA does not seem to place much value on its human resources, which is evident in the administration's uncaring attitude about those at the bottom.	6	32%	

(Freq - Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(% - Freq./Total # of comments provided by Hourly employees relative to contributions to decision making)
(Total # of comments = 19)

Those comments which were designated positive were those which supported SFA 98. As one can see in Table 17, the two most frequent comments made by Administrative/Staff employees were negative and had frequencies of 10 and 9. The two most frequent comments were:

1. Everyone should be involved in the process, including staff employees. (f=10)

2. More emphasis should be placed on high moral standards and academic excellence rather than athletics and image. (f=9)

Forty-six percent (71/154) of the Faculty members chose to respond to the open-ended question pertaining to SFA 98. The 71 Faculty members generated 144 comments of which 95% were negative and 5% were positive. In Table 18 one can see that the two most frequent comments made by Faculty members were negative and had frequencies of 27 and 11. The two most frequent comments made by Faculty members were:

1. More emphasis must be put on issues which pertain to academics and academic excellence. (Such as specific goals for improving academic performance of students, raising admission standards, and retaining fewer poor performers) (f=27)

2. Throw it out and start over. (f=11)

Thirty-five percent (17/48) of the Hourly employees chose to respond to the open-ended question generating 42 comments. Ninety-three percent of these comments were negative and seven percent were positive. As one can see in Table 19, the three most frequent responses were negative and had frequencies of 6. They were:

Table 17 Most Frequent Comments Given By Administrative/Staff Employees To The Open-Ended Question:
"In Your Opinion, How Might The SFA 98 Initiative Be Improved?"

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*	*Freq*	*%*
1. Everyone should be involved in the process, including staff employees.	10	11%	1. I like the plan as it is.	4	5%
2. More emphasis should be placed on high moral standards and academic excellence, rather than athletics and image.	9	10%	2. Solidarity among the employees and students must be encouraged so that SFA 98 can be implemented.	4	5%
3. The document has been too heavily influenced by the president and the lack of substance leads one to conclude that it is simply designed to improve the president's image.	6	7%			
4. Document needs more specific goals and relative objectives that express an underlying philosophy of the administration, which up to this point is unknown.	5	6%			
5. A structured system should be put in place that allows individuals to become more involved, rather than only being represented by their department.	4	5%			

(Freq - Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(% - Freq./Total # of comments provided by Hourly employees relative to contributions to decision making)
(Total # of comments = 88)

Table 18 Most Frequent Comments Given By Faculty Members To The Open-Ended Question: "In Your Opinion, How Might The SFA 98 Initiative Be Improved?"

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*
1. More emphasis must be put on issues pertaining to academics and academic excellence (such as specific goals for improving academic performance of students and raising admission standards).	27	19%	There were 7 positive comments, however, none had frequencies greater than 1.
2. Throw it out and start over.	11	8%	
3. Initiative should be more substantive and specific about addressing real problems (such as low employee morale, low academic standards, and the inability to attract quality students).	10	7%	
4. There needs to be less emphasis on "cheerleading" and aesthetics.	9	6%	
6. More emphasis needs to be put on improvements in teaching effectiveness and the responsibility of the students.	8	6%	
7. SFA 98 was written by the president of SFA with no regard for the input he suggests that he is seeking.	8	6%	

(Freq - Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(% - Freq./Total # of comments provided by Hourly employees relative to contributions to decision making)
(Total # of comments = 144)

Table 19 Most Frequent Comments Given By Hourly Employees To The Open-Ended Question:
"In Your Opinion, How Might The SFA 98 Initiative Be Improved?"

Most Frequent Negative Comments	*Freq*	*%*	*Most Frequent Positive Comments*
1. Teamwork and a friendlier work environment need to be promoted so as to enhance working conditions.	6	14%	There were 3 positive comments, however, none with a frequency greater than 1.
2. Salaries and wages need to be increased.	6	14%	
3. More emphasis should be put on personnel issues such as training, job sharing, flexible hours, improved insurance program, and enabling employees to obtain a higher education.	6	14%	
4. All employees should have been allowed to participate in this process and they should have been more informed about SFA 98.	5	12%	
5. The document should be more substance and less fluff.	4	10%	

(Freq-Those comments with frequencies less than 4 were not included)
(%-Freq./Total# of comments provided by Hourly employees relative to improving SFA 98)
(Total # of comments provided = 42)

1. Teamwork and a friendlier work environment need to be promoted so as to enhance working conditions. (f=6)

2. Salaries and wages need to be increased. (f=6)

3. There should be more emphasis on personnel issues such as training, job-sharing, flexible hours, improving the insurance program, and enabling employees to obtain a higher education. (f=6)

Perceptions of Change

Though there was certainly an interest in exploring the differences between the three groups relative to their perceptions of change in level of contribution, a hypothesis was not drawn because it was uncertain as to what might be discovered. Table 20 presents the descriptive statistics for all employees, as well as the individual groups, for perceived change in level of contribution relative to the 13 different areas of decision making. One might note that change was measured in terms of positive or negative change using a Likert scale (1=contribute much less and 5=contribute much more).

Though a statistical analysis indicated that there were some significant differences between average responses offered by the three groups, what was most interesting about the data in Table 20 was the apparent downward trend of the means as one moves from the job level to the departmental level to the university level. The perception of change indicated by the average responses given by all employees becomes more negative as one moves toward the university

Table 20 Perceived Change In Level Of Contribution To Decision Making

Area Of Contribution	*All Employees*			*Admin/Staff*			*Faculty*			*Hourly*		
	Mean	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std. Dev*	*N*	*Mean*	*Std.Dev*	*N*
Overall Job	3.49	0.83	185	3.67	0.81	76	3.39	0.69	76	3.33	1.09	30
Job Content	3.36	0.79	329	3.61	0.80	127	3.18	0.71	150	3.29	0.89	45
Job Scheduling	3.19	0.76	325	3.40	0.79	125	3.05	0.65	148	3.11	0.93	45
Personnel Policies	3.12	0.69	324	3.25	0.69	125	2.99	0.55	148	3.25	0.94	44
Overall Department	3.30	0.86	195	3.56	0.77	72	3.23	0.82	86	3.00	1.03	31
Budget Decisions	3.12	0.83	330	3.38	0.81	127	3.01	0.75	149	2.83	1.02	46
Personnel Decisions	3.05	0.86	330	3.29	0.79	126	2.99	0.84	150	2.61	1.00	46
Scheduling	3.10	0.81	331	3.29	0.79	127	3.01	0.74	150	2.87	1.02	46
Planning	3.16	0.88	324	3.37	0.85	123	3.16	0.82	148	2.60	1.01	45
Overall University	2.92	0.83	189	3.19	0.74	68	2.82	0.80	83	2.69	0.90	32
Budgeting Decisions	2.82	0.76	322	3.04	0.61	122	2.72	0.78	150	2.62	0.91	42
Planning	2.89	0.80	322	3.15	0.67	121	2.79	0.80	150	2.58	0.93	43
Personnel Policies	2.85	0.76	323	3.07	0.65	122	2.75	0.73	149	2.61	0.95	44

*Respondents were asked to use the following scale to respond to the question: How much has your level of contribution to decision making changed over the past two years?

1 = Contribute much less
2 = Contribute less
3 = Contribute the same
4 = Contribute more
5 = Contribute much more

level, as does the perception of change indicated by the average responses given by the individual groups, which corresponds with the results pertaining to perceived level of contribution to decision making and contentment with perceived level of contribution. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA indicated that for all employees ($F(2,300) = 32.75$, $p<.0001$), Administrative/Staff employees ($F(2,114) = 11.04$, $p<.0001$), Faculty members ($F(2,122) = 14.42$, $p<.0001$), and Hourly employees ($F(2,54) = 7.01$, $p<.002$) the average responses given to indicate perceived change in level of contribution to decision making associated with one's overall job, department, and the overall university were significantly different. This trend will be discussed further in the discussion section.

Demographic Analyses

The final exploratory analyses consisted of examining the demographic variables age, tenure, and gender. In terms of their perceptions of employee involvement, there were no significant differences found between older and younger employees, between those with several years of employment and those with few years of employment at SFA, or between male and female employees.

More specifically, there were no consistent statistically significant correlations between employee age and employee perceptions of contribution to decision making, between age and contentment with contribution to decision

making, or between age and perceived change in contribution to decision making. Age was also found not to be significantly correlated with measures of job satisfaction, which corresponds with much of the past research pertaining to job satisfaction (Weaver, 1978; Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993; and Mannheim, 1993). Employee age was significantly correlated with familiarity with SFA 98 (r=.26, p<.01), suggesting that older employees were more familiar with the TQM initiative. A significant correlation was also found between age and perceived contribution to SFA 98 (r=.24, p<.01), suggesting that older employees also perceived a higher level of contribution to the TQM initiative. The results did not indicate a significant correlation between age and contentment with contribution to SFA 98.

The results were similar in terms of employee tenure, which was not found to be consistently related to any of the measures pertaining to contribution to decision making or job satisfaction. However, tenure was found to be significantly correlated with familiarity with SFA 98 (r=.21, p<.01) and with perceived contribution to SFA 98 (r=.21, p<.01), indicating that those employees who had been employed by SFA for a longer period of time were more familiar with and perceived a higher level of contribution to SFA 98. Similar to age, a significant correlation was not found between employee tenure and contentment with

contribution to SFA 98.

The most interesting relationships, relative to employee age and tenure, were found within the Administrative/Staff group of employees. For example, the older and more tenured Administrative/Staff employees tended to be more familiar with SFA 98 (r=.35, p<.01 and r=.23, p<.05, respectively) and to perceive a higher level of contribution to SFA 98 (r=.31, p<.01 and r=.23, p<.05, respectively) than the younger Administrative/ Staff employees who had been with SFA for a shorter period of time.

The results (r=-.27, p<.01) also indicated that older Administrative/Staff employees were more likely to receive personal satisfaction from their jobs and they were more likely to enjoy working for SFA (r=-.19, p<.05) than younger Administrative/Staff employees. A possible explanation for this might be based on the research conducted by Chao (1990). Chao found that those respondents who perceived themselves to be more plateaued, in terms of their career, were likely to report lower levels of job satisfaction. Chao also found that the relationship between perceptions of a career plateau and job satisfaction was stronger and more negative for people with lower job tenure as opposed to higher job tenure. Therefore, one might conclude that the reason older Administrative/Staff employees report higher job satisfaction is that they have worked for the university

longer and, thus, have lower levels of perceived career plateau. One might note that Chao's findings conflict with what was found in this study relative to employee tenure.

Similar relationships did not hold for Faculty members and Hourly employees. As for perceived level of contribution to decision making, contentment with perceived level of contribution, and perceived change in level of contribution there were no consistent relationships with age and tenure for any of the three groups of employees.

In terms of gender, males and females tended to provide similar responses relative to their perceptions of contribution to decision making, contentment with perceived contribution, and perceived change in level of contribution. Similar to age and tenure, the most interesting gender differences were found within the different groups of employees. For example, at the university level, male Administrative/Staff employees tended to perceive a higher level of contribution to decision making than females. More specifically, men indicated a higher level of contribution to decision making associated with the overall functioning of SFA (t=-2.49, p<.02), university budgeting decisions (t=-2.43, p<.02), and university planning decisions (t=-2.29, p<.02). The results (t=-2.92, p<.004) also indicated that male Administrative/Staff employees perceived a slightly higher level of contribution to SFA 98.

Female Administrative/Staff employees, on the other

hand, tended to perceive more positive change than their male counterparts, in terms of their level of contribution to job-specific decision making. Women perceived more positive change in their level of contribution to decision making associated with the overall functioning of their jobs (t=3.69, p<.001), the content of their jobs (t=2.46, p<.02), and personnel policy decisions pertaining to their jobs (t=2.23, p<.03).

There did not appear to be many gender differences among Faculty members except for two of the job satisfaction variables. Female Faculty members tended to receive more personal satisfaction from their jobs (t=-2.95, p<.004) and they tended to enjoy working for SFA more than male Faculty members (t=-3.34, p<.001). As mentioned above, much of the past research pertaining to job satisfaction has indicated that demographic variables contribute very little to explaining differences in job satisfaction. Weaver (1978) suggested that this was most evident once the effects of education, occupational status, and level of pay were removed. One similarity between Faculty members and Administrative/Staff employees was the gender difference pertaining to departmental personnel decisions. Men indicated a higher level of contribution than women to departmental personnel decisions for both the Faculty members and Administrative/Staff employees (t=-2.21, p<.03 and t=-1.97, p<.05, respectively).

Finally, for Hourly employees, males and females tended to provide similar responses with the exception of perceived level of contribution to four areas of decision making. The results indicated that men tended to perceive a higher level of contribution to departmental scheduling decisions (t=-2.14, p<.04), departmental planning decisions (t=-2.13, p<.04), and decisions associated with the overall functioning of SFA (t=-2.63, p<.02). Women, on the other hand, indicated a higher perceived level of contribution to personnel decisions associated with their jobs (t=2.59, p<.016).

DISCUSSION

Based on my interpretation of the data, the overall conclusion is that SFA employees are discontent with their level of involvement in the decision making process, especially at the university level. This conclusion was reached by examining: (1) the low level of perceived contribution to decision making at the university level which was indicated by the responses of Administrative/Staff employees, Faculty members, and Hourly employees; (2) the discontentment of all three groups with perceived level of contribution to decision making at the university level; (3) the three groups' perceptions of *less* involvement in decision making at the university level over the past two years; (4) the perception of employees in all three groups that they "contributed very little" to SFA 98; (5) the fact that the majority of the comments to the open-ended questions were negative for all three groups and dealt primarily with university-wide issues; and (6) the majority of the comments provided during the interviews, which will be discussed in this section, were also negative for all three groups and dealt primarily with university-wide issues.

As mentioned in the Statement of Purpose section at the end of the literature review, previous research pertaining

to employee involvement (Lawler et al, 1992; MAPI-WYATT, 1993) obtained all their data from those in upper management positions. I was interested in the perspective of employees and whether it matched the perspective of upper management.

The majority of the organizational leaders, who participated in the previous studies (Lawler et al, 1992; MAPI-WYATT, 1993), indicated that employee involvement was important to their TQM initiative and the overall functioning of their organizations. Furthermore, the majority of the leaders indicated that they were actively seeking to involve their employees in the decision making process of their organizations. However, just because the organizational leaders claim that they involve their employees does not mean that they actually do. Case in point, the current president of SFA suggests that employee involvement is fostered at the university. However, the employees at SFA do not seem to share this assertion. The significance of this finding is that it brings into question the results of the above mentioned research.

The companies which participated in these previous studies may not have the high level of employee involvement that they claim to have. By surveying the opinions of the employees working for these companies, one might be able to better ascertain the validity of the claims of employee involvement. Therefore, it is my contention that future research efforts need to examine the opinions and

perceptions of employees, as well as the opinions of those in upper management.

Based on my experience working for a company which is supposedly a leader in the TQM revolution, based on my observations of other companies, who suggested that they are aggressively pursuing TQM, based on my conversations with management professors and businessmen about the application of TQM in the business community, and based on my readings about TQM there appears to be a discrepancy between how TQM should be applied and how it is actually applied. This discrepancy has resulted in a great deal of skepticism relative to the utility of TQM. The primary problem, in my opinion, is the discrepancy between the TQM rhetoric espoused by many organizational leaders and their actions. For example, when those in upper management suggest that they want employees to become more involved in the organization and employees take them at their word, then the employees tend to have increased expectations about their role within the organization. However, when employees begin to notice a conflict between the actions of the organizational leaders and what they say, then the employees tend to become skeptical about the true motivations and intentions of the organizational leaders. Furthermore, I believe this skepticism transcends the organization into our overall society. When a business claiming to be an advocate of TQM treats customers and employees poorly, then those

observing the business become skeptical about the utility of TQM.

I believe strongly in the principles of TQM. I believe that TQM has the potential to revolutionize the work place and our society. However, if the leaders responsible for implementing TQM continue to put rhetoric above action, then TQM will continue to be viewed with skepticism and will eventually be considered just another management fad. In my opinion, this will be a tragedy.

As Deming (1986) suggested, the successful implementation of TQM requires a change in the culture of the organization. Such a change requires the total involvement of all employees, as well as leadership and commitment from upper management. The leaders of the organization cannot expect successful change to take place unless they demonstrate a true commitment to the change. Once again, their actions must match their rhetoric. The leaders must actually lead the change by demonstrating their commitment and by providing an overall mission or strategy. Finally, it is essential that those in upper management genuinely involve the employees in the process of developing the mission and strategy, because it will be the employees who ultimately implement the change. This is directly related to TQM, in that if the leadership of an organization is truly interested in implementing TQM and pursuing quality, it must invoke the support of the employees or the

effort will be futile. For it is the employees who deal directly with the product and the customers. As much of the literature contends (Barry, 1991; Bowles & Hammond, 1991; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1992), the employees must be viewed as experts, which they are, relative to their particular jobs.

Therefore, it is my contention that the commitment of upper management and the involvement of all employees is essential to any attempt at implementing TQM. Neither of which appears to fully exist at SFA. The data in this study suggest that SFA does not have an environment or culture which is conducive to either employee involvement or TQM. This is evident in the survey results and in the majority of the comments which surfaced in the open-ended questions of the survey and during the 30 interviews. As the results section indicated, the majority of the comments offered by respondents were negative in terms of contribution to decision making and SFA 98. Based on the comments, it is apparent that SFA employees are not only discontent with their level of contribution at the university level, but they are also not happy with the overall management of the university. The majority of employees indicated that they were not encouraged to participate in the decision making process and, when they did participate, their input received little, if any, consideration. The majority of employees also indicated that they were not comfortable with the direction in which they perceived the university to be

moving. This was most evident in the comments pertaining to SFA 98. For example, many suggested that there was not enough emphasis placed on academics and academic standards. The employees suggested that the administration should have been more focused on increasing such standards. Furthermore, many considered the motivation of the current president to be self-serving rather than towards improving the university, which brings into question the commitment to change being demonstrated by the president. Many employees cited the inconsistency between the rhetoric espoused by the current president and his actions as evidence of this.

Further evidence of employee discontent was provided by the initial interviews. Interviews were conducted with 30 SFA employees prior to beginning the study in order to develop the survey instrument. Though the interviews were structured to some extent, they were primarily an opportunity to meet face to face with employees and to discuss their perceived role at SFA. The general consensus of the 30 employees was negative. This negativity was primarily directed at the administration of the university. For example, many suggested that they did not feel that the current president of SFA or his administration really cared what they thought. They did not feel they were encouraged to participate in the process of decision making relative to the overall functioning of SFA or to SFA 98. In fact, many found it humorous that I was even interested in what they

thought about their job because they contended that it was irrelevant to those in upper management positions. They suggested that indicating what they thought about their jobs would not result in any type of positive change. Finally, there were those who suggested that the president's intentions were admirable and sincere, however, they did not feel that he was properly addressing the problems associated with the "system". They indicated that they found the system to be structured in such a way as to discourage contribution beyond one's job. For example, many suggested that SFA functioned on a "good old boy" system and that only a chosen few were able to truly participate in the decision making process.

The current president of SFA appears to have taken the beginning step toward making SFA a TQM managed organization. In fact, I would contend that the fact that he supported this research project is partial evidence of this. However, if he is to succeed in his efforts, his actions must become more consistent with his rhetoric. If he really seeks to involve employees in organizational decision making, he must put forth mechanisms for gathering and using their input. In industry, quality circles and self-managed work teams have proven to be quite effective. Actively seeking suggestions from employees via a structured feedback system have also been found to advance employee involvement efforts. However, such mechanisms might not be as effective

in an academic setting. Therefore, creative solutions must be seriously sought and tested.

As for the president of SFA, as well as other organizational leaders attempting to implement TQM, it might be worth noting that words mean things. Especially when they are espoused by the those in positions of leadership. If they are truly interested in making their organizations function more effectively and efficiently they need to walk the walk and not just talk the talk.

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APPENDIX A

Stephen F. Austin Employee Opinion Survey

The survey instrument which was used to conduct the research consisted of six pages beginning with a cover letter provided by the president of SFA and ending with an open-ended question. What follows is a copy of the survey questions.

DEMOGRAPHICS

For research purposes I would like to examine data based on the following demographics variables. Do not respond if you feel these questions compromise your confidentiality.

(1) How many years have you been working for SFA?

(2) Based on the following descriptions, which group are you a member of.

____Administration	(supervisors, dept. heads, deans, VP's, professional employees)
____Faculty	(Professors, lecturers)
____Hourly	(All employees paid on an hourly basis)

(3) Age____

(4) Gender____

(5) What department, school, or area do you work for?

_____

Instructions: Please indicate your level of contribution to decision making, your contentment with your level of contribution, and the extent to which you have perceived a change in your level of contribution over the past two years for the 13 items below by circling the appropriate responses.

CONTRIBUTION %
How much do you contribute to decision making relevant to the following items?

Rate the 13 items using the following scale:
0%=No Contribution
25%=Very Little
50%=Some
75%=A Lot
100%=Total Decision Making Authority

(1) Overall Functioning of **YOUR JOB** 0 25 50 75 100

Aspects of Doing your job:

(2) Job Content - What you do on a daily basis [0 25 50 75 100]
(3) Job Scheduling - When/Where you do your job [0 25 50 75 100]
(4) Personnel Policies - Personal leave, vacation, breaks, etc.; Sick leave policy. [0 25 50 75 100]

(5) Overall Functioning of **YOUR DEPARTMENT** 0 25 50 75 100

Aspects of Running your department:

(6) Budget Decisions - Such as the acquisition of capital equip., supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc. [0 25 50 75 100]
(7) Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay/raises, promotions, etc. [0 25 50 75 100]
(8) Scheduling - Who does what job, who works with whom, what shift people work, where people work, etc. [0 25 50 75 100]
(9) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the dept.(curriculum decisions, preventive maintenance, etc.) [0 25 50 75 100]

(10) Overall Functioning of **SFA UNIVERSITY** 0 25 50 75 100

Aspects of Running the University:

(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of funds (between different departments/Schools, athletics and academics, library and other student services, etc.) [0 25 50 75 100]
(12) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the university. (e.g. Admissions Standards, Improvements in the physical attributes of the university, etc.) [0 25 50 75 100]
(13) Personnel Policies - Sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, hours you will work, etc. [0 25 50 75 100]

CONTENTMENT

How content are you with your level of contribution to decision making relevant to the following items?

Rate the 13 items using the following scale:

1=Very Discontent
2=Discontent
3=Neutral
4=Content
5=Very Content

(1) Overall Functioning of **YOUR JOB** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Doing your job:

(2) Job Content - What you do on a daily basis [1 2 3 4 5]
(3) Job Scheduling - When/Where you do your job [1 2 3 4 5]
(4) Personnel Policies - Personal leave, vacation, breaks, etc.; Sick leave policy. [1 2 3 4 5]

(5) Overall Functioning of **YOUR DEPARTMENT** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Running your department:

(6) Budget Decisions - Such as the acquisition of capital equip., supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(7) Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay/raises, promotions, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(8) Scheduling - Who does what jobs, who works with whom, what shift people work, where people work, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(9) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the dept.(curriculum decisions, preventive maintenance, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]

(10) Overall Functioning of **SFA STATE UNIVERSITY** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Running the University:

(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of funds (between different departments/Schools, athletics and academics, library and other student services, etc.) [1 2 3 4 5]

(12) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the university. (e.g. Admissions Standards, Improvements in the physical attributes of the university, etc.) [1 2 3 4 5]

(13) Personnel Policies - Sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, hours you will work, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]

PERCEIVED CHANGE IN CONTRIBUTION

How much has your level of contribution to decision making changed over the past two years relevant to the following items?

Rate the 13 items using the following scale:

1=Contribute Much Less
2=Contribute Less
3=Contribute the Same
4=Contribute More
5=Contribute Much More

(1) Overall Functioning of **YOUR JOB** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Doing your job:

(2) Job Content - What you do on a daily basis [1 2 3 4 5]
(3) Job Scheduling - When/Where you do your job [1 2 3 4 5]
(4) Personnel Policies - Personal leave, vacation, breaks, etc.; Sick leave policy. [1 2 3 4 5]

(5) Overall Functioning of **YOUR DEPARTMENT** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Running your department:

(6) Budget Decisions - Such as the acquisition of capital equip., supplies, the allocation and distribution of funds, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(7) Personnel Decisions - Such as who to hire/fire, merit pay/raises, promotions, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(8) Scheduling - Who does what jobs, who works with whom, what shift people work, where people work, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]
(9) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the dept.(curriculum decisions, preventive maintenance, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]

(10) Overall Functioning of **SFA STATE UNIVERSITY** 1 2 3 4 5

Aspects of Running the University:

(11) Budgeting Decisions - Allocation of funds (between different departments/Schools, athletics and academics, library and other student services, etc.) [1 2 3 4 5]

(12) Planning - Setting goals/objectives for the university. (e.g. Admissions Standards, Improvements in the physical attributes of the university, etc.) [1 2 3 4 5]

(13) Personnel Policies - Sick leave, vacation time, # of breaks, hours you will work, etc. [1 2 3 4 5]

In the space below, make any additional comments you might have about your contributions to decision making at SFA:

Instructions: Please read the following statements/ questions and circle the number which most closely corresponds with your response.

(1) I receive a great deal of personal satisfaction from my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(2) I enjoy working for SFA.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(3) I get along well with my immediate supervisor.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(4) Are you familiar with the SFA 98 initiative?

1	2	3	4	5
No	Have not read it	read some of it	read most of it	I am very familiar with it

(5) How much did you contribute to the SFA 98 initiative?

1	2	3	4	5
None	Very Little	Some	A Lot	Many of my ideas were used

(6) How content are you with this level of contribution?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Content	Content	Neutral	Discontent	Very Discontent

APPENDIX B

Interview Informed Consent

I understand that participation in this study is voluntary and I am not required by the university to participate. I am aware that this study is not in any way a condition of my employment and I may choose not to participate if I wish. I am further aware that if I do choose to participate none of my responses to the interview will be known by anybody associated with the university except the researchers. Any information about me or my performance obtained during this study will be known only to the researcher and his professors to the extent that it is necessary for educational purposes. I understand and agree to the terms of this research study. I further understand that the researcher will explain/discuss any and all aspects/implications of this research to me at my request throughout the study. Should I have any problems or questions relating to this research at any time in the future I may contact George Yancey, Ph.D., professor, at 568-4402, or Jon Moore, researcher/student, at 560-2079.

_____

Signature of Participant

_____

Date

VITA

Upon graduating from Baylor University in 1989 with a Bachelor of Arts degree, Jon Moore became a production manager for Milliken & Company in Gaffney, S.C. In August, 1992, he entered the Graduate School of Stephen F. Austin State University where he pursued a Master of Arts degree in Psychology. He received the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology in August of 1994.

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This thesis was typed by Jon C. Moore