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**A STUDY OF SELECTED MODELS TO DETERMINE
ELEMENTARY TEACHER PROPENSITY TO STRIKE**

by

Cynthia Foreman

A Thesis

**Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Faculty of Education in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Education at the
University of Windsor**

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1997



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ABSTRACT

Five explanatory models, related to demographics, attitudes, personality, work environment, and burnout were examined to determine which best predicted elementary teacher propensity to strike. Test instruments included: (i) a questionnaire, designed by the researcher, to measure demographics, attitudes, and work environment; (ii) Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI); and (iii) Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI). The instruments were administered in June, 1996 to educators (N=202) in an urban elementary public school board. The work environment model emerged as the best predictor. Variables which correlated with propensity to strike included dissatisfaction with monetary benefits, the classroom environment, and professional support. Significant variables also emerged in the demography, personality, and attitude models pointing to support of a combination of factors in determining propensity to strike. Burnout was not found to be a predictor. An emerging framework for understanding the determinants of striking is proposed.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Leonard,
whose encouragement and support
throughout the pursuit of this Master's Degree
were ever present.

*Four steps to achievement: plan purposefully, prepare prayerfully,
proceed positively, pursue persistently.*

WILLIAM A. WARD (1893-1959)

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Finally, I wish to thank my family and friends for their love and understanding throughout my degree work. I greatly appreciate your caring, concern, and support, especially through the challenging times.

Never, never, never, never give up.

WINSTON CHURCHILL (1874-1965)

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A. Teachers and Striking

The Teaching Profession Act (1944) provided statutory protection for teachers, through the Ontario Teachers' Federation (OTF), with collective bargaining agreements for working conditions. Teachers were required by law to be members of an affiliate association and collective bargaining occurred amicably through to the 1960s, under the Labour Relations Act of Ontario (Paroian, 1996). By the end of this decade teachers began using professional negotiators to expand their scope of bargaining. Provincial federation support was given for sanctions such as work-to rule campaigns and mass resignations. Between 1972 and 1975, 28 teacher strikes occurred in Ontario (Canadian Teachers' Federation, 1987). On December 18, 1973, a province-wide strike was held to protest government plans to replace the right to strike with binding arbitration (Paroian, 1996). The government withdrew proposed legislation, and in 1975, Ontario's inception of Bill 100, "The School Boards and Teachers Collective Negotiations Act," provided teachers with the right to strike (Stephenson & Fisher, 1982). The Education Relations Commission (ERC) was also created to administer the Act.

Bill 100 legalized the right to strike. From 1975 to 1993, approximately 60 strikes have occurred in Ontario. Striking has continued to be a method used by teachers for refusing unacceptable working conditions.

Some factors that researchers currently identify as major contract issues for teachers include job security, class size, and salary and pensions. Research

has also revealed that teachers value decision-making, autonomy, and recognition. Clearly teachers need extrinsic as well as intrinsic satisfiers in the workplace. Several possible consequences to unmet needs may include negative teacher attitudes, rising burnout incidence, and dissatisfaction with the physical work environment. For example teachers, whose personalities predispose them to becoming negative, may burnout. Teachers who provide the sole financial support for their family, or who have many dependents may also have a difficult time dealing with present working conditions and/or the stress of an unpleasant work environment. The right to strike was initiated by teachers as a means to protect conditions of employment and to ensure that needs were being met.

B. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine five models which researchers have identified as areas of employee needs. The following models, some more compelling than others, were examined to determine what best predicts teacher propensity to strike: demography, attitude, level of burnout, personality, and work environment. Reasons for support of a strike are largely personal, and several influencing factors, combined, may contribute to a teacher's support. This study should enhance existing knowledge in the area of strikes by determining which model provides the *strongest* predictors. Discussion and proactive solutions to prevent future strikes are considered.

C. Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined specifically for the purpose of this study:

1. Burnout: an extreme form of role-specific alienation characterized by a sense that one's work is meaningless and that one is powerless to effect change which could make the work more meaningful (Dworkin, 1987).
2. Central Office Staff: Supervisory Officers, and the Director of Education.
3. Collective Bargaining: negotiations between central office staff and a representation of teachers.
4. Depersonalization: development of negative attitudes and impersonal responses toward people with whom one works (Friesen, Prokop, & Sarros, 1988, p.10).
5. Emotional Exhaustion: feelings of overextension and exhaustion caused by daily work pressures, particularly as these pressures occur among helpers and clients in the helping service professions (Friesen, Prokop, & Sarros, p. 10).
6. Militancy: feelings toward job situation and/or work-related issues, often characterized by willingness to participate in sanctions against employer; aggressively active (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1976, p.729).
7. Reduced Personal Accomplishment: demoralized sense of personal achievement, accompanied by a diminished self-esteem (Friesen, Prokop, & Sarros, p. 10).
8. Role/Work Overload: too many demands and too little time in which to do them adequately; job complexity; work that is perceived as too difficult to complete satisfactorily (Byrne, 1993, p. 648).
9. Specialty Teaching Assignments: full-time or part-time elementary teaching positions outside of regular classroom, such as computer assistant instructors, learning resource teachers, in-home instructors, or teachers working in jails.
10. Stress: the pattern of specific and nonspecific responses a person makes to stimulus events that disturb his/her equilibrium and tax or exceed his/her

ability to cope (Zimbardo, 1985, p. 456).

11. Strike: stoppage of all school-related work or stoppage of only extra-curricular activities (work-to-rule), by a group of employees, to press for settlement of a demand or grievance (Canadian Teachers' Federation, 1987).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. The Demography Model

A major theme in the literature dealt with the demographics which predict propensity to strike. These were variables which were consistently significant in the research.

Alutto and Belasco (1974) measured "attitudinal militancy", which they defined as subjects' opinions of strikes, collective bargaining, unions, and professional associations. They contended that militancy was due to the clash between professional ideals and organizational reality. A questionnaire with a 7-point Likert scale was administered to teachers in a rural school and an urban school. The instrument used semantic scales that measured the degree to which subjects viewed strikes, unions, collective bargaining, and professional associations where 1 was very unfavourable and 7 was very favourable. It was assumed that the more militant the attitudes, the more favourable the opinions would be concerning strikes, unions, and collective bargaining. Seventy percent (n=414) of the questionnaires were returned. Data were analyzed using multiple regression. The results of the study revealed that males viewed collective bargaining and professional associations more favourably than females. Scores for collective bargaining, unions, and professional associations for males were 5.42, 4.18, and 5.00, respectively, while females scores were 3.51, 3.85, and 3.37. Age was also positively correlated with evaluations of collective bargaining and professional associations and negatively correlated with evaluations of strikes and attitudes toward unions.

Younger teachers were more likely to support strikes than older teachers. In relation to age and gender, the researchers contended that organizations must focus on the specific needs and concerns of their professional employees to reduce the level of attitudinal militancy. They believed that many organizations make the mistake of believing that militancy is found only in malcontents, who can be ignored. However, changing social values and needs have legitimized aggressive action and increasingly militant collective action is expected.

Similarly, Bruno and Nelken (1975) studied propensity to strike in terms of teacher activism. They noted the rising number of strikes each year and viewed activism as a major problem facing boards of education. The researchers contended that activism was directed by frustration, lack of gratification of basic needs, sociological forces, and organizational constriction. The purpose of their study was to predict whether teachers would go on strike on the basis of certain background variables. A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire consisting of 58 items measuring variables such as political leaning, sex, cynicism, age, income, and morale was developed. It also included a 59th item with the statement, "I would go on strike". Each classroom teacher in Tulare County, California was sent a questionnaire. Of 2033 mailings, 701 were returned. Multiple regression was used to analyze data. Age and gender were the two most significant variables: younger teachers and male teachers had a greater propensity to strike. Heavier teaching loads, low morale, and attitude toward collective bargaining also showed significant correlations. In a marginal analysis of the regression, it was determined that teacher gender had the most effect on propensity to strike. The researchers' implications included that administrative decision-making can substantially affect the propensity of teachers to strike and that allocation of resources should

be used to decrease it.

Fox and Wince (1976) based their study on that of Winick who found that the greatest supporters of a New York City teachers' strike were young males, aged 25-34. The subjects of their study were public school teachers in a city of over 100,000 population, situated in a heavily industrialized, midwestern city in the United States, which had experienced four teachers' strikes since 1969. Data were collected using self-administered questionnaires, which were distributed about six months after the first teachers' strike and about six months before the next strike. Of 1131 mailings, 499 teachers returned their questionnaires. The independent variables considered were sex, age, ethnicity, religious preference, father's occupation, family unionism, grade level taught, level of education, and class identification. The dependent variable, occupational militancy, was determined by 15 questions based on actions pertaining to militancy, ranging from signing petitions to picketing schools, to civil disobedience. Subjects answered, "I have", "I might", or "I would never". Data were analyzed using a principal-components factor analysis to ascertain the unidimensionality of militancy and a Multiple Classification Analysis to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Their findings matched those of Winick in that the most significant results revealed that young males were most likely to strike, although a significant departure from this trend was found in the very youngest teachers. Their low level of militancy was referred to as their occupational "honeymoon". Fox and Wince attributed male militancy to norms of aggression in North American society and to greater job dissatisfaction in regard to income and prestige. Teaching was the sole or principal source of support for spouse and children for more men than women, and married women tended to assume the prestige of

the husband's occupation, easing their role demands. Also significant was that teachers with southern or eastern European ethnic backgrounds were more militant than northwestern Europeans and Americans, Catholic teachers were more militant than Protestants, teachers from blue-collar homes were more militant than those from white-collar homes, and teachers with high levels of unionism were militant.

Greer and Brown (1982) also found young males to be most militant, and attributed these findings to their *dissatisfaction*. This was due to the timing of the study, which occurred after subjects had been on strike. A random sample of 150 teachers was drawn from a list of 2,250 full-time teachers in the Oklahoma City public school system. A questionnaire was administered, which collected data on demographic characteristics and attitudes on union and working conditions issues. The attitudinal measures consisted of statements to which the degree of agreement was indicated on a 5-point Likert scale where five was "strongly agree" and one was "strongly disagree". The attitude measures included perceptions of union power, perceptions of union service, perceptions of the power of the Oklahoma City teachers' union, perceptions of the service provided by the Oklahoma City teachers' union, perception of fair treatment by the Oklahoma City school board, perceptions of the legitimacy of teachers' strikes, and the economic satisfaction level. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted and young males were found most militant. They tended to view unions as having power and as providing good service and they also tended to feel that unfair treatment by the school board justified striking. As a result, group affiliation was considered important as the union was viewed as a means for confronting areas of dissatisfaction.

Much of the literature suggested that job dissatisfaction could predict

propensity to strike. Job satisfaction is determined by how well one's needs are being met. The fulfillment of needs is a personal perception, based on individual expectation. Job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is not an objective measure but a subjective one which reflects attitudes.

B. The Attitude Model

Bolman and Deal (1984) espoused the belief that individuals were likely to flourish and develop in environments where they had a good probability of satisfaction of their important needs. Inversely, several studies showed that *deprivation* of intrinsically rewarding variables contributed to job dissatisfaction. In a nationwide survey of teachers in the United States, Chase (1985) found that teachers were generally positive about their situations, but they were not satisfied with career opportunities and level of involvement in policy-making. This study involved 2,223 intermediate and secondary teachers from 58 school systems across 29 states to assess their attitudes on a number of aspects of their schools. The Teacher's Opinion Survey was administered. It contained 64 statements about the teaching situation such as, "What is your general feeling about the way you are treated by the administration?" and "Are teachers provided the right amount of time to prepare adequately for teaching?" For each statement, the respondent marked agreement or disagreement on a 5-point scale. The results indicated that for 86% of the items, teachers' responses were on the positive side of the scale. Lowest ratings were given to the questions: "How do you feel about your prospects for advancement in the teaching profession?" and "How often are teachers involved in the selection of what will be included in the in-service program in your building?". Chase concluded by suggesting that there be improved effectiveness in leadership

among principals and teachers. Changes initiated by teachers would promote feelings of self-actualization and esteem.

Belasco and Alutto (1972) also found that teachers who were deprived of decision-making privileges had significantly lower levels of work satisfaction and that teacher militancy was a reflection of an increased desire for participation. Their study examined the relationship between levels of satisfaction experienced by teachers and their state of decisional participation, which was measured in three states: decisional deprivation, decisional equilibrium, and decisional saturation. Subjects were teachers employed in two school districts located in Western New York State, a small urban town, and a medium-sized rural district. Satisfaction was ascertained from a series of questions which focused on the inducements necessary for a teacher to leave his/her job. Decisional participation was computed from responses to a series of questions which posed 12 decisional situations which normally occur in school systems like establishing classroom disciplinary policies, resolving learning problems of individual students, and resolving faculty member grievances. Teachers indicated whether they currently participated and whether they desired to participate in each decision. The data showed that those teachers who were decisionally deprived reported significantly lower satisfaction levels and that they were most willing to consider leaving their job. Where teachers attributed more influence of the superintendent over daily activities, they were less satisfied. Belasco and Alutto concluded by suggesting that the necessity for a management strategy, which recognized decisional participation, was needed to enhance levels of teacher satisfaction. This could be done by identifying the substrata within the teaching group which are particularly deprived, then designing a program which met the needs of those

teachers. In light of the demographic variables, for example, younger teachers should be afforded more decisional participation as they are the ones who would potentially provide the renewal and strength of the educational system.

Williams (1990) researched participative management, which was defined as the sharing of traditional management decisions with individual employees. The author maintained that the primary source for motivation was job autonomy and called for the restructuring of schools toward a shared ownership.

Similarly, the major determinants of career satisfaction in a study by Chapman and Lowther (1982) were those involving autonomy and recognition. The subjects consisted of 542 graduates of the University of Michigan, who were currently teaching full-time in public schools. They were given the "Survey of Graduates with Teaching Certificates" which collected information on current employment, and their satisfaction with that employment. Also included were questions on personal skills and abilities, personal success, and personal achievement. For example, respondents were asked to rate how well they supervised and led others and the importance of opportunities to learn new things. Multiple regression tests revealed that the variable which best predicted teachers' career satisfaction was age ($M = 39.67$). After differences due to age and sex were removed from the analysis, career satisfaction was significantly related to opportunity to learn ($M = 2.29$), recognition from supervisors ($M = 2.21$), and approval of family and close friends ($M = 2.09$). Autonomy ($M = 1.94$), recognition by peers ($M = 2.00$), and leadership activities ($M = 2.02$) were also positively correlated with career satisfaction. Chapman and Lowther suggested the need for an examination of the influence of the school administrator. The relative isolation of the classroom teacher necessitated

approval and recognition from the supervisor as a teacher's competence was often only seen by the supervisor.

In a similar report in 1992, lack of encouragement and support from administrators continued to be a significant variable associated with dissatisfaction. King and Peart (1992) discussed the results of a study done by The Canadian Teachers' Federation. The instrument used was a questionnaire using a Likert scale to rate agreement or disagreement with several questions. Questions dealt with topics such as recognition and support from administrators ("The administrators in this school give support to the teachers in disciplinary matters"), class size ("I think classes should be smaller"), workload and time demands ("My daily workload is too heavy to do my job well"), commitment to teaching ("If I had to choose a career again, I would choose teaching"), and demographics. Results were simply measured on a percentage basis for each item. Six questions were used to measure stress level and teachers were categorized into high, moderate, and low stress level groups. Some of the interesting results discussed in the report were consistent with other findings in the literature. Appreciation of teachers' efforts by principals were vital for satisfaction. Forty-three percent of teachers who were satisfied with their jobs indicated that they had a good relationship with administrators while 37% of teachers who were not satisfied indicated that they had a poor relationship with administrators. Fifty-three percent of teachers said that their workload was too heavy and 64% said they were almost always exhausted at the end of a regular school day. Female teachers between 41-60 years indicated the greatest amount of stress but reported a higher level of career satisfaction.

C. The Burnout Model

Stress has been identified as a major cause of burnout. Burnout is a term coined by Freudenberger (1974) for people in the helping professions who wear out. Freudenberger based this clinical definition on observations of volunteer workers and believed that it was the dedicated and committed who are most prone to burnout. Freudenberger likened burned-out employees to buildings which have been gutted by fire, leaving behind empty, devastated shells. Burnout was identified as many things ranging from boredom to negativism to exhaustion to depression. Since Freudenberger's work, many psychologists and theorists have broadened and extended and sometimes confused the term.

Dworkin (1987) suggested that many psychological definitions of burnout were strikingly similar to definitions of perceived alienation and that burnout represented negative outcomes of role performances. Dworkin stated that burnout is the exact opposite of satisfaction.

Maslach (1982), a leading researcher in this area, described burnout as a response to the chronic emotional strain of dealing extensively with other human beings, particularly when they were troubled or troublesome. It was considered a nebulous term as it had such broad applications. For example, if one lost the initial enthusiasm he/she once felt for a job role he/she can be said to be burned-out or, in a more encompassing definition, burnout may be considered physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion such that one cannot cope. Maslach extended research in this area, including the work environment and cultural and social milieu as factors contributing to burnout. This perspective was social-psychological in nature in that burnout was viewed as a continuous variable consisting of feelings of emotional exhaustion (feeling

drained, physically fatigued, and dreading going to work), depersonalization (detached concern, becoming cynical), and low personal accomplishment (feeling like a failure for not living up to original expectations) (Appendix A).

For the purposes of this thesis, the psychological syndrome known as burnout will be seen as a nontransitory attitude toward a role (unlike job satisfaction or dissatisfaction which can change as daily circumstances change). Burnout is “an extreme form of role-specific alienation characterized by a sense that one’s work is meaningless and that one is powerless to effect change which could make the work more meaningful” (Dworkin, 1987, p.28).

Researchers have shown that responsibility for people always causes more stress than responsibility for things. Teaching is a profession where responsibility for others is a primary function. As a result, teacher burnout has been given more attention in the past decade (Byrne, 1993; Friesen, Prokop, & Sarros, 1988). The prolonged, constant, and intensive interaction which typifies classroom teaching in emotionally charged urban public schools provides a suitable breeding ground for burnout. Overcrowded, understaffed schools with sometimes less than eager students, combined with a complex bureaucracy which separates policy formation from policy implementation, significantly compromises the teachers’ capacity to perform effectively. Students functioning at diverse grade levels, students challenging authority, policies which determine textbooks, course content and even teaching style, and little control over where a teacher may be transferred, are all sources of stress. Add to this the interaction with a multitude of students, parents, colleagues, and administrators, each of whom has different problems and demands and requires the teacher to make quick, personal responses to unpredictable problems, while being made increasingly more accountable. Finally, the

increase in workload has not been accompanied by an increase in time in which to carry out the work. With rising public scrutiny and a general public view that the quality of education is decreasing, teachers are unable to enjoy a sense of efficacy. Whereas the positive feelings attached to efficacy would help to balance teachers' stressful demands, negative feelings can dominate, leading teachers to a sense of powerlessness and inability to cope.

Given all this, is it understandable that teachers can possess all the attitudinal components of burnout, yet remain in their jobs for a career lifetime because of their economic needs. They have no alternatives, nor do they have adequate resources to deal with stress. This is known as teacher entrapment (Dworkin, 1987). Under such hardship, when needs are not being met, the likelihood that teachers would be willing to support a strike sanction increases. Many of the circumstances which cause burnout, such as high pupil-teacher ratios, frustration with upper administration, lack of preparation time, and insufficient support for mental health are also pertinent issues in negotiations. If not attained, teachers could be compelled to strike.

Research revealed two major areas of concern in teacher burnout: organizational or situational factors, which tended to be objective in nature and personal or individual factors, which were subjective or perceived. Specifically, Blase (1986), in a model of burnout development, reported that the major stressors involved in teacher burnout appeared to be concerns over control of time, inappropriately high or low demands on personal capabilities, organizational characteristics that made tasks difficult to perform well, threats to personal needs and values, lack of support when change was necessary and negative responses to consistent stressors.

Cunningham (1983), in a review of literature, identified the causes of

burnout as high levels of stress related to inordinate time demands, inadequate relationships, large class size, lack of resources, isolation, role ambiguity, limited promotional opportunities, and lack of support. The author suggested that the problem “threatens to reach hurricane force if it isn’t checked soon” (p. 38) and called for improved teacher status, rewards for ambition, commitment and performance, preservice stress preparation, improved supervision and support, and participatory team leadership.

Fimian (1987) also studied work-related events that led to teacher burnout. The author maintained that stress was not a single symptom issue but could be defined in a number of subjective and objective ways. In the study, 226 experts, comprising five samples of burnout experts, were surveyed over five summers and their data pooled. A modified version of the The Teaching Events Stress Inventory (TESI) was administered. The 58 item instrument measured six teacher stress factors: personal/professional stressors, professional distress, discipline and motivation, emotional manifestations, biobehavioural manifestations, and physiological-fatigue manifestations. The amended portion of the test was based on eight additional items related to time management problems and eight “personal and professional information” items. The experts were asked to rate events on a 4-point Likert scale in terms of stressfulness. The means for each item were found and ranked from most to least relevant. Time management items were identified as being the biggest stressors, but all items fell into the relevant to quite relevant range. The most relevant items included “unable to cope”, “becoming physically exhausted”, “feeling anxious”, “lacking recognition”, “feeling depressed”, “becoming impatient with others”, and “having to do more than one thing at a time”.

Mazur and Lynch (1989) conducted a study of 200 public teachers in

Boston, to measure variables related to teacher burnout. There were seven independent variables in question. Demographic variables, experiential variables, school environment, health, and principal's leadership style, were measured by checklists. Organizational stressors were measured with an 18 item, 6-point Likert scale, in which respondents were asked their level of agreement with statements. Finally, personality characteristics were assessed through four personality tests, including the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Results indicated that the major findings of the study existed within the organizational variables. Work overload, (including numerous non-teaching duties), responsibility, (including excessive time demands of peripheral responsibilities), and lack of support were significant determinants of teacher burnout. Several respondents commented that even when they took time for family activities, they felt guilty. Also, the personality results showed that anomie, a state characterized by a sense of meaninglessness and alienation, and poor self-esteem, were the primary predictors of burnout.

Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, and Bassler (1988) also differentiated between individual factors and situational factors leading to teacher burnout. A sample of 1,213 elementary teachers from eight school districts in a midsouthern state was used. The 78 schools represented rural, urban, and suburban areas and they varied in size, resources, and socioeconomic status. Three questionnaires were administered. A "Teacher Information Questionnaire" gathered the demographics, a "School Information Questionnaire" was completed by the principals and a "Teacher Opinion Questionnaire" gathered attitudinal data. Situational results indicated that there was a significant correlation between burnout and organizational rigidity. The result of individual factors revealed that there were negative correlations

between burnout and internal rewards and burnout and efficacy. Teachers who found teaching personally rewarding and teachers with a higher sense of efficacy were less likely to report burnout. Tosi and Tosi (1970) also found that rigid and unresponsive school leadership style was related to burnout.

Role overload is becoming more common as teachers find themselves pulled in all directions as their responsibilities multiply. Lutz and Maddirala (1990) specifically studied the effects of increased paperwork due to education reform and teacher performance accountability on Texas teachers. A questionnaire was administered to a random sample of 3,000. The questionnaire included five instruments including the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Significant results were found between frustration with paperwork and emotional exhaustion. Also interesting was that feelings of lack of control due to the mandates of the Texas reform policy were related to feelings of low personal accomplishment. The authors concluded with the contention that "Burned-out teachers either leave teaching or remain teachers entrapped, unhappy, and largely ineffective" (Lutz & Maddirala, p. 17).

Similarly, Maslach (1978), in a paper reviewing extensive research, found that for many of the helping professionals, a major sign of burnout was the transformation of a person with commitment into a mechanical bureaucrat. The author's discussion also indicated that time constraints, lack of control, and feelings of being trapped and overburdened in the face of continuous demands, led to burnout.

Schwab, Jackson, and Schuler (1986) proposed that idealistic teachers were most likely to burnout. Their study examined organizational and personal predictors of burnout, based on the Maslach model and the consequences of these. Three hundred and thirty-nine elementary and secondary teachers from

New Hampshire, were administered a 16 page questionnaire. The first six sections assessed potential causes of burnout through descriptors rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Other sections included items which were rated on participation in decision-making, role conflict and ambiguity, freedom and autonomy, social support, rewards and punishments, and expectations. A section on consequences of job burnout was designed in which respondents had to indicate the degree to which they had changed since beginning teaching, on a 5-point Likert scale. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and a section to collect demographic data were also included. Many factors outlined in their model were found to be significant. Correlations between expectations and burnout revealed that beginner teachers tended to have unrealistic expectations due to lack of exposure during training. They did not recognize that systemic factors, such as constraints of organizational policies and procedures, inadequate resources, or uncooperative or rebellious co-workers could lead to negative experiences in education. They perceived negative experiences as personal failures and viewed themselves as having become less effective, which reduced motivation, and in some cases impaired performance. It is interesting to note here, that while burnout is a state believed to be sustained by teachers with many years of experience, these researchers found that beginning teachers were also experiencing it.

Another common thread throughout the research was burnout related to lack of incentives, recognition, and support for teaching. Teachers who remained in the classroom did not receive the recognition and monetary status of those who left the classroom to pursue administrative positions. Cunningham (1983) maintained that administration as a career was reinforced but teaching as a career was not. Teachers' perceptions of their status in relation to other

professions has become more negative. In a study of 107 principals which measured their level of burnout, Whatzker (1994) found that there were no significant correlations found on the MBI. Where high levels of burnout were measured in scores of 27+ for emotional exhaustion, 13+ for depersonalization, and 0-32 for personal accomplishment, the overall means were 16.23, 5.91, and 42.5, respectively, putting the principals in the low range for the first two scales and in the high range for the third. The principals in this study did not experience burnout. The implications of this study were that teachers shoulder the burdens which lead to burnout, including the frustration and feelings of helplessness and lack of support from those in power. They felt isolated and believed that administrators had been out of the classroom so long that they are no longer perceived as knowing about the conditions under which teachers work.

In the burnout model it is difficult to predict which teachers would be most likely to strike. The argument can be made that teachers who have a high level of burnout may be most willing to go on strike, especially if they score high in depersonalization, which is characterized by negative feelings toward others and emotional exhaustion, which is characterized by feelings of overextension. These teachers, who may feel negatively toward their principals, upper administration, and/or trustees and who also feel they are no longer able to cope with the everyday demands of their job, especially if there is a threat of an increase in those demands, may choose to strike.

An argument can also be made that teachers with low to moderate levels of burnout might support a strike. Teachers who are somewhat exhausted and discouraged by or upset with their superiors may have the attitudinal motivation to strike. In the beginning stages of burnout, they may still see benefits in

fighting for desired contract items and may believe that a strike would lead to better working conditions and an improved level of work satisfaction.

Teachers who score low in the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout may not support a strike. Low personal accomplishment is characterized by feelings of ineffectiveness and hopelessness. These teachers might feel that a strike would be useless.

Byrne (1993), in a study of elementary (n=1203), intermediate (n=410), and secondary (n=1431) teachers in central Canada using the MBI, found that lack of decision-making and superior support demonstrated a significant positive correlation to poor self-esteem and feelings of external control by others, and that this was consistent in each teaching level. Self-esteem and locus of control are personal factors which lead to burnout. Byrne classified them as personality variables.

D. The Personality Model

While personality was correlated to burnout in several studies (Bein, Anderson, & Maes, 1990; Holt, Fine, & Tollefson, 1987; Mazur & Lynch, 1990), for the purposes of this thesis, it is an independent model for consideration in teacher propensity to strike. Personality is what characterizes an individual. Theorists believe that there are uniformities in behaviour (the nomothetic approach) but that there are differences among people (the idiographic approach). Personality can involve temperament, traits, type, disposition, character, state, mood, habit, attitude, and/or values. It is a complex, multi-dimensional concept. There are several theories of personality ranging from trait and type theories to psychodynamic theories to cognitive theories. The research supported that personality plays a major role in determining how an

individual behaves in his/her role(s) at work.

One of the oldest personality classification systems is traditionally labeled "type theory". It is a pattern-oriented approach, dating back to the Greek philosopher, Galen, who lived in second century A. D. (Gustafson & Mumford, 1995). Type theories assign people to categories on the basis of particular similarities. There are two major dimensions of personality: introversion-extraversion and stability-instability (Zimbardo, 1985). Extraverts are out-going, impulsive, tough-minded people while introverts are more sensitive, passive, and cautious. Stability is reflected in peaceful, passive action while instability is characterized by aggressiveness. Based on this model, one can predict that people who are "phlegmatic", high in extraversion and instability, may be most likely be in favour of a strike while people who are "choleric", high in introversion and stability, may be least likely to support strike action.

Most recently, the typological approach has had its greatest influence on vocational choice research through the work of Holland (1981), who proposed six personality types. Holland suggested that personalities are shaped by both genetic and situational influences. A type could comprise a number of attributes, therefore, individuals were thought to have personality patterns. Holland maintained that these types matched vocational interests, or that people chose work environments that were congruent with their personality type. This personality-environment congruence was strongly correlated with job satisfaction.

Lancaster, Colarelli, King, and Beehr (1994) also maintained that similar jobs should attract people with similar personalities. Bretz, Ash, and Dreher (1989) found that individuals preferred organizations that they perceived as similar to their own personalities. Career choices represented an extension of

the self, and individuals attempted to implement their self-concept through their career choices. Teachers were described as exhibiting a combination of social, artistic, and enterprising skills and abilities. Within Holland's model, teachers should be good at explaining things to others, supervising others, and organizing. Teachers with greater communication and organizational abilities should experience greater satisfaction with their careers than teachers with lesser skills in these areas (Chapman & Lowther, 1982).

Similarly, Gustafson and Mumford (1995) based their research on the concept of "person-environment fit". A "good fit" resulted in high performance, satisfaction, and little stress whereas a "poor fit" resulted in the opposite conditions (Marcic, Aiuppa, & Watson, 1989). If vocational choice was initially appropriate, then the fit between person and environment was expressed as the degree of adaptation.

Spector and O'Connell (1994) and George (1992) focused on the dispositional approaches to job attitudes and maintained that job satisfaction was partly determined by something inherent and not just situational factors. The authors identified two personality traits which determined job satisfaction: positive affectivity (PA), which was characterized by an overall sense of well-being, while viewing oneself as active and pleasurably engaged interpersonally, and negative affectivity (NA), which was characterized by being prone to nonpleasurable engagement, having low self-efficacy, and a weak sense of well-being. PA corresponded to extraversion and NA to neuroticism and these traits were attributed to genetic factors. Also significantly associated to PA and NA were positive and negative mood states, which were linked to behaviours such as absenteeism and prosocial or helping behaviour. In particular, negative affectivity was related to levels of distress. Based on this

research, one can surmise that teachers with negative affectivity tend to react to stimuli that they perceive as negative. These teachers are those who resist change, have difficulty coping, and make a bad situation worse. These teachers could have a high propensity to strike. They may have been genetically predisposed to NA or they may have developed NA and experienced a personality change due to negative job situations.

Another theory of personality dealt with locus of control (Rotter, 1971). This was the degree to which an individual believed the source of reinforcement in his/her life was within his/her control. An internal locus of control was characterized by a belief that effort and personal traits determined effects while an external locus of control was characterized by a belief that luck, circumstance, or other people determined effects. An internal locus of control was associated with a more stable and positive personality while an external locus of control has been linked to mental and physical ill health (Bogg & Cooper, 1995).

Bein, Anderson, and Maes (1990) stated that internal teachers were more satisfied with their work because internality was shown to be related to better adjustment and less perception of stress. Externalists, in an effort to preserve the "self", were threatened by work environment and blamed others (Spector & O'Connell, 1994). It could be predicted that a person with an external locus of control would be easily swayed to support strike sanctions, if he/she were less satisfied and more stressed than an internalist. This type of person may blame their board of education for unsatisfactory conditions and be more likely to strike.

Storms and Spector (1987) studied the relationship between work frustration and locus of control. One hundred and sixty public service

employees were administered the Job Effectiveness Survey (JES) which rated 37 items with 14 areas of constraints such as time, staffing shortages, authority, materials and supplies, and physical environment. Subjects were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert scale. Locus of control was measured by a 16 item Work Locus of Control (WLC) Scale. Reactions to frustration were measured by a 29 item Job Reactions Survey (JRS), which was divided into four dimensions: aggression, sabotage, interpersonal hostility and complaining, and withdrawal. The findings showed that perceived frustration was positively related to counterproductive behavioural reactions and that subjects with an external locus of control were most likely to exhibit these behaviours. The researchers concluded that the presence of frustrating or constraining situations was detrimental to organizations.

E. The Environment Model

Work environment was another prevalent variable in research pertaining to job satisfaction and work climate. In the models already discussed in this proposal, the work environment, such as classroom materials, resources for students with special needs, and number of pupils in the classroom, have been included as predictors for dissatisfaction, correlated with poor attitude, burnout, and personalities which respond negatively to unacceptable work environments. For the purposes of this research, work environment is considered a separate model in determining propensity to strike.

Work environment influences employee attitudes and behaviours (Zalesny, Farace, & Kurchner-Hawkins, 1985). Every day, teachers have to work in physical environments that affect their ability and their desire to work.

This section will review the research on aspects of the work environment which have not yet been considered in this proposal. The work environment includes, but is not limited to, size of work area, location, quality of furnishings, lighting, noise level, temperature, privacy, and presence of windows. The research consistently revealed that job satisfaction was significantly related to perceptions of the physical work environment.

Zalesny, Farace, and Kurchner-Hawkins (1985) conducted a study to examine the relationship between favourability of the work environment and favourability of employee responses to their work and the organization. Four hundred and twenty employees of an urban public service organization and were administered the Central Life Interest Inventory and the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Items measuring the physical environment included statements such as "My work area is adequately lighted, large enough for my needs, adequately equipped for my work, at a comfortable temperature throughout the year, and located near personal facilities", to which respondents rated their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale. Physical environment accounted for a significant amount of the variability in job satisfaction. In particular, employees who perceived that their work location and the furnishings were favourable were satisfied with their perceived status in and treatment by the organization. Also significant was the finding that employees with enclosed work areas felt they could concentrate more easily on their work. Both of these findings have implications for teachers. The physical environment in schools varies greatly - some older schools have less than adequate furniture for students or furniture that has outlived its usefulness and is in need of replacement, while newer schools are supplied with adequate furnishings and appropriate styles for student and teacher needs. Classrooms

also vary - some schools have been built with an “open concept”, in which several classes are conducted in one large area without individual classroom doors or dividers, while other schools have individual, enclosed classrooms. Some teachers have their own classroom with their own desk while others do not have their own classroom or workspace, or are forced to share a desk with another teacher. When teachers perceive that they do not have satisfactory furnishings or work spaces, they may view this as a measure of their employer’s value of them. For example, a teacher without a personal desk does not have a place to mark papers, write report cards, or store personal or work related materials. Lack of adequate furnishings or work space may negatively affect their ability to teach. An open concept classroom allows for many distractions from other classes.

Another aspect of work environment is privacy. Teachers may require privacy to teach a lesson, to administer a test to students, or to concentrate on paperwork tasks. Duvall-Early and Benedict (1992) surveyed 130 employees of the Virginia Division of Professional Secretaries International (PSI). Job satisfaction was defined through the use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which consisted of 100 items that measured work reinforcers such as company policies and practices, recognition, social status, and working conditions. Satisfaction with these items was rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Architectural privacy was measured by five yes/no questions that asked whether the workspace was enclosed, whether it was visible to co-workers, and to a supervisor, what its distance was from co-workers, and if it had a door. Questions to assess the evaluation of the workspace were also rated on a 7-point Likert scale with measures of privacy, stimulation, attractiveness, space, noise, and comfort. The respondents’ evaluations of their

perceived level of privacy were highly correlated with level of architectural privacy and overall job satisfaction. The authors maintained that privacy created a sense a freedom and a greater sense of control (autonomy) over one's work environment. Conversely, lack of privacy was believed to be a source of psychological and physiological strain in the work place.

Research has identified autonomy as an important variable in teacher satisfaction (Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Williams, 1990). A function of privacy is to serve an individual's self-identity (Sundstrom, Burt, & Kamp, 1980). Where classrooms do not provide privacy, teachers may not feel they have autonomy. For instance, a classroom which is not enclosed is easily accessed by students, co-workers, administrators, and the public and this can negatively affect teachers' sense of freedom and control if they perceive access as an intrusion.

Block and Stokes (1989) also defined privacy as one's feelings of control over the amount of social contact experienced. They maintained that privacy influenced satisfaction and productivity of employees and hypothesized that people would be more satisfied in a private setting than in a nonprivate setting. One hundred and sixty-nine students from a large southeastern university participated in their study. Two experimental settings were chosen: a small private office containing a desk and chair, and an office shared by four people, each with an identical desk and chair and equal work space. Participants were given 20 minutes to work on an assigned task, then asked to complete a Personal Reaction Inventory which consisted of Likert-style items measured on a 7-point scale. Items included level of privacy, satisfaction with privacy, amount of distraction, and perception of crowding. Results indicated that there was greater satisfaction in the private setting than in the nonprivate setting, and that there was a significantly greater amount of distraction expressed for the

nonprivate setting. The authors concluded that open work spaces may not be successful in the interests of employee satisfaction.

Closely related to privacy is noise level as it determines workers' ability to concentrate and perform. Sundstrom, Town, Rice, Osborn, and Brill (1994) maintained that noise, or unwanted sound was a potentially serious problem for employees, particularly in light of the adverse effects of job-related stress. Their study examined disturbance of employees by noise in relation to satisfaction and performance. Participating organizations from the United States and Canada comprised 10 private corporations, 15 federal agencies, and 1 state government and included 2,391 employees. Questionnaires were delivered to participants' desks one morning and returned later the same day. Likert measurement scales were used for each of four parts: noise items (Do people talking bother you?), environmental satisfaction items ("The physical layout of my workspace is well suited to the tasks I do"), job satisfaction items ("All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?"), and job performance items (Rate your quality of work accomplished). A section asking for job titles and duties was also included. Of all participants, 54% reported being bothered often by one or more noise sources. There were significant inverse correlations between both environmental satisfaction and job satisfaction and disturbance by noise: environmental satisfaction decreased as noise increased and job satisfaction decreased as noise increased. The authors maintained that environmental and job satisfaction were linked. Job performance did not reveal a significant inverse correlation and the authors attributed this to a "halo" effect in which subjects gave themselves high performance ratings. Environmental and job satisfaction was higher for managers than professional-technical workers. In the educational setting, administrators can be likened to

managers and teachers can be likened to professionals or technicians. Principals are largely in control of the amount of noise disturbance they incur. For example, if a quiet setting is needed, the principal can close the office door and direct telephone calls, and teacher, student, and parent needs to the secretary. Teachers do not have this choice during school hours. They are subjected to the constant background noise of other classes (especially if they are not in an enclosed classroom) and interruptions from the public address (PA) system. Noise is a regular part of the school environment for teachers and students which can lead to increased teacher stress and dissatisfaction.

Research has shown that the actual and/or perceived work environment influences employee satisfaction. Teachers who are dissatisfied with specific working conditions may feel that their needs are not being met. They may be likely to support a strike in an effort to have working conditions improved. In this model teachers who feel displaced or undervalued because they do not have their own classroom or desk, who must scrounge for enough desks for their students, who have difficulty dealing with the noise distractions or lack of privacy in an open concept setting, or who feel that co-workers or principals entering their room is an invasion of their space, privacy, and autonomy, may also have a high propensity to support a strike.

F. Strike Propensity

Teachers have had the right to strike since 1975. Out of the 60 strikes by Ontario teachers, which have involved full withdrawal of services, the elementary panel had engaged in only seven over 22 years (Richter, 1997). Strikes usually generate much concern and controversy. The benefit of strikes as a tactic to pressure the employer to accept union demands which protect

teacher and student rights is recognized, but effects of striking can also have profound consequences, as demonstrated by the following research of strikes in education.

A study of the 1990 Lambton County strike, which involved elementary teachers and lasted 6 weeks, found that after the strike, teachers were still angry and frustrated with work conditions (Spence, 1992). One year after the strike, a survey was administered to 347 elementary teachers. Multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate teachers' attitudes and opinions and their personal and professional demographics, to determine which factors could significantly predict willingness to strike. Respondents were asked to rate questions and comments on a 6-point Likert scale and were also given the opportunity to write additional comments. Some of the topic areas included satisfaction with the collective agreement at the end of the strike, reasons for supporting the strike, personal effects of the strike, and perceived support of teachers from various groups. Spence maintained that the most valuable information from the study came from the comments made regarding overall feelings after being on strike for 6 weeks. Teachers commented on the problems which they believed continued to exist between themselves and the Board and Trustees ("I'm tired of being put down by the Board" and "Trustees don't really care"). Teachers also commented on their concern for the negative publicity they believed they were receiving due to the strike, and the lack of public understanding of the demands of the job. Spence attributed the poor response to the survey to the distrust of teachers. The author believed that many teachers feared that the information could be used to the detriment of teachers. It was concluded that communication and understanding needed to be increased by all people before the aftershocks of the strike would cease.

The public secondary school teachers in Sudbury, Ontario went on strike for 56 school days in 1980 (Stephenson & Fisher, 1982). One year after the strike, teachers remained dissatisfied and bitter with the settlement. Questionnaires, sent to 549 teachers, were comprised of 193 questions in four sections. In addition to the sociodemographic section, questions focused on the role of the media, the government, and others before, during, and after the strike; teachers' relationships with others in the educational system; and teachers' perceptions of issues leading to the strike. Stephenson and Fisher reported that strong anti-board feelings remained in 1981 and that relations between teachers and principals were negatively affected. Moreover, because of the strike, teachers became more militant, and received almost no support from parents and the public. The authors believed that the prevailing dissension was due to the absence of proper communication between teachers and the board.

Zigarmi (1979) maintained that the human costs for striking were high. In this study, the Staff Development School Climate Questionnaire was administered once in the month of October and then again in April, 1977 to 37 middle school teachers. A strike occurred in November of that year. The instrument contained subscales on communication, innovativeness, advocacy, decision-making, and attitude toward staff development. A 6-point Likert scale was used to assess the attitude levels on 58 items. Post test means revealed that after the strike, the climate was not perceived as open or supportive, communication was curtailed. Teachers perceived less support, less opportunity for input into school decision-making, less concern for faculty welfare, and inservice activities were perceived as less relevant. The relationship between faculty and principal was damaged, as well as

relationships among peers, because some teachers participated in the strike while others did not. Zigarmi maintained that an open school climate is essential. A low climate index is indicative of less enthusiasm, efficiency, teacher satisfaction, and decreased effectiveness with students.

Barling and Milligan (1987) revealed startling similarities between a strike involving the union representing participants of the Board of Regents for Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology in Ontario and the elementary board involved in a strike in this study. After many months of negotiations, failure to negotiate a contract settlement resulted in a white collar legal strike. Agreement could not be reached, but employees went back to work, 22 days later, without a signed contract, so they would not jeopardize students' education. Barling and Milligan sent questionnaires to 117 full-time teaching staff immediately after the strike and again 2 and 6 months later. The Industrial Relations Event Scale measured the stressfulness of 63 items on a 7-point scale (0 to +3 is positive, 0 to -3 is negative). Three other instruments were also used: The Short Marital Adjustment Test, which assessed spouses' accommodation to each other, The General Health Questionnaire, which assessed psychological well-being, and the Psychosomatic Symptom Checklist, which assessed psychological anxiety and immobilization, physical anxiety and physical health. Regression analysis of initial scores, compared to those of post-tests, indicated unfavourable change in marital adjustment, psychological well-being, and psychosomatic symptomatology due to strike stress. The authors suggested that these changes were due to unresolved strike issues, lack of time structuring during a strike, and the major role changes involved in being in the classroom to going on strike, then returning to the classroom. The research overwhelmingly showed that post-strike responses

were negative. While little good seemed to come of striking, teachers who had experienced a strike were likely to support it again. Dissatisfaction with negotiations increased militancy and hostility. An attitude of “all or nothing” often emerged and teachers compelled to strike again.

Jones (1982) and Kowalski (1982) pointed out that collective bargaining was recognized as a source of organizational conflict. They reported that negotiations were doomed to fail because hostility was created and fueled by lack of communication between board members and teachers.

There are many reasons why educators may choose to strike; the reasons leading up to such a decision are as unique as each individual. Five selected models, which may predict teacher propensity to strike, have been reviewed. Teaching is considered, by many, as a “labour of love”. Unfortunately the realities of classroom life have made teaching a stressful occupation. The “bottom line” is that increasing demands are made upon educators while less resources are provided and this can have a myriad of effects on teachers, ultimately including a propensity to strike. While many variables, including past influence and experience may have contributed to the attitude or burnout level of teachers, the questions that remain are: What led teachers to want to strike at the moment in time when they indicated willingness, and what model was the best predictor of this willingness, at the time of this research? Is it age or gender, as suggested by the demography model? Is it the present outlook on the job, as indicated by the attitude model? Is it no longer being physically or mentally able to cope with work, as shown in the burnout model? Is it a conflict of personality with the teaching profession, as suggested in the personality model? Or is it dissatisfaction with the work environment?

G. Research Question and Hypothesis

Question: Which model, demography, attitude, burnout, personality, or work environment, will best predict propensity for elementary teachers to go on strike?

Hypothesis: The work environment model will best predict propensity for teachers to strike, while the other models will be related to propensity to strike, but less strongly so. Aspects of an adequate work environment include sufficient supplies for students and teachers, a comfortable temperature and enough space in the classroom, a reasonable number of students in the class, and an acceptable salary. These are basic and primary needs of teachers, necessary for delivering education. If and when these needs are not met, teachers feel that they cannot properly carry out their work, and may perceive that their employer is treating them unacceptably. Therefore, the basic and essential nature of this model suggests that it will be the best predictor of propensity to strike.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A. Demographics

This study included the population of elementary teachers in a mid-sized urban school board. The researcher attempted to obtain a 25% sample, consisting of 200 teachers. Eligible subjects were full-time or part-time employees with elementary teaching positions. These positions included teachers in specialty assignments but excluded administrators who were teaching part-time. Principals and vice-principals were also not considered because of their unique circumstances during a strike. Subjects from nine selected schools were surveyed. The schools were socioeconomically representative of the sub-communities of the city in which the study took place.

One hundred and four completed surveys were returned (53% return rate). Frequency Distribution Analyses revealed that 76% of the sample was female, 23% was male, and one subject did not indicate gender. The age distribution was 30.4% aged 25-39 years, 63.5% aged 40-54 years, 4.8% aged 55+ years, and two subjects did not indicate age. Sex and age characteristics closely represented those of this public elementary teaching population. Teachers who had participated in the board's elementary strike of 1993 represented 88.5% and those who had not represented 11.5% of the sample. One decimal nine percent had been on strike in another school board and 3.8% had been on strike in a different profession. An inclusive listing of demographic frequencies is in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Frequencies

	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	79	76.0
Male	24	23.1
<u>Age</u>		
25-29 yrs	8	7.7
30-34 yrs	13	12.5
35-39 yrs	10	9.6
40-44 yrs	14	13.5
45-49 yrs	31	29.8
50-54 yrs	21	20.2
55-59 yrs	4	3.8
60+ yrs	1	1.0
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Single (never married)	15	14.4
Married/Perm. Relationship	80	76.9
Widowed	1	1.0
Divorced/Separated	8	7.7
<u>Spouse's Employment</u>		
Unemployed	4	3.8
Teacher	41	39.4
Public Sector Employee	9	8.7
Private Sector Employee	19	18.3
Self-employed	5	4.8
Other/Not applicable	21	20.2
<u>Gross Household Income</u>		
\$ 0 - 25 000	1	1.0
\$ 26 000 - 40 000	4	3.8
\$ 41 000 - 55 000	11	10.6
\$ 56 000 - 70 000	25	24.0
\$ 71 000 - 85 000	13	12.5
\$ 86 000 - 100 000	20	19.2
\$101 000 - 115 000	6	5.8
\$116 000 - 130 000	18	17.3

Table 1 (cont'd)

<u>Highest Level of Education</u>		
Teachers' College	4	3.8
University Degree	20	19.2
Bachelor of Education Degree	54	51.9
Other Graduate Degree(s)	26	25.0
<u>Living Arrangements</u>		
Pay Room & Board	4	3.8
Rent Apartment	6	5.8
Rent House	2	1.9
Paying Mortgage	49	47.1
Fully Own House	39	37.5
Other	4	3.8
<u>Present Position</u>		
Kindergarten/Primary	40	38.5
Junior	22	21.2
Intermediate	16	15.4
Itinerant/Special Assignment	1	1.0
Librarian	2	1.9
Music	4	3.8
French Immersion/FSL	8	7.7
Learning Resource/Spec. Ed.	8	7.7
<u>Years Experience with Present Board</u>		
0-4 yrs	10	9.6
5-9 yrs	25	24.0
10-14 yrs	4	3.8
15-19 yrs	11	10.6
20-24 yrs	22	21.2
25+ yrs	32	30.8
<u>Employment Status</u>		
Permanent Full-time	88	84.6
Permanent Part-time	8	7.7
Probationary Full-time	4	3.8
Probationary Part-time	1	1.0
Other	3	2.9

Table 1 (cont'd)

<u>Number of Dependents</u>		
<u>Preschool</u>		
0	89	86.6
1-2	13	12.5
3-4	2	1.9
5+	0	0.0
<u>Elementary</u>		
0	73	70.2
1-2	28	26.9
3-4	2	1.9
5+	1	1.0
<u>Secondary</u>		
0	79	76.0
1-2	25	24.0
3-4	0	0.0
5+	0	0.0
<u>Post-Secondary</u>		
0	83	79.8
1-2	20	19.2
3-4	1	1.0
5+	0	0.0
<u>Adult Dependents</u>		
0	96	92.3
1-2	6	5.8
3-4	1	1.0
5+	0	0.0

B. Instrumentation

This study employed three instruments: The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), and a questionnaire developed by the researcher to measure demographics, attitudes, work environment, and propensity to strike. The self-administered survey format was found to be the most common method for measuring the information needed for this study. It also allowed for independent, simple, and anonymous completion by the subjects. A cover letter (Appendix B) was enclosed with each questionnaire, briefly explaining the intent and value of the study and instructions for completion. It assured anonymity, and provided subjects with the researcher's telephone number if there were questions or concerns any time before, during, or after the study.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory, Second Edition, was developed by Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson in 1986 to assess psychological burnout in human service professionals (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The 22 item inventory defined burnout on three subscales: emotional exhaustion (EE, 9 items), depersonalization (DP, 5 items), and lack of personal accomplishment (PA, 8 items) which were measured for frequency only on a 7-point Likert scale (0 = never, 6 = every day). Scores were considered separately and not combined into a single, total score. The MBI Form Ed, the education version, was used for this study. It is identical to the MBI except for the replacement of the word "recipient" with "student".

The test format was a single, double-sided 8 1/2" x 11" sheet. It was called "Educators Survey" rather than "Burnout Inventory" to minimize reactive effects to the term. The front side reviewed test instructions and an example question. The back side contained the actual test. All items were simple one-

sentence statements such as “I feel frustrated by my job” and “I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students”. The MBI took 3-5 minutes to complete and was entirely self-administered. Scoring was done with a scoring key that lined up with the test sheet and extracted the three subscales in high, moderate, and low frequency ratings.

Development of the MBI occurred over a period of 8 years. Internal reliability on the newest instrument was tested using a large and diverse sample (N = 1,316) with coefficients of .90 for EE, .79 for DP, and .71 for PA and standard errors of measurement of 3.80, 3.16, and 3.73, respectively.

Convergent validity was demonstrated by correlating scores with behavioural ratings made independently by a person who knew the subject well (external validation of personal experience), such as a spouse or co-worker, with the presence of certain job characteristics that were expected to contribute to burnout (dimensions of the job experience), and with measures of various outcomes that had been hypothesized to be related to burnout (personal outcomes). All three sets of correlations provided substantial evidence for the validity of the MBI. Further evidence of validity was obtained by distinguishing it from measures of other psychological constructs such as job satisfaction, social desirability, and clinical depression.

The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) was developed by John L. Holland (1964). The Revised Edition was developed in 1985 and is a widely used tool (Keyser & Sweetland, 1986). It measured the structure of personality from the clustering of vocational interests. The test consisted of 160 career choices and subjects were asked to answer “yes” or “no”, indicating their interest and appeal to the occupation or their dislike or disinterest. Each occupation was categorized into one of Holland’s six personality types or

“criterion groups”: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C), or one of five other scales: Self-Control, Masculinity/Femininity, Status, Infrequency, and Acquiescence. Holland’s theory specifies a hexagonal structure of the degree of similarity among the six personality types. Adjacent types are most similar, while types positioned opposite of one another on the hexagon are least similar (Tokar & Swanson, 1995).

The VPI consisted of two 8 1/2” x 11” pages. The first page included testing instructions (which indicated that it was an inventory of feelings toward types of work), and the first 80 occupations, listed in columns. The back side of the page listed the remaining 80 occupations. Some examples of occupations included: detective, bartender, school principal, and quality control expert. The second page was the answer sheet with two circles for each of 160 numbers, which corresponded to occupations. The subjects blackened the “Y” circle for “yes”, the “N” circle for “no”, or left the circle unmarked if undecided about an occupation. The VPI was completely self-administered and took about 10 minutes to complete. Scoring was done with a stencil overlay.

Validity studies have generally supported use of the VPI (Morton, Diubaldo, & Awender, 1996). Construct validity is supported by other instruments which correlate with the VPI such as the California Personality Inventory, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, the Edwards Personality Preference Schedule, and the Guliford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. Holland (1985) suggested that the test-retest reliability ranged from .65 to .98 for college seniors, and the internal consistency of the scales ranged from .81 to .91 with an average of .88 (cited in Morton, Diubaldo, & Awender, 1996).

The third instrument was a questionnaire with measurements in four

areas: demographic information, attitudinal information, physical work environment information, and information on propensity to strike (Appendix C). The questionnaire was developed by the researcher, modeled after those from similar studies, and in consultation with faculty advisors. Questions were generated on the basis of what was deemed in the literature to be important indicators for determining propensity to strike. The questionnaire consisted of four double-sided 8 1/2" x 11" pages. It was self-administered and took 8-10 minutes to complete.

The demographic data was largely modeled after that of a survey done by Spence (1992), which measured sex and age differences on teachers' attitudes and opinions following the Lambton County elementary teachers' strike of 1990. The instrument in this study had 11 items which included indicators of sex, age, income, and employment status, for example.

The attitudinal questions were designed to lead to inference of negative or positive attitudes relating to the subjects' work. The section consisted of 45 items which were categorized into six areas: general feelings toward teaching, status of teachers, time spent on work, personal feelings about one's work, appreciation of teachers by others, and career aspirations. Each topic area began with a general question or statement, for example, "Rate your attitude toward the time you spend on the following tasks: lesson planning, staff meetings, etc." Subjects rated items on a Likert scale ranging from a score of 1 on the positive side of the scale to a score of 4 on the negative side. An even numbered scale was used to avoid subjects' "sitting on the fence" by choosing the middle number. This could have led to non-significant data whereas a 4-point scale forced subjects to have an opinion on each particular item. This structure was modeled after similar studies (Fimian, 1987; Mazur & Lynch,

1989; Spence, 1992; Zigarmi, 1979).

The section called “resources” was designed to measure satisfaction with the work environment. There were 40 items which comprised three general areas of the work environment: availability of resources (supplies, professional manuals), aspects of the physical environment (room temperature, privacy), and satisfaction with level of decision making (use of prep time, staff meeting input). The 4-point Likert scale was also used for this section.

The final section of the questionnaire was designed to measure the study’s dependent variable: propensity to strike. It consisted of nine items which asked for level of agreement with federation issues (“I feel committed to my federation”), five items which asked for level of agreement with collective bargaining issues (“I would go on strike if future negotiations fail”), three yes/no questions to determine history of strike participation, and a section for additional comments. A sample questionnaire is attached, with responses from the 104 participants, indicating the frequencies for each question (Appendix D).

Possible threats to the internal validity of this instrument were personal interpretation of the Likert scale where one subject’s concept of “very enthusiastic” or “very satisfied” may differ from that of another. Subjects may have given politically correct responses or may not have responded at all if they were doubtful of their anonymity.

Several drafts of the questionnaire designed by the researcher were read and completed each time by colleagues for clarity and appropriateness to promote content validity. The final draft of the instrument, along with the MBI and the VPI were administered to the researcher’s staff as a field test to obtain feedback and promote construct validity.

C. Procedures

Acceptance of the thesis proposal was obtained from the advisory committee, and permission was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University of Windsor. Permission was also obtained from the Windsor Women Teachers' Association President, to enlist support of teachers to oversee distribution and collection of surveys.

Nine schools, which were representative of the various areas of the city, were chosen. Telephone calls were made to teachers to ask for their assistance. The second week of June, 1996, packages containing a cover letter, the three instruments, and a return envelope were delivered to contact teachers, along with a cover letter with instructions for these teachers. Packages were distributed to each teacher in each school. To decrease the threat of mortality, telephone calls to contact teachers were made after one week to determine the status of collection, to see if more time was needed, and to ask contact teachers to encourage subjects who had not yet responded. Surveys were collected in the last week of June and thank you notes were sent to the contact teachers who assisted.

Approximately one month after initial distribution, data were sorted and analyzed.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

A. Dependent Variable

The dependent variable "propensity to strike" was measured in Part B, questions 22.1 to 22.5 in the questionnaire developed by the researcher. To facilitate analyses, the dependent variables were reduced to two: "satisfaction with the collective agreement" (question 22.1) and "propensity to strike" (questions 22.2 to 22.5), which were added to obtain the subject's score.

B. Independent Variables

The following models were used to attempt to predict teacher propensity to strike. All reported R^2 values are significant at the .05 level.

(i) Demography Model

Demographic variables were gathered in Part A, Section I, Questions 1 to 11 of the questionnaire developed by the researcher. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was computed by entering the following independent variables: sex, age, income, education, living arrangements, years of experience, position, and number of dependents. For the dependent variable "satisfaction with the collective agreement", an R^2 value of .17 emerged for years experience on step number one of the multiple regression analysis. On step number two living arrangements also emerged as a significant factor, with an R^2 value of .22. The positive relationships indicated that subjects who had more experience and lived in their own houses were less satisfied with the collective agreement. The other variables were not found to be significant

predictors of satisfaction with the collective agreement (see table 2).

The same analysis was run with “propensity to strike” as the dependent variable. On step number one an R^2 value of .10 for living arrangements emerged and on step number two an R^2 value of .15 for post-secondary dependents emerged. The negative relationship on step one indicated that teachers who owned their homes had a greater propensity to strike while the positive relationship on step two indicated that those who had no post-secondary dependents also had a greater propensity to strike. The other variables were not found to be significant predictors of elementary teacher propensity to strike (see table 3). Although the R^2 values are small, indicating a rather weak relationship, they are significant and thus meaningful.

Table 2: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Demographic Variables and Satisfaction with the Collective Agreement.

<u>Variables in the Equation</u>			
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Years Experience	.38	4.0	.00
Living Arrangements	.23	2.5	.01
<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>			
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Sex	.16	1.58	.12
Age	.00	.04	.97
Income	.10	.99	.32
Education	.09	.88	.38
Position	-.06	-.60	.55
Pre-school Dependents	.03	.25	.81
Elementary Dependents	.10	.91	.36
Secondary Dependents	.15	1.47	.15
Post-Secondary Dependents	.04	.40	.69
Adult Dependents	-.06	-.53	.59

Table 3: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Demographic Variables and Propensity to Strike.

<u>Variables in the Equation</u>			
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Living Arrangements	-.36	-3.39	.00
Post-Secondary Dependents	.23	2.31	.02
<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>			
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Sex	-.19	-1.79	.08
Age	-.17	-1.60	.11
Income	-.10	-.93	.36
Education	.02	.17	.86
Years Experience	-.04	-.35	.73
Position	.12	1.10	.28
Pre-school Dependents	-.04	-.41	.68
Elementary Dependents	-.03	-.28	.79
Secondary Dependents	.10	.90	.37
Adult Dependents	.14	1.29	.20

(ii) Attitude Model

Variables in the attitude model were developed by the researcher in Part A, Section II of the questionnaire. Each question contained several statements which were grouped into significant clusters by factor analysis using the varimax rotation with an eigen value of one and a criterion set of at least two questions loading (.50) on a factor (see table 4). In question 13 (status of teachers-4 items), one factor emerged as significant, and was termed "status". It accounted for 50.4% of the variance. In question 14 (time spent on school tasks-9 items), two factors emerged, termed "administrative time", accounting for 40.4% of the variance and "pedagogical time" accounting for 11.1%. Question 15 (feelings about work-9 items) showed two significant factors. "Relating to administration" accounted for 51.6% of the variance while "relating to the system" accounted for 17.4%. In question 16 (appreciation by others-8 items) there were two factors which emerged. The first factor was termed "interpersonal with educators" and accounted for 46.3% of the variance and factor two, termed "interpersonal with clients/public" accounted for 16.6% of the variance. Question 17 (aspirations-9 items) revealed three significant factors. The first one was termed, "upwardly mobile aspirations" and accounted for 36.4% of the variance. The second factor was termed "aspirations to take courses" and accounted for 18% of the variance and the third factor was termed "aspirations outside education" and accounted for 12.3% of the variance. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was then computed using these independent variables and both dependent variables.

For the Collective Bargaining dependent variable, on step number one, an R^2 value of .14 emerged for the factor termed "aspirations to take courses", indicating that teachers who planned to continue professional development by

taking courses were more satisfied with the collective agreement. All other attitudinal variables were not significant predictors of satisfaction with the collective agreement (see table 5).

For the Propensity to Strike dependent variable, an R^2 value of .08 for the "status of teachers" variable emerged on step number one. A negative correlation indicated that subjects who felt that teachers did not have autonomy, influence on educational issues, and respect from others had a greater propensity to strike. All other attitudinal variables were not significant predictors of propensity to strike (see table 6). Again, the R^2 value was weak, but it is indicative of a relationship between those variables.

Table 4: Sample Attitudinal Variables in Significant Factored Terms

<u>Factored Term</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
a) Status	
status of teachers	autonomy, respect, influence
b) Time Spent on School Tasks	
administrative time	staff meetings, yard duty
pedagogical time	lesson planning, marking
c) Feelings about Work	
related to administration	ability to express ideas to principal
related to system	"hard work pays off", "good place to work"
d) Appreciation by Others	
interpersonal with educators	co-workers, principal, trustees
interpersonal with clients/public	students, parents
e) Aspirations	
upwardly mobile in education	PAR position, diff. job in present board
taking courses	university courses, Ministry courses
outside education	retired, another job outside education

Table 5: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Attitudinal Variables and Satisfaction with the Collective Agreement.

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Aspirations to take courses	.37	3.64	.00

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Status of Teachers	.17	1.54	.13
Time on Admin. Tasks	.11	1.02	.31
Time on Pedagogical Tasks	.02	.21	.83
Feelings related to Admin.	-.07	-.66	.51
Feelings related to System	.17	1.60	.11
Interpersonal with educators	.11	1.05	.30
Interpersonal with clients/public	.04	.36	.72
Upwardly mobile in Education	.02	.16	.87
Aspirations outside Education	.14	1.26	.21

Table 6: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Attitudinal Variables and Propensity to Strike.

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Status of Teachers	-.28	-2.58	.01

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Time on Admin. Tasks	.05	.45	.66
Time on Pedagogical Tasks	-.12	-1.11	.27
Feelings related to Admin.	-.02	-.21	.84
Feelings related to System	.04	.40	.69
Interpersonal with educators	.03	.23	.82
Interpersonal with clients/public	.08	.72	.48
Upwardly mobile in Education	.00	.04	.97
Aspirations outside Education	-.07	-.65	.52
Aspirations to take courses	-.03	-.25	.80

(iii) Burnout Model

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was computed using Maslach's three burnout scales - Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment - as the independent variables. None of the scales were found to be significant predictors at the .05 level for either dependent variable.

(iv) Work Environment Model

Variables in the work environment model were included in Part A, Section III, Questions 18 (tangible resources-16 items), 19 (physical environment-12 items), and 20 (decision making-12 items) of the questionnaire. Factor analysis was conducted as in the attitude model and significant clusters of questions were defined (see table 7). In question 18, five factors emerged as significant. Factor one, termed "professional support", accounted for 34.9% of the variance. Factor two, "material support", accounted for 9.9%. Factor three, "monetary resources", accounted for 8.9% and factor four, "special education resources", accounted for 8.1%. Factor five, termed "classroom materials", accounted for 6.9% of the variance. In question 19, three factors emerged. The first one was termed "school environment" and it accounted for 38.7% of the variance. The second factor, "classroom environment", accounted for 12.4% of the variance, and the third factor, "school locale", accounted for 10.2% of the variance. In question 20, there were three significant factors. Factor one, termed "school-based decision making", accounted for 33.4% of the variance, factor two, "influence on policy", accounted for 15.7%, and factor three, "external decision making", accounted for 12%.

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was computed with the dependent variable "satisfaction with the collective agreement". "Monetary

resources” which included salary, retirement benefits, and pension was found to be significant with an R^2 value of .28 on step number one. This positive correlation suggested that teachers who were less satisfied with the collective agreement were also less satisfied with their monetary resources. On step number two the “classroom environment” emerged as significant with an R^2 value of .32. This was a negative correlation, suggesting that teachers who were more satisfied with the collective agreement were less satisfied with classroom space, privacy, number of students, and safety. On step number three, “professional support” was significant with an R^2 value of .39. This suggested that teachers who were less satisfied with the availability of journals, workshops, mentoring programmes, and federation professional relations services, were also less satisfied with the collective agreement. The other variables were not significant (see table 8).

The same analysis was run using the dependent variable “propensity to strike”. On step one, “monetary resources” was again significant with an R^2 value of .05. The correlation was negative, indicating that teachers who were less satisfied with salary and retirement benefits had a greater propensity to strike. All other variables were not significant (see table 9). The R^2 values are small, especially with respect to propensity to strike; however, they are stronger when “satisfaction with the collective agreement” is the dependent measure.

Table 7: Sample Work Environment Variables in Significant Factored Terms

<u>Factored Term</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
a) Tangible Resources	
professional support	peer mentoring programmes, journals
material support	students textbooks, basic supplies
monetary resources	salary, retirement benefits
special ed. resources	support staff for learning disabled students
classroom materials	classroom furnishings, audiovisual equipment
b) Physical Environment	
school environment	cleanliness, air quality
classroom environment	space, number of students
school locale	residential location, school yard size
c) Decision-Making	
school dec. making	homeroom timetabling, school events
influence on policy	policy development at board level
external dec. making	federation issues, in-service offered by board

Table 8: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Work Environment Variables and Satisfaction with the Collective Agreement.

	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Money Resources	.53	5.75	.00
Classroom Environment	-.31	-3.23	.00
Professional Resources	.28	2.92	.00

	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Teaching Supplies	-.13	-1.15	.25
Special Ed. Resources	.15	1.40	.17
School Physical Environment	-.04	-.32	.75
School Location	-.03	-.27	.79
School Prog. Dec. Making	-.04	-.33	.74
School Policy Dec. Making	.17	1.51	.13
Dec. Making at Board Level	.09	.78	.44

Table 9: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Work Environment Variables and Propensity to Strike.

	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Money Resources	-.23	-2.14	.04

	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Professional Resources	.12	1.09	.28
Teaching Supplies	.03	.31	.76
Special Ed. Resources	.01	.05	.96
School Physical Environment	.06	.54	.59
Classroom Environment	.09	.84	.40
School Location	.11	1.01	.31
School Prog. Dec. Making	-.02	-.18	.86
School Policy Dec. Making	-.03	-.29	.77
Dec. Making at Board Level	.18	1.62	.11

(v) Personality Model

The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) was used to measure personality types. Holland identified six personality types including realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional, and five additional measures of character which include self-control, masculinity/femininity, status, infrequency, and acquiescence. Z-scores of these independent variables were computed and then used in stepwise multiple regression analysis. An R^2 value of .06 for the masculinity/femininity scale emerged on step number one and indicated that teachers who had more masculine traits tended to be less satisfied with the collective agreement. Holland identified the key characteristics for high scorers as “shrewd”, “unsociable” and “adopting traditional male roles” (Appendix E). All other personality variables were not significant (see table 10).

Using the Propensity to Strike dependent variable, an R^2 value of .07 was found to be significant for the acquiescence scale on step number one. There was a negative correlation, indicating that teachers with a high score on the acquiescence scale were more likely to support a strike. A high score on acquiescence is indicative of “dominant” and “enthusiastic” behaviour (Appendix E). On step number two an R^2 value of .12 was also significant for the artistic personality, indicating that teachers who perceived themselves as “expressive”, “introvertive”, and “sensitive” (Appendix E) have less propensity to strike. The remaining variables were not significant at the .05 level (see table 11). Overall, the R^2 values are small, indicating weak relationships. The relationships do exist and contribute to an understanding of the determinants of “satisfaction with the collective agreement” and “propensity to strike”.

Table 10: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Personality Variables and Satisfaction with the Collective Agreement.

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Masculinity/Femininity	.25	2.42	.02

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Realistic	-.03	-.26	.80
Investigative	-.01	-.08	.94
Artistic	-.17	-1.65	.10
Social	.03	.29	.77
Enterprising	.09	.87	.39
Conventional	-.14	-1.34	.18
Self-Control	.05	.46	.65
Status	-.14	-1.30	.20
Infrequency	-.16	-1.52	.13
Acquiescence	.09	.87	.39

Table 11: Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Personality Variables and Propensity to Strike.

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Acquiescence	-.41	-3.33	.00
Artistic	.28	2.28	.03

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Variables not in the Equation</u>		
	<u>Beta</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>p</u>
Realistic	-.03	-.30	.76
Investigative	-.07	-.61	.55
Social	-.00	-.01	.99
Enterprising	.01	.05	.96
Conventional	.85	.77	.44
Self-Control	.06	.51	.61
Masculinity/Femininity	-.04	-.38	.70
Status	.03	.24	.81
Infrequency	.09	.78	.44

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

A. Context of Test Administration

Most subjects in this study participated in a 6 week strike, 2 1/2 years prior to completing their questionnaires. They worked for 2 years after the strike without a signed collective agreement. Board-teacher relations during this time were characterized by an atmosphere of distrust and bitterness. The negotiating teams, realizing that something needed to change if there was going to be progress in the next round of collective bargaining, both received training for Mutual Gains Bargaining. Training involved learning cooperative bargaining techniques, designed to focus on resolving issues honestly, with benefits for both parties. Negotiations in 1996 proceeded amicably and on schedule, and a collective agreement was ratified one week before the questionnaire for this study was distributed.

The major gain in the 1997-1998 contract was the restoration to the pay grid, for teachers who had been frozen due to the Social Contract. The major loss was a reduction of 33 teachers. Although these positions would be lost through attrition only, class sizes would increase as a result. Sentiments about the new agreement ranged from anger at not having received a wage increase, to relief that the status quo had largely maintained, to praise for the negotiating team for managing a bearable settlement in light of the government funding reductions to education. Results of this study are discussed in light of this context.

B. The Models as Predictors

Two dependent variables were considered in this study: "satisfaction with the collective agreement" and "propensity to strike". With respect to satisfaction, it appears that the environment model has the most explanatory power. Issues related to money, classroom environment, and professional support showed the higher correlation coefficients; thus, this seems to be the most compelling model. Nevertheless, the other models are not to be discounted, with the exception of the burnout model. In the demography model, both the years of experience and living arrangements influenced satisfaction. Aspirations to take courses was linked to satisfaction in the attitude model, and the masculinity/femininity scale, in the personality model. Overall, the environmental issues are predominant, with demography, attitudes, and personality playing more of a minor role in satisfaction with the collective agreement (Figure 1).

Limiting propensity to strike to one model would have been overly simplistic. An individual's decision to participate in a strike is likely embedded in a variety of complex reasons. It was hypothesized that the other models would, to lesser degrees, predict propensity to strike. No one model appears to be outstanding with respect to this dependent variable. In the demography model, living arrangements and number of post secondary dependents were linked to propensity to strike to a small degree. The attitude model revealed that concern with the status of teachers was linked to propensity, and in the work environment model, monetary issues was also linked to propensity to strike. In the personality model, acquiescence and artistic scales were also linked to propensity to strike. Each model has some insight to contribute, but only in a small way (Figure 2). The remainder of this chapter discusses each model

more in-depth.

Figure 1
Satisfaction with the Collective Agreement

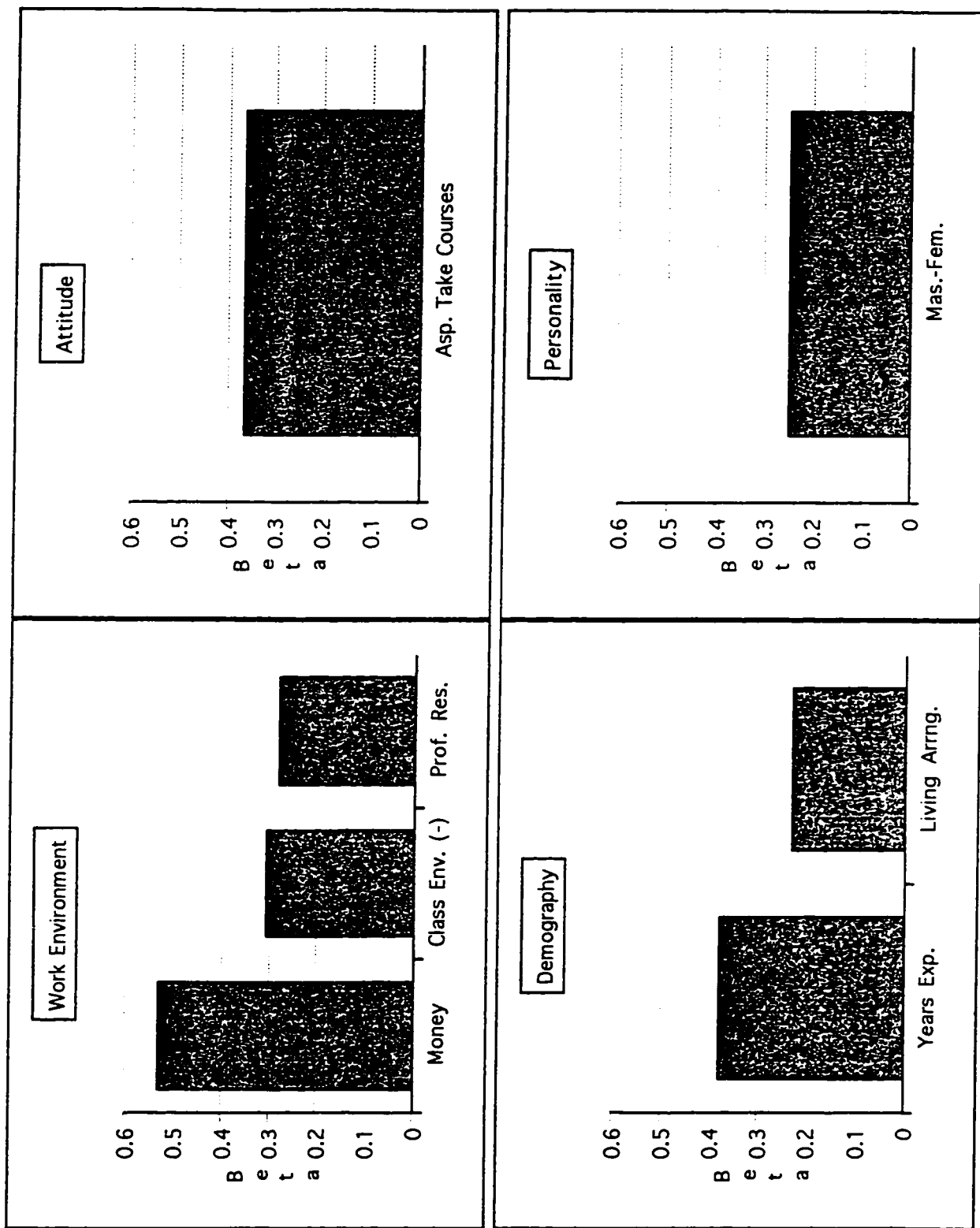
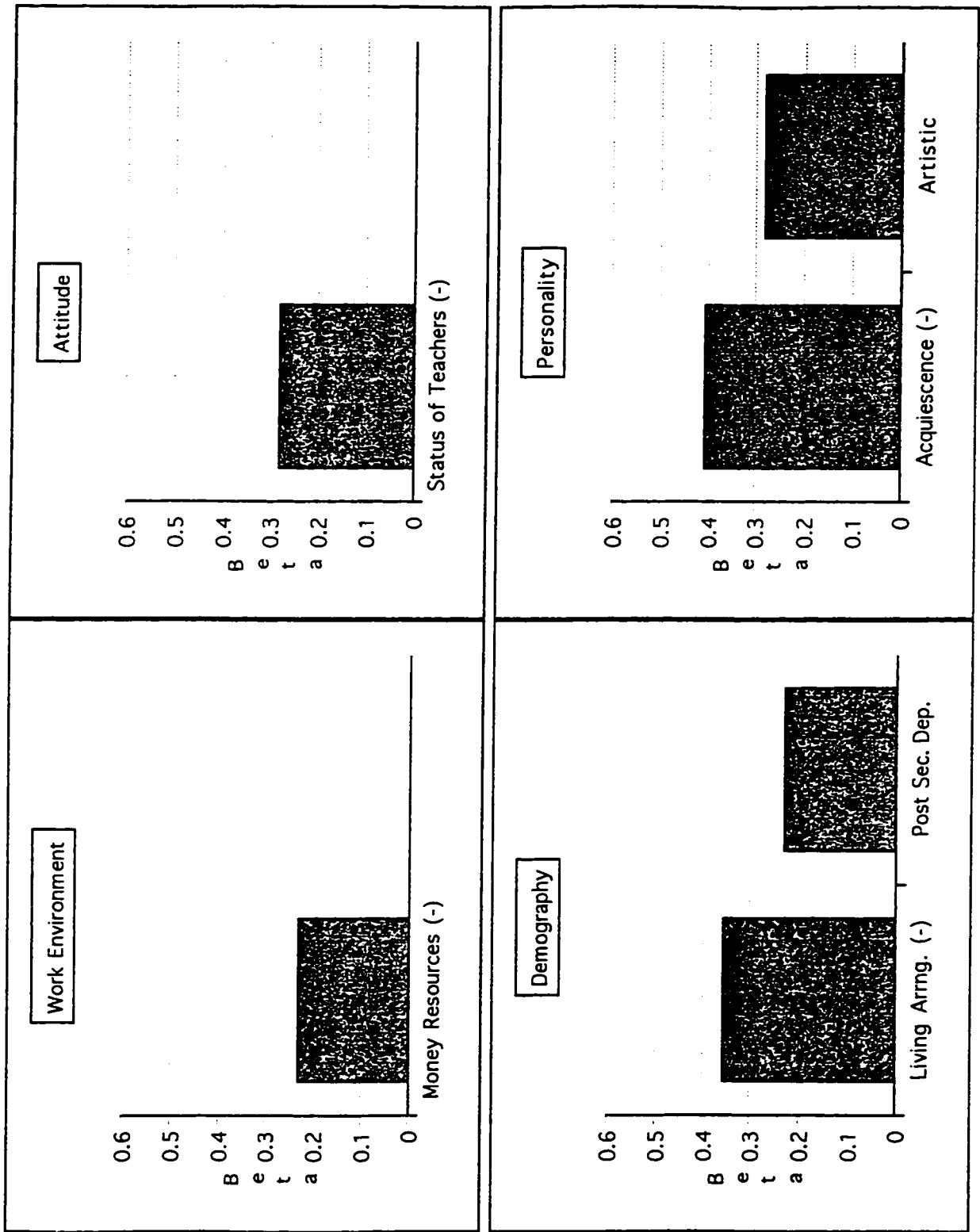


Figure 2
Propensity to Strike



C. The Environment Model

The first significant correlation revealed that teachers less satisfied with their monetary benefits (salary, pension, health benefits) were also less satisfied with the collective agreement. This seems an obvious relationship as financial compensation for work is almost always a major issue, if not the central issue, of collective bargaining. The variable was also significant when correlated with propensity to strike, indicating that teachers not satisfied with monetary benefits have a greater propensity to strike. It is interesting that money emerged as a significant variable twice in this study. During sanctions, teachers often publicly proclaim that they are fighting for the needs of the children and not higher salaries. Cohen's (1993) assessment of "propensity to strike" seems an appropriate application; it is defined as support for a more personal goal than a collective one. Teachers of this study revealed that money was the most important issue in collective bargaining and in determining their willingness to strike, within the work environment model.

Satisfaction with the classroom environment was negatively correlated with satisfaction with the collective agreement. Teachers who *were* more satisfied with the collective agreement *were* less satisfied with the number of students in their classrooms, and the space, privacy, and safety of their classrooms. This may be reflective of a belief that the contract was the best that teachers were able to bargain under provincial and board fiscal restraint. In particular, an increased number of students in the classroom was a concession which teachers made to compensate for fewer teaching positions. These findings did not support those of Zalesny, et al. (1985), who found that physical work space was correlated with job satisfaction. Also significant with the collective bargaining dependent variable was satisfaction with professional

support. Teachers less satisfied with the collective agreement were also less satisfied with professional support. While items such as journals, workshops, mentoring, and federation professional relations services have not been contract issues, teachers' needs for support resources were evident in their dissatisfaction with their availability.

The hypothesis that the work environment model best predicts teacher propensity to strike argued that teachers would respond most strongly because items in this model dealt with basic needs. This can be justified, in part, by the variable which emerged as significant. In a hierarchy of teacher needs, adequate monetary compensation could be considered a primary need. Money is necessary to survival in our society. Before teachers can concentrate on delivering quality education, they must know that they will have enough money to live comfortably. Furthermore, they must feel that their employer recognizes and respects their needs. When teachers are not satisfied with their salaries, they are more likely to strike.

D. The Demography Model

The demography model contained two significant variables, years of teaching experience and living arrangements, which correlated with satisfaction with the collective agreement. Teachers who were more experienced and who owned their own homes were less satisfied with the collective agreement. One of the gains in the collective agreement, signed just before the questionnaire for this study was completed, was restoration to the grid. This meant that teachers who had less than 9 years teaching experience, and who had completed a 3 year wage freeze, were placed back on the salary grid with their correct number of years teaching experience. Teachers with more experience, who were not

affected by the wage freeze, did not enjoy this personal gain. Instead they had a contract which marked the fifth year without any gains. In fact, the concessions which *were* made, were the first in many years. This would account for the dissatisfaction of the more experienced teachers. The fact that teachers who owned their own homes were less satisfied with the collective agreement may only be a result of the demographics: more experienced teachers (who were less satisfied with the collective agreement for reasons previously stated) would be more likely to have paid off their mortgages than younger teachers, who would be less financially stable.

With respect to the dependent variable, "propensity to strike", living arrangements emerged as significant. The negative correlation suggested that teachers who owned their own homes had a greater propensity to strike. This may be explained by financial stability. Teachers who did not have the burden of a mortgage payment may have been more willing to sacrifice their wages in order to strike. This also sheds light on why the subjects, who owned their own homes, were not satisfied with the collective agreement. These teachers were willing to participate in a strike, and as revealed in the related dependent variable, were also not satisfied with the collective agreement. The other significant correlation found with propensity to strike was post-secondary dependents, indicating that teachers without post-secondary dependents had a greater propensity to strike. Again, these teachers would not have the financial responsibility of providing college or university expenses as well as other living expenses for their dependents; thus, economic freedom puts these teachers in a better position to espouse militancy. Ironically, this reasoning appears to contradict the argument in the environment model, that teachers would go on strike because they are fighting for a basic need of money for survival. In the

complexity of human action, there is room for more than one reason. It may be that a teacher who finds him/herself economically comfortable, and financially able to afford losing wages for a time, may also understand and appreciate that the expenses which they regularly incur, along with the rising cost of living, necessitate that they protect their salaries by striking.

The findings of this study were not consistent with the significant demographics in other studies. Young males were not found to have a propensity to strike. Review of the sample, however, revealed that only 23% of the sample were male, and only 30% were aged 25-39 years, limiting the probability of significant results.

E. The Personality Model

In the personality model, the masculinity/femininity scale was significant, in relation to satisfaction with the collective agreement. Teachers who scored high on the masculine side of the scale tended to be less satisfied with the collective agreement. Cohen's (1993) definition of propensity to strike as support for personal goals as opposed to collective goals seems to be supported here again. Teachers who were not satisfied with the collective agreement may not have perceived the agreement as a success for the collective group of teachers, but may have been more concerned with their personal desires. This concern for one's own best interests corresponds with Holland's masculine characteristic of unsociability. Acquiescence and artistic scales were found to be correlated with propensity to strike. Teachers with high scores on the acquiescence scale exhibit dominant and enthusiastic behaviour. They were more likely to support a strike. The connection between dominant, risk-taking behaviour and willingness to go on strike is clear. Conversely, teachers who

did not have a propensity to strike, scored high on the artistic scale. These teachers are characterized by nonconforming and idealistic behaviours. Strike action is always initiated through the federations; to be unwilling to participate is to nonconform. Furthermore, these teachers may have been hanging on to idealistic notions that the contract could be settled without strike action.

F. The Attitude Model

In the attitude model, teachers who were less willing to take university or Ministry of Education courses were less satisfied with the collective agreement. This suggested that there was a connection between satisfaction with working conditions and a desire to participate in professional development in education. Teachers less satisfied with the agreement with the board were less enthusiastic about participating in professional development, which would benefit the board. This relationship may have also been one of demographics. More experienced teachers were found to be less satisfied with the collective agreement. It is likely that these same teachers had also completed all the courses they wanted to take, or they may have been far enough along in their careers that they did not see any benefit in taking more courses.

The propensity to strike variable revealed that teachers who did not feel that they had autonomy, influence on educational issues, and respect from others had a greater propensity to strike. This finding was consistent with the literature on attitudinal militancy and dissatisfaction, which maintained that decision-making, involvement, and recognition were important factors at work (Belasco & Alutto, 1972; Bolman & Deal, 1984; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; King & Peart, 1992).

The results of this study point to a combination of the variables when

considering both satisfaction with the collective agreement and propensity to strike. The bottom line appears to be that it is difficult to predict either, using the models assembled for this study.

G. Limitations of the Study

The reliability and validity of the MBI and the VPI are sound. These instruments have been used repeatedly and are accepted test instruments. A location threat was present. The environment in which subjects completed their surveys may have affected mood, which could influence responses. To decrease environmental threat, subjects were asked to complete the questionnaires on their own time, in a quiet, comfortable location. General school climate would have already been established in each school. Its influence over subjects' responses could not be controlled.

This study was also limited in that the data were static and the sample size was relatively small. The responses were only generalizable for a given point in time and may not be assumed to reflect attitudes in later years, or that of other regions of the country.

While the study may be generalized to elementary public teachers in Southwestern Ontario, differences in board policies, such as promotion procedures or differences in contracts, such as pupil-teacher ratios, may have affected subjects' responses. In addition, whether or not subjects had been on strike was likely to affect their responses. The instruments were administered in June, a busy time when teachers are generally worn out and anxious for the summer vacation. This could have influenced return rate, and individual question responses. This study dealt with the subjective opinions of a group of teachers who were vulnerable to the influences of the time and circumstances

surrounding their participation in this study. It is always difficult to explain and predict subjects' underlying sentiments. While this allows for intriguing analysis of the results, it limits the study's generalizability to other populations.

H. Recommendations

Human behaviour is very individual and often inconsistent. In an attempt to determine what predicts teacher propensity to strike, this study revealed that the models used do not provide great insight into the complexity of teacher behaviour in this area. The significant correlations in this study demonstrate minimal effects when each model is considered separately. It is evident that a combination of factors provides a more realistic, although complicated explanation for teacher propensity to strike.

Further research in this area should concentrate on fewer models to provide more decisive and concise results. An examination of one model at a time would allow for acceptance or removal of that model as a predictor of propensity to strike. The five models in this study appeared to confuse or entangle the issue. As indicated in the literature, significant variables can cross the models. For example, while the environment model revealed that dissatisfaction with salary was a predictor of strike propensity, and the attitude model showed that lack of recognition and respect was a predictor, monetary issues could have also been related to attitude issues. Teachers may have viewed inadequate salary as reflective of the lack of status they received from their employer and the public. Similarly, with respect to satisfaction with the collective agreement, years experience was a significant predictor in the demography model as was a high score on the masculinity scale in the personality model. It was possible that teachers with more years experience

scored higher on the masculinity scale because many years of perceiving that their careers were difficult and demanding, or having had to fight for many years to get an acceptable contract, have influenced them to demonstrate the characteristics of a “shrewd” individual. Clearly, a study utilizing one model would eliminate the cross-relationships which were likely to have occurred in this study.

Several extraneous variables related to other areas of influence in determining propensity to strike may have also clouded the results. Satisfaction, while not directly used as a model to predict propensity to strike, was an underlying factor in each of the models in this study. The teachers who indicated that they were more willing to strike due to monetary issues were, in fact, indicating their dissatisfaction with that particular aspect of their work. Striking was initiated by teachers as insurance for their satisfaction with specific contract items. Overall satisfaction is different from satisfaction with a particular item in the work environment. A model of overall satisfaction with one’s job would be appropriate in determining propensity to strike in future research.

The timing of this study provided interesting speculation of the significant relationships in light of the employment history of the group of teachers involved. A similar study, administered during a less busy time of the year, such as February, and in the middle of a 2 year contract rather than 1 week after a contract has been ratified, would likely produce very different results.

This study, alone, only “scratches the surface” of possible factors influencing a teacher’s willingness to strike. Ensuing related research questions might include: Would a change in board administration or government affect teachers’ attitudes? How do negative work-related attitudes affect job performance? How do the models in this study predict job

satisfaction? Why have some boards gone on strike while others have never gone on strike? How would principals' scores compare to teachers'?

The factors contributing to dissatisfaction with a collective agreement, and propensity to strike, the adversarial environment between board members and teachers during negotiations and during a strike, and the possibility of residual negative attitudes, diminished effort and motivation, and ill health after a strike may pose serious threats to the quality of education. The data from this study revealed that it is difficult to pinpoint why teachers support strikes; therefore, it is difficult to make recommendations to prevent strikes.

Some general proactive measures can still be considered. Root assumptions by management that employees and their unions are interested in doing less work for more money, and by employees and their unions that management seeks an increase in the amount of work expected for less money, must be abandoned. Ideally, the union can exist, but attitudes of readiness, communicating, understanding, trusting, accepting, and caring, must also exist. Moderate union control can lead to collaboration between employees and employer.

The role of teachers is to produce socialized, educated students. Providing quality education is an encompassing and complicated job. The percentage of discontented teachers is continuing to increase (Allutto & Belasco, 1974), and teachers are increasingly scrutinized by the public. Yet education is an essential service. Every child in Ontario has a right to an education, so when teachers go on strike, they lose public trust. The public believes that the children's best interests are no longer being served. In light of the research on possible negative effects of strikes, boards of education and educators are prudent to maintain good working relations to avoid conflict

leading to sanctions. Crisci, Giancola, and Miller (1986) maintained that the quality of education is directly related to the relationship between labour and management. They suggested redesigning board-teacher interaction as an essential step to regain diminished public support and to increase the general level of student achievement.

It is hoped that this study will alert upper administration, principals, and teachers to the varied and complex issues surrounding and leading up to a strike and that there is a need for continued, in-depth investigation in this area.

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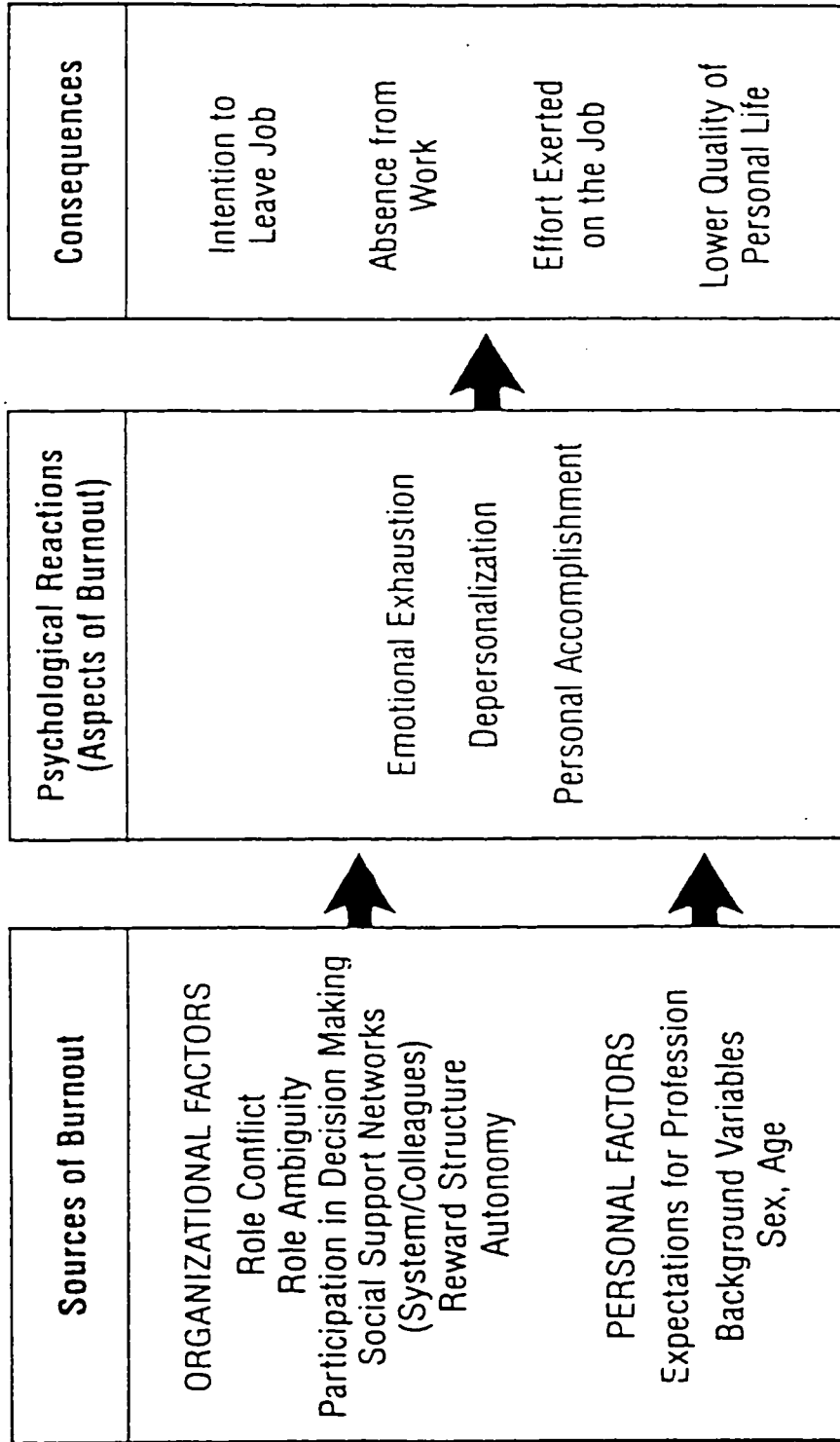
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Appendix A

Burnout Cycle



Appendix B

C. D. Foreman
c/o Faculty of Education
University of Windsor
401 Sunset Ave.
Windsor, ON
N9B 3P4

June 11, 1996

Dear Colleague:

I am an elementary teacher and am presently completing thesis work for a Master of Education Degree, under the supervision of Dr. L. Morton. My research has been approved by the University of Windsor Ethics Committee.

A major area of concern is teacher morale and job satisfaction. The current challenges to our Ontario educational system present many new and varied changes, opportunities, and concerns to educators today. It is in the best interests of teachers to be aware of how stressors, attitudes, and working conditions affect decision making.

Please, take 20 minutes to complete the survey. I ask that you complete it on your own time, and in a comfortable setting. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential and I will not attempt to identify you at any point during my research. If you have questions pertaining to this research, before, during, or after this study, feel free to call me at home at (519) 736-8271.

I greatly appreciate your support of my research by taking time from your busy schedule. Please complete the survey by June 18, 1996, enclose it in the envelope provided and give it to the teacher indicated on your envelope. Your return of a completed survey will indicate your agreement to participate in this study. Any concerns can be directed to the chair of the Ethics Committee, Dr. L. Morton, at (519) 253-4232 ext. 3800.

Thank you, in advance, for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Cynthia Foreman

Appendix C

Sample Test Instrument

Please answer all questions by circling the appropriate letter or number.

PART A
SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Gender:

- A. Female
- B. Male

2. Age:

- A. 20-24
- B. 25-29
- C. 30-34
- D. 35-39
- E. 40-44
- F. 45-49
- G. 50-54
- H. 55-59
- I. 60 or older

3. Marital status:

- A. Single (never married)
- B. Married/Permanent Relationship
- C. Widowed
- D. Divorced/Separated

4. Employment status of your spouse/significant other:

- A. Unemployed
- B. Teacher
- C. Public sector employee
- D. Private sector employee
- E. Self-employed
- F. Other/Not applicable to my situation

5. Please indicate what your normal total gross household income is:

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| A. \$ 0 - 25 000 | E. \$71 000 - 85 000 |
| B. \$26 000 - 40 000 | F. \$86 000 - 100 000 |
| C. \$41 000 - 55 000 | G. \$101 000 - 115 000 |
| D. \$56 000 - 70 000 | H. \$116 000 - 130 000 |

6. What is your highest level of education?

- A. Secondary School Graduate
- B. Teachers' College Graduate
- C. Community College Graduate
- D. University Graduate
- E. Bachelor of Education Degree
- F. Other Post Graduate Degree(s)

7. What are your living arrangements?

- A. Paying room and board
- B. Renting an apartment
- C. Renting a house
- D. Paying a mortgage on a house
- E. Full ownership of your residence
- F. Other

8. What is your present position with the board? (Circle all that apply).

- A. Kindergarten/Primary Teacher
- B. Junior Teacher
- C. Intermediate Teacher
- D. Principal/Vice-Principal
- E. Itinerant, Special Assignment Teacher
- F. Consultant/Co-ordinator
- G. Librarian
- H. Music Teacher
- I. French Immersion/FSL Teacher
- J. Learning Resource, Special Education Teacher

9. How many total years of experience (teaching and administrative) do you have with the Windsor Board of Education ?

A. 0-4

D. 15-19

B. 5-9

E. 20-24

C. 10-14

F. 25 or more

10. What is your employment status?

A. Permanent Full-time

B. Permanent Part-time

C. Probationary Full-time

D. Probationary Part-time

E. Other

11. Please indicate your number of dependents:

11.1 Pre-school children

A. 0 B. 1-2 C. 3-4 D. 5+

11.2 Elementary school children

A. 0 B. 1-2 C. 3-4 D. 5+

11.3 Secondary school children

A. 0 B. 1-2 C. 3-4 D. 5+

11.4 Post-secondary children

A. 0 B. 1-2 C. 3-4 D. 5+

11.5 Dependent adults

A. 0 B. 1-2 C. 3-4 D. 5+

SECTION II: ATTITUDINAL INFORMATION

12. Rate your feelings toward your present job according to the following descriptors:

	Very		Not At All	
12.1 Manageable	1	2	3	4
12.2 Stressful	1	2	3	4
12.3 Stimulating	1	2	3	4
12.4 Boring	1	2	3	4
12.5 Rewarding	1	2	3	4
12.6 Futile	1	2	3	4

13. Rate the following descriptors regarding your view of the status of teachers:

Teachers:	Very True		Not At All True	
13.1 are professionals	1	2	3	4
13.2 have autonomy	1	2	3	4
13.3 have influence in educational issues	1	2	3	4
13.4 are respected	1	2	3	4

14. Rate your attitude toward the time you spend on the following tasks:

	Enthusiastic		Resentful	
14.1 lesson planning	1	2	3	4
14.2 marking/grading	1	2	3	4
14.3 parent/teacher conferencing	1	2	3	4
14.4 staff meetings	1	2	3	4
14.5 report cards	1	2	3	4
14.6 yard duty	1	2	3	4
14.7 professional development	1	2	3	4
14.8 extracurricular (coaching, fundraising)	1	2	3	4
14.9 administrative paperwork	1	2	3	4

15. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements as a description of how you feel:

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
15.1 My administrator keeps me informed about matters important to my work.	1	2	3	4
15.2 If I have an idea, suggestions, or complaint, I feel free to express it to my administrator.	1	2	3	4
15.3 My administrator cares about me as an individual.	1	2	3	4
15.4 I have a good professional relationship with my administrator.	1	2	3	4
15.5 I have a clear understanding of the goals of my school system.	1	2	3	4
15.6 Central office is supportive of programs and projects in my school/department.	1	2	3	4
15.7 Central office administration listen to the ideas of staff members.	1	2	3	4
15.8 I believe hard work pays off.	1	2	3	4
15.9 This board is a good place to work.	1	2	3	4

16. How well appreciated are your efforts at work by different groups?

	Very much Appreciated			Not At All Appreciated
16.1 By co-workers	1	2	3	4
16.2 By trustees	1	2	3	4
16.3 By principal/vice-principal	1	2	3	4
16.4 By public at large	1	2	3	4
16.5 By students	1	2	3	4
16.6 By parents	1	2	3	4
16.7 By upper administration	1	2	3	4
16.8 By Ministry of Education	1	2	3	4

17. Rate the likelihood of where you see yourself within the next five years: (Circle all that apply).

	Very Likely			Not At All Likely
17.1 In the same job with your present board	1	2	3	4
17.2 In a different job with your present board	1	2	3	4
17.3 In another job in education	1	2	3	4
17.4 In another job outside education	1	2	3	4
17.5 Taking Ministry courses	1	2	3	4
17.6 Taking university courses	1	2	3	4
17.7 In PAR (position of added responsibility)	1	2	3	4
17.8 Retired or not working by choice	1	2	3	4
17.9 Laid off / declared redundant	1	2	3	4

SECTION III: RESOURCES

18. Rate your satisfaction with the availability of the following resources:

	Very Satisfied			Not At All Satisfied
18.1 classroom furnishings (furniture, easels, etc.)	1	2	3	4
18.2 students textbooks	1	2	3	4
18.3 basic supplies (pencils, glue, scissors, etc.)	1	2	3	4
18.4 audio visual equipment	1	2	3	4
18.5 computer equipment	1	2	3	4
18.6 funds for field trips	1	2	3	4
18.7 teacher manuals (for lesson planning)	1	2	3	4
18.8 resource kits (theme, units)	1	2	3	4
18.9 professional journals	1	2	3	4
18.10 professional development workshops	1	2	3	4
18.11 peer mentoring programmes	1	2	3	4
18.12 federation professional relations service	1	2	3	4
18.13 learning resource staff for students with learning disabilities	1	2	3	4
18.14 support for integrated handicapped/ special needs students (Child-Youth Worker; Social Worker)	1	2	3	4
18.15 salary	1	2	3	4
18.16 retirement benefits/pension	1	2	3	4

19. Rate your satisfaction with the following aspects of school physical environment:

	Very Satisfied			Not At All Satisfied
19.1 school residential location	1	2	3	4
19.2 appearance of school	1	2	3	4
19.3 school yard size	1	2	3	4
19.4 cleanliness of school	1	2	3	4
19.5 general temperature of classroom	1	2	3	4
19.6 classroom space	1	2	3	4
19.7 air quality of school	1	2	3	4
19.8 condition of classroom furnishings	1	2	3	4
19.9 personal storage space	1	2	3	4
19.10 privacy in classroom	1	2	3	4
19.11 number of students in classroom	1	2	3	4
19.12 safety of classroom	1	2	3	4

20. Rate your satisfaction with the level of decision making you have in the following areas:

	Very Satisfied			Not At All Satisfied
20.1 homeroom timetabling	1	2	3	4
20.2 classroom lessons/programmes	1	2	3	4
20.3 school programmes (clubs,teams)	1	2	3	4
20.4 school events (assemblies,trips)	1	2	3	4
20.5 school policies for students	1	2	3	4
20.6 policy development at board level	1	2	3	4
20.7 curriculum development at board level	1	2	3	4
20.8 teaching assignment within school	1	2	3	4
20.9 use of prep time	1	2	3	4
20.10 staff meeting input	1	2	3	4
20.11 in-service programmes offered by board	1	2	3	4
20.12 federation	1	2	3	4

21. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
21.1 I believe my teacher federation has a strong voice in Ontario.	1	2	3	4
21.2 I feel committed to my federation.	1	2	3	4
21.3 I believe the federation protects my rights.	1	2	3	4
21.4 My federation is the same as a labour union.	1	2	3	4
21.5 My residential community supports unions.	1	2	3	4
21.6 When I was growing up, my parents were involved in union activities.	1	2	3	4
21.7 I have regularly attended federation meetings in the past five years.	1	2	3	4
21.8 I have been on a federation committee in the past five years.	1	2	3	4
21.9 I have been an executive member of a teacher federation in the past five years.	1	2	3	4

22. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement regarding collective bargaining:

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
22.1 I was personally satisfied with the last collective agreement.	1	2	3	4
22.2 I would support a work-to-rule if future negotiations fail.	1	2	3	4
22.3 I would go on strike if future negotiations fail.	1	2	3	4
22.4 I would go on strike if directed by the federations.	1	2	3	4
22.5 Teachers should have the right to strike.	1	2	3	4

23. I participated in the Windsor Board of Education strike of 1993.

Yes No

24. I have participated in a teacher strike in another board.

Yes No

25. I have participated in a labour strike in a different job.

Yes No

Additional Comments:

*Note: Data from this survey will in no way be used in present or future negotiations.

Appendix D

Sample Test Instrument with Frequencies

Please answer all questions by circling the appropriate letter or number.

PART A
SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Gender:

A. Female (79)

B. Male (24)

2. Age:

A. 20-24 (0)

F. 45-49 (31)

B. 25-29 (8)

G. 50-54 (21)

C. 30-34 (13)

H. 55-59 (4)

D. 35-39 (10)

I. 60 or older (1)

E. 40-44 (14)

3. Marital status:

A. Single (never married) (15)

B. Married/Permanent Relationship (80)

C. Widowed (1)

D. Divorced/Separated (8)

4. Employment status of your spouse/significant other:

A. Unemployed (4)

B. Teacher (41)

C. Public sector employee (9)

D. Private sector employee (19)

E. Self-employed (5)

F. Other/Not applicable to my situation (21)

5. Please indicate what your normal total gross household income is:

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| A. \$ 0 - 25 000 (1) | E. \$71 000 - 85 000 (13) |
| B. \$26 000 - 40 000(4) | F. \$86 000 - 100 000 (20) |
| C. \$41 000 - 55 000 (11) | G. \$101 000 - 115 000 (6) |
| D. \$56 000 - 70 000 (25) | H. \$116 000 - 130 000 (18) |

6. What is your highest level of education?

- A. Secondary School Graduate (0)
- B. Teachers' College Graduate (4)
- C. Community College Graduate (0)
- D. University Graduate (20)
- E. Bachelor of Education Degree (54)
- F. Other Post Graduate Degree(s) (26)

7. What are your living arrangements?

- A. Paying room and board (4)
- B. Renting an apartment (6)
- C. Renting a house (2)
- D. Paying a mortgage on a house (49)
- E. Full ownership of your residence (39)
- F. Other (4)

8. What is your present position with the board? (Circle all that apply).

- A. Kindergarten/Primary Teacher (40)
- B. Junior Teacher (22)
- C. Intermediate Teacher (16)
- D. Principal/Vice-Principal (0)
- E. Itinerant, Special Assignment Teacher (1)
- F. Consultant/Co-ordinator (0)
- G. Librarian (2)
- H. Music Teacher (4)
- I. French Immersion/FSL Teacher (8)
- J. Learning Resource, Special Education Teacher (8)

9. How many total years of experience (teaching and administrative) do you have with the Windsor Board of Education ?

A. 0-4 (10)

D. 15-19 (11)

B. 5-9 (25)

E. 20-24 (22)

C. 10-14 (4)

F. 25 or more (32)

10. What is your employment status?

A. Permanent Full-time (88)

B. Permanent Part-time (8)

C. Probationary Full-time (4)

D. Probationary Part-time (1)

E. Other (3)

11. Please indicate your number of dependents:

11.1 Pre-school children

A. 0 (89) B. 1-2 (13) C. 3-4 (2) D. 5+ (0)

11.2 Elementary school children

A. 0 (73) B. 1-2 (28) C. 3-4 (2) D. 5+ (1)

11.3 Secondary school children

A. 0 (79) B. 1-2 (25) C. 3-4 (0) D. 5+ (0)

11.4 Post-secondary children

A. 0 (83) B. 1-2 (20) C. 3-4 (1) D. 5+ (0)

11.5 Dependent adults

A. 0 (96) B. 1-2 (6) C. 3-4 (1) D. 5+ (0)

SECTION II: ATTITUDINAL INFORMATION

12. Rate your feelings toward your present job according to the following descriptors:

	Very		Not At All	
12.1 Manageable	1(35)	2(46)	3(13)	4(1)
12.2 Stressful	1(14)	2(45)	3(38)	4(4)
12.3 Stimulating	1(27)	2(54)	3(13)	4(3)
12.4 Boring	1(1)	2(6)	3(17)	4(74)
12.5 Rewarding	1(35)	2(51)	3(9)	4(5)
12.6 Futile	1(2)	2(6)	3(18)	4(69)

13. Rate the following descriptors regarding your view of the status of teachers:

Teachers:	Very True		Not At All True	
13.1 are professionals	1(57)	2(43)	3(4)	4(0)
13.2 have autonomy	1(10)	2(41)	3(41)	4(9)
13.3 have influence in educational issues	1(7)	2(25)	3(56)	4(14)
13.4 are respected	1(9)	2(30)	3(55)	4(10)

14. Rate your attitude toward the time you spend on the following tasks:

	Enthusiastic		Resentful	
14.1 lesson planning	1(24)	2(64)	3(14)	4(0)
14.2 marking/grading	1(9)	2(51)	3(34)	4(7)
14.3 parent/teacher conferencing	1(23)	2(62)	3(14)	4(4)
14.4 staff meetings	1(9)	2(59)	3(26)	4(9)
14.5 report cards	1(6)	2(43)	3(39)	4(15)
14.6 yard duty	1(6)	2(39)	3(34)	4(24)
14.7 professional development	1(16)	2(55)	3(23)	4(6)
14.8 extracurricular (coaching, fundraising)	1(22)	2(40)	3(26)	4(14)
14.9 administrative paperwork	1(3)	2(26)	3(47)	4(25)

15. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements as a description of how you feel:

	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree	
15.1 My administrator keeps me informed about matters important to my work.	1(40)	2(48)	3(11)	4(4)
15.2 If I have an idea, suggestions, or complaint, I feel free to express it to my administrator.	1(46)	2(40)	3(15)	4(3)
15.3 My administrator cares about me as an individual.	1(41)	2(37)	3(17)	4(7)
15.4 I have a good professional relationship with my administrator.	1(48)	2(41)	3(12)	4(1)
15.5 I have a clear understanding of the goals of my school system.	1(26)	2(48)	3(25)	4(6)
15.6 Central office is supportive of programs and projects in my school/department.	1(17)	2(40)	3(35)	4(11)
15.7 Central office administration listen to the ideas of staff members.	1(8)	2(22)	3(43)	4(30)
15.8 I believe hard work pays off.	1(38)	2(37)	3(21)	4(8)
15.9 This board is a good place to work.	1(27)	2(57)	3(13)	4(6)

16. How well appreciated are your efforts at work by different groups?

	Very much Appreciated		Not At All Appreciated	
16.1 By co-workers	1(16)	2(47)	3(15)	4(1)
16.2 By trustees	1(1)	2(12)	3(43)	4(46)
16.3 By principal/vice-principal	1(44)	2(44)	3(14)	4(0)
16.4 By public at large	1(3)	2(26)	3(46)	4(29)
16.5 By students	1(30)	2(47)	3(20)	4(7)
16.6 By parents	1(18)	2(49)	3(32)	4(3)
16.7 By upper administration	1(5)	2(29)	3(46)	4(24)
16.8 By Ministry of Education	1(1)	2(16)	3(31)	4(55)

17. Rate the likelihood of where you see yourself within the next five years: (Circle all that apply).

	Very Likely			Not At All Likely
	1	2	3	4
17.1 In the same job with your present board	1(42)	2(11)	3(16)	4(33)
17.2 In a different job with your present board	1(31)	2(20)	3(14)	4(35)
17.3 In another job in education	1(4)	2(8)	3(11)	4(75)
17.4 In another job outside education	1(2)	2(3)	3(16)	4(78)
17.5 Taking Ministry courses	1(14)	2(16)	3(19)	4(49)
17.6 Taking university courses	1(8)	2(23)	3(16)	4(51)
17.7 In PAR (position of added responsibility)	1(9)	2(10)	3(15)	4(65)
17.8 Retired or not working by choice	1(22)	2(4)	3(6)	4(68)
17.9 Laid off / declared redundant	1(1)	2(2)	3(9)	4(87)

SECTION III: RESOURCES

18. Rate your satisfaction with the availability of the following resources:

	Very Satisfied			Not At All Satisfied
	1	2	3	4
18.1 classroom furnishings (furniture, easels, etc.)	1(29)	2(38)	3(25)	4(11)
18.2 students textbooks	1(12)	2(26)	3(31)	4(30)
18.3 basic supplies (pencils, glue, scissors, etc.)	1(22)	2(45)	3(28)	4(9)
18.4 audio visual equipment	1(30)	2(47)	3(21)	4(6)
18.5 computer equipment	1(30)	2(41)	3(17)	4(15)
18.6 funds for field trips	1(20)	2(42)	3(33)	4(9)
18.7 teacher manuals (for lesson planning)	1(21)	2(47)	3(24)	4(12)
18.8 resource kits (theme, units)	1(37)	2(42)	3(19)	4(5)
18.9 professional journals	1(23)	2(46)	3(28)	4(7)
18.10 professional development workshops	1(24)	2(55)	3(20)	4(5)
18.11 peer mentoring programmes	1(14)	2(41)	3(29)	4(18)
18.12 federation professional relations service	1(13)	2(35)	3(41)	4(12)
18.13 learning resource staff for students with learning disabilities	1(10)	2(23)	3(33)	4(36)
18.14 support for integrated handicapped/ special needs students (Child-Youth Worker; Social Worker)	1(13)	2(22)	3(36)	4(26)
18.15 salary	1(26)	2(51)	3(9)	4(13)
18.16 retirement benefits/pension	1(27)	2(52)	3(15)	4(8)

19. Rate your satisfaction with the following aspects of school physical environment:

	Very Satisfied		Not At All Satisfied	
19.1 school residential location	1(63)	2(32)	3(6)	4(1)
19.2 appearance of school	1(53)	2(37)	3(10)	4(3)
19.3 school yard size	1(55)	2(19)	3(13)	4(17)
19.4 cleanliness of school	1(39)	2(36)	3(18)	4(11)
19.5 general temperature of classroom	1(31)	2(33)	3(25)	4(14)
19.6 classroom space	1(19)	2(36)	3(31)	4(18)
19.7 air quality of school	1(22)	2(25)	3(35)	4(21)
19.8 condition of classroom furnishings	1(26)	2(51)	3(20)	4(4)
19.9 personal storage space	1(18)	2(26)	3(37)	4(22)
19.10 privacy in classroom	1(27)	2(34)	3(29)	4(11)
19.11 number of students in classroom	1(13)	2(30)	3(26)	4(34)
19.12 safety of classroom	1(33)	2(47)	3(17)	4(5)

20. Rate your satisfaction with the level of decision making you have in the following areas:

	Very Satisfied		Not At All Satisfied	
20.1 homeroom timetabling	1(40)	2(35)	3(17)	4(11)
20.2 classroom lessons/programmes	1(63)	2(36)	3(3)	4(2)
20.3 school programmes (clubs, teams)	1(30)	2(51)	3(20)	4(1)
20.4 school events (assemblies, trips)	1(33)	2(49)	3(19)	4(2)
20.5 school policies for students	1(17)	2(57)	3(24)	4(6)
20.6 policy development at board level	1(2)	2(20)	3(55)	4(26)
20.7 curriculum development at board level	1(2)	2(27)	3(49)	4(24)
20.8 teaching assignment within school	1(42)	2(43)	3(12)	4(7)
20.9 use of prep time	1(47)	2(36)	3(16)	4(5)
20.10 staff meeting input	1(41)	2(42)	3(14)	4(5)
20.11 in-service programmes offered by board	1(19)	2(51)	3(27)	4(5)
20.12 federation	1(9)	2(42)	3(35)	4(16)

PART B:

21. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree	
21.1 I believe my teacher federation has a strong voice in Ontario.	1(18)	2(32)	3(34)	4(19)
21.2 I feel committed to my federation.	1(23)	2(29)	3(37)	4(15)
21.3 I believe the federation protects my rights.	1(26)	2(37)	3(25)	4(16)
21.4 My federation is the same as a labour union.	1(24)	2(28)	3(29)	4(23)
21.5 My residential community supports unions.	1(28)	2(42)	3(24)	4(4)
21.6 When I was growing up, my parents were involved in union activities.	1(19)	2(12)	3(18)	4(54)
21.7 I have regularly attended federation meetings in the past five years.	1(15)	2(23)	3(25)	4(41)
21.8 I have been on a federation committee in the past five years.	1(26)	2(9)	3(6)	4(63)
21.9 I have been an executive member of a teacher federation in the past five years.	1(3)	2(0)	3(5)	4(96)

22. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement regarding collective bargaining:

	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree	
22.1 I was personally satisfied with the last collective agreement.	1(11)	2(36)	3(24)	4(31)
22.2 I would support a work-to-rule if future negotiations fail.	1(51)	2(27)	3(14)	4(11)
22.3 I would go on strike if future negotiations fail.	1(23)	2(21)	3(10)	4(48)
22.4 I would go on strike if directed by the federations.	1(39)	2(25)	3(13)	4(26)
22.5 Teachers should have the right to strike.	1(54)	2(13)	3(8)	4(7)

23. I participated in the Windsor Board of Education strike of 1993.

Yes(92) No(12)

24. I have participated in a teacher strike in another board.

Yes(2) No(102)

25. I have participated in a labour strike in a different job.

Yes(4) No(100)

Additional Comments:

*Note: Data from this survey will in no way be used in present or future negotiations.

Appendix E

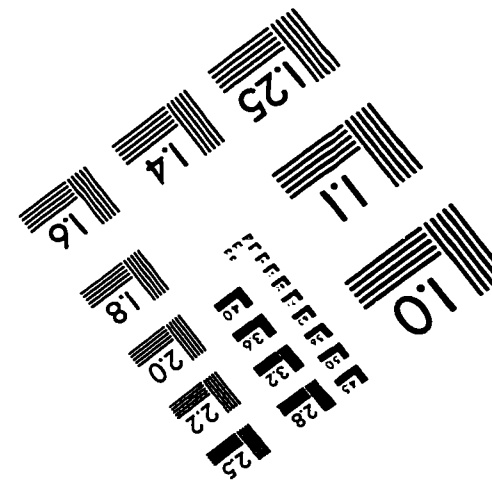
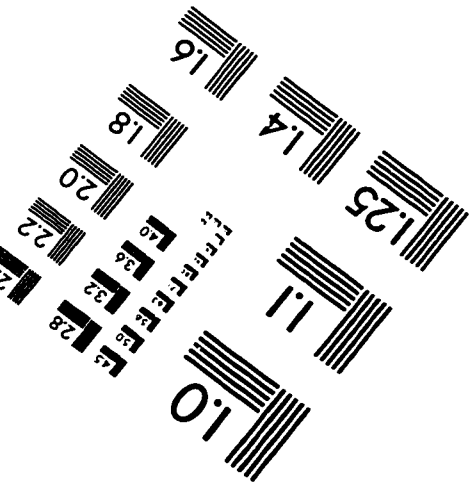
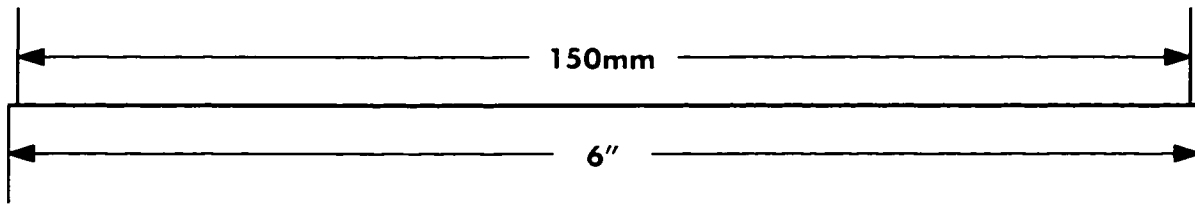
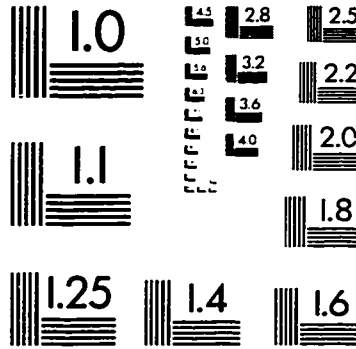
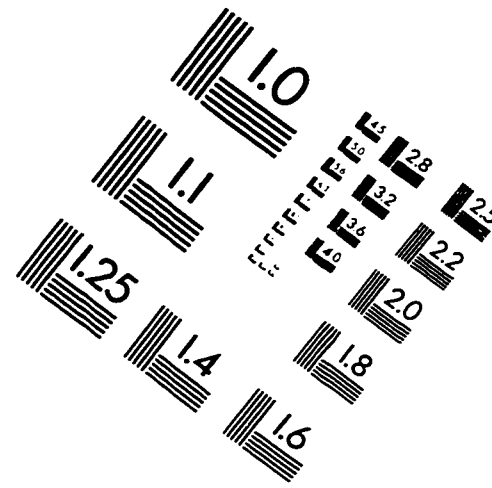
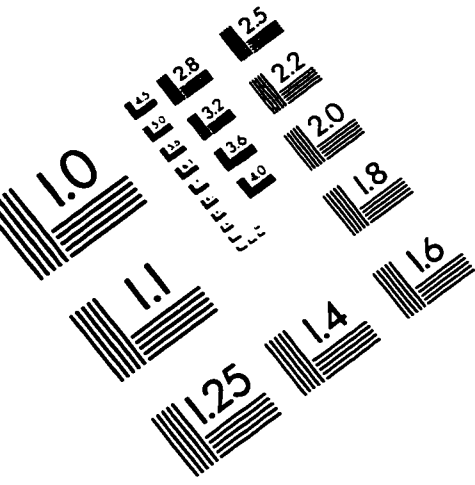
Key Characteristics of Holland's Personality Scales

Scale	Some Key Characteristics For High Scores
Realistic (R)	hardheaded, practical, poor interpersonal skills
Investigative (I)	scientifically inclined, shy, reserved, independent, radical
Artistic (A)	imaginative, introverted, emotional, expressive, sensitive
Social (S)	sociable, sensitive, extroverted, want to help others
Enterprising (E)	dominant, sociable, enthusiastic, adventurous, extroverted
Conventional (C)	persistent, practical, value hard work, business achievement
Self Control (SC)	insecure, cautious, controlled, passive
Masculinity/ Femininity (MF)	shrewd, unsociable, adopting traditional male roles
Status (ST)	sociable, adventurous, expressive, want to be important
Infrequency (INF)	low aspiration level, few claimed competencies
Acquiescence(AC)	dominant, enthusiastic, many interests

Vita Auctoris

Cynthia Foreman was born and raised in Windsor, Ontario and graduated from Riverside Secondary School in 1987. She received an Honours Bachelor of Arts, with a Major in English in 1991. A Bachelor of Education Degree was received in 1992 and most recently, in completing this thesis, she has received a Master of Education Degree. Cynthia is presently in her fifth year of teaching in the elementary public system. She teaches intermediate students at King Edward School.

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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