CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Education impacts on both human development and national development and it is a fundamental requirement for democracy because education provides people with the tools and knowledge they need to understand and participate in today's world. It helps to sustain the human values that contribute to individual and collective well-being, using the concept of lifelong learning. With respect to democracy, education inspires confidence and provides the skills needed to participate in public debates (UNESCO, 2004).

Education is given high priority in Iran. The law makes education compulsory for every child, and currently the literacy rate in Iran is approximately 80 percent. The Ministry of Education in the Islamic Republic of Iran is determined to implement many reforms and bring about innovations in order to improve the development and operation of the education system.

One of the reform policies initiated by the Ministry of Education is the decentralization policy. This policy was enforced in 2002, and it laid a suitable groundwork for implementing school-based management (SBM). The Minister of Education, as the initiator of this system, says that school-based policy is a proper method to achieve a desirable school improvement and one which brings credit to schools as the most important education center (Mellat majlis, 2006).

Decentralization policy in education, with school councils being involved in the administration and management of schools, is one of the trends taking place in the

world today (Walker & Dimmock, 2000). The usual concrete manifestation of this worldwide trend for decentralization and devolution of authority to the school level can be referred to as the school-based management phenomenon. SBM involves the formal change in the structures of school governance that leads to a more democratic administrative approach in which planning and decision making are devolved to the individual school (Doran, 1999). Other terms that describe this form of school management are: site-based management (Dempster, 2000); self-governance (Bush & Gamage, 2001); local school management (Mulford et al., 2003); local management of schools (Gamage, 2000); autonomous planning and practice through decentralization (Kim, 2004, p. 132). Grauwe (2005) refers to this common element as "autonomy in decisions about their management" (p. 271).

The decentralization policy has triggered a transformation in school management in Iran, from the extensive, passive management to an aim-based, participative and programmed management, or popularly known as school-based management. School-based management is thought to be the backbone of decentralization because it reduces bureaucratic time-lag in the top-down structure. Apart from that, it promotes localizing of some programs and creating flexibility in the programs in accordance with local environmental conditions. School-based management policy is a policy which will gradually transfer some power and authority to schools and thus will bring about the involvement of many sectors around schools to participate in the teaching learning process (Khorshidy, 2004).

In Iran, in line with the decentralization policy, school-based management, and participatory management allow the development of leadership, creativity and dynamism. This policy requires the school managers to believe in the benefits of participatory management. To adhere to this policy requires a shift in the attitudes

towards more participation in school governance and revising the roles of teachers, students and parents in the process of managing schools (Davoodipoor, 2006).

School management and teachers have a fundamental role in achieving the aims of education via improved use of the existing resources and facilities as well as by coordinating the activities. So, the attitude towards participatory management in school is of great importance (Tasdighi, 2004). Nowadays, because of the increasing development, school organizations in Iran face the urgent need for participatory management because schools in Iran need to employ the best resources and efforts by advocating creative thinking and promoting innovative ideas of teachers, parents, and the community.

In addition, with the rise of a general understanding about the importance of education for national development, educators seem to be in favor of more participation in school management. They are willing to take part in the decision making procedures related to their own condition. Through a judicious use of participatory management, school leaders may make sound decisions by drawing upon the collective expertise, experience, and wisdom of their employees (Lichtenstein, 2000). Accepting school-based policy, which is based on delegation of authority, decentralization of decision making, better human relations, and the use of sound moral principles in the management of schools, it is anticipated that a higher quality of education in Iran would be made possible.

Decentralization of education and involving community participation, as well as vesting more authority in schools for decision making, have a great tendency for improved school performance (Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Oosthuizen and du Toit (1999) state that participative management can be defined as a system engaging employees as willing co-producers of a better future. Today, most of these policy

innovations are being introduced in educational management to encourage decentralization and implementation of collaborative school governance (Anderson, 1998; Walker & Dimmock, 2000).

Conversely, the school managers believe that the training of efficient work force and the development of human resources are essential to attain the goals of the organization in a better way. At present, the situation has changed such that having efficient, energetic and creative employees and committed teachers is considered the most important aspect of organizational effectiveness; commitment is a good indicator to show the degree of organizational efficiency (Schein, 1970).

Employee participation sometimes is not totally encouraged by management. Some employees are against the idea of employees having a say in the decision making process.

Furthermore, the function of the employees often surprises the mangers and makes them hesitant in employing participatory management methods. This is probably because some employees perform their duties with great responsibility and commitment and strive to excel in their work and bring glory to their organizations. Some others have low efficiency and perform their duties at the routine level and show no interest and commitment to the organization. There is no question that it is inevitable for the managers to try to improve the individual and organizational skills of their employees and attempt at raising their abilities to the desirable level. Therefore, the relationship between participatory management and organizational commitment of the employees in school need.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Most of the research on PM and OC have been done in business organizations, and not much on educational settings such as schools and universities. Thus, the results and theoretical propositions that arise from past works seem to generalizable and applicable to business organizations more than educational organizations. The ensuing discussion illustrates this point, and therefore, the current research has been designed to focus on high schools, particularly in Iran. This research seeks to establish the extent of correlations and effects of PM on OC in the educational setting, and to argue whether the results in the school setting are similar with business setting.

In the 21st century, employees will be the key to an organization's success. Research shows that employees are starting to make more demands on their employers. They want to be part of a team and they want more involvement in decision-making (Owens, 2001; Wood et al., 2004). They also want opportunities for growth and development (Faille, 2000). The shift to participative management in the workplace is both inevitable and necessary. It is inevitable because the capacity for participation is widespread and is increasingly growing. It is necessary because the issues that we face in the workplace are too complex and interdependent which need to be solved by a few people in authority (Andrews & Herschel, 1996; Wood et al., 2004). In addition, it is a necessary element of ethically good behavior (Webler, 1995).

Participative management and employee empowerment, both individually and in teams, are critical components of the new corporate strategy (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000; Matthews, Diaz, & Cole, 2003; Lawler, 1993; Ledford, 1993). Besides, participative management is increasingly seen as a feasible system of governance for organizations (Lawler, 1996). When employees trust their managers and leaders, their sense of empowerment tends to be higher (Owens, 2001). Managers attempting to provide maximum opportunities for organizational members to participate or be involved in

decision making (Owens, 2001; Wood et al., 2004) would allow for free flow of information through open communication channels (Matthews et al., 2003; Owens, 2001; Wood et al., 2004). They would also grant authority, freedom and autonomy for organizational members to make decisions affecting their work (Matthews et al., 2003; Wood et al., 2004).

Participatory management has proven successful for improving the workplace and meeting the demands of a modern society. Therefore, moving toward participative management within an organization is seen as a way for an organization to build key capabilities essential for success in the complicated and dynamic contemporary organizational environment (McLagan & Nel, 1995; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1991; Case, 1998). According to Somech (2002), participative management is a complex concept that consists of several dependent yet distinct dimensions. Participative Management encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002). Participative management should be geared toward meaningful involvement (Waters et al., 2003) and participating in key decision-making processes (Saxton, 2004). Participatory management has been long acknowledged as an essential ingredient in the quest for better schools. In characterizing successful schools, researchers commonly list five school-level factors, which include collaborative planning/collegial work and parental/community participation (Creemers, 1994; Edmonds, 1979; Joyce, 1991; Marzano, 2003).

Participatory approaches attain educational benefits through enhancing the levels of trust within the school community (Blase & Blase, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Siegall and Worth (2001) report that greater trust in the administration yields more positive work outcomes among the members. Hargreaves (2001) argues that high levels of trust hasten the establishment of strong networks and collaborative relations among

the members. Participatory management has a positive impact on productivity, quality, and employee morale. It is also recommended that managers view participatory management style as a viable practice to the extent that they encourage greater employee participation in the decision making process in their organizations (Gono, 2001). According to Ospina and Yaroni (2003), decision-making improves the quality of work life. Participatory management fits best today's workers who are more educated, motivated, responsible, and capable of doing their jobs without close supervision. Participatory Management is a process in which subordinates share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate superiors (Gono, 2001; Riesgraf, 2002).

Successful leaders believe in broad employee participation in designing and implementing organizational change (Simmons, 1999). Research findings show that allowing teachers and stakeholders to take part in decision-making yields salutary results. Employee satisfaction, motivation, morale and self-esteem are affected positively by involvement in decision-making and implementation (Chapman & Boyd, 1986; Gamage & Pang, 2003; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Hunton, Hall, & Price, 1998). Hence, participatory management emphasizes employee development. Participative management and employee involvement accumulated a wide range of benefits and organizations were encouraged to adopt a variety of participation strategies (Cheng & Cheung, 2003; Marzano, 2003) and to cultivate a culture of participation (Denison, 1990). There is evidence that people involved in making decisions have a greater stake in implementing those decisions than those who are not involved (Bloom, 2000).

Today, most of these innovations are being introduced in the field of educational management to encourage decentralization and implementation of collaborative school governance (Anderson, 1998Chan & Chui, 1997; Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Thus,

increased participation in the workplace and school will better align us with an enlightened vision of freedom and democracy, helping to create a genuine democracy that nurtures human progress (Simmons, 1999; Wood et al., 2004).

Iranian researchers, too, have emphasized participatory management as a good style of management (Ahmadi, 1996; Danesh, 2007; Estarvan, 1998; Ramizani, 1996; Tasdighi, 2004). Some of the researchers have found that participation in decision making may impact on job satisfaction (Abdollahi, 1996; Bayat, 1997; Farrokhi, 1995; Manzari, 1996; Moradi, 1995; Resalatpoor, 1994; Vahidi, 1996), on organization commitment (Banihashemi, 1998; Bayat, 1997; Estarvan, 1998; Golshany, 2003; Moshabbaki, 1998; Saroghei, 1996), on efficiency (Banihashemi, 1998), on motivation and performance (Hamzehkhanloo, 2003), on morale (Poorperali, 2003) and on organizational culture (Sherkat, 2005). In addition, another researcher (Naghei poor, 2003) has found a relationship between the manager's trust in employees and the degree of collaboration with them.

In recent times, organizational commitment has become an important concept in organizational research and in the understanding of employee behavior in the workplace. It reflects the extent to which employees identify with an organization and are committed to its goals. Over the past two decades, the constructs of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment have been important variables of interest to organizational communication researchers (Becker et al., 1996; Clampitt & Downs, 1993; Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Putti et al., 1990; Wetzel & Gallagher, 1990). It has even been considered a core variable of interest in management (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Clugston, 2000; DeConinck & Bachman, 1994; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

Organizational commitment is a vital component in any effective organization (Brantley, 1993) to extract human resources capabilities (Chang, 2006). It represents the core components for cooperation and consensus, by helping workers identify with organizational rules, rewards and values (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Hence, commitment has always been associated with a broad range of positive effects. Commitment not only is essential for the organization, but also is important for individuals (Balliet, 1989; Mowday et al., 1982). Thus, organizational commitment can be used as a predictor of the employees' willingness to recommend the organization (Paulina et al., 2006).

In the same way, teacher commitment has been identified as a key aspect of a school's capacity for reform and renewal through insights (Geijsel at al., 2003) to the extent that it determines the quality of teaching as well as school improvement. In fact, the current interest in capacity building is related to the continuous demands for school improvement that rely on teachers' commitment. According to Weisberg (1994), management in various organizations is constantly searching for signals to identify potential labor turnover intent. Employees' feelings of organizational commitment have important implications for organizations. Negative withdrawal behaviors such as turnover and absenteeism may stem from such feelings (Ackoff, 1999). Moreover, there is emerging evidence that workplace spirituality programs not only lead to beneficial personal outcomes such as increased positive human health and psychological well-being but that they also deliver improved employee commitment, productivity and reduced absenteeism and turnover (Fry et al., 2005; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Malone & Fry, 2003).

Similar reports in service linkage research demonstrate a positive association between organizational commitment and customer service effectiveness (Babakus, 2003; Donovan et al., 2004). Other studies (Allen, 1992; Armon, 1994; Kawakubo, 1988) have reported that communication satisfaction, a sense of autonomy, and an

internal locus of control seem to contribute toward organizational commitment, while external control is apparently a negative factor. These findings, it might be noted, are congruent with those from non-educational settings (Chalmers, 1997; Dale, 1997; Fiedler, 1993; Gunter, 1997; Guzley, 1992; Potvin, 1991). The findings show that organizational commitment and personal characteristics have a significant influence on organizational outcomes. A high degree of workplace spirituality and spiritual leadership, as a driver of organizational commitment and productivity, is essential for optimizing organizational performance (Baldrige National Quality Program, 2005; Fry & Matherly, 2006; Kaplan & Norton, 1992, 2004). As a matter of fact, such forces might empower the team to foster higher levels of organizational commitment and productivity (Fry et al., 2005; Malone & Fry, 2003).

Similarly, it appears that organizational commitment is directly linked to educational success. In elementary schools, Hatton (1996) found a strong relationship between teacher commitment and student success. At the tertiary level, Armon (1994) concluded that faculty commitment is one of the most important factors in the success of higher education. Across various settings, there appears to be a direct relationship between training received and the commitment of a workforce. For instance, managerial style has been found to be positively related to a feeling of satisfaction; a friendly, participatory approach might decrease the role of stress. Furthermore, participation and communication in organizations may provide flexibility and worker commitment (Bowling, 2006; Markowitz, 1996).

Accordingly, Iranian researchers have found that organizational commitment positively impacts job satisfaction (Ashrafi, 1995; Moradi, 1995; Rezazadeh, 2002; Salehpoor, 2003; Tadris Hasani, 1994) job performance (Moradi, 1995) turnover (Saroghei, 1996), organizational climate (Noroozi, 2002; Pishva, 1999) and freedom (Gaminiyan, 2002). According to Rezazadeh (2002) there is a significant relationship

between organizational commitment and satisfaction on the part of both the co-workers and the manager.

1.3 Theories, Conceptual Framework, Related Theoretical Propositions of the Study

In theory, a large number of research has shown that there is direct relationship between participative management style and employee's performance and commitment. Giving employees decision-making power boosts both their morale and commitment to the organization (Markowitz, 1996). Employees' participating in making decisions decreases the role of ambiguity and conflict while it increases knowledge as a result of which uncertainty is reduced and this, in turn, provides for motivational benefits leading to performance improvement (Degeling et al., 2000; Healy & McKay, 2000). In addition, Denison (1990) provides empirical evidence that higher levels of employee participation are correlated with better organizational performance. According to Salancik (1977) participation in decision making increases organizational commitment by increasing shared responsibility and by influencing the extent to which employees make committed choices. Indeed, previous findings suggest the highest satisfaction, commitment and performance outcomes are derived from participation which is "... associated with forms that are direct, long-term, and/or (are) of high access" (Cotton et al., 1988, p. 17) and increased employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Guthrie, 2001; Witt et al., 2000).

Although barriers to change still exist, successful managers believe that active employee participation in the organization is the most powerful strategy for designing and implementing lasting change in organizations. Increased participation in the workplace and school will better align us with the enlightened vision of freedom and democracy, helping to create the genuine democracy that nurtures human progress

(Simmons, 1999). Hence, the question of employing the participatory method by the managers becomes an important issue.

In addition, there is an abundance of literature that supports the existence of a strong relationship between participatory management and the organizational commitment of the employees. Conceptually, the relationship can be shown by Figure 1.1. The components of PM and OC were derived from an extensive review of literature, in Chapter Two later.

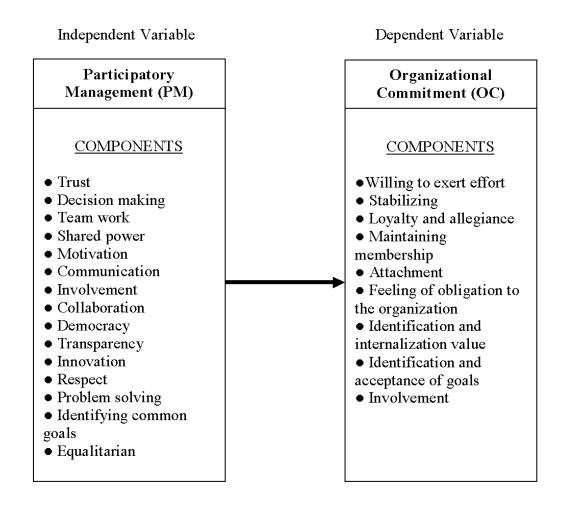


Figure 1.1. Conceptual framework of the study indicating the possible relationships between participatory management and organizational commitment and their constituent components.

From Figure 1.1, it is posited that a high participatory management by managers in schools would lead to a high organizational commitment among teachers, and thus correspondingly high magnitudes of the fifteen components in the participatory management aspect would directly cause high magnitudes of the nine components in the organizational commitment aspect. For example, a high degree of communication in schools would lead to a high degree of commitment components among teachers. The same direct relationship applies to other independent variables in participatory management with respect to the dependent variables in the organizational commitment aspect.

However, it is anticipated that there exists not only a direct relationship between the two variables, but also numerous interrelationships among the 15 components of PM and 9 components of OC. The webs of these intra relationships are shown in Figures 1.2 and 1.3 respectively. Apart from that, to add to the complexity, there also exist numerous interrelationships among the component of the two variables (i.e.,15×9 interrelationships).

The two variables PM and OC have their own effects or consequences and there is abundance of literature about this, but to simplify categorically, Figure 1.2 and Figure 1.3 summarize the effects or consequences of PM and OC respectively. This research, however, would not study the consequences and effects of PM or OC; it would on contrary examine the effects of some PM components on OC.

Based on Figures 1.2 and 1.3, in this research, numerous hypotheses were posited about the correlations among:

- The fifteen components of PM
- The nine components of OC
- The fifteen components of PM and the nine components of OC.

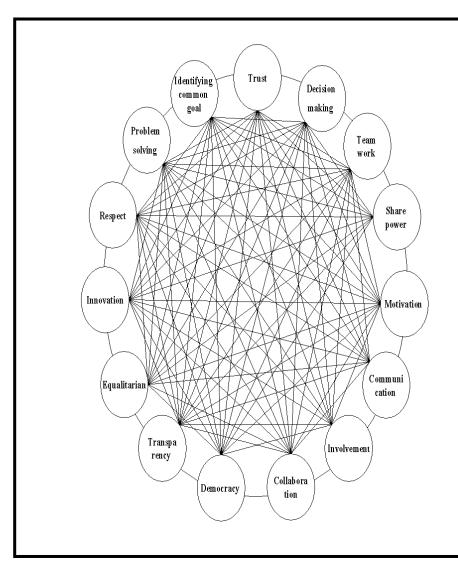
Apart from that, this research would also test the effects of some critical components of PM on OC. It should be borne in mind that this research focused only on female Iranian teachers in government schools in Mashhad city, Iran; hence the results of the study would be applicable, to some extent, only to female teachers' perceptions in Mashhad.

From Figures 1.2 and 1.3, it can be observed that (on the left side) that there are direct correlations among the components of PM and OC, and there are (on the right side) numerous consequences of the two concepts, based on a meta-analysis of PM and OC from a literature search and analysis. For example, the theoretical propositions were that PM had significant effects on:

- Job satisfaction
- Perceived organizational support
- The number of complaints and grievances
- Job performance

Similarly, there were some important effects of OC on:

- Job satisfaction
- Job performance
- Job quality
- Productivity



Job satisfaction

(Bartlett, 1991;Cotton el al. ,1988; Kim, 2002; Lawler & Galbraith ,1993; Likert ,1961; Robert, 2000; Romzek ,1989; Spence-Laschinger & Finegan , 2004; Williams ,1998).

Perceived organizational support

(Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lau & Lim 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger ,2002 Van Yperen et al., 1999).

• Reduced complaints and grievances (Flippo, 1970).

•Support to realize the goals

Brown, 2003; Duke et al., 1980; Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Kefford, 1985; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989.

• Better decisions and greater efficiency

(Connors, 1978; Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Fidler & Bowles, 1989; Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Hoy & Tarter, 1993; Lawler, 1990; Likert, 1967; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989; Lindelow et al., 1989; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Owens, 1998; Powers & Powers, 1983; Rosener, 1990).

• Organizational citizenship behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Job performance

(Huang, 1997; Lau & Lim 2002; Ledford, 1993; McLagan & Nel, 1995; Ming, 2004; Wilson, 1990).

• Attraction and retention of employees (Lawler ,1990).

• Employee satisfaction and self-esteem

Chapman & Boyd, 1986; Doyle & Wells, 1996; Driscoll, 1978; English, 1979; Gamage & Pang, 2003; Gono, 2001; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Hunton et al., 1998; Jenkins & Lawler, 1981; Lawler et al., 1992; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Vroom, 1960; Watkins, 1985

• Open communication

(Blase & Blase, 2001; Butler, 1991; Hoffman et al., 1994; Lawler, 1990; Saunders & Thomhill, 2003).

•Positive work outcomes

Lawler, 1990; Siegall & Worth, 2001; Wilson, 1990.

• Productivity (Gono, 2001; Lawler, 1990)

•Flexibility and change

(Marchant, 1982; Lawler, 1990).

• Turnover, and absenteeism (Lawler, 1990, Flippo, 1970)

Solving problems

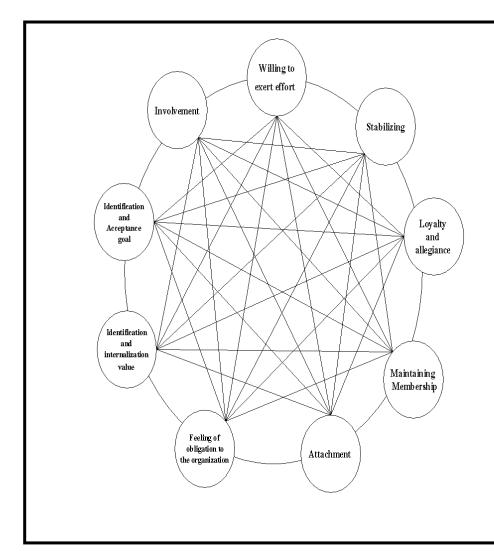
(Blasé & Blasé ,2001; Case, 1998; Cotton e t al., 1988; Flippo, 1970; Ford & Angermeier, 2008; Kim, 2002; Marchant, 1982; Marzano, 2003; Nykodym e t al., 1994; Sashkin ,1984).

• Supportive of the leader

(Hoy et al., 1996; Tarter & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998).

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Figure 1.2. Possible correlated components and possible consequences in participatory management.



Job satisfaction

(Brown & Peterson, 1994; Clugston, 2000; Ko,1996; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Lee et al., 2000; Mowday et al.,1979; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Randall et al., 1990; Reichers, 1985; Romzek 1991; Shin & Reyes,1991; Steers,1977; Spence-Laschinger & Finegan, 2004; Price, 1977; Robinson, 2007; Tepper et al., 2004; Tuzun, 2009).

Organizational citizenship behavior

(Mowday et al ,1982; Mowday, 1999; LaMastro, 2000;Organ &d Ryan, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Somech & Bogler, 2002).

• Absenteeism & turnover

(Ackoff, 1999; Angle & Perry, 1981, 1986; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Blau, 1985, 2003; Buchanan, 1974; Cook & Wall, 1980; Clugston, 2000; Cohen, 1993; Farrell & Petersen, 1984; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lee et al., 2000; Krackhardt & Porter, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982; Jaros et al., 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Randall et al., 1990; Steers, 1977; Larson & Fukami, 1984; Ko, 1996; Pierce & Dunham, 1987; Whitener & Walz, 1993).

•Organizational Performance

(Eisenberger et al., 1990; Mathieu & Zajac ,1990; Mowday, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Mayfiled & Mayfiled 2002).

Perceived organizational support

(Beck ,1999; Eisenberger et al ,1990; Fuller & Barnett, 2003; LaMastro, 2000; Mowday et al ,1982; Mowday ,1999; Meyer & Allen ,1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger , 2002; Settoon et al.,1996; Shore & Tetrick ,1991; Whitener, 2001).

- •Organizational justice (Beck 1999; Spence-Laschinger & Finegan, 2004).
- Productivity (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).
- Service quality (Dienhart & Gregoire, 1993; Oshagbemi, 2000; Yousef, 1998).

Job performance

(Angle & Perry, 1981, 1986; Amold & Feldman, 1982; Becker et al., 1996; Cohen, 1993; Farrell & Petersen, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982; Pierce & Dunham, 1987; Mowday & Dubin, 1974; Steers, 1977; Wong & Low, 2002).

- Expectations (Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1986; Wiener, 1982).
- •leadership style (McCroskey, 2007; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Zeffane, 1994).

•Conflict and role ambiguity

(Acker, 2004; Ceylan & Ulutürk, 2006; DeConinck & Stillwell, 2004; Karadal et al., 2008; Mohr & Puck, 2006).

●Organizational effectiveness (Angle & Perry, 1986; Amold & Feldman, 1982; Cohen, 1993; Dienhart & Gregoire, 1993; Farrell & Petersen, 1984; Ko, 1996; Mowday et al., 1982; Pierce & Dunham, 1987).

Organizational climate

(Appelbaum et al., 2000; Gerhert, 2005; Kinnie et al., 2005; Kinnie et al., 2005; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000; Purcell et al., 2003; Wright & Nishii, 2004).

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Figure 1.3. Possible correlated components and possible consequences in organizational commitment.

Numerous theoretical propositions can be derived from a meta-analysis of past research works done on PM and OC. The meta-analysis has yielded Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 next pages. These tables were used to conceptualize and define the components PM and OC (Figure 1.1 before) and to guide the construction of the survey instruments for this study.

Table 1.1 Components of Participatory Management (PM)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Trust (PM1)	 Participatory management is characterized as a style in which the manager has complete trust in subordinates and much of the decision making is accomplished by group participation. (Robert & Moran, 1998). Managers need to trust in the competence and commitment of employees when inviting their participation in the decision-making process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Whitener et al., 1998). Trust in subordinates is believed to be closely related to managerial willingness to employ participative decision-making processes (Rosen & Jerdee, 1977). Participatory management enhances the levels of trust (Blase & Blase, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Marchant, 1982), and high levels of trust hasten the establishment of strong networks and collaborative relations among the members (Hargreaves, 2001). Confidence, trust, decision-making and shared authority are important aspects of participatory management (Marchant, 1982).
Decision making (PM2)	 Participatory management is characterized as a style by which manager has complete trust in subordinates and much of the decision making is accomplished by group participation (Robert & Moran, 1998). Managers need to trust in the competence and commitment of employees when inviting their participation in the decision-making process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Whitener et al., 1998). Participatory management enhances the levels of trust (Blase & Blase, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Marchant, 1982) and trust has relationship with decision-making (Benito, 2005; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Eugene, 2001). Participatory management refers to those techniques and practices which increase employee involvement in areas which can improve work practices managerial decision making processes, and organizational performance standards (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003). Participative management involves employees in the decision-making process which affects their working conditions (Hall, 1986; Short & Greer, 1989). Participation in decision making is an indispensable condition of participatory management. Hence participation in decision making is recognized as a component of effective participatory management (Pashiardis, 1994). Participative management encompasses various employees' involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers •Participation can be conceived as a process in which power or influence is shared. This is accomplished through the making of decisions in which both management and employees engage (Kaplan, 1975). •Participatory Management is a process in which subordinates share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate superiors (Gono, 2001; Riesgraf, 2002). •Participative Management encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Case, 1998). •Participation is a motivational only to the manager who is trying to make the right decision and get it accepted by the group. Participation demands real commitment by everyone involved (Dutton, 1973). •Through a judicious use of participatory management, leaders may make sound decisions by drawing upon the collective expertise, experience, and wisdom of their employees (Lichtenstein, 2000). •Participatory management is a new theory; it maintains that staff involvement in decision-making yields a high degree of professional **Decision making** (PM2) commitment, high morale, job satisfaction and increased productivity (Likert, 1961). •Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development and other initiatives, decisions and resources which affects them. (Rietbergen and Narayan, 1997). •Participatory management is the process of actively involving all subordinates in the decision-making process (Anthony, 1978). •Cotton et al. (1988) classify participatory management along six criteria. One of them is participation in work decisions where workers have significant influence in important decision-making. •Participatory management is a key decision-making processes (Marchant, 1982; Saxton, 2004). •Participatory management is the practice of empowering employees to give staff a share in decision-making (Albanese, 1975). • Confidence, trust, decision-making and share authority are important aspects of participatory management (Marchant, 1982). •Participatory management result in better decisions and greater efficiency (Connors, 1978; Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Fidler & Bowles, 1989; Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Hoy & Tarter, 1993; Likert, 1967; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989; Lindelow et al., 1989; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Owens, 1998; Powers & Powers, 1983; Rosener, 1990).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Decision making (PM2)	 In the participatory approach employees may participate directly in decision making or indirectly through a representative elected to present employee ideas or concerns to a group (Nykodym et al., 1994; Cotton et al., 1988). Participatory management is known as employee involvement; employees participate in making the decision or setting the goal (Edwards, 2002).
Team work (PM3)	 Participatory management is characterized as a style in which the manager has complete trust in subordinates and much of the decision-making is accomplished by group participation (Robert & Moran, 1998). Participative management and employee empowerment, both individually and in teams, is a critical component of the new corporate strategy (Lawler 1993; Ledford 1993; Matthews et al., 2003; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). In participatory management, teamwork provides a structure for assembling teachers with diverse backgrounds, perspectives, disciplines, and expertise needed for these tasks (Zahavy & Somech, 2002).
Share power (PM4)	 Participation can be conceived as a process in which power or influence is shared. This is accomplished through the making of decisions in which both management and employees engage (Kaplan, 1975). Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development and other initiatives, decisions and resources which affects them (Rietbergen & Narayan, 1997). Confidence, trust, decision-making and sharing authority are the most important aspect of participatory management (Marchant, 1982). Participatory management is a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003). Teams in schools serve diverse purposes such as management teams involved with administrative issues (Zahavy & Somech, 2002).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Motivation (PM5)	 ●Participative management is particularly well suited to science-based organizations whose key staff are noted for their creativity, intrinsic motivation for work that interests them, stronger affiliation with their discipline than their organization, and sensitivity to directive management (Likert, 1969; Siepert 1964; Steele, 1969). ●McDaniel and Ashmos (1980) argue that to obtain maximum participation from all group members, each member must not only possess the motivation to participate but also be skilled in communication. ●Participatory management increase motivation (Hamzehkhanloo, 2003; Degeling et al., 2000; Healy & McKay, 2000; Likert, 1969; Steele, 1969). ●Participatory management is a complex concept that consists of several dependent distinct dimensions; therefore the readiness of principals to utilize participative approaches to decision making stem mainly out of pragmatic motives to achieve valued organizational results. (Somech, 2002) ●Motivational and cognitive mechanisms are the most important mechanisms in participatory approaches (Nykodym et al., 1994). ●Participatory management is related to employee satisfaction, motivation, morale and self-esteem (Chapman & Boyd, 1986; Doyle & Wells, 1996; Driscoll, 1978; English, 1979; Gamage & Pang, 2003; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Hunton et al., 1998; Jenkins & Lawler, 1981; Lawler et al., 1992; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Vroom, 1960; Watkins, 1985).
Communication (PM6)	 Participatory management enhances the levels of trust (Blase & Blase, 2001; Marchant, 1982; Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and trust has relationship with communications (Eugene, 2001). In participatory management, the manager allows free flow of information through open communication channels (Matthews et al., 2003; Owens, 2001; Wood et al., 2004). Participatory imanagement is related with open communication (Blase & Blase, 2001; Butler Jr., 1991; Hoffman et al., 1994; Saunders & Thornhill, 2003). Participatory management helps in labor-management relations (Kearney & Hays, 1994; Nurick, 1982; Ospina & Yaroni 2003).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Communication (PM6)	 Participatory management practices have created new channels of communication (Ford & Angermeier, 2008). McDaniel and Ashmos (1980) argue that to obtain maximum participation from all group members, each member must not only possess the motivation to participate but also be skilled in communication.
Involvement (PM7)	 Participatory management refers to those techniques and practices which increase employee involvement in areas which can improve work practices managerial decision making processes, and organizational performance standards (Gilberg, 1988). Participative management encompasses various employees' involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003). Participative management encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Case, 1998). Participation is trying to make the right decision and get it accepted by the group. Participation demands real commitment by everyone involved (Dutton, 1973). Participatory management maintains that staff involvement in decision-making yields a high degree of professional commitment, high morale, job satisfaction and increased productivity (Likert, 1961). Participatory management is the process of actively involving all subordinates in the decision-making process (Anthony, 1978). Cotton et al. (1988) classifies participatory management along six criteria. One of them is informal participation which involves no formal structure to facilitate participatory management, but where managers are receptive to suggestions. In participatory approach employees can be involved in making organizational changes (Cotton et al., 1988; Nykodym et al., 1994; Sashkin, 1984). Participative management attempts to involve stakeholders toward meaningful involvement (Waters et al., 2003). Participative management can be defined as a system engaging employees as willing co-producers of a better future (Oosthuizen et al, 1999).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Involvement (PM7)	 Participative management and employee involvement accumulate, a wide range of benefits, and organizations are encouraged to adopt a variety of participation strategies (Cheng & Cheung, 2003). In Participatory approach teachers' attitudes toward involvement and taking responsibility in decisions are positive with regard to the introduction and conduct of educational innovations (Geijsel et.al, 2003).
Collaboration (PM8)	 Participatory management enhancing the levels of trust (Blase & Blase, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Marchant, 1982) and trust has relationship with collaboration (Eugene, 2001; Dee & Henkin, 2001; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993; Larson & LaFasto, 1989). Through a judicious use of participatory management, leaders may make sound decisions by drawing upon the collective expertise, experience, and wisdom of their employees (Lichtenstein, 2000). Participatory approaches, enhancing the levels of trust and high levels of trust establish of strong networks and collaborative relations among the members (Hargreaves, 2001, Naghipoor, 2003). Participatory management encourages decentralization and implementation of collaborative school governance (Anderson, 1998; Chan & Chui, 1997; Walker & Dimmock, 2000).
Democracy (PM9)	 Participation in decision making at the workplace is seen as central to the democratic vision and basic to the good society (Greenberg, 1986). Democracy is a benefit of participatory management (Bartle, 2007). Participation in the workplace and school will better align us with the Enlightenment's vision of freedom and democracy, helping to create the genuine democracy that nurtures human progress (Simmons, 1999; Wood et al., 2004). Participatory approaches increase authority, freedom and autonomy for organizational members to make decisions affecting their work (Matthews et al., 2003; Wood et al., 2004).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Democracy (PM9)	 The increasing popularity of participatory approach and teamwork in school reflects the widely shared democracy ideology (Zeichner, 1991). The concept democracy was developed in terms of a new set of beliefs. These include, flattening the hierarchy, shared leadership, accountability and participatory management (Adriana, 1999). Democracy according to participatory theory must have full participation in order to obtain the required psychological effect from the participation (Pateman, 1970).
Transparency (PM10)	 Transparency is important in participatory approach (Bartle, 2007; Bessire, 2005; Christensen, 2002). Schuler suggests that participatory approach is related to the transparency, and therefore, the more participation the lower the levels of ambiguity (Nykodym, et al., 1994; Schuler, 1980) Participatory approach is suitable to transparency; administrators can improve care by increasing transparency (Jaffe et al., 2006).
Innovation (PM11)	 Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development and other initiatives, decisions and resources which affects them (Rietbergen & Narayan,1997). Today, most innovations are being introduced in the field of educational management to encourage decentralization and implementation of collaborative school governance (Anderson, 1998; Chan & Chui, 1997; Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Participatory management increases creativity and innovation (Likert, 1969; Siepert 1964; Steele, 1969). In the participatory approach it is important to consider teachers' attitudes toward involvement and taking responsibility in decisions with regard to the introduction and conduct of educational innovations (Geijsel et.al, 2003).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Respect (PM12)	•In the participatory approach, managers express appreciation when a subordinate does a good job, shows thoughtfulness and consideration of others and show respect for the staff (Albanese, 1975). •Participatory management is one measure on which teachers and administrators agree in large part and it has helped to replace communication barriers with openness, respect, honesty and trust. (Dondero, 1997).
Problem solving (PM13)	 Participative management encompasses various employees' involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003). Participative Management encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Case, 1998). Cotton et al. (1988) classify participatory management along six criteria. One of them is short-term participation in which temporary arrangements give employees decisional authority – common in specific problem solving and process improvement task force arrangements. Participative management encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002). Participative management promotes the adoption of problem solving, flexibility and change. (Marchant, 1982). Participative management helps in identifying and solving problems (Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Smith, 1969). In the participatory approach employees can take part in solving problems, which involves defining the issues and setting the alternative courses of action (Cotton et al., 1988; Nykodym et al., 1994; Sashkin, 1984). Participatory approach uses the organization's collective knowledge to better solve organizational problem (Ford & Angermeier, 2008).

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Identifying common goal (PM14)	 Participatory management is a complex concept that consists of several dependent distinct dimensions; therefore the readiness of principals to utilize participative approaches to decision making mainly out of pragmatic motives to achieve valued organizational results (Somech, 2002). Participative management Support to realize the goals (Duke et al., 1980; Gamage, 1996; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Kefford, 1985; Lindelow & Bentley, 1989). Participative management unique feature is that it has organizational objectives and implementation strategies (Gerry, 1979). Participation can also take the form of management by objectives, the process whereby both the higher and lower echelons of an organization identify common objectives, define areas of responsibility and use those yardsticks as guidelines for making the various services work (Odiorne, 1972). In participatory approach employees can take part in establishing a goal (Cotton et al., 1988; Nykodym e t al., 1994; Sashkin, 1984).
Equalitarian (PM15)	 Cotton et al. (1988) classify participatory management along six criteria. One of them is employee ownership, forms of participatory management in which employees are company stock holders and share in the profits. According to McLagan and Nel (1996), in an authoritarian system, managers think and employees do. In contrast, under participation, people in different positions think at the same time about the same things, but not in the same way. In an authoritarian system, people in senior positions are management; they manage the workplace. In participatory management power inequities are balanced (Harchar & Hyle, 1996). Participatory management increase authority, freedom and autonomy for organizational members to make decisions affecting their work (Matthews et al., 2003; Wood et al., 2004). Participative management is a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal (Kim, 2002; Marzano, 2003).

Table 1.2
Components of Organizational Commitment (OC)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Willingness to exert effort (OC1)	 Organizational commitment is a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Lambert, 2004; Mowday et al., 1982; Price, 1997). Organizational commitment represents the employee's attitude toward the organization, whereas work effort reveals an individual's attitude toward tasks (Morrow, 1993). Organizational commitment generally is recognized as an individual's identification with a particular organization, the internalization of the values and goals of that organization, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment can be characterized by a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert substantial effort on behalf of the organization (Porter et al., 1974).
Stabilizing (OC2)	•Organizational commitment is a psychological stabilizing or obliging force that binds an individual to courses of action relevant to the target (Bentein et al., 2005; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).
Loyalty and allegiance (OC3)	 Organizational commitment is loyalty to the organization and mobilization of all employees in the development of its goals, purposes, and infrastructure (Lambert, 2004; Lee et al., 1999). Normative commitment refers to an employee's belief that he or she ought to stay with the organization and continue to develop as a result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer (Meyer et al., 1993). Normative commitment is characterized by employees' belief that they are obligated to stay with particular organizations because of personal loyalty and allegiance (Finegan, 2000). Commitment has been examined under many names over the year's teamwork, loyalty, spirit de corps (Fayol, 1949).

Table 1.2 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Loyalty and allegiance (OC3)	 Organizational forms of commitment in education may be manifested in a positive orientation toward, identification with involvement in, and sense of loyalty to the school (Glickman, 1993; Porter et al., 1974). Commitment is a willingness and loyalty to a social system or an effective attachment to an organization (Buchanan, 1974).
Maintaining membership (OC4)	 Organizational commitment is a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982; Hackett Lapierre, 2001). Normative commitment refers to an employee's belief that he or she ought to stay with the organization and develops as result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer (Meyer et al. 1993). Meyer et al. (1993) state that organizational commitment is a psychological state that has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. Commitment is defined as a function of the rewards and costs associated with organizational membership (Alutto et al., 197 Becker, 1960; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). Organizational commitment can be characterized by a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, willingness to exert substantial effort on behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al., 1974). Commitment is a willingness and loyalty to a social system or an effective attachment to an organization (Buchanan, 1974).

Table 1.2 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Maintaining membership (OC4)	 Mathieu and Zajac (1990) define organizational commitment as an attachment to or identification with the organization. Such an attachment may be considered as an emotional response, particularly when the individual believes strongly in the organization's goals and values and/or demonstrates a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Continuance commitment refers to employees' assessment of whether the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying. Employees who perceive that the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying remain because they need to (Meyer & Allen, 1997).
Attachment (OC5)	 Organizational commitment is an attitude of attachment to the organization (Mowday et al., 1982) and employee's emotional attachment to organization may engender stronger personal commitment and enable the employee to experience a sense of belonging (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Organizational commitment can be referred to as the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to a social system or an effective attachment to an organization apart from the purely instrumental worth of the relationship (Buchanan, 1974). Commitment involves one's psychological attachment or bond to the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter et al., 1974). Organizational commitment is an important attitude to foster among employees to attach them to the organization (Hackett & Lapierre, 2001). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) define organizational commitment as an attachment to or identification with the organization. Such an attachment may be considered as an emotional response, particularly when the individual believes strongly in the organization's goals and values and/or demonstrates a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

Table 1.2 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Attachment (OC5)	 Affective commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment stay with the organization because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment is often described as a form of emotional attachment (Meyer et al., 1993)
Feelings of obligation to the organization (OC6)	 Commitment is an obligation that restricts freedom of action (Chena, 2006). Normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to the organization. Employees with high levels of normative commitment stay with the organization because they feel they ought to (Meyer & Allen, 1997).
Identification and internalization value (OC7)	 Organizational commitment represents identification and internalization of the goals of the organization (Lambert, 2004). Organizational commitment generally is recognized as an individual's identification with a particular organization, the internalization of the values and goals of that organization, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment can be characterized by a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (Porter et al., 1974; Tanner, 2007). Commitment helps workers to identify with the organization's rules, rewards and values (Katz, 1978). Organizational commitment can be defined as the worker's desires to stay in the organization and to work together to adopt the objectives and values of the organization (Morrow, 1983).

Table 1.2 (Continued)

Components	Various Inferences and Theoretical Propositions Concerning Components of PM by Past Researchers
Identification and acceptance goal (OC8)	 Organizational commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (Mowday et al., 1982). Organizational commitment generally is recognized as an individual's identification with a particular organization, the internalization of the values and goals of that organization, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment can be characterized by a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (Porter et al., 1974) Commitment helps workers to identify with the organization's rules, rewards and values (Katz, 1978). Organizational commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (Mowday et al, 1982; Price, 1997). Commitment may be reflected in affective reactions to the characteristics of the organization, in feelings of attachment to institutional goals and values, and in teacher-administrator relationships that extend beyond prescribed employee-employer transactions (Cook & Wall, 1980; Glickman, 1993; Goldring & Rallis, 1993).
Involvement (OC9)	 Organizational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1982; Lambert, 2004; Steers, 1977) Affective commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment stay with the organization because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Bacon and Blyton (2001) report that efforts to increase organizational commitment are through implementing involvement. Commitment is viewed as a combination of psychological linkages to the organization and involvement (Buchanan, 1974). Organizational forms of commitment in education may be manifested in a positive orientation toward, identification with, involvement in, and sense of loyalty to the school (Glickman, 1993; Porter et al., 1974).

1.4 Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine the application of participatory management within the purview of school-based management, in female government high schools districts in Mashhad, Iran as well as to examine the existence of potential organizational commitment among female government high school teachers.

The main objective of the study was to determine the extent of participation of teachers in decision making process in high schools in Mashhad districts in Iran. This was because participatory management in Iran was a new phenomenon. In addition, this study investigated the extent of organizational commitment among high school teachers of female schools in Mashhad districts. Organizational commitment among teachers had been increasingly problematic in Iran because of the low status portrayed by the teaching profession in Iranian society.

The second objective of the study was to determine the extent of relationship between participatory management and organizational commitment in female government high schools in Mashhad districts as well as to examine the problems and constraints affecting the use of participatory management. This study investigated the differences between participatory management and organizational commitment with regard to the different districts, teachers' age-groups and teaching experience of teachers. In addition, this study tried to identify the probable constraints in implementing participatory management in female government high schools.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the objectives outlined in the previous section, the research questions to be answered by this study were as follows:

- 1. What is the extent of the practice of participatory management in female government high schools in Mashhad districts in Iran?
- 2. What is the extent of organizational commitment of women teachers in female government high schools in Mashhad districts?
- 3. What are the extents of relationships among the fifteen components of participatory management and the nine components of organizational commitment with regard to female government high school teachers in Mashhad districts?
- 4. What are the differences in participatory management and organizational commitment with regard to the different school districts, teachers' age-groups, and teachers' teaching experience in female government high schools?
- 5. What are the constraints in implementing participatory management in female government high schools in Mashhad?

Table 1.3
The Link Between Objectives and Research Questions

Objectives	Research Questions
1. Determine the extent of the participation of teachers in decision making process in high schools in Mashhad districts in Iran.	RQ1. What is the extent of the practice of participatory management in female government high schools in Mashhad districts in Iran?
 Determine extent of organizational commitment among high school teachers of female schools in Mashhad districts Determine the extent of relationship between participatory management and organizational commitment in female government high schools in Mashhad districts 	RQ2. What is the extent of organizational commitment of women teachers in female government high schools in Mashhad districts? RQ3. What are the extents of relationships among the fifteen components of participatory management and the nine components of organizational commitment with regard to female government high school teachers in Mashhad districts?
 4. Investigate the differences in participatory management and organizational commitment with regard to the different districts, teachers' age-groups, and teaching experience of teachers 5. Identify the probable constraints in implementing 	RQ4. What are the differences in participatory management and organizational commitment with regard to the different school districts, teachers' age-groups, and teachers' teaching experience in female government high schools? RQ5. What are the constraints in implementing
participatory management in female government high schools.	participatory management in female government high schools in Mashhad?

1.6 Significance of the Study

PM and OC are complex concepts consisting of several dependent yet distinct dimensions. Previous research consider a small number of component for PM and OC. Hence, the current research has been designed to focus on PM and OC as multi dimensional phenomena in high schools, particularly in Iran. Therefore, it requires the school principals' readiness and willingness to utilize participative approaches to decision-making for achieving valued organizational results.

This research seeks to establish the extent of correlations and effects of PM components on OC in the educational setting, so the findings of this study provide suitable feedback to implement PM and reduce resistance of teachers in female high schools. Additionally this finding could lend as the possible reason why, in reality, female high schools are better than male high schools in Mashhad, Iran.

Additionally this research would trigger more research on similar topics in Iranian schools and thus the findings would help to obtain a more comprehensive view on the applicability of participatory management in enhancing organizational commitment of staff and organizational performance of schools.

The findings of the study could be used to obtain a better perspective on the theoretical relationships between the elements of participatory management and the elements of organizational commitment. If there were strong relationships, then participatory management could be used for improving organizational commitment and the means to get teacher participation collegially in decision making process for school improvement and bringing new changes in school management.

However, this study would only reveal the direct and positive relationship and effects of PM on OC, and still could not prove conclusively that school quality and effectiveness were dependent on PM and OC, as suggested by previous research works and literature.

This research could be considered as an exploratory study in the Mashhad city districts. Although the results were satisfactory in one place, it might not have any positive effect at another region. Having knowledge about the PM and OC in different districts would provide a better understanding for principals and teachers in doing a job and achieving the goals of the organization.

The results of this study would be used to draw up the theoretical model of correlation ship among the elements of PM and OC for other researchers to affirm and improve upon.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This research only focuses on female government high schools and all male schools were not taken into consideration. Females had participation more than males in high school (Heidari, 1998). Most managers in female government high school use consult and participatory style (Fatahei, 1998). According to Momayen (1995) there was better efficiency in female high schools than male high schools. In addition, managers in government high schools were more effective than those in private high schools (Ashkavandei, 1995). Thus, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to primary and guidance schools with different operations and backgrounds.

Furthermore, the research would be conducted in female high schools only because the researcher can easily access and obtain assistance from female principals and female respondents. Separation of gender in schools is largely practiced in the Islamic Republic of Iran. Thus the findings of this study would be largely applicable to female high schools, but not to the male high schools.

This study used the survey method and the accuracy of the findings depended on the honesty of the respondents in answering the questionnaire items. It had been assumed that the respondents would express their true feelings and opinions in this study. However, this might not be so as they might have given the answers that they felt were better for projecting the image of the school and were socially more acceptable. In this research, a set of questionnaires had been used for gathering the data and thus the accuracy of the findings also depended on the respondents' understanding of the statements in the questionnaires. There was a possibility that some of the respondents might not have totally comprehended the intent of the statements and gave inaccurate responses. This would then affect the accuracy of the results.

In addition, this study represents only the female teachers' perceptions at the time of distributing the questionnaires and there might be some events in the community that could distort the teachers' state of mind while completing the questionnaires.

1.8 Definition of Terms

1.8.1 Female Government High School

In the Islamic Republic of Iran, male and female students go to segregated schools. Female high schools in Iran are institutions meant to admit girls, ranging in age from 14 to 18 years old. The high school programs require the completion of 96 credit units of study before the students are awarded the High School Diploma. Next, the students proceed to the matriculation level for another one year before entering the university level (Education System in Iran, 2007). The Ministry of Education continuously strives to improve the education system through new policies which include policies that affect girls' education (Iranian Education, 2001).

1.8.2 School Management

School management comprises directing, controlling and harmonizing a group of people such as students, teachers and other persons towards accomplishing a goal. School management often operates through various functions, often classified as planning, organizing, leading, motivating, controlling, staffing, delegating, reporting and budgeting. In addition, school management encompasses the deployment and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and any other resources deemed necessary.

1.8.3 School-Based Management

School based management (SBM) offers increased authority and decision-making power at the school site within a centrally coordinated framework (Boyd, 1990). In school based management teachers are encouraged to develop curriculum, select or create instructional materials (David, 1989) and to participate and increase their involvement in school planning and decision-making processes (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991). Therefore increasing the school's authority and empowering the teachers are assumed to enhance school effectiveness.

1.8.4 Participatory Management

Participatory Management is a process in which subordinates share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate superiors (Gono, 2001). Oosthuizen and du Toit (1999), state that participative management can be defined as a system engaging employees as willing co-producers of a better future. Participation can also take the form of management by objectives, the process whereby both the higher and lower echelons of an organization identify common objectives, define areas of responsibility and use those yardsticks as guidelines for making the various services work (Odiorne, 1972).

Based on extensive literature review, PM comprises fifteen main components, namely:

1. Trust

Trust is defined as the confidence and belief of integrity given by the school principal to teachers in doing a job and achieving the goals of the organization.

2. Decision making

Decision making is defined as a process of producing solutions or policies for resolving problems, issues, conflicts, or methods of doing an activity or a job.

3. Team work

Team work is defined as the collective and collegial spirit of working together as a united group for achieving objectives and goals of the organization or for accomplishing a targeted activity or project.

4. Shared power

Shared power is defined as the process in which a school principal delegates some powers and authority to teachers/employee.

5. Motivation

Motivation refers to the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of behavior (Geen, 1995) which directs behavior toward particular goals (Ormrod, 2003; 2006).

6. Communication

Communication is a process of relaying and accepting information among persons. It is an interactive interact ional process by means of language in performing tasks.

7. Involvement

Involvement is defined as engaging employees in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim, 2002).

8. Collaboration

Collaboration is defined as the means of direct interaction between at least two co-equal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work toward a common goal (Friend and Cook, 1992).

9. Democracy

Democracy is defined as the process which in a principal tries to create psychological effect and democratic ideology in organization in order the employee/teacher feels free. Dialogue and choice of options are the salient features of democracy.

10. Transparency

Transparency is defined as a way of presenting information of common interests in a clear, honest, and truthful way to members of a school organization.

11. Innovation

Innovation is generally understood as the introduction of a new thing or method. Innovation is the embodiment, combination, or synthesis of knowledge in original, relevant, valued new products, processes, or services (Luecke and Katz, 2003).

12. Respect

Respect is defined as recognition of other people's rights, properties personalities, and values.

13. Problem solving

Problem solving is defined as a process for deriving a solution to a problem through the use of a certain strategy or system.

14. Identifying common goals

It refers to the situation where the manager helps subordinates identify goal and helps them achieve goals. In an organization, it is a way of ensuring that participants are clearly aware of what is expected from them (Cotton et al., 1988).

15. Equalitarian

Equalitarian refers, to the increase in authority, freedom and autonomy for organizational members to make decisions affecting their work and balance the inequities of power in organization.

1.8.5 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment invariably refers to the psychological state characterizing the relationship between an employee and an employing organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment is a psychological stabilizing or obliging force that binds an individual to courses of action relevant to the target of that force the organization (Bentein et al., 2005; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).Organizational commitment generally is recognized as an individual's identification with a particular organization, the internalization of the values and goals of that organization, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Angle and Perry, 1981; Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974).

Organizational commitment is the strength of identification and involvement with the organization (Steers, 1977). It can be characterized by a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert substantial effort on behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al., 1974).

Based on extensive literature review, OC comprises nine main components, namely:

1. Willing to exert effort

Willing to exert effort is defined as the degree to which employee/teacher is willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Angle and Perry, 1981).

2. Stabilizing

Stabilizing refers to facilities/ offers given by the principal in order to create an environment that employees will be bound to the organization willingly.

3. Loyalty and allegiance

Loyalty and allegiance are defined as the degree to which employee/teacher is truthful to the organization without prejudice despite whatever unfavorable situations.

4. Maintaining membership

Maintaining membership is related to the employee/teacher who perceives that the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying because they need to maintain the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

5. Attachment

Attachment is defined and considered as an emotional response and strong desire to stay with the job and the organization (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

6. Feeling of obligation to the organization

Employee/teacher believes that he or she ought to have the professional and moral responsibilities in performing their duties for the sake of the organization.

7. Identification and internalization value

Being knowledgeable about organization values and missions and being committed to perform the related duties and activities.

8. Identification and acceptance of goals

Identification and acceptance of goals means the employee/teacher tries to identify and accept the goals while developing their willingness and ability to recognize those goals and help to achieve organizational goal (Porter et al., 1974).

9. Involvement

Involvement refers to employee's/teacher's willingness to engage unconditionally in working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making. (Lambert, 2004).

1.8.6 School Structure in IRAN

The Islamic Republic of Iran bears the responsibility of educating more than 18 million students at gender-segregated schools. General education is free and parents are obliged to enroll their six year-old children in schools.

The education system comprises 5 years of primary, 3 years of lower secondary, and 3 years of upper secondary and one year of pre-university education. The education system is structured on the following five cycles:

- a) Pre-primary Education: is a one-year course for five-year old children. Education at this level is optional and the purpose is to prepare the children to enter primary education.
- b) Primary Education: This is a five-year course obligatory for six-year old children and continues up to the age of 11.
- c) Lower Secondary Education (Guidance): This is a three-year course for students between 11 and 14 years of age.
- d) Upper Secondary Education (High school): This is a three-year course divided into three branches of study: theoretical, technical-vocational and skill education (kar-danesh). Students who select this branch of study should pass 96 credit units in order to be awarded a high school certificate in one of the three fields:
- 1- Literature and Humanities, 2- Mathematics-Physics, 3- Experimental Science
- e) Pre-university Course: This is a one-year course for students who complete their upper secondary education and seek to enter universities or other higher education institutions (Education System in Iran, 2007).