

1-1-1990

The professionalization of teachers : the first step toward the restructuring of vocational education.

Angela L. Avery
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

Recommended Citation

Avery, Angela L., "The professionalization of teachers : the first step toward the restructuring of vocational education." (1990). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 4517.
<https://doi.org/10.7275/13473039> https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/4517

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

312066011953941

THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF TEACHERS:
THE FIRST STEP TOWARD THE RESTRUCTURING
OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

A Dissertation Presented

by

ANGELA L. AVERY

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May, 1990

School of Education

© 1990 Angela L. Avery

All Rights Reserved

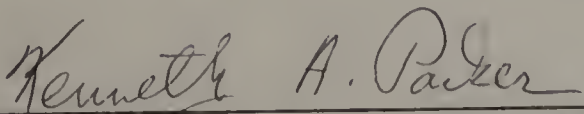
THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF TEACHERS:
THE FIRST STEP TOWARD THE RESTRUCTURING OF
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

A Dissertation Presented

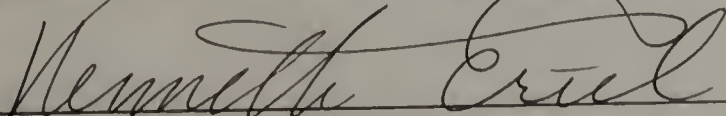
by

ANGELA L. AVERY

Approved as to style and content:



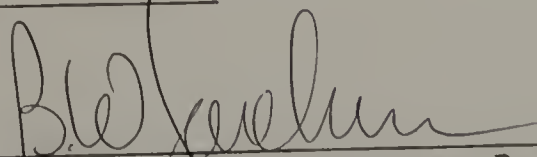
Kenneth A. Parker, Chairperson



Kenneth Ertel, Member



Frank Lattuca, Member



Marilyn Haring-Hidore, Dean
School of Education

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many individuals to whom I owe a debt of gratitude for their patience and support throughout my effort.

To my parents, Ted and Julia, who provided the opportunity for me to pursue further education which changed the course of my life. The knowledge that they will always support me has been my safety net.

To Dr. Kenneth Parker, Chairperson of my dissertation committee, whose sage advice, humor and patience made the study an exciting, meaningful piece of research.

To Dr. Kenneth Ertel, whose fascinating idea became the study and who offered encouragement, and essential advice throughout its design and development. He always insisted that I reach for more.

To Dr. Frank Lattuca, whose concern for students and understanding of vocational-technical education made him a valuable committee member.

To the teachers and administrators of the eight vocational-technical high schools who shared their perceptions and concerns.

To Rose Marie Giaconia who offered much technical expertise and support with data analysis.

To Dr. David Cronin who enthusiastically endorsed the study.

To Bob and Diane Rebeiro who loaned the hardware for printing.

To Kevin, Michael, Jeff, and Jessica for their patience with my studies and their assistance with the survey preparation and mailing. I hope that they will enjoy the lifelong opportunity for learning which has been mine.

To my husband, John, who is my best friend and colleague and without whose encouragement and support this goal would not have been attained. From the conceptualization of the idea through the coding of the data and editing of the text, he endured my immersion in this project.

ABSTRACT

THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF TEACHERS: THE FIRST STEP TOWARD THE RESTRUCTURING OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

MAY, 1990

ANGELA L. AVERY, B.S., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

M.Ed., SPRINGFIELD COLLEGE

Ed.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AT AMHERST

Directed by Professor Kenneth A. Parker

The purpose of the study was to address the issues regarding professionalization of teachers in regional vocational-technical schools in southeastern Massachusetts. Professionalization was defined as the degree to which teachers participate in organizational decisions. The study was intended to determine the perceptions of vocational teachers, academic teachers, and administrators toward professionalization. The extent to which teachers in eight regional vocational-technical high schools were empowered was also explored. A review of the literature was incorporated into the design of the study.

A survey was conducted at the eight schools. Five hundred two teachers and administrators responded (86 percent). The questionnaire measured six dimensions which included: horizontal and vertical communication,

teaching behavior, leadership, centralization of influence, empowerment, and satisfaction.

The findings indicate that there are many differences between the three groups with regard to the role of teachers in school decisions. Administrators tended to overestimate teacher influence. They rated nine of the fourteen areas higher than teachers. Vocational and academic teacher ratings were similar in nine of fourteen dimensions and categories. Vocational teachers rated four areas higher including teaching behavior and willingness.

There is evidence of professionalization in the eight schools. Empowered schools show evidence of strong administrative influence, facilitative leadership, vertical communication and satisfied respondents.

Key Words: education, secondary education, vocational-technical education, teacher empowerment, professionalization, professional development, organizational theory.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
Chapter	
I. THE PROBLEM.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Rationale.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	8
The Research Questions	9
Definition of Terms.....	10
Summary.....	12
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	14
Introduction.....	14
Teacher Empowerment.....	15
Teaching as a Profession.....	16
The Professionalization of Teaching.....	21
The Organization of Vocational Education.....	23
The Context for Change in Vocational Education.....	25
The Teacher.....	28
The Administrator.....	32
The School Environment.....	36
Lessons from Business and Industry.....	38
Summary.....	41
III. METHODOLOGY.....	43
Introduction.....	43
Population.....	44
Instrumentation.....	47
Teaching Behavior.....	51
Facilitative Leadership.....	52
Centralization of Influence.....	52
Communication.....	53
Teacher Empowerment.....	54
Satisfaction.....	55
Curriculum.....	55

Resources.....	56
Policy.....	56
Willingness.....	57
Disparity.....	57
The Pilot Test.....	58
Data Collection.....	59
Data Analysis.....	60
Limitations.....	62
Delimitations.....	62
Summary.....	63
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	64
Introduction.....	64
Collection and Presentation of the Data.....	64
Respondent Characteristics.....	68
Reliability of Items within Dimensions/Categories.....	72
Relationship between Dimensions/Categories.....	74
Relationship between Years of Experience and Responses.....	77
Addressing the Research Questions.....	79
Similarities and Differences Among Teachers and Administrators.....	79
Teaching Behavior.....	82
Centralization of Influence.....	84
Teacher Influence.....	84
Administrator Influence.....	91
Relative Centralization of Influence.....	91
Communication.....	92
Horizontal Communication.....	92
Vertical Communication.....	93
Facilitative Leadership.....	94
Empowerment.....	95
Satisfaction.....	96
Curriculum.....	98
Resources.....	98
Policy.....	99
Willingness.....	99
Disparity.....	100
Summary of Similarities and Differences.....	101
Similarities and Differences Among the Eight Schools.....	103

Addressing the Research Question.....	103
---------------------------------------	-----

Teaching Behavior.....	104
Centralization of Influence.....	106

Teacher Influence.....	109
Administrator Influence.....	109
Relative Centralization of Influence....	110

Communication.....	111
--------------------	-----

Horizontal Communication.....	111
Vertical Communication.....	112

Facilitative Leadership.....	112
Empowerment.....	113
Satisfaction.....	114
Curriculum.....	115
Resources.....	116
Policy.....	117
Willingness.....	117
Disparity.....	118

Summary of Similarities and Differences Among the Schools.....	119
---	-----

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	124
---	-----

Summary of the Study.....	124
Conclusions.....	127

Respondent Characteristics.....	127
Examination of the Research Questions.....	128

Implications.....	132
-------------------	-----

Recommendations for Further Study and Action.....	137
---	-----

APPENDIX

A. SCHOOL ASSESSMENT SURVEY.....	141
B. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	153
C. AUTHOR PERMISSION TO ADAPT SURVEY.....	162
D. COVER LETTER AND LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT.....	164
E. CHI-SQUARE TABLES.....	167

BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	177
-------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1.	The Regional Vocational-Technical High Schools....	45
2.	School Assessment Survey Dimensions.....	48
3.	Distribution of Surveys by Job Title/School.....	65
4.	Survey Returns for Each School.....	66
5.	Survey Returns by Job Category and School.....	67
6.	Respondent Level of Education by Job Title.....	69
7.	Survey Respondents by Gender and Job Title.....	70
8.	Respondent Experience in Current Position.....	71
9.	Reliability Estimates for Items within Dimensions and Categories.....	73
10.	Relationships between Dimensions and Categories..	75
11.	Relationships between Years of Experience and Respondent Ratings.....	78
12.	Analysis of Variance for Differences among Respondents by Dimensions/Categories.....	80
13.	Mean Ratings of Respondents that Differ Significantly by Dimensions and Categories....	83
14.	Significant Chi-Square Indices by Job Title and Dimension and Category.....	85
15.	Analysis of Variance for Differences among Mean Ratings by Schools of Dimensions/Categories..	105
16.	Significant Differences Among Mean Ratings by Schools of Dimensions and Categories.....	107

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1. A comparison of mean ratings of vocational teachers, academic teachers and administrators.....102
2. A comparison of mean ratings of survey respondents by school.....120

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The vocational education delivery system in Massachusetts faces many challenges. The educational reform movement sweeping the country and the specific legislative reforms in Massachusetts have not been kind to vocational education. The thrust of several highly respected national reports (Boyer, 1983; National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education, 1984; and the Commission on Precollege Education, 1983) has recommended shifts in the high school curriculum which increase academic requirements for secondary students. Indeed, these experts question the continued delivery of occupation specific training, preferring a return to the basics to provide students a grounding in reading, writing, and mathematics.

In Massachusetts, the Board of Regents of Higher Education, charged with the operation of the state's public colleges and universities, has increased the academic requirements for admission to these postsecondary institutions. These requirements also apply to vocational-technical school graduates. The only concession made was to allow three vocational-technical units to fulfill three

"elective" units and substitute technical theory for foreign language.

This heightened emphasis on college preparatory courses has diminished student interest in vocational/occupational education offerings which do not meet Carnegie requirements. In some cases, the additional academic requirements limit student access to vocational programs. Students are unable to fit academic courses and the time requirements of skill training programs into a daily schedule.

The second wave of educational reform swirls about us. At both the national and state levels the focus has become the restructuring of schools. Much of the literature indicates the core of restructuring is the professionalization of teachers, an encompassing concept which includes teacher empowerment, shared decision-making and school based management. Professionalization offers teachers the opportunity to think for themselves, to act independently and in collaboration with others. Professionals are expected to have the expertise in their field and handle challenging opportunities with salaries commensurate to these responsibilities (Ambrosie and Haley, 1988).

The Carnegie Report "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century" (1986) addressed issues involving working conditions of teachers. In Massachusetts, the

spin off of this report is reflected in legislative reforms; Chapter 188, the School Improvement Act of 1985 and Chapter 727, An Act Enhancing the Teaching Profession and Recognizing Educational Achievement. Included in the legislation were increases in the minimum teacher salary, funding for restructured "Carnegie" schools, and a revision in the certification procedures for teachers. These reforms have the power to substantially change the way educators have traditionally done business. In addition, the Board of Regents and the Department of Education have cooperated to abolish the undergraduate teaching degree and to create master teachers.

Where does vocational technical education fit in the waves of reform intended to create a new accountability and address industry complaints that graduates are ill prepared to meet the needs of a new technological economy? To some degree the vocational education community has been left out of the reform movement. For example, the vocational educators lobbied for inclusion of technical substitutions rather than exemptions in the Regent's Policy on Admission to Public Colleges and Universities. In addition, the changes in undergraduate teaching degrees do not address vocational educators. Their entry into teaching is often from industry and their credentialling is through the Division of Occupational Education. There is no "certification" for vocational instructors and adminis-

trators, but rather there is "approval" which may be instead of or in addition to certification. Instructors are required to update their skills every two years to maintain their approval. Teacher credentialling for vocational instructors was addressed in a separate law, Chapter 731. This legislation established competency-based vocational-technical teacher training standards in an articulated two year and four year sequence. It created career ladders for vocational instructors.

Vocational education fights for survival in an economy limited by Proposition 2 1/2. Exhorting member towns for their share of resources, vocational educators must continually answer questions regarding cost effectiveness, facility needs, and declining enrollments. Opponents of vocational education skill training at the secondary level take advantage of these issues to advocate the placement of these programs at the post secondary level (Parnell, 1985).

The demands of a changing student population must also be considered. Today's students are more academically and economically disadvantaged than ever before. Their learning styles and needs have met with little success in traditional high schools and vocational education is often the last stop before dropping out of school. The tools of vocational education are competency based. Vocational instructors allow students to practice, while

removing theory from abstraction and practically apply it. This accommodation has flooded vocational schools with students with special needs. A conflict results when employers demand highly competent skilled graduates who can adapt to a rapidly changing technology. A substantial number of new jobs will not require a college education but skilled training at the technician level (Parnell, 1985). Vocational educators must be responsive to employer needs. Unlike comprehensive high schools, vocational-technical schools are held accountable for student placement in trade related occupations. Low placement ratios jeopardize state funding of vocational training programs. These concerns regarding access of students, preparation for employment in the twenty first century, and dealing with a changing population have caught the attention of vocational educators. It is no surprise that little attention has been given to the professionalization of teachers and ultimately toward the restructuring of vocational education.

Rationale

The concept of the professionalization of teachers is one which deserves attention in vocational education. The impact that the study of this topic has on teachers, administrators, and ultimately the structure of vocational

education in Massachusetts cannot be ignored. The study focused attention on an issue which is critical in the educational reform movement.

There are two requirements for teachers to act as instructional leaders: the administrators and policy makers must provide the structure, and teachers must become professionals (Rallis, 1988). The structure of vocational education sends ambiguous signals regarding the professionalization of teachers. Vocational teachers are drafted from the trades, credentialled by a different method and are the experts in their environment, "the shop". Like other secondary teachers they complain of the we/they mentality which exists, they are isolated and separated from each other, and often do not interact with their academic counterparts in the same building. Their role in education cannot be underestimated but their willingness to adopt new responsibilities to expand this role cannot be determined at this point in time. To become professionals, these teachers must master additional knowledge, make decisions and take responsibility for them and be receptive to new ideas and learning from other teachers. It will require increased time and effort (Lieberman, 1988).

Administrators, on the other hand, must provide the support, share the decisions, and increase their expectations of the professionals in the vocational-technical

high schools. They must be willing to share the power and provide the resources for these teachers to grow. In addition, they must convince school committee members that changes in organization will have positive results.

The concept of professionalization has the potential to affect the image of the vocational technical schools. Once viewed as trade schools, they are in danger of earning another stereotype, "dumping grounds". An effort to improve the quality of instruction by improving the quality of instructors and requiring their collaboration in solving the problems of vocational education will help address image issues.

The same problems exist in vocational-technical schools as comprehensive high schools. Teachers have a need to assume control over the environment, share the responsibilities for decision making, and learn the skills needed to be considered professionals.

Vocational educators are prone to listen to the advice of the business community. Their graduates are employed by businesses who function in an advisory role regarding curriculum, equipment, and resources in vocational schools (Mass. Dept. of Education, 1987). This advice does not seem to extend to recommendations concerning organizational structure. Vocational-technical educators remain locked into a traditional delivery system despite the messages being sent by successful companies

that change is necessary. These companies demand excellence, require collaboration, and provide adequate resources to make a better product. They are able to change in a changing world, live their mission and serve their customer (Peters and Waterman, 1984).

In summary, the rationale for the study was based upon: the realization that the educational reform movement affects vocational-technical education and requires action or reaction; the need for vocational educators to address criticisms regarding the quality of programming; and the assumption that improving the quality of instructors will attract talented students who will be prepared for occupations in the new technologies.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to address the issues regarding professionalization as they affect vocational-technical schools in Massachusetts. By determining teacher and administrator concerns, it was hoped that more specific recommendations could be made to assist vocational-technical educators adjust to changes required by reform, employer demands, and community needs.

The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To gather information regarding the attitudes of vocational teachers and administrators

- toward the concept of professionalization.
2. To define components/characteristics of professionalization.
 3. To determine the extent to which professionalization is understood and exists in the regional vocational-technical schools in Massachusetts.
 4. To make specific recommendations to assist in the implementation of the concept, or expand its use.
 5. To begin to explore the differences in perceptions of academic and vocational teachers in vocational settings with regard to professionalization.

The Research Questions

Simply stated, professionalization is the process of teachers becoming professionals. Professionals are the experts who have the capability and authority to do their work. In vocational-technical education, the process of professionalization includes educating vocational and academic teachers concerning this responsibility, sharing the power and the governance of the school between administrators and teachers, improving the status of vocational-

technical teachers, and improving the monetary rewards to make the profession more attractive (Ambrosie, 1988).

The specific research questions which were addressed are:

1. What are the perceptions of vocational (shop/related) and academic teachers in regional vocational-technical high schools toward teacher professionalization?
2. What are the perceptions of administrators in regional vocational-technical high schools toward teacher professionalization?
3. What are the similarities and differences in perceptions toward professionalization among academic teachers, vocational teachers and administrators in regional vocational-technical high schools?
4. To what extent does professionalization exist in vocational-technical schools in Massachusetts?

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are defined:

Professionalization: the process of vocational-technical teachers in regional vocational-technical high schools gaining the status, respect, authority, and knowledge to become professionals.

Professional: a person who is considered an expert in their field and is treated as one (Maeroff, 1988). A practicing member of a profession who is well-trained and socialized to professional codes of conduct (Wise and Darling-Hammond, 1987).

Empowerment: a term applied to the process of strengthening the teacher profession by providing access to knowledge and decision making opportunities within the school (Maeroff, 1988), a component in the broader concept of professionalization.

Regional vocational-technical high school: a specialized regional high school in Massachusetts designed to provide vocational-technical skill training programs in combination with academic coursework necessary for a diploma. The vocational-technical curriculum is approved by the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education under Chapter 74/731 of the General Laws of Massachusetts. There are twenty-seven regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts.

Superintendent-Director: the chief administrative officer of a regional vocational-technical high school who is approved by the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education. Credentials for this position include: five years of employment in a school which offers Chapter 74/731 programs, appropriate educational training, and experience.

Chapter 74/731: Chapter 74 and its subsequent amendment, Chapter 731, An Act to Improve Vocational Education, are the laws passed by the Massachusetts legislature to oversee the operation of vocational-technical programs offered at the secondary and postsecondary levels in Massachusetts. Regulations promulgated by the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education are the basis upon which programs are approved and receive reimbursement.

Summary

Educational reform affects vocational-technical educators. There is a need to determine the perceptions of teachers and administrators in regional vocational-technical high schools toward teacher professionalization. Professionalization is an encompassing term including teacher empowerment, improved status and monetary rewards.

This chapter has introduced the reader to the nature of the study. Chapter II includes a review of the related literature concerning professionalization.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Teachers' lives are shaped not only by their peculiar status as "professional adults" and purveyors of justice but also by the special quality of their work --a work that cannot be reduced to rules, competencies, techniques, or attitudes (Lightfoot, 1983, p. 115).

The educational reform movement has impressed upon educators the need for change. Outlining deficiencies in our system, prestigious reports and commissions (Boyer, 1983; Carnegie Forum, 1986; Commission on PreCollege Math, Science and Technology, 1983) left educators, parents and the public aghast. The early reports (A Nation at Risk, 1983) cited poor student achievement which affects readiness for college and work. Employers declared our workforce lacked the skills needed to maintain global competitiveness (Business-Higher Education Forum, 1983).

Every aspect of education from teacher preparation to curriculum was scrutinized. The reports indicted teachers, principals, superintendents, and school boards. Parents and employers did not escape blame. It appeared that everyone shared the responsibility for

the decline of education. While each group scurried to shift their responsibility, the Carnegie Commission recommended increased academic requirements and improvements in curriculum.

In the second wave of reform, the theme has become restructuring or redesigning how and what we teach (Holmes Report, 1986; Carnegie Foundation, 1986). The teacher has become the focus of improvement; the solution to the problem. These reports addressed the need for improved teacher preparation and the need to reorganize the roles of school personnel. Teachers should be viewed in a new and expanded capacity as part of the leadership of the school (Lieberman, 1988). They are the experts who should have an increased control beyond their classroom walls. They should be empowered to make the decisions within the constraints imposed by the broader goals of the organization (Maeroff, 1988).

Teacher Empowerment

The review of the literature expands upon the review of Karafotis (unpublished dissertation, 1990). Karafotis examined teacher empowerment as a concept of shared power within the school. The dynamics of empowerment including its effects on teachers and principals as well as the prerequisites for the concept to flourish were highlighted.

According to Maeroff (1988), empowerment requires that teachers have the status, knowledge, and access to power to make decisions. Restructuring the school results in changes in staffing patterns, curriculum development, scheduling, governance and collective bargaining. This powerful concept requires dramatic reorganization in a system where teachers now work in isolation and have little power to make decisions.

Teacher empowerment is the vehicle to making teachers more professional and to improve their performance (Maeroff, 1988). Maeroff believes that empowerment is synonymous with professionalization, the process of becoming a professional. The impediments to the process include low salary, lack of status and self-esteem, lack of control and authority, and a lack of respect for the value of teachers in making schools successful.

Teaching as a Profession

The focus on teachers as the vehicle to improving the quality of education necessitates changes in their job description (Holmes Report, 1986). The reformers require an expanded role for teachers focusing on their empowerment, improving their status and salary, and requiring additional responsibilities (Carnegie Report, 1986). The assumption is made that in order to improve the quality of

education, the quality of teaching must be improved (Holmes Report, 1986). Teacher preparation, the image of teaching and recruitment of more capable teachers are issues which must be addressed.

Teacher empowerment will result in changes in the traditional image of the teacher. The argument that teaching is a true profession like medicine or law is not a new one. Teachers have tried, unsuccessfully it seems, for years to elevate the status of teaching. The focus on empowerment and the recent proposals regarding change in teacher preparation have created new support for viewing teaching as a true profession.

In an early publication, Etzioni (1969) described teaching as one of the semi-professions whose claim to the status of professions like doctors and lawyers could not be established. In analyzing these semi-professions in a sociological context, he indicated several reasons for their subordinate status: a shorter training period, less of a specialized body of knowledge, and less autonomy from supervisors or outside control. He maintained that teaching like nursing and social work was between blue and white collar occupations.

"A significant segment of the semi-professions aspire full fledged professional status and sustain a professional self-image, despite the fact that they are often aware they do not deserve such status." (Etzioni, 1969, p. vi).

Goode (in Etzioni, 1969) elaborated by declaring that teaching was one of the semi-professions that would not become a profession.

Wilensky (in Etzioni, 1969) described a series of steps in the metamorphosis of a semi-profession to a profession. These include: full-time responsibilities, a prescribed sequence of training, the establishment of a national professional organization, conflict between newer and older members over improved status, a code of ethics, and a classification which allows the use of subordinates for some tasks.

In comparing teaching to the professions of medicine and law, researchers often chronicle the growth of the latter two from unstructured, individual callings to professions with high standards, strict credentials, authority and respect. The fact that licensure is a prerequisite to practice controls the quality and quantity of potential practitioners (Haberman, 1986). The discussion concerning national certification of teachers (Goodlad, 1988; Holmes Report, 1986) has added a new dimension to this old argument to consider teaching as a profession.

The Holmes Report (1986) laid a strong foundation for a new view of teaching as a profession. The new profession allows teachers to grow and become experts in specialized areas. The Report established three categories of teaching. First there is the "career professional".

A small number of teachers would qualify to be educational experts in a role which would be similar to a "clinical professor in medicine" (p. 11). Most teachers would be "professional teachers". These highly qualified individuals would meet strict standards to continue as teachers and would work with the career professionals. Beginning teachers would be called "instructors". Their jobs would be in a sense temporary and allow individuals to explore teaching as an occupational choice (p. 12). It is important to note that the Holmes Report reserved the application of these ideas to vocational education until further evidence is obtained regarding their implication (p. 72).

Some researchers indicated that the comparison of teaching to professions such as law and medicine is inaccurate. Haberman (1986), for instance, stated that "teaching is not like practicing medicine" (p. 719), and believed that better comparisons to professions more similar to teaching would be beneficial. The difference may be that teaching has its standards set by public officials who must approve budgets, issue licenses and require accountability. He regarded nursing and law enforcement as more appropriate comparisons. An interesting note is that nursing was one of those occupations considered a semi-profession by Etzioni. Soder (1986) proclaimed that making teaching a profession will require much more than a pronouncement by the Holmes Report.

Schlechty (in press) has often compared teaching to medicine and law, but believes that these comparisons have outgrown their usefulness. Schlechty focuses on the image of teachers and administrators as gold-collar workers. Unlike "blue-collar workers who work for a living and white-collar workers who live to work, the gold-collar worker integrates work and life" (Schlechty, p. 8). Schlechty believes that the public sector is unable to compete with the salary and benefits offered by the private sector and must rely on the quality of life as the attraction of gold-collar workers to teaching. The positions of teachers and administrators must be enhanced to make them attractive as professions.

The application of Schlechty's model to vocational-technical teachers leads to several questions. These teachers are recruited from the ranks of blue-collar workers. They have worked for a living and suddenly they become gold-collar workers who must integrate both work and life in a new profession, teaching. They are tradespeople who are highly qualified and may also be licensed. They tend to think of themselves as tradespeople rather than teachers (Logos, 1981), but also indicate that the status of teaching was a reason for their change in career. This may create conflict. Where do vocational teachers fit in the profession and how do they adjust to changes in their role from worker to trainer?

The Professionalization of Teaching

It is clear in the literature that the professionalization of teachers is dependent on a number of factors. Goodlad (1988) focused on the education of teachers as the key to professionalization and others have called for a national board to certify teachers (Tucker and Mandel, 1988). Darling-Hammond (1985) indicated that there are three basic components in professionalizing teaching: improving the knowledge base for teaching, establishing entrance requirements for the profession, and creating effective school conditions (empowerment). Lieberman (1988) noted that research is beginning to reflect that expanded responsibilities enhance the professionalism of teachers.

Schlechty (in press) contends that the place to begin in professionalizing the image of the teacher is in the schools. Using Drucker's (1973) philosophy regarding "knowledge workers", Schlechty maintains that schools are knowledge-work organizations and teachers are managers of students who are knowledge workers. This shifts the role of the teacher from shaping unfinished products to motivating and leading. The teacher becomes an executive and the principal becomes their leader. The superintendent becomes the chief executive officer in this corporate model. She/he must have a vision and be a problem identi-

fier. In this model, the students are the clients and the teachers are the professionals.

Conley (1988) offers a similar notion with her conceptualization of a professional model of teaching. In this model, the teacher is the decision maker who has the authority and autonomy to deal with the daily uncertainty of the classroom. What may exist, however, in vocational education is a bureaucratic model which simplifies and routinizes the role of the teacher "by reducing the decisions teachers have to make" (p. 394).

In reaction to the recommendations of the Carnegie Foundation and the Holmes Report, local school boards as well as state governments have responded. In Dade County, Florida, administrators and teachers in individual schools had the option to choose their own form of school-based management. The belief that improvement of the status of teaching rests on increased salary and new responsibilities resulted in a professional career ladder for teachers and principals. The teacher union and administration agreed to waive certain contract requirements to empower teachers to make decisions affecting their schools.

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts (1986) has also acted to improve the status of teaching. By conducting teacher forums, opinions were sought about the need for improvement. New legislation was passed which encouraged an increase in the minimum teacher salary, provided funds

for the establishment of Carnegie schools, and changed the method of certification of new teachers (Chapter 188; Chapter 727 of the Massachusetts General Laws). The changes are being met with a variety of responses.

The Organization of Vocational Education

In order to evaluate the impact of reform on vocational-technical education, it is important to understand the organization of vocational education within local, state and federal parameters. Organizational patterns for vocational education vary from state to state. Vocational education is administered at three levels: federal, state and local. To receive federal assistance, however, states must designate a state board and a state director for vocational education who submits a state plan to the Department of Education. Federal legislation beginning with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 has encouraged the development of programs to prepare individuals for employment in specific occupations. This legislation was passed in response to changes in our nation's economy which shifted the economy from an agrarian to an industrial base.

State organization beyond these requirements varies. In some states, vocational education skill training is offered only at the adult (postsecondary) level. In other

states, it is available at both secondary (grades nine through twelve) and postsecondary levels. Massachusetts is one of the latter states. Programs may be offered in skill training centers, high schools, and community colleges.

In Massachusetts, vocational-technical education programs are administered and supervised under regulations established by Chapter 74 and amended by Chapter 731 of the General Laws. Ten approval factors serve as criteria for the establishment and reimbursement of programs. The regulations cover such areas as organization, control, curriculum, personnel, and expenditures. They are much more comprehensive and restrictive than those covering general education programs under Chapter 70 and 71. Business and Office, Consumer and Homemaking, and Industrial Arts do not meet the time and curriculum requirements of Chapter 74 and therefore are not subject to these regulations.

Vocational-technical programs in Massachusetts are offered in 225 schools and community colleges. At the secondary level they may be found in specialized training facilities and within local high schools. Specialized training designed solely for the operation of vocational education and related academic instruction is available at regional vocational-technical high schools, county agricultural schools, and city and town vocational schools. One or more programs may also be located in academic city,

town or regional high schools. (Mass. State Plan for Vocational Education 1989-1990).

Although the regulations apply in both cases, there is considerable debate between administrators of specialized vocational schools and academic schools as to how to best offer vocational education. (Parnell, 1985). This debate is fueled by the findings of groups such as the Carnegie Foundation which devalue vocational education and place emphasis on basic skills and increasing the academic prowess of our students. Some educators (Parnell, 1985; Aubrey, 1985; ASCD, 1985; William Grant Foundation, 1988) express their concern that educational reforms increasing academic course requirements may be reducing the availability of skill training opportunities for students.

The Context for Change in Vocational Education

The traditional pattern of vocational education is based upon the economy and education needs of the beginning of the century (Pratzner, 1985). The content of studies is based upon specific needs of business and industry and designed to prepare for entry level skills in a specific occupation (Wirth, 1987). The economy in our nation is quickly moving from an industrial base to a technological one. Never have changes in our society come so quickly. The information age has dawned and with it

arrive new dilemmas and perplexing developments. The workforce which was trained in the industrial era faces retraining and change. The computer and its related technology has revolutionized manufacturing. Workers must possess a wider range of job skills. The students now being trained in vocational-technical education programs must have the ability to transfer skills. Job specific training must be redefined. The largest area of growth will be in technician-level jobs especially in the health fields (Parnell, 1985).

Pratzner (1985) proposed a new model of vocational education in which the focus is no longer occupation-specific training, but rather the development of "socio-technical literacy" (Wirth, 1987, p. 70). Pratzner's new role for vocational educators requires them to prepare students with higher order thinking skills, communication and interpersonal skills. Educating according to Dewey's philosophy is "through vocations instead of training for vocations" (1966, p. 310). Needless to say this change in philosophy will necessitate retraining teachers and administrators.

In vocational education in Massachusetts, there is a feeling of uneasiness. National and state educational reforms do little more than criticize. It appears that vocational educators have reached another crossroads. Either they will entrench themselves in a philosophy which

is outdated and may in fact result in their demise, or they will embrace the reforms and incorporate more appropriate goals. This may be difficult in that much of these new reforms do not provide specific direction for vocational education (Chapter 188, Chapter 727).

Although new teacher certification guidelines passed in Chapter 727 of the Massachusetts General Laws do not apply, Chapter 731 of the Massachusetts General Laws of 1987 (An Act to Improve Vocational Education) is designed to encourage teachers to pursue formal education. Two year certificate and a four year preservice program for their preparation have been established. A learning and teacher institute articulated with the Board of Regents of Higher Education will allow inservice training for instructional and supervisory personnel.

The Office of Professional Development, which is part of the Massachusetts Department of Education's Division of Occupational Education, is responsible for coordinating approval of vocational-technical teachers and administrators. There are several steps involved in teacher approval. A teacher initially obtains a provisional approval by documenting education and trade experience (six years for most trades) and by successfully passing a written and practical trade competency test. Completion of this step allows a teacher to begin teaching with provisional approval. Eighteen required college credits must be com-

pleted during the next three years to earn full approval status. Sixty hours of professional improvement every two years are required to maintain full approval. It is possible for an individual with a high school diploma and six years of documented work experience to enter teaching without any formal courses in education.

The Teacher

Teachers have had mixed reactions to these new ideas of shared governance and expanding roles for teachers. Although anxious to become involved, teachers have functioned in a centralized hierarchy where decisions are handed down to them. The Carnegie Foundation's survey of teachers (1988) indicated that they report little involvement in the development of curriculum, planning inservice training, determining policy decisions, and placement of students. On the one hand, teachers appear eager to share the decisions. On the other hand, they express reluctance to reduce their time on lesson plan development and involvement in direct teaching. Conley (1988) argues that teachers "view participation at best as a meaningless exercise and at worst as a manipulative tool" (p.261). In spite of teacher skepticism, Conley indicates that teachers still believe that they should share the decision-making especially in instructional areas.

Research suggests that there is a relationship between professional commitment and the level of administrative support, class size and teacher participation in decision-making (Conley Bacharach, and Bauer, 1984). Conley (1988) builds a case for existing teacher involvement in school management by virtue of their contact with students. What is missing, she believes, is teacher involvement in integrating decisions at the district, school and classroom levels. The additional functions in which teachers should play a role include: implementing policy decisions, developing schedules, procuring materials and resources, and monitoring the accomplishment of program objectives by staff and students.

Vocational teachers share the need for increased involvement in the management of the vocational-technical high school. A recent survey of first year teachers indicated that 47.1 percent were somewhat satisfied with their opportunity for input in school decisions and 33.3 percent were not satisfied at all. They cited a need for additional prestige, opportunities for advancement, and additional time for preparation (Pratzner, 1987).

In a recent study, Antonellis, Eash, and Rotman (1988) offered a profile of the vocational teacher in Massachusetts. For the most part, these teachers are seasoned veterans, fully approved and have been teaching

for a number of years. Eighty-five percent of them are males and only two percent are minorities. It is expected that there will be a 50 percent turnover in the teacher population over the next ten years. However, teacher salaries, which have never been able to compete with industry, still lag behind, and job security, which was a major inducement in attracting teachers, is jeopardized by limited budgets and teacher layoffs due to declining student enrollments. Thus, the overall picture looks mixed.

Vocational education teachers leave a highly skilled craft or trade to enter the teaching profession. Many of them were supervisors or managers, others were self-employed. In their previous roles, there was often greater autonomy, more responsibility and accountability. A Kentucky survey of vocational education teachers (Logan, 1988) revealed that 75 percent come to teaching without a college degree. They cite their reasons for teaching as satisfaction from helping others, reducing work hours, steady employment, fringe benefits, admiration of former teachers, and elimination of travel. Approximately 67 percent of them earned more in industry. There is confusion among vocational teachers concerning their role as a teacher or a tradesperson (Logos Research Assoc., 1981). In assuming a teaching position, they remain in control of their immediate environment, the shop, but must learn

the values and organizational procedures of their new circumstance. The hierarchical structure of the regional-vocational technical school may require an adjustment for them. Consistent with the research, these teachers may expect greater input but find themselves unprepared or unable to participate (Imber, 1983).

In addition, vocational teachers see themselves as different than the academic instructors who are credentialed as math, English, science, and social studies teachers (Logos Research, 1981). They believe their role in vocational education is more important, but they are handicapped by their lack of formal training in pedagogy. They lack the formal coursework that academic teachers are required to complete prior to teaching. Of course, academic instructors feel that their role is equally as important. The reform movement with its return to the basics seems to support their argument.

As in comprehensive schools, there is an isolation and departmentalization in vocational schools (Lieberman, 1984). Teachers have little time to interact. Academic instructors may teach in separate wings or on different floors. The curriculum is designed around the vocational programs, and there are few opportunities for interdisciplinary efforts between academic and vocational teachers.

It is not clear at this point in time that vocational education teachers are prepared and/or willing to become

more involved in the management of the school. There is a need to expand upon recent research on teacher satisfaction to explore the degree of willingness and training needed to enhance their participation.

The Administrator

The role of the principal is not to be the best teacher. The role of the principal is not to be an expert. The role of the principal is to be a facilitator and empowerer. (Tom Peters in an interview with NASSP December, 1988).

If the role of the teacher is undergoing dramatic change the same is true of the principal's role. The professionalization of teachers results in dramatic changes in the principal/teacher relationship (Lieberman, 1988). Research indicates that the principal holds a pivotal role in empowering teachers (Rallis, 1988; Lieberman, 1988). She/he may facilitate or block opportunities for expanded leadership. In some cases, administrators view teacher participation in decision-making as "something management cedes to its employees" (Conley, 1988, p. 260). Stimson and Appelbaum (1988) indicate that principals may not have the power to empower teachers. They may need training to develop the skills to provide the necessary leadership. Their research as well as others (Barth, 1988; Rallis, 1988) suggests that trust, involvement,

sharing and articulating goals are critical in reconfiguring the leadership of the school.

When the Carnegie Foundation first proposed that schools could be governed by teams of teachers, the idea was met by resistance from principal organizations. The fear that their positions would lose authority or be abolished all together resulted in the need to redefine the role of the principal. More recently has come the recognition that empowerment is a means to expand the power of the principal. Conley (1988) advocates a middle ground in which teachers may have greater influence in school decisions (empowerment) but that the ultimate authority in implementation remains with the administrator. She feels that it is important to differentiate between authority and influence. This position may satisfy administrators who fear their power would be abrogated if teachers are empowered.

Inherent in the success of shared governance is the principal's ability to persuade, convince, build trust, and create collegial relationships (Erlandson and Bifano, 1987). The steps that a principal must take toward shared leadership include: articulating a goal, relinquishing control, establishing trust that decisions will be supported, involving teachers in decision-making, assigning responsibilities fairly, sharing responsibility for failures and successes, believing in teachers and admitting

ignorance (Barth, 1988). These tasks require that the principal exhibit special skills in group management, goal setting, and delegation of tasks. The role of the principal in this situation shifts from managing and controlling to learning to lead and developing leadership skills among teachers (Schlechty, in press).

Not only does the principal's role inside the school building change, but professionalization will redefine the role of the principal in relation to the larger organization. The superintendent must be willing to empower the principal and teachers to make final decisions regarding instruction in their school. The literature which has focused on the principal is just beginning to highlight the critical position of the superintendent in the process of empowerment. It is clear that the superintendent must identify the problem but step back so that others may solve it. The school board, in fact, must empower all, and accept a new more encompassing role for teachers, principals, and the superintendent.

The organizational structure of a regional vocational-technical high school is hierarchical in nature and seems to follow a bureaucratic model of management (Duttweiler, 1989). Sergiovanni (1987) indicates that this type of organization emphasizes regulations, centralized decision-making, formal communication and differentiated roles for administrators, teachers, and students. There

is a regional school committee with representatives from every city and town. The superintendent-director is the chief executive officer and the district consists of one school, the regional vocational-technical high school. Vocational-technical administrators are credentialled by the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education. In order to be approved as a superintendent-director, an individual must have five years of experience in a school with Chapter 74 programs, and a Master's degree in a suitable field.

The administrative organization generally includes an assistant superintendent or director who serves as the principal of the building. The credentials are similar to those required of the superintendent-director. The assistant superintendent/director is not required to possess the certification that principals of comprehensive high schools must.

The principal is in charge of the daily operation of the school. This role may be complicated, however, by the superintendent's location in the same building. The control exerted by the superintendent-director will directly impact on the authority and power the principal has in dealing with teachers, students, and staff.

Vocational administrators express concern about recruiting qualified vocational instructors in adequate numbers. Antonellis et al (1988) interviewed adminis-

trators from fifteen vocational schools. These administrators share feelings that are familiar to all educators. They report difficulty in recruiting qualified candidates. They recommend preservice training as well as a need to improve the attractiveness of teaching in vocational education programs. They contend that teachers are hampered by their stereotypes of teaching and lack of formal education courses. This is an interesting finding in light of the reports (Holmes Report, 1986) recommending less education specific coursework and more liberal arts preparation. These administrators indicate the opposite is preferred. Also mentioned as impediments to recruitment were salary issues, competition from industry, and lack of respect for teaching in the community. These findings are consistent with the research indicating low status, salary and authority are key issues in teacher dissatisfaction with teaching (Maeroff, 1988).

The School Environment

The organization of the school and its environment play key roles in the existence of teacher empowerment and the growth of professionalism. Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989) argued that reformers neglect organizational theory in their consideration of change. Organizational theory must be an important consideration:

"Organizations employing professionals can be effective only when the following three requirements are met: (a). Quality people must be recruited, (b). the organizational structure and work activity must be organized so that professional employees can achieve their goals, and (c). professionals must be rewarded for their accomplishments" (p. 59).

The quality of work life (QWL) or the degree of satisfaction that teachers have with their work environment must be included in the study of professionalization of teachers. There is research to suggest that teachers who are not allowed to participate in decision-making will have low professional commitment (Darling-Hammond, 1984).

Conley et al (1989) studied teacher career dissatisfaction in relation to the organization rather than as an individual factor. Their study of eighty seven New York school districts determined that organizational characteristics such as role ambiguity, communication with peers and supervisors, and opportunities for promotion influenced teacher career dissatisfaction. Exclusion from decision-making, however, did not appear to be related to dissatisfaction.

In a study undertaken by Reyes (1989), teacher and administrator perceptions regarding the level of autonomy in decision-making, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction were explored. Reyes concluded that efforts to empower teachers should focus on teacher desire to acquire additional decision-making responsibilities.

In an unpublished dissertation, (Gizzi, 1988) identified the elements of the quality of work life in a secondary urban school. Major findings indicated that "joint optimization of the workplace and staff development provided the empowerment mechanism to improve the quality of working life" (p. 235). Critical elements in improving the quality include mutual trust, a flat organizational system, cooperation and collaboration.

By and large the literature indicated that although effective schools foster the shared responsibilities, collegial relationships, and teacher input in decisions, few systems have organized themselves to allow these ideas to flourish (Goodlad, 1984; Duttweiler, 1989).

Lessons from Business and Industry

Educational reform has caught the attention of business and industry. Corporations recognize that young adults lack the skills required to function in many jobs and this seriously affects their ability to compete. This vested interest has led to criticism of our educational system and a willingness to assist in its improvement. The time and money spent in training and retraining employees limits productivity. It seems that while educators may benefit from corporate donations, they should also take heed of the lessons business may teach.

In the business world, companies rise to and fall from success. Traditional patterns of organization and management have been replaced as employers realize that their changing fortunes necessitate reorganization.

Peters and Waterman (1984) stress that successful companies break down the traditional hierarchy of organization by providing employees the opportunity to solve problems. There is a need for a different kind of management.

Waterman (1987) offers several synonyms for the term boss. These include manager, director, commander, and supervisor. These definitions leave little room for employee initiatives. Waterman explains that a redefinition of the rôle of the manager is required to renew the competitive edge. The manager must learn to guide rather than control the people who work for her/him. These individuals must be empowered to make decisions, create, and control. These actions have typically been reserved for managers.

Empowerment as a concept in industry dates back to 1956 as Scharff (1986) noted the belief that employees should be tapped for their cost saving ideas. Mogensen in Waterman (1987) expands on that idea. He stated ,

"The person doing the job knows better than anyone else the best way of doing that job and is therefore the one person best fitted to improve it" (p. 81).

One of the benefits of relaxed control and its resulting empowerment of individuals is increased corporate productivity. Managers in this scheme must establish boundaries and step aside. Although, policy decisions remain management's responsibility, how decisions are implemented is the responsibility of the employees on the line. This philosophy is consistent with Conley's (1988) concept of influence and authority. The traditional management model is hierarchical. Non-managers are not important. In order to empower workers, the layers of the organization must be reduced.

Waterman (1987) indicated that there are obstacles to renewal. Leaders hesitate to provide direction and freedom. Individual workers must learn to use their skills in an environment which fosters freedom. Peters (1987) devoted considerable attention to the concept of empowerment. Leadership which promotes empowerment simplifies bureaucracy, promotes involvement, creates teams to self-manage, provides training and pays on an incentive basis for performance. These concepts are part of the philosophy of school-based management. They are also the most difficult ones to incorporate in the organization of education.

Peters (1987) profiled the leader as one who listens, who delegates authority, and who has a vision which encompasses change. The application of these principles to

education is important. Peter Drucker in a conversation with Tucker (1988) addressed the need to treat teachers as professionals and restructure schools to make teachers more productive. This restructuring must include greater professional autonomy, flatter organizational structure and a shift from an authority-oriented organization to a performance-based organization. More specific applications would result in schools which have determined goals, provide a structure for team work and applaud productivity (Snyder, 1988).

As educators learn to apply these principles so will teachers become more professional. This will require a change in climate and organization. The traditional tall organization of education containing long chains of command and allowing little freedom will have to give way to flatter ones (Palardy, 1988). Potential leaders will be cultivated in short chains of command. These will provide a dual structure similar to one proposed by Waterman (1987) in which administrative decisions are made by high level administrators and professional decisions are reserved for principals and teachers.

Summary

The professionalization of teachers requires that the restructuring of schools which is the heart of the

current reform movement provide teachers greater authority, control, status, and monetary incentives. The improved status will result in teaching being regarded as a profession complete with necessary licensing and certification. It is clear that professionalization necessitates a redefining of traditional roles and responsibilities of teachers and administrators. In addition to this redefinition, vocational teachers face obstacles in their professionalization. Their role is not clearly defined, and they lack the training needed to participate in educational decisions. Administrators appear to respect their knowledge of the trade, but it is not certain whether they would be willing to share the responsibility of managing the vocational-technical school with their teachers.

The status of vocational-technical education is threatened by criticisms of the educational reform movement. Vocational educators like their academic counterparts should learn from the business model to reorganize to better meet the needs of a changing society.

Chapter III, the Methodology, examines the population, instruments, data collection, and analysis to be used in the treatment of the data.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents information concerning the general methodology, the population involved in the study, the instruments which were used, data collection techniques and the analysis used in treating the data.

The purpose of the study was to address the issues regarding professionalization of teachers as they affect vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. The researcher utilized a quantitative methodology incorporating a survey approach. Respondents completed a questionnaire consisting of statements utilizing a Likert-type category. The use of this methodology is reinforced in the literature. Quantitative measurement provides a standardized structure for "instruments which are designed to limit data collection to certain predetermined response or analysis" (Patton, 1980, p. 22). Surveys are considered a method of systematic data collection to obtain standardized information (Borg and Gall, 1983).

The development of the methodology incorporated the extensive review of literature on professionalization and teacher empowerment. The literature provided

the themes or dimensions which were included in the questionnaire. The resulting survey was a practical assessment of the current status of empowerment and teacher and administrator willingness to expand the concept.

Population

The population which was studied consisted of all of the teachers and administrators in eight regional vocational-technical high schools in the southeast area of Massachusetts. It was originally intended to undertake a two stage random sampling design which would have allowed the researcher to sample all teachers and administrators in the twenty-seven regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. There was, however, no up-to-date, available list of teachers and administrators from which to draw the sample. Therefore, the researcher surveyed an entire population from which lists of teachers and administrators were available. The advantage to this sampling method is that the researcher was able to compare eight schools as well as pool the data from all respondents.

The geographic region which houses this population consists of the southeastern corner of Massachusetts, extending from Attleboro eastward to Cape Cod and the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. The region

stretches from the southern boundary of Massachusetts including Fall River, and New Bedford north to Norwell and Avon. Table 1 provides a profile of student, teacher and administrator enrollments in each of the schools included in the study.

The eight schools which were surveyed are representative of the twenty-seven regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts.

Table 1

The Regional Vocational-Technical High Schools

SCHOOL	STUDENTS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS			ADMINISTRATORS
		Vocational	Academic	Total	
School 1	741	37	27	64	2
School 2	525	48	27	75	2
School 3	1,050	48	36	84	2
School 4	2,000	103	48	151	3
School 5	580	34	15	49	2
School 6	501	34	10	44	3
School 7	1,275	49	24	73	3
School 8	520	28	18	46	2
	-----	---	--	---	--
Totals	7,192	378	205	583	19

* Statistics were obtained from individual school faculty registers, September 1, 1989.

There were three large schools anchored by urban cities (Brockton, Fall River, and New Bedford). A mid-sized school was also included as well as four small rural schools. The situations in these schools reflect the enrollment difficulties that are faced by schools across the Commonwealth. The increased percentage of special needs students enrolled in vocational-technical programs is also evident in some of these schools.

The teacher population consisted of all teachers from the eight regional vocational-technical high schools. This population totaling 583 teachers was divided into vocational (shop and related theory) teachers ($N = 378$) and academic teachers ($N = 205$). This allowed the researcher to compare similarities and differences in perceptions of these two groups to the concept of professionalization.

The administrators from all eight schools were surveyed. This group consisted of superintendent-directors, directors, and assistant directors ($N = 19$) who have direct supervisory responsibilities for teaching staff. The researcher collected but did not include data from guidance counselors and coordinators in the analysis of the data. The opinions of these individuals are valuable, but it was concluded that their inclusion introduced another variable. The focus of the study was limited to teacher and administrator perceptions.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire which was utilized in this study was adapted from the School Assessment Survey, (SAS), developed by Wilson, Firestone, and Herriot (1985). A complete copy of their questionnaire is located in Appendix A. The SAS is a multi-dimensional questionnaire that focuses on teacher perceptions in measuring organizational characteristics of a school. The authors have documented its uses as a research tool, in needs assessment, and/or for change planning.

The SAS contains 55 items measuring nine dimensions. These nine dimensions are: goal consensus, facilitative leadership, centralization of influence in classroom instruction, centralization of influence in curriculum resources, vertical communication, horizontal communication, staff conflict, student discipline, and teaching behavior. The dimensions and their definitions are summarized in Table 2 taken from Wilson et al (p. 5).

Wilson et al (1985) reviewed the literature to determine relationships between these dimensions and school effectiveness and improvement. The questionnaire was refined in four phases. In the first two phases, the authors refined the nine dimensions. In the third revision, additional questionnaire items were tested and the resulting 55 items were empirically evaluated. The

Table 2

School Assessment Survey Dimensions

DIMENSION	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE OF A QUESTION
Goal Consensus	Extent to which teachers share common goals and development of policy.	Rank these seven areas in terms of their importance to you as a member of your school. Vocational understanding and skill.
Facilitative Leadership	Actions of the principal that encourage and support the professional behavior of the teaching staff.	Indicate how frequently the principal gives teachers the feeling that their work is an important activity.
Centralization of Influence: Instruction	The ability of the principal to get teachers to carry out his/her wishes with respect to teaching.	Indicate how much influence the principal/teachers have in selecting required texts.
Centralization of Influence: Curriculum and Resources	The ability of the principal to get teachers to carry out his/her wishes with respect to scheduling and allocation of resources.	Indicate how much influence the principal/teachers have in student course assignment.

Continued, next page

Table 2 (Continued)

DIMENSION	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE OF A QUESTION
Vertical Communication	The extent to which information about instruction is shared between teachers and administrators.	Indicate how often you talk with administrators about units that work well or poorly.
Horizontal Communication	The extent to which information about instruction is shared among teachers.	Indicate how often you talk with other teachers about lessons or units that work well or poorly.
Staff Conflict	The frequency of disputes about school-related matters among teachers.	In the last 12 months how often have occurred among teachers regarding the need for administrative support for handling student discipline problems.
Student Discipline	The presence of an orderly environment in the school.	Throughout this school the atmosphere is orderly and businesslike.
Teaching Behavior	Actions of teachers that enhance the quality of instruction.	What percent of the teachers in this school try new teaching methods?

validity of the instrument was evaluated to determine that the instrument could be used in varying school contexts (elementary and secondary schools) and also to establish a relationship between students' behavior and the dimensions. Their findings indicate positive relationships in seven of the dimensions, and a positive relationship across contexts (although this relationship was weaker at the secondary level).

In the last phase, the questionnaire was normed and tested on a larger nationally representative sample. The resulting instrument which is the one currently in use was adapted for use in this study (see Appendix A).

Wilson et al (1985) grounded the questionnaire in the effective schools research of Edmonds and other researchers and organizational theory. They cited research for each dimension which indicated positive relationships between school effectiveness and improvement.

The researcher adapted this questionnaire with the permission of the author for use in the study (See Appendix B and C). A review of the literature indicated that four of the nine dimensions offer direct evidence of professionalization and teacher participation in decision making. These dimensions are: teaching behavior, facilitative leadership, centralization of influence, and communication. The researcher utilized these dimensions to measure the degree of professionalization of teachers in

vocational-technical high schools and added two dimensions, empowerment and satisfaction, to determine their readiness to participate in the decisions of the school. The concept of professionalization was operationalized to be the degree to which teachers participate in organizational decisions (Conley, S. and Schmidle, T., 1988) and their willingness to assume these new responsibilities. Included in each dimension are the categories of curriculum, resources, policy, willingness and disparity. Each of the six dimensions and five categories are described and defined below according to the purpose of the research.

Teaching Behavior

The degree to which teachers are willing to upgrade their skills, spend additional time in curriculum development or in other ways expand their role as professionals is a measure of the professionalization process. (Lieberman, 1988). Firestone and Wilson indicated in their review that this area directly impacts on student achievement. Eleven questions were included in which teachers and administrators were asked to assess teacher behavior in their school. Responses were none, few, some, most, and all. Three items in the series were curriculum oriented, one focused on resources, two concentrated on

policy, and five investigated teacher willingness to participate in decisions. A question in this category was:

How willing are teachers in this building to spend time after school in developing new curriculum?

Facilitative Leadership

The degree to which the leadership of the school facilitates or supports the work of teachers was explored. There appears to be a significant positive relationship between the type of leadership and teaching behavior (Firestone, W. and Wilson, B., 1985). The role of the administrator in facilitating or blocking the sharing of decisions has been noted (Conley et al., 1988).

This series of nine items, which addressed curriculum in three questions and policy in one, allowed teachers and administrators to evaluate the current status of administrative leadership in their schools. A question in this category was:

Using the following codes: never, sometimes, often, almost always, and always, indicate how frequently the administrator treats teachers as professional workers.

Centralization of Influence

Wilson and Firestone (1985) indicated that centralization is defined according to Hall (1982) as the

distribution of power or influence in the organization. The ability to determine who controls the daily decisions in the school indicates the extent of input that teachers have in decisions regarding curriculum, resources, and policy development. Karafotis (1990) has described evidence in the literature of the importance of shared power and control in the school on teacher empowerment.

This series of seventeen items included three targeting curriculum, seven which were resource oriented, and eight which were policy questions. Items in the series asked respondents to indicate how much influence both teachers and administrators had in decisions in the school. Responses were: no influence, minor influence, moderate influence or major influence. A question in this category was:

Indicate how much influence the teachers and
administrators have on the following decisions:
Selecting required texts.

The series was further divided for reporting purposes into teachers, administrators, and relative centralization of influence. All three categories were analyzed separately.

Communication

One of the themes in the literature is that teachers work in isolation (Pratzner, 1987; Carnegie Foundation,

1988). The extent to which administrators reinforce this isolation is the focus of vertical communication. The amount of communication with other staff members determined the degree of horizontal communication. Each category was considered separately.

This series included six questions, two concerning curriculum, two involving resources, and one which examined policy, which asked respondents to determine their frequency of discussion on specified topics with administrators and teachers. Responses were: never, sometimes, often, almost always, and always. A question in this series was:

Indicate how often you talk about lessons or curriculum units that work well or poorly with administrators (with other teachers).

Teacher Empowerment

In this dimension, the researcher adapted questions from Wilson and Firestone to require respondents to indicate their view of the extent to which teachers should be involved in the governance of the school. Administrators and teachers indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with ten items exploring the role of teachers in decision making. Three items in the series were curriculum oriented, two focused on resources and eight on policy related matters.

In this series, respondents reacted to the statement by indicating strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree or strongly disagree. A statement in this series was:

Teachers should be involved in the hiring of administrators.

Satisfaction

In the last series of six questions, the researcher attempted to determine the level of satisfaction teacher and administrators express toward their jobs, the value of their work, and their current involvement in decision-making. Four of the six items comprised the satisfaction category. Respondents reported the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as:

I am satisfied with my involvement in decision making in this school.

Curriculum

This category was explored in all of the six dimensions. The focus was on instruction and day-to-day classroom operation. The research indicates that typically, teachers have had more control over decisions in this area. Fourteen items were determined to be curriculum based. These items contained specific references to

choosing texts (9d.), establishing objectives (7b.), and planning instruction (9e.).

Resources

This category evaluated the involvement of teachers in decisions which have school-wide impact. Space, student and teacher assignments, and program budgets were placed in this category. Traditionally, these areas have been in the principal's domain. Twelve items in this category measured teacher influence in: identifying equipment (6d.), program and school budgets (6e., 9h.), and class and teacher scheduling (6i., 6j.).

Policy

In this category were considered those items which involved establishing goals, rules or other formal policies by which the school would operate. This area has been traditionally under the jurisdiction of the school board and chief administrators. Teachers have had little, if any input in this area. Included in the category were: teacher evaluation (6q., 9g.), hiring of staff (6l., 6m., 9b., 9c.), and promotion and graduation requirements (6o., 9a.). Twenty items explored policy related issues across the dimensions.

Willingness

This category included items from each dimension which indicated teacher willingness to be involved in the governance of the school. Five items in this category were analyzed. They include: teacher willingness to try new teaching methods (5d.), offer suggestions for improvement (5g.), waive contract rights (5k.), and use outside time to plan (5e.).

Disparity

This category allowed the researcher to measure the disparity between the reported level of teacher participation and the desired level of participation. Items from the centralization of influence series were matched with those from the teacher empowerment series to determine the degree of disparity between what currently exists and what respondents view as ideal. Eight pairs of items were compared. For example, present teacher involvement in hiring other teachers (6l.) was compared to desired level of teacher involvement in hiring (9b.) Likewise, present teacher involvement in choosing texts (6a.) was compared to desired level of teacher involvement in this process (9d.). The items focused on policy, resources, and curriculum.

The Pilot Test

The adapted instrument contained sixty one (61) items. A pilot test of the survey was conducted in June, 1989 with twenty participants from two regional vocational-technical high schools in western Massachusetts. These individuals were chosen because they were similar to the population to be studied but would not be involved in the study. Each individual completed the survey and answered questions regarding its appropriateness, length, and ability to understand.

Based upon the observations and comments of these participants as well as examination of completed surveys, the instrument was modified to simplify instructions which requested demographic information in items one through four and the instructions in item six. Two additional questions were added to address repeated observations: (1) in the teacher empowerment series, Teachers should be involved in the development of teacher oriented policies like hiring personnel, and evaluation of teachers; and (2) in the satisfaction series, Teachers have no business being involved in policy formulation, school governance, or school operation.

The revised instrument contained sixty three (63) items and was designed to be administered to administrators and teachers. The first four items requested demo-

graphic information from the respondent: level of education, sex, current position, years of experience and subject taught. The complete questionnaire is located in Appendix B.

Data Collection

The researcher obtained permission to conduct the survey from the superintendent-director in each school. The procedures for conducting the survey were as follows:

1. The superintendent of each school designated a contact person who distributed and collected the surveys.
2. During the first week in September, 1989, the questionnaires, a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research and a letter of endorsement (Appendix D) were distributed via school mailboxes to teachers and administrators in each school. In the cover letter, a contact person was designated.
3. The questionnaires were completed anonymously, and returned in a sealed envelope to the contact person who maintained a list of respondents.
4. A follow-up reminder was distributed to non-respondents and the contact person pursued additional returns. This method of collection was utilized to increase the percentage of completed

questionnaires. Wilson et al (1985) were able to obtain responses utilizing a similar method from 85 percent of the participants. In the present study, 86 percent of the questionnaires were returned. The surveys were administered and collected within a one month period.

Data Analysis

The data collected in the survey instrument were both categorical and continuous. The data were coded and entered into an appropriate computer statistical program for analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences was utilized.

The data were analyzed both descriptively and inferentially to determine if the research questions were addressed. The researcher employed descriptive techniques to determine frequency counts in all dimensions/categories and the demographic information in questions one through four.

The chi-square test was employed to determine differences in perceptions in individual items in the following categories:

1. between academic and vocational teachers,
2. between all teachers and administrators,

3. between vocational teachers and administrators, and
4. between academic teachers and administrators.

The chi-square was utilized in the analysis of the items of the six dimensions: teaching behavior, communication, facilitative leadership, centralization of influence, teacher empowerment, and satisfaction as well as the categories of curriculum, resources, policy, willingness, and disparity.

In addition, groups of items were averaged to create the dimensions and categories. Scores in each category were averaged to account for any missing information. A one-way analysis of variance was computed for each dimension and category to identify differences among school personnel and schools. Pairwise comparisons, using the modified Least Significant Differences test, were computed to identify which pairs of groups differed significantly on the dimensions and categories.

The centralization of instruction and resources dimension was examined by computing the difference between the teacher and administrator score for each category listed. A negative difference would indicate that administrators had greater influence in decisions. The greater the score the more centralized the influence was determined to be.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed to determine relationships between categories for both

teachers and administrators. Although the six dimensions measured specific characteristics, it was expected that there would be some association between the dimensions.

In addition, the reliability of each dimension and category was computed. The degree to which the items are homogeneous within each dimension was measured to determine their reliability.

Limitations

Because of the nature of the study, direct control and manipulation of the variables was not possible. The researcher cannot be certain that all relevant factors were included among the factors under study. Nor was the researcher able to determine causal relationships.

Because the study relied on informants, it is possible that they might not have totally represented the school. A high return rate of questionnaires partly addressed this issue.

Delimitations

The research was based on responses solicited from questionnaires of teachers and administrators of eight regional vocational-technical high schools in southeastern Massachusetts. Although the population is representative

of vocational technical high schools in the state, specific findings may not be generalized to all teachers and administrators nor all regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. In addition, the study did not take into consideration differences in vocational education program delivery found in academic regional schools and/or city vocational high schools.

The study was limited to teachers who were currently employed and generalization to future teachers may not be possible.

Summary

It was the purpose of this chapter to present a description of the population studied, a description of the instrument and method of data collection. In Chapter IV, a detailed analysis of the data will ensue.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and present the analysis of the data collected in the study. It is organized around the four research questions which were tested.

The purpose of the study was to address the issues regarding the professionalization of teachers in regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. To this end, the perceptions of vocational-technical high school teachers and administrators were compared. In addition, the extent to which professionalization exists in eight vocational-technical high schools was explored. The results and analysis are presented in table and narrative form.

Collection and Presentation of the Data

The questionnaire (see Appendix B) in this study was distributed to six hundred two teachers and administrators at eight regional vocational-technical high schools in southeastern Massachusetts. Table 3 provides information

on the total population and distribution of surveys in each school. The surveys were distributed to 378 vocational instructors, 205 academic instructors and nineteen administrators.

Table 3
Distribution Of Surveys by Job Title/School

School	Number of Administrators	Number of Teachers		Total
		Vocational	Academic	
School 1	2	37	27	66
School 2	2	48	26	76
School 3	2	48	36	86
School 4	3	103	48	154
School 5	2	34	16	52
School 6	3	34	10	50
School 7	3	46	24	76
School 8	2	28	18	48
Total	19	378	205	602

Of the 602 surveys which were distributed, 521 were returned in usable condition and were included in the data analysis. Four partially completed surveys were not included in the accounting, nor were seven surveys which arrived after the data were processed. Eighty one surveys

contained comments in section eleven which elaborated on questions and answers in the survey. Table 4 contains information accounting for the survey forms by school and the disposition of the forms based upon the number of usable returns, 521. This number represents a return rate of 86 percent which is an exceptionally strong return rate. In four schools, the return rate was ninety percent or better. In School 5, one hundred percent of the

Table 4
Survey Returns for Each School

School	Number Distributed		Number Returned	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	66	10.8	51	77.2
2	76	12.7	45	59.2
3	86	14.1	82	95.3
4	154	25.5	144	93.5
5	52	8.5	52	100.0
6	50	8.2	42	84.0
7	76	12.5	60	78.9
8	48	7.9	43	89.5
Response Not Listed	2			
	602	100.0	521	86.5

surveys were returned. In only one school, School 2, was the response rate less than sixty percent.

The respondents consisted of three groups: vocational teachers, academic teachers, and administrators. Specifically, 324 vocational teachers (62.1 percent), 176 academic teachers (33.7 percent), and nineteen administrators (3.6 percent) returned the surveys. Table 5 lists the survey returns for each school by the job

Table 5
Survey Returns By Job Category and School

School	Surveys Returned			Total
	Administrators	Vocational	Academic	
School 1	2	31	18	51
School 2	2	26	17	45
School 3	2	46	34	82
School 4	3	91	50	144
School 5	2	34	16	52
School 6	3	26	13	42
School 7	3	41	16	60
School 8	2	29	12	43
Response Not Listed				2
Total	19 (3.6%)	324 (62.1%)	176 (33.7%)	521

categories: administrator, vocational teacher, and academic teacher. Two surveys did not include this information.

Respondent Characteristics

Table 6 (page 69) contains information regarding the highest level of formal education completed by each respondent. Twenty five percent of the respondents have completed high school or earned an equivalency. Thirteen percent have completed a two year college degree, and thirty eight percent have completed a four year degree. Approximately twenty two percent completed a Master's Degree or beyond. This is a population whose diverse educational experiences must be taken into consideration.

Specific information was also obtained for each job category. Almost all of the administrators (95 percent) earned a Master's degree or beyond. The educational experiences of the vocational teachers ranged from a high school diploma to a Master's degree. For forty percent of these instructors, however, a high school diploma is the only degree earned. Of the 176 academic teachers who responded, almost all (98 percent) have completed a Bachelor's and/or Master's degree.

Of the 521 respondents, 153 (29.5 percent) were females and 366 (70.5 percent) were males.

Table 6
Respondent Level of Education by Job Title

Level of Education	Administrators		Teachers				Total	
	No.	Percent	Vocational		Academic		No.	Percent
			No.	Percent	No.	Percent		
High School/ G.E.D.	0	0	135	26.0	0	0	135	26.0
Associate's Degree	0	0	69	13.2	1	.3	70	13.5
Bachelor's Degree	1	.2	94	18.1	103	19.7	198	38.0
Master's Degree	16	3.1	27	5.2	70	13.4	113	21.7
Doctorate	2	.4	0	0	.2	.4	4	.8
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	19	3.7	326	62.5	176	33.8	521	100.0

The respondents are reported by job category and gender in Table 7 (page 70). A majority of the vocational teachers were males (78 percent). Ninety two (52 percent) of the academic teachers were males. Two female and seventeen male administrators completed the survey. These figures reinforce studies in the literature (Antonellis et al, 1988) which offer evidence of little female involvement in vocational education.

Table 7
Survey Respondents by Gender and Job Title

Gender	Administrators		Teachers				Total	
	No.	Percent	Vocational		Academic		No.	Percent
			No.	Percent	No.	Percent		
Females	2	10.4	69	13.5	82	15.8	153	29.4
Males	17	3.2	257	49.3	92	17.7	366	70.5
Not Listed							2	.1
	19	3.6	326	62.8	174	33.5	521	100

The respondents reported their years of experience in their current position. Of the 521 respondents, twenty seven (5.2%) did not complete this item. The average for all respondents was 10.03 years. The range of experience for all respondents was one to thirty two years. Since regional vocational-technical high schools have only existed since 1962, it would be difficult for teachers to be employed more than twenty seven years. Some teachers may have approximated their response and/or included prior trade or teaching experience in their calculation. Table 8 (page 71) contains this information for all respondents.

Administrators averaged 7.3 years of experience which was less than vocational and academic teachers. The

range of experience for administrators was one to twenty three years. Fifty percent of the administrators had five years or less experience in their current position. On the whole, administrators averaged less experience than the other two groups.

Table 8
Respondent Experience in Current Position

Job Title	Mean Years of Experience
Administrators	7.3
Vocational Teachers	9.8
Academic Teachers	10.7
Average for All	10.03

Vocational teachers averaged 9.8 years of experience, ranging from one to thirty years. Fifty one percent of the vocational teachers had less than ten years experience, but twenty one percent have worked more than fifteen years. Nineteen percent of the vocational teachers who completed the survey are new instructors with less than three years of experience. This represents a broad spectrum of inexperienced, tenured and veteran teachers.

Academic teachers averaged 10.7 years of experience in their current position. The range of experience for

these teachers was one to thirty two years. Fifty percent averaged less than ten years of experience, while thirty percent have taught for more than fifteen years in their current position. Thirteen percent have taught more than twenty years as compared to ten percent of the vocational teachers and twelve percent of the administrators.

Reliability of Items within Dimensions/Categories

In order to determine the degree to which the items in each dimension and category were internally consistent, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated. This measure provides information on the homogeneity of items within dimensions and categories. Borg and Gall (1983) noted that .70 is an acceptable standard.

The data presented in Table 9 which follows on page 73 establish strong positive relationships of better than .70 among items in each of the dimensions with the exception of Satisfaction. The items in this dimension have a weaker relationship to each other (.50). Four of the categories, curriculum, resources, policy, and disparity show a strong association. This kind of association indicates the strong interrelationship of items in these categories. The category, Willingness, has an alpha of .67 which indicates a weaker relationship between items.

Table 9
Reliability Estimates for Items
within Dimensions and Categories

Dimension	Number of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Teaching Behavior	11	.81
Centralization of Influence		
Teachers	17	.88
Administrators	17	.77
Teachers-Administrators	17	.81
Communication		
Horizontal	6	.87
Vertical	6	.89
Facilitative Leadership	9	.96
Empowerment	10	.76
Satisfaction	4	.50
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed;"/>		
Category	Number of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Curriculum	14	.75
Resources	12	.75
Policy	19	.73
Willingness	5	.67
Disparity	8	.77

Relationship between Dimensions/Categories

To obtain an overview of the relationship between dimensions and categories a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was calculated. Six dimensions were measured: teaching behavior, centralization of influence, communication, facilitative leadership, empowerment and satisfaction. Centralization of influence was divided for the purpose of analysis into teacher influence, administrator influence and relative centralization of influence. Communication was also divided into horizontal and vertical communication. Five categories which contained items across the dimensions were established. Items were placed in categories based upon their identification as measures of curriculum, resource, policy, willingness, and disparity. Although each dimension was separate and distinct from the others, it would be expected that some interdimensional association would exist.

The data with significant relationships indicated by an asterisk are presented in Table 10, page 75. A number of intercorrelations were significant at the .05 level. There appeared to be a moderate association among all dimensions and categories. An examination of the correlation matrix indicates that Teaching Behavior and Willingness had the highest correlation ($r = .89$) which is evidence of their close association.

Table 10

Relationships Between Dimensions and Categories

	Tchg 1	TInfl 2	AIInfl 3	T-AIn 4	ComH 5	ComV 6	Ldrs 7	Empwr 8	Satis 9	Curr 10	Rsr 11	Plcy 12	Wllg 13	Disp 14
Tchg 1		.30*	.39*	.24*	.02	.32*	.25*	.01	.19*	.51*	.31*	.13*	.89*	-.21*
TInfl 2			.51*	-.05*	.30*	.36*	.37*	-.07*	.25*	.63*	.83*	.54*	.23*	-.26*
AIInfl 3				.67*	.02	.63*	.42*	-.04	.49*	.68*	.46*	-.03	.31*	-.57*
T-AIn 4					-.35*	.57*	.23*	.04	.29*	.30*	.01	-.27*	.19*	-.52*
ComH 5						.01	.22*	-.06	.06	.25*	.29*	.36*	-.01*	.04
ComV 6							.56*	.04	.39*	.54*	.36*	.06	.24*	-.51*
Ldrs 7								-.01	.25*	.66*	.44*	.21*	.18*	-.26*
Empwr 8									-.07*	.04	.02	.44*	.06	.63*
Satis 9										.43*	.26*	.05	.10*	-.31*
Curr 10											.59*	.31*	.37*	-.32*
Rsr 11												.53*	.25*	-.21*

*Significant at the .05 level.

Continued, next page.

Table 10 (Continued)

	Tchg 1	TInfl 2	AIInfl 3	T-AIn 4	ComH 5	ComV 6	Ldrs 7	Empwr 8	Satis 9	Curr 10	Rsrs 11	Plcy 12	Wllg 13	Disp 14
Plcy 12													.16*	.27*
Wllg 13														-.12*
Disp 14														

*Significant at the .05 level.

Abbreviation	Key to Abbreviations Dimension/Category
Tchg	Teaching Behavior
TInflu	Centralization of Influence-Teacher
AIInflu	Centralization of Influence-Administrator
T-AInflu	Relative Centralization of Influence
ComH	Horizontal Communication
ComV	Vertical Communication
Ldrs	Facilitative Leadership
Empwr	Teacher Empowerment
Satis	Satisfaction
Curr	Curriculum
Rsrs	Resources
Plcy	Policy
Wllg	Willingness
Disp	Disparity

In addition, there was a high positive correlation ($r = .83$) between Teacher Centralization of Influence and Resources. The kind of influence that teachers may have in decision making may be in determining program budgets, and equipment and supply purchase.

Relationship between Years of Experience and Responses

In order to determine if there was any association between respondent years of experience in current position and item ratings, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was computed (Table 11, page 78). The literature provides references to differences between veteran and less experienced staff with regard to attitudes and perceptions, a phenomenon known as teacher burn-out.

Table 11 provides data which indicate that respondents with more experience tended to rate items significantly lower in the following dimensions and categories: centralization of influence, vertical communication, facilitative leadership, curriculum, and resources. The greater the experience, the lower the ratings tended to be. More experienced respondents tended to rate teacher and administrator influence in decision making, as well as the relative centralization of influence, lower than less experienced respondents. It appears that in these critical areas veteran teachers and

administrators report less vertical communication and an administrative style which is not facilitative to teacher input.

Table 11
Relationships between Years of Experience
and Respondent Ratings

Dimension	Years of Experience
Teaching Behavior	.01
Centralization of Influence	
Teacher	-.11*
Administrator	-.17*
Teacher - Administrator	-.10*
Communication	
Horizontal	-.01
Vertical	-.16*
Facilitative Leadership	-.17*
Empowerment	-.03
Satisfaction	-.03
Category	Years of Experience
Curriculum	-.23*
Resources	-.11*
Policy	-.02
Willingness	.01
Disparity	.06

* Significant at the .05 level.

Addressing The Research Questions

There were three research questions which are addressed in the analysis which follows:

1. What are the perceptions of vocational and academic teachers toward teacher professionalization?;
2. What are the perceptions of administrators toward teacher professionalization?; and
3. What are the similarities and differences among the three groups toward teacher professionalization?

A one-way analysis of variance was computed for each dimension and category to identify differences among vocational teachers, academic teachers, and administrators with respect to their ratings. This test was designed to determine if significant differences existed among the groups. Pairwise comparisons were computed to identify which groups differed significantly on the dimensions and categories. The results are presented in Tables 12 and 13 beginning on page 80 and in the discussion which follows.

Similarities and Differences Among Teachers and Administrators

Analyses of variance among responses of vocational teachers, academic teachers and administrators were computed for each dimension and category. The results are presented in Table 12 (page 80) which include mean

Table 12

Analysis of Variance for Differences among Respondents
by Dimensions/Categories

Dimension		Vocational Teachers	Academic Teachers	Adminis- trators	f-ratio	sig.
Teaching Behavior	M	3.45	3.33	3.39	4.06	.02
	SD	.42	.46	.52		
Centralization of Influence						
Teachers	M	2.41	2.33	2.86	8.38	.001
	SD	.57	.48	.38		
Administrators	M	3.51	3.52	3.52	.04	.96
	SD	.36	.33	.33		
Teachers- Administrators	M	-1.14	-1.18	-.64	6.14	.01
	SD	.64	.63	.43		
Communication						
Horizontal	M	3.50	3.52	3.52	.18	.84
	SD	.41	.42	.47		
Vertical	M	2.46	2.40	2.82	3.56	.03
	SD	.68	.56	.65		
Facilitative Leadership	M	3.09	2.85	3.99	10.19	.001
	SD	1.07	1.08	.70		
Empowerment	M	3.81	3.89	4.08	2.7	.07
	SD	.54	.61	.37		
Satisfaction	M	3.76	3.70	4.29	7.01	.01
	SD	.64	.68	.49		

Continued, next page

Table 12 (continued)

Category		Vocational Teachers	Academic Teachers	Adminis- trators	f-ratio	sig.
Curriculum	M	3.52	3.40	3.99	11.62	.01
	SD	.53	.55	.44		
Resources	M	3.44	3.40	3.84	4.37	.001
	SD	.63	.61	.51		
Policy	M	3.87	3.89	4.10	1.68	.19
	SD	.51	.61	.34		
Willingness	M	3.30	3.16	3.27	3.75	.02
	SD	.51	.54	.57		
Disparity	M	1.79	1.95	1.35	5.50	.004
	SD	.82	.81	.49		

ratings and Table 13 (page 83) which provides a summary of differences among administrators and teachers. Specific areas of similarity and difference which are significant for items within dimensions/categories are found in Table 14 (page 85). This table includes significant Chi-Square data. Appendix E (page 167) includes Chi-Square data for all items.

The results and discussion are presented for each dimension and category. A summary of similarities and differences is discussed and graphically presented in Figure 1, page 103. Conclusions regarding these data are presented in Chapter V.

Teaching Behavior

This set of eleven items asked teachers and administrators to rate the teachers in their school in regard to instruction, planning, professional development and daily school operation. A significant difference among vocational teachers, academic teachers, and administrators was observed. (Table 12, page 80). The mean rating of vocational teachers ($M = 3.45$) was higher than either administrators ($M = 3.39$) or academic teachers ($M = 3.33$). Vocational teachers are more likely to feel that some or most of the teachers in their school would engage in these teaching behaviors. Academic teachers are less likely to indicate that teachers assist slower students, plan instruction, or take courses.

Specific differences were observed among vocational and academic teachers. Vocational teachers rated items in this series significantly higher than academic teachers (Table 13, page 83). Academic teachers indicated that some of the teachers in their school engaged in these activities.

Significant differences in vocational and academic teacher ratings were noted in the following items: teacher encouragement of students, planning instruction to meet needs of slower students, trying new methods, and taking courses to upgrade skills (Table 14, page 85). These

Table 13

Mean Ratings of Respondents that Differ Significantly
by Dimensions and Categories

Dimension	Vocational Teachers vs Academic Teachers	Academic Teachers vs Administrators	Vocational Teachers vs Administrators
Teaching Behavior	Voc Higher	No Dif	No Dif
Centralization of Influence			
Teachers	No Dif	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Administrators	No Dif	No Dif	No Dif
Teachers- Administrators	No Dif	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Communication			
Horizontal	No Dif	No Dif	No Dif
Vertical	No Dif	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Facilitative Leadership	Voc Higher	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Empowerment	No Dif	No Dif	Admin Higher
Satisfaction	No Dif	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
<hr/>			
Category			
Curriculum	Voc Higher	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Resources	No Dif	Admin Higher	Admin Higher
Policy	No Dif	No Dif	No Dif
Willingness	Voc Higher	No Dif	No Dif
Disparity	Acad Higher	Acad Higher	Voc Higher

Continued. next page

Table 13, continued

Examples of terms used in Table 13:

Voc Higher = Vocational teachers had a higher mean rating than academic teachers/administrators.

Acad Higher = Academic teachers had a higher mean rating than vocational teachers/administrators.

Admin Higher = Administrators had a higher mean rating than vocational/academic teachers.

No Dif = There was no significant difference between the two groups.

differences in perception may be indicative of the separation of academic teachers from vocational teachers.

Centralization of Influence

In the items in this dimension, respondents were asked to indicate how decisions are made in their school. To this end, respondents indicated the influence of teachers and administrators in decision making. The relative centralization of influence was analyzed by computing the difference between respondent ratings for teacher influence and respondent ratings for administrator influence.

Teacher Influence. When teachers and administrators were asked to indicate the degree of teacher influence in various decisions in the school, there was a significant

Table 14

Significant Chi-Square Indices by Job Title
and Dimension and Category

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
5. Teaching Behavior				
a. Encourage Students	1.24 N= 502	1.35 333	2.57 188	19.25† 483
c. Plan Instruction	2.44 N= 503	6.24 332	1.47 190	18.54† 484
d. Try New Methods	2.92 N= 495	9.54† 325	2.06 189	33.56† 476
f. Taking Courses	3.73 N= 500	3.68 329	4.38 190	15.72† 481
i. Plan with Teachers	11.68† N= 500	13.11† 330	8.18 189	9.14 481
k. Waive Contract	11.46† N= 442	11.97† 293	6.95 166	1.39 425
6. Facilitative Leadership				
a. Professional Workers	11.25† N= 510	8.98 338	15.06† 191	5.41 491
b. Professional Development	12.91† N= 510	10.74† 338	16.32† 191	10.22† 491
c. Important Work	11.45† N= 510	9.50† 337	14.87† 192	5.54 491
d. Constructive Criticism	23.30† N= 511	17.72† 338	31.64† 192	10.34† 492

Continued, next page

Table 14 (Continued)

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
e. Positive Contribution N=	18.85† 508	14.98† 336	24.14† 190	9.26 490
f. Meetings Valuable N=	18.16† 509	12.69† 337	31.16† 191	18.76† 495
h. Valuable Suggestions N=	20.59† 511	17.40† 338	23.62† 192	4.30 492
i. Policy Implement N=	24.45† 506	20.51† 337	25.59† 188	4.39 487
7. Centralization of Influence				
c. Tchr-Adm Lesson Plan N=	2.44 473	1.57 313	6.04† 177	8.53† 456
d. Tchr Identify Equipment N=	2.48 508	1.76 336	5.08 190	21.87† 490
Tchr-Adm Equipment N=	.31 479	.16 316	1.01 181	6.42† 461
e. Tchr Budgets N=	11.99† 501	12.90† 331	11.58† 188	11.03† 483
f. Tchr Schedules N=	22.47† 492	22.53† 324	17.46† 186	7.62 474
g. Tchr Supplies Resources N=	8.55† 495	9.21† 326	9.19† 187	12.55† 477
h. Tchr Add/ Drop N=	13.10† 491	18.78† 323	6.25 186	32.70† 473
Adm Add/ Drop N=	4.00 490	6.89 327	1.40 180	8.81† 473
Tchr-Adm Add/Drop N=	13.00† 474	17.89† 313	5.99† 178	9.14† 457

Continued, next page

Table 14 (Continued)

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
i. Tchr Tchr Assign N= 489	13.43† 321	15.33† 321	9.63† 186	7.68 471
Tchr-Adm Tchr Assign N= 473	1.57 312	1.83 312	1.29 178	1.26 456
j. Tchr School Space N= 499	16.80† 329	16.46† 329	19.71† 187	29.23† 478
Adm School Space N= 491	5.02 325	3.26 325	9.50† 184	6.49 473
Tchr-Adm School Space N= 482	.45 318	.06 318	4.19 181	15.08† 465
k. Tchr Discipline N= 498	4.05 330	4.31 330	4.65 186	8.87† 480
l. Tchr Hiring Teachers N= 496	17.71† 326	15.12† 326	24.62† 188	12.28† 478
Tchr-Adm Hiring Tchrs N= 480	8.80† 317	5.52 317	15.37† 180	6.04† 463
m. Tchr Hiring Adm N= 497	22.30† 328	18.42† 328	29.48† 187	5.47 479
n. Tchr Non Tchng Duties N= 495	17.58† 324	14.44† 324	20.57† 184	6.60 478
Tchr-Adm Promotion N= 487	7.43† 323	8.18† 323	5.29 182	2.76 469
p. Tchr Attend Policies N= 502	12.58† 331	10.47† 331	17.84† 189	11.56† 484
Tchr-Adm Attn Policies N= 485	11.30† 321	8.86† 321	13.91† 182	4.91 467

Continued, next page

Table 14 (Continued)

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
q. Tchr Tchr Eval	9.05† N= 497	8.37† 329	10.13† 189	8.72† 479
Admn Tchr Eval	7.68 N= 491	9.20† 326	4.35 183	3.73 473
Tchr-Admn Tchr Eval	3.82 N= 487	14.78† 319	9.83† 180	3.47 463
8. Communication				
a. Hor-Lesson Plans	3.54 N= 505	4.88 336	1.57 186	9.97† 488
Vert-Lesson Plans	15.24† N= 484	13.56† 323	17.20† 180	10.78† 469
Vert-Control Students	39.23† N= 508	31.17† 323	32.20† 181	2.50 470
c. Hor-Improve Discipline	3.25 N= 487	2.88 335	5.20 186	12.14† 487
Vert-Improve Discipline	41.44† N= 492	34.25† 326	36.32† 183	1.26 475
Vert-Grading	17.80† N= 488	16.15† 325	18.50† 180	1.25 471
e. Hor-Public Relations	5.21 N= 504	3.81 334	8.70 187	30.90† 487
Vert-Public Relations	14.80† N= 492	13.94† 326	14.28† 183	7.67† 475
f. Hor-Resources	4.16 N= 501	3.98 333	6.60 185	19.15† 484
Vert-Resources	16.28† N= 490	13.38† 327	19.53† 188	4.83 473

Continued, next page

Table 14 (Continued)

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
9. Empowerment				
b. Hiring Tchrs	4.25 N= 509	2.68 339	8.20 189	9.59† 490
e. Planning Instruction	14.12† N= 512	14.06† 341	12.04† 191	4.26 493
f. Inservice	18.04† N= 512	20.80† 340	12.09† 191	5.15 493
10. Satisfaction				
b. Job Important	10.22† N= 513	8.82 338	12.43† 194	8.23 494
c. Voc Courses Important	4.89 N= 511	9.90† 336	2.13 194	61.95† 492
d. Tchrs Have No Business	2.41 N= 512	2.48 337	3.48 194	11.96† 493
f. Satisfied	78.20† N= 509	71.80† 336	53.45† 192	3.98 490
Disparity (Empowerment- Current Status)				
b. Policy	4.65 N= 497	3.56 328	6.18† 187	5.55 475
c. Hiring Tchrs	3.82 N= 487	2.09 322	10.67† 183	3.51 469
d. Hiring Admin.	7.72† N= 492	4.93 326	9.31† 184	6.35† 474
f. Tchr Evaluation	8.03† N= 491	5.56 326	12.17† 183	1.75 473

Continued, next page

Table 14 (Continued)

Item	All Teachers	Voc Teachers	Ac Teachers	Voc Teachers
	Administrators	Administrators	Administrators	Ac Teachers
g. School Budget	5.40 N= 494	3.82 328	7.51† 184	2.76 476
h. Policy Develop	15.75† N= 491	12.29† 324	11.52† 185	3.51 473

Note: Items which are not significantly different are found in Appendix E, page 167).

difference among vocational teacher, academic teacher, and administrator responses (Table 12, page 80). Administrators indicated that teachers had between a minor and moderate influence on decisions in the school ($M = 2.86$). Vocational teachers rated this influence lower ($M = 2.41$) but not significantly different than academic teachers ($M = 2.33$). The administrators expressed the opinion that teachers have more influence in decisions than the teachers themselves expressed (Table 13, page 83).

The Chi-Square indices (Table 14, page 85) provide evidence of specific differences. The areas in which administrators and all teachers differ in regard to teacher influence are: the development of program budgets, scheduling, allocating supplies and resources, adding and dropping courses, teacher assignment, use of school space, assignment of nonteaching duties, and hiring teachers and

administrators. For example, 76 percent of the administrators reported that teachers had moderate or major input in program budgets, while only 32 percent of the teachers expressed these same feelings.

Vocational teachers were more likely than administrators to rate higher teacher influence in adding and dropping courses. Academic teachers were more likely than the other two groups to report that they had no influence or a minor involvement in hiring other teachers.

Administrator Influence. When respondents were asked to rate administrator influence in the same decisions, there was no significant difference among administrator ratings and ratings by both groups of teachers (Table 12, page 80). Administrators rated their influence as greater than moderate ($M = 3.52$). Vocational teachers rated administrator influence ($M = 3.51$) about the same as academic teachers ($M = 3.52$). All three groups indicate that administrators have more influence in school decisions than teachers (Table 13, page 83).

Relative Centralization of Influence. By computing the difference among respondents ratings for teacher influence and respondent ratings for administrator influence, a relative centralization of influence was obtained. This difference was higher for teachers (vocational

teachers, $M = -1.1$; academic teachers, $M = -1.18$) than administrators ($M = -.64$). In this computation, the larger the rating, the greater the perceived influence. Teachers feel that administrators have greater influence on decisions in the school (Table 12, page 80). Administrators do not perceive that they have the degree of influence that teachers indicate (Table 13, page 83).

Communication

The opportunity that is provided for teachers to discuss topics among themselves (horizontal communication) and with administrators (vertical communication) was explored in this series of five items.

Horizontal Communication. When respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of discussion among teachers on a variety of topics, there appeared to be no significant differences in ratings among administrators, vocational teachers, and academic teachers (Table 12, page 80). Administrators and academic teachers rated this area alike ($M = 3.52$) while vocational teachers rated the communication between teachers at their school at 3.50. The three groups indicated that teachers almost always (three or four times a week) discussed with other teachers such topics as lesson plans and student motivation.

Significant differences among academic and vocational teachers were noted in the frequency of communication in the following areas: lesson plans, improving discipline, public relations, and obtaining materials or resources. For example, 52 percent of the vocational teachers indicated that they almost always or always had discussions regarding discipline with other teachers, while 39 percent of the academic teachers reported these discussions (Table 14, page 85).

Vertical Communication. There was a significant difference among teachers and administrators on the frequency of discussion of these same topics between administrators and all teachers (Table 12, page 80). Administrators rated this series at a higher level ($M = 2.82$) than vocational teachers ($M = 2.46$) or academic teachers ($M = 2.40$). Administrators indicate that there is more vertical discussion than the academic and vocational teachers express. There was no significant difference among the two groups of teachers in this dimension (Table 13, page 83). Both academic teachers and vocational teachers tended to agree that administrators sometimes (twice a month) discuss these topics with teachers. Their ratings of items in the series were lower.

Significant differences among administrators and academic teachers and vocational teachers were noted in

each of the six items in this series. (Table 14, page 85). Vocational and academic teachers differed in their opinions of discussion regarding lesson plans. Twenty four percent of the vocational teachers indicated that administrators discussed lesson plan development with teachers at a rate of twice a week or more. Fourteen percent of the academic teachers expressed this opinion.

Facilitative Leadership

Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which administrators in their school provided positive facilitative leadership. There were significant differences among the three groups (Table 12, page 80). Administrators ($M = 3.99$) rated these items higher than vocational teachers ($M = 3.09$) and academic teachers ($M = 2.85$). Administrators believed that they always (daily) engaged in these activities. Vocational teachers indicated that administrators almost always engaged in these activities (three or four times a week).

There were significant differences among administrators and all teachers on eight of the nine items in the series (Table 14, page 85). Academic teachers and administrators differed on these same items. Vocational teachers and administrators differed on seven of the nine items. They expressed the opinion that they were treated

as professional workers and that staff were involved in developing inservice training. Academic teachers and administrators did not differ on the latter area. Vocational and academic teachers differed in three areas: professional development, constructive criticism, and making meetings valuable. Vocational teachers tended to rate administrators more highly in these areas than academic teachers.

Empowerment

This series of ten items was designed to determine the desired level of teacher participation in school decisions. There were no significant differences among the three groups in expressing their desires for teacher participation (Table 12, page 80). Administrators rated this series the highest ($M = 4.08$). The majority of administrators agreed that teachers should be involved in school decisions. Academic teachers ($M = 3.89$) rated this dimension higher than vocational teachers, but this difference was not significant (Table 13, page 83). Nor was there a significant difference among academic teachers and administrators (Table 13, page 83).

There were specific differences in administrator and vocational and academic teacher ratings of the desired level of teacher involvement in planning instruction and

inservice training. Almost 100 percent of the administrators agreed or strongly agreed that teachers should coach other teachers or develop workshops. Almost 25 percent of the teachers were neutral or disagreed with these ideas.

Vocational and academic teachers differed in their opinion of their role in hiring teachers. Fifty six percent of the vocational teachers agreed or strongly agreed that teachers should be involved in the hiring of other teachers. Forty five percent of the academic teachers expressed similar opinions.

Satisfaction

This series of items was designed to explore respondent levels of satisfaction with their roles. There was a significant difference among the three groups of respondents in this series of items (Table 12, page 80). Administrators ($M = 4.29$) rated their satisfaction higher than academic teachers ($M = 3.89$) and vocational teachers ($M = 3.81$). They were more likely to agree that their job was important and that they were satisfied with their role in school decision making. Seventy four percent of the administrators disagreed or strongly disagreed that vocational courses are more important than academic courses. Thirty nine percent of the vocational teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with this idea, but twenty seven

percent agreed or strongly agreed that vocational courses are more important. Although the administrators did not differ with academic teachers on the importance of vocational courses, vocational and academic teachers did differ significantly (Table 13, page 83). There appears to be confusion in the vocational-technical school regarding mission and traditional vocational delivery.

There was an additional area of difference among vocational and academic teachers. Academic teachers (62 percent) were more likely to strongly disagree with the statement that "teachers have no business in school decision making" than vocational teachers (46 percent) did. As a group they were more empathetic in their support of teacher involvement.

A significant difference was determined among administrators and academic teachers regarding the importance of their work (Table 14, page 85). Ten percent of the academic teachers indicated that they were neutral or disagreed that their job was important. Fifty eight percent of the academic teachers strongly agreed with this statement, while all of the administrators strongly agreed that their job was important.

When administrators and teachers were asked if they had job security, there were no significant differences in their ratings. Thirty nine percent of the administrators and thirty percent of the teachers disagreed or strongly

disagreed that they have job security. This finding is consistent with the research which indicates that dwindling resources are affecting the stability and security of teaching and administrative positions.

Curriculum

This category measured responses to curriculum oriented items in each of the dimensions. There was a significant difference among administrators and teachers regarding items which were curriculum related (Table 12, page 80). Administrators tended to score higher ($M = 3.99$) than vocational teachers ($M = 3.51$) or academic teachers ($M = 3.39$). They indicate that teachers are more involved in curriculum issues such as planning instruction, selecting texts, establishing objectives, and developing daily lesson plans. Academic teachers scored significantly lower in this category than vocational teachers did (Table 13 page, 83). Of all three groups, they feel that teachers are less involved in curriculum decisions.

Resources

This category was designed to measure the involvement of teachers in determining budgets, choosing supplies

and texts, and scheduling classes. Administrators ($M = 3.84$) scored significantly higher than vocational teachers ($M = 3.44$) and academic teachers ($M = 3.40$). (Table 12, page 80). There was no significant difference in vocational and academic teacher perceptions. Administrators were more likely to indicate that teachers had greater influence with regard to school resources than the teachers expressed.

Policy

In this category, teacher influence in policy matters such as evaluation, hiring, grading, and attendance was measured. The category contained items from the teacher empowerment series and centralization of influence series. There was no difference among the three groups in their ratings in this category (Table 12, page 80). Administrators, however, scored these items higher ($M = 4.10$) than academic teachers ($M = 3.89$) or vocational teachers ($M = 3.87$).

Willingness

This category measured teacher willingness to be involved in school decision making. There was a significant difference among the three groups. Vocational

teachers scored this area higher ($M = 3.30$) than either administrators ($M = 3.27$) or academic teachers ($M = 3.16$) (Table 12, page 80). There was a significant difference among vocational and academic teachers (Table 13, page 83). Vocational teachers were more likely to express the opinion that teachers were willing to try new methods, take courses, plan instruction outside the school day and waive contract rights.

Disparity

The difference between the degree of influence that respondents believe they should have and their actual status is a measure of their level of disparity. There was a significant difference between the level of disparity of administrators, vocational teachers and academic teachers (Table 12, page 80). The level of disparity of academic teachers ($M = 1.95$) was higher than vocational teachers ($M = 1.79$) or administrators ($M = 1.35$). All teachers were significantly different than administrators (Table 13, page 83). Academic teachers differed with vocational teachers in one area, the hiring of administrators. Academic teachers differed from administrators on six measures including: hiring teachers and administrators, evaluation and program budgets. Vocational teachers and administrators differed in regard to the role of teachers

in developing teacher evaluation procedures. (Table 14, page 85).

Summary of Similarities and Differences

An analysis of variance for each dimension/category by job title was computed. Significant differences were determined in eleven dimensions and categories among administrators, vocational teachers, and academic teachers. No differences among the three groups were observed in Horizontal Communication, Administrator Centralization of Influence, Empowerment, and Policy. These differences are depicted in Figure 1, page 102.

Administrator ratings were higher in nine of the fourteen areas which were examined. There is also evidence of less disparity for this group in terms of reported levels of influence and desired levels of influence. This group is satisfied with its role in decision making, believes their work is important and overestimates the involvement of teachers in decision making in their school.

Vocational teacher ratings of teacher behavior tended to be higher than the other two groups. Vocational and academic teachers were similar in nine of the fourteen dimensions and categories. They differed in

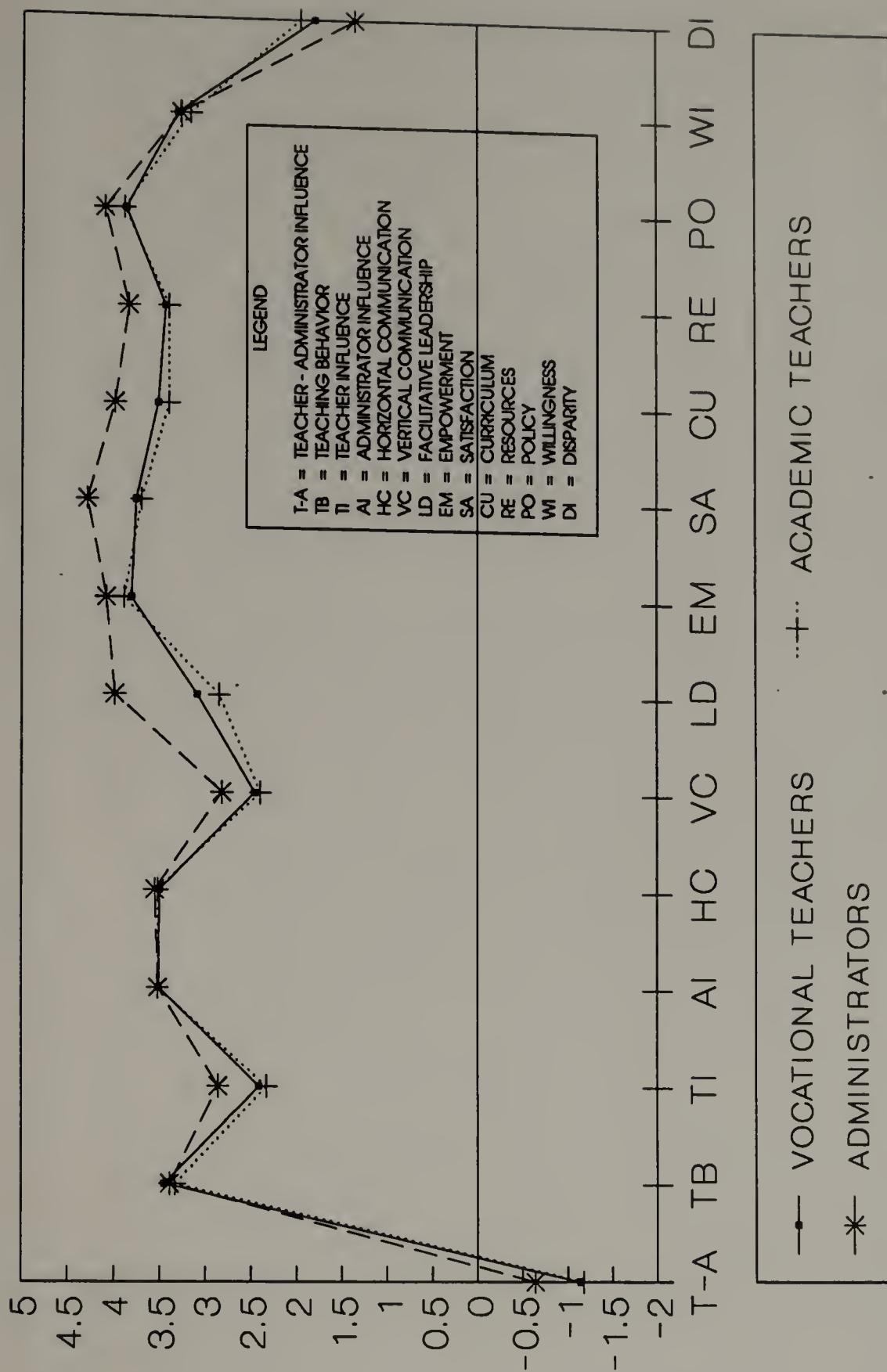


Figure 1

A comparison of mean ratings of vocational teachers, academic teachers and administrators.

their ratings of teaching behavior, facilitative leadership, curriculum, willingness, and disparity. In the first four areas, vocational teachers rated items in the series higher than academic teachers. Their level of disparity, however, was lower than academic teachers. Their expectations more closely matched their current level of involvement.

Academic teacher ratings offer evidence of a perceived lack of influence in curriculum decisions. This group indicates that administrators have more influence and offer less facilitative leadership. Their level of disparity supports their feelings of differences between their existing influence and desired role and their view of the diminished importance of their work. As a group, academic teachers are more supportive of teacher involvement in decision-making.

Similarities and Differences Among the Eight Schools

Addressing the Research Question

The fourth research question which was introduced in Chapter One is addressed in the following analysis. This question asks: To what extent does professionalization exist in vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts?

A one-way analysis of variance was computed for each dimension and category to identify differences in ratings among the eight regional vocational-technical high schools. Pairwise comparisons were computed to identify which schools differed significantly on the dimensions and categories. The results are presented in Table 15 and 16 and in the following discussion.

Teaching Behavior

There was a significant difference among administrator and teacher mean ratings of teaching behavior in the eight schools (Table 15, page 105). The mean ratings for this dimension ranged from 3.29 to 3.66. Respondents in School 3 ($M = 3.22$), for example, indicated that teachers engaged in activities such as planning lessons and taking courses some of the time. Respondents from this school rated items in the teaching behavior series the lowest of all the schools. Respondents in School 7 ($M = 3.30$) indicated that they believed that they observed these teaching behaviors some of the time. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 3.66$) indicated that teachers in their school engaged in these activities more often. Respondents in School 5, in fact, rated teachers more favorably than six of the other schools (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 6 ($M = 3.56$) rated the same

Table 15

Analysis of Variance for Differences among Mean
Ratings by Schools of Dimensions/Categories

Dimension		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	f- ratio	sig.
Teaching Behavior	M	3.31	3.42	3.22	3.43	3.66	3.56	3.30	3.32	4.85	.01
	SD	.40	.44	.48	.44	.38	.43	.48	.30		
Centralization of Influence											
Teachers	M	2.37	2.65	2.21	2.26	2.85	2.81	2.04	2.55	21.0	.001
	SD	.35	.44	.54	.51	.46	.49	.47	.46		
Administrators	M	3.34	3.26	3.53	3.54	3.59	3.51	3.64	3.56	7.29	.001
	SD	.34	.28	.42	.36	.28	.28	.25	.30		
Teachers-Administrators	M	-.97	-.62	-1.36	-1.33	-.76	-.69	-1.6	-1.02	22.37	.01
	SD	.44	.53	.65	.62	.48	.51	.54	.43		
Communication											
Horizontal	M	3.49	3.33	3.47	3.51	3.56	3.48	3.63	3.57	2.58	.01
	SD	.31	.53	.60	.35	.26	.39	.43	.25		
Vertical	M	2.31	2.64	2.30	2.33	2.88	2.86	2.15	2.51	10.53	.01
	SD	.50	.60	.63	.65	.63	.54	.59	.49		
Facilitative Leadership	M	2.32	2.88	2.86	3.10	4.42	3.71	2.34	2.94	30.30	.001
	SD	.86	.90	.96	.99	.53	.84	.97	.92		
Empowerment	M	4.09	4.16	3.78	3.72	3.65	3.89	3.90	3.89	5.84	.01
	SD	.54	.49	.46	.65	.47	.38	.59	.42		
Satisfaction	M	3.68	3.66	3.66	3.80	4.25	3.83	3.47	3.78	7.00	.01
	SD	.66	.53	.58	.66	.49	.53	.82	.67		
Category											
Curriculum	M	3.28	3.47	3.40	3.52	4.05	3.64	3.20	3.46	14.37	.01
	SD	.51	.50	.54	.55	.34	.42	.55	.39		

Continued, next page

Table 15 (Continued)

Category		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	f- ratio	sig.
Resources	M	3.07	3.17	3.40	3.44	3.35	3.70	3.43	3.53	8.86	.01
	SD	.60	.53	.65	.65	.54	.53	.56	.51		
Policy	M	3.96	3.77	3.79	3.84	3.93	3.97	4.03	3.92	1.72	.02
	SD	.45	.65	.62	.62	.33	.30	.49	.48		
Willingness	M	3.12	3.32	3.11	3.28	3.45	3.52	3.18	3.13	4.57	.01
	SD	.49	.48	.56	.52	.45	.51	.57	.36		
Disparity	M	2.19	1.79	1.94	1.88	1.24	1.31	2.23	1.65	11.72	.01
	SD	.80	.61	.81	.86	.58	.63	.77	.64		

behaviors higher than four of the other schools, but not significantly different than respondents in School 5.

Respondents from these two schools had a higher opinion of teachers in their schools.

Respondents from school 1, 3, 7, and 8 rated this dimension similarly (Table 16, page 107). They tended to indicate that these teaching behaviors were engaged in some of the time.

Centralization of Influence

Respondents in the eight schools indicated how decisions were made in their schools. This dimension

Table 16

Significant Differences Among Mean Ratings by Schools
of Dimensions and Categories

Dimension/Category	Differences
Teaching Behavior	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 6 higher than 1, 3, 7, 8 School 4 higher than 7
Centralization of Influence	
Teachers	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 6 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 2 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7 School 8 higher than 3, 4, 7 School 1, 3, 4 higher than 7
Administrators	School 7 higher than 1, 2, 3 School 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 higher than 1, 2
Teachers-Administrators	School 2 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 6 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 5 higher than 3, 4, 7, 8 School 1, 8 higher than 3, 4, 7 School 4, 3 higher than 7
Communication	
Horizontal	School 7 higher than 2, 3 School 8, 5, 4, 3 higher than 2
Vertical	School 5, 6 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 2 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7 School 8 higher than 7
Facilitative Leadership	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 School 6 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 2, 3, 4, 8 higher than 1, 7
Empowerment	School 2 higher than 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 School 1 higher than 3, 4, 5 School 8, 6 higher than 5

Continued, next page

Table 16, continued

Dimension	Differences
Satisfaction	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 School 6, 4, 8 higher than 7
Category	
Curriculum	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 School 6 higher than 1, 3, 7 School 4 higher than 1, 7 School 2, 8, 3 higher than 7
Resources	School 5 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 6 higher than 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 School 8, 4, 7, 3 higher than 1, 2
Policy	School 7 higher than 1, 3, 4
Willingness	School 6 higher than 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 School 5 higher than 1, 3, 7, 8 School 2, 4 higher than 3
Disparity	School 7 higher than 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 School 1 higher than 2, 4, 5, 6, 8 School 3, 4, 2, 8 higher than 5, 6

consisted of three components: teacher influence, administrator influence and relative centralization of influence. Definitions of these terms and the explanation of the computation of relative centralization of influence are located on page 86. Respondents rated the influence of teachers and administrators separately. Ratings were averaged for each dimension and category.

Teacher Influence. There were significant differences among the eight schools in respondent ratings of the degree of teacher influence in decision making in their schools (Table 15, page 105). The range of mean ratings was 2.04 to 2.85. Respondents in School 7 ($M = 2.04$) indicated that teachers had a minor influence in decision making. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 2.85$), on the other hand, reported that teachers had more than a moderate influence in school decisions.

Respondents in School 5 rated teacher influence differently than respondents in each of the seven other schools (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 6 evaluated teacher influence higher and significantly different than respondents in School 1, 3, 4, 7, and 8. Respondents in School 1 and 7 indicated minor teacher influence in decision-making. In fact, respondents in School 7 evaluated teacher influence in their school significantly lower than all the other schools. Teachers and administrators in this school indicate that teachers have a minor role in school decisions.

Administrator Influence. There were significant differences among the eight schools in respondent ratings of the degree of administrator influence in decision making in their schools (Table 15, page 105). The range of mean ratings was 3.26 to 3.64. Respondents in School 7

($M = 3.64$) indicated that administrators had a moderate to major influence in decision making. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 3.59$) indicated that administrators had a moderate influence but to a lesser degree. Respondents in School 7 evaluated administrator influence significantly higher than respondents in School 1, 2 and 3 (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 1 ($M = 3.34$) and School 2 ($M = 3.26$) rated administrator influence lower and significantly different than School 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8. Teachers and administrators in these schools believe administrators have less influence.

Relative Centralization of Influence. There were significant differences among the eight schools in the measure of relative centralization of influence (Table 15, page 105). The difference between respondent mean ratings for teacher influence and respondent ratings for administrator influence ranged from $-.62$ to -1.60 . In School 2, for example, ($M = 3.33$) the relative centralization of influence was lower. This would indicate that the decision making process may not be centralized with the administrators. The relative centralization of influence in School 7 ($M = 3.63$) is the highest of all the schools and significantly different than all of them. In this school, respondents indicate that administrators have the most control in school decisions. The relative

centralization of influence is most similar in Schools 2, 5 and 6 (Table 16, page 108).

Communication

This dimension measured both horizontal (teacher to teacher) and vertical (administrator to teacher) communication in the eight schools. In general, it was found that respondents reported more discussion between teachers than between administrators and teachers. Findings for each are indicated below.

Horizontal Communication. There were significant differences among the eight schools in respondent ratings of the frequency of horizontal communication in their school (Table 15, page 105). The range of these mean ratings was 3.33 to 3.63. Respondents in School 2 ($M = 3.33$) indicated that teachers often discussed topics included in the survey. Respondents in School 7 ($M = 3.63$) believed teachers discussed these topics more often than any of the other schools and significantly different than respondents in School 2 and 3 (Table 16, page 107). Schools 4, 5, and 8 appear similar. Respondents in these schools report that teachers discuss student motivation, lesson development, and discipline with other teachers more often than twice a week.

Vertical Communication. There were significant differences among the eight schools in the frequency of discussion between administrators and teachers of topics such as lesson planning, student motivation, and public relations. The range of mean ratings was 2.15 to 2.88 (Table 15, page 105). These ratings are, for the most part, low and indicative of less vertical discussion. A comparison with horizontal communication ratings (see above discussion) demonstrates the differences in frequency of discussions between teachers and administrators.

Respondents in School 7 ($M = 2.15$) indicated that these discussions occurred sometimes (twice a month). Respondents in School 1, 3 and 4 rated this dimension higher and alike (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 5 ($M = 2.88$) and 6 ($M = 2.86$) rated this dimension higher and significantly different than respondents in School 1, 3, 4, 7, and 8. Respondents in these two schools would more likely agree that these discussions happened often (twice a week).

Facilitative Leadership

There were significant differences among the eight schools in the style in which administrative functions were organized. There was a wide range of ratings from 2.32 to 4.42 (Table 15, page 105). Mean ratings ranged

from sometimes (twice a month) to always (daily). Respondents in School 1 ($M = 2.32$) and 7 ($M = 2.34$) rated these behaviors the lowest indicating that administrators sometimes engaged in activities such as treating teachers as professionals, making meetings valuable, and following recommendations of committees regarding policy development. Respondents in School 2, 3, and 8 expressed a higher frequency of these behaviors. Respondents in School 4 ($M = 3.10$) indicated that administrators engaged in these behaviors often (twice a week).

Respondents in School 6 ($M = 3.71$) indicated that administrators almost always (three or four times a week) provide facilitative leadership. Their rating was significantly higher than all the other schools with the exception of School 5 (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 5 ($M = 4.42$) indicated administrators in their school always engaged in these behaviors. Their rating was the highest and significantly different than the other schools in the survey. Respondents in this school believed that administrators provided daily evidence of facilitative leadership.

Empowerment

There were significant differences among the eight schools on this dimension which measured the extent to

which respondents felt that teachers should be involved in a variety of school decisions (Table 15, page 105). The mean ratings ranged from 3.65 to 4.16. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 3.65$) were neutral or tended to agree that teachers should be involved. Respondents in School 3 ($M = 3.78$) and 4 ($M = 3.72$) were similar in their views that teachers should be involved in school decisions. (Table 16, page 107). Respondents in School 1 ($M = 4.19$) and 2 ($M = 4.16$) were similar in their agreement that teachers should be involved in school decisions. Respondents in School 6 ($M = 3.89$) and 8 ($M = 3.89$) rated this dimension higher and significantly different than respondents in School 5. Respondents in School 2 ($M = 4.16$) rated these items the highest.

While there were no differences between administrators, vocational teachers, and academic teachers in this dimension (Table 13, page 83), there were differences among the schools with regard to the role teachers should have in school decisions. There clearly is a difference in the desire of respondents by school to see teachers involved in the management of the school.

Satisfaction

In this dimension, respondents from each school were asked to indicate their satisfaction with their role and

with their involvement in school decisions. There were significant differences among the eight schools in this dimension (Table 15, page 105). The range of ratings was 3.47 to 4.25. Respondents in School 7 ($M = 3.47$) were the least satisfied. They were neutral in their expression of feelings regarding the importance of their work, job security, and satisfaction with their involvement in decision-making.

Respondents in School 5 ($M = 4.25$), on the other hand, were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they were satisfied. Respondents in this school rated their satisfaction higher and significantly different than the respondents in the seven other schools in the survey (Table 16, page 107). Respondent ratings in School 4, 5, 6, and 8 were significantly different than respondent ratings in School 7. Respondents in these schools appear to be the most satisfied.

Curriculum

This category included items from all the dimensions which were curriculum related. There were significant differences among the ratings for this category in the eight schools (Table 15, page 105). Mean scores ranged from 3.20 to 4.05. Respondents in School 7 ($M = 3.20$) believe they have less involvement in curriculum deci-

sions. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 4.05$) indicate the greatest involvement in curriculum decisions. Their score was the highest and significantly different than the seven other schools (Table 16, page 107). School 1 ($M = 3.28$) and 7 ($M = 3.20$) appeared similar in their scores.

Resources

There was a significant difference among the eight schools with regard to teacher involvement in decisions regarding allocation of resources (Table 15, page 105). Respondents tended to score lower on this category than the curriculum category indicating that teachers are more involved in decisions regarding curriculum matters than in determining budgets and allocation of resources.

The range of scores was 3.07 to 3.84. Respondents in School 1 ($M = 3.47$) indicated the least teacher involvement in allocating resources. They were more apt to be neutral in their response. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 3.84$) indicated the highest level of teacher involvement. They tended to agree that teachers were involved in decisions regarding allocation of resources in their school. Respondents in School 5 and 6 were similar in their responses and scored higher on this category than five of the other schools. Respondents in School 1 and 2 scored this area significantly lower than the other six schools.

Policy

This category measured teacher involvement in policy decisions in the eight schools. There was no significant difference among the respondents in the eight schools in their ratings of teacher involvement in policy decisions (Table 15, page 105). The mean scores ranged from 3.77 to 4.03. Respondents were asked to indicate their role in enforcing discipline policies, hiring new teachers and administrators, and participating in policy development. Items from the Empowerment series which indicated the desired level of participation in policy decisions were also included. Respondents in School 2 ($M = 3.77$) scored this category the lowest while respondents in School 7 scored this category the highest and significantly different than respondents in School 2, 3, and 4 (Table 16, page 107).

Willingness

Respondents in the eight schools were asked to determine teacher willingness to participate in a variety of school decisions and functions. There was a significant difference among the respondents of the eight schools in their scores on this category (Table 15, page 105). The mean scores ranged from 3.11 to 3.52. Respond-

ents in School 1 ($M = 3.12$), 3 ($M = 3.11$), and 8 ($M = 3.13$) were the least willing to offer suggestions, spend time outside of the classroom to develop curriculum, or waive contract rights to gain more input. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 3.45$) and 6 ($M = 3.52$) were most willing to be involved. Respondents in School 6 scored the highest on this category and significantly different than respondents in School 1, 2, 4, 7, and 8.

Disparity

There were significant differences among respondents of the eight schools regarding their level of disparity (Table 15, page 105). This category measured the difference between actual reported states of teacher influence and desired levels of teacher empowerment for all respondents. The mean scores ranged from 1.24 to 2.23. Respondents in School 5 ($M = 1.24$) appear to have the least disparity. Their actual situation is most similar to what these respondents desire it to be. Respondents in Schools 1 ($M = 2.19$) and 7 ($M = 2.23$) have the most disparity between actual and desired states. They report less teacher influence in decision making, but feel that teachers should be involved. These schools are significantly different than School 2, 4, 5, 6, and 8 (Table 16, page 107).

Summary of Similarities and Differences

Among the Schools

The eight schools differed in respondent ratings of thirteen of the fourteen dimensions and categories. The only area in which there was no difference was in ratings in involvement in school policy. Significant differences among the schools were observed in teaching behavior; teacher, administrator, and relative centralization of influence; horizontal and vertical communication; facilitative leadership; empowerment; satisfaction; curriculum; resources; willingness; and disparity. These differences are graphically represented in Figure 2. page 120. In Figure 2, the mean ratings of respondents in each school are compared for each dimension and category. A legend explains the abbreviations which are used.

If all dimensions and categories were considered, a continuum of schools might be established in which schools which show little evidence of teacher empowerment and professionalization would appear on the extreme left side. Schools which showed some evidence of empowerment would be clustered in the middle of the continuum and schools in which there was a great degree of evidence of empowerment would appear on the far right of the continuum. For discussion purposes, this continuum of empowerment will be used to interpret the findings.

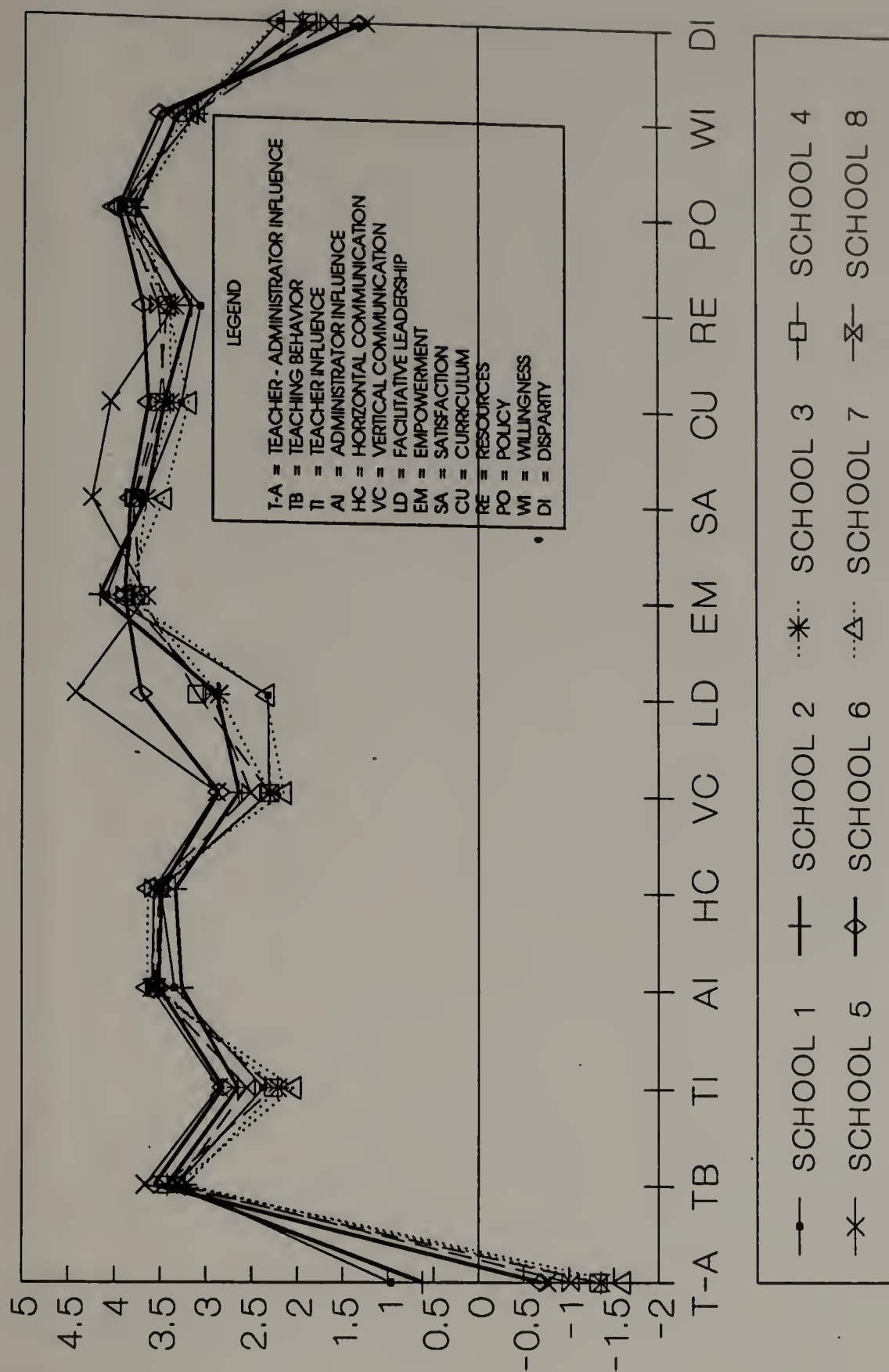


Figure 2

A comparison of mean ratings of survey respondents by school.

Respondents in School 5 rated the following seven dimensions/categories the highest of the eight schools: teaching behavior, teacher influence, vertical communication, facilitative leadership, satisfaction, curriculum, and resources. The level of disparity for respondents in this school was the lowest of all of the schools. Their current status more closely matched their desired status of teacher empowerment and influence.

On a continuum of teacher empowerment and professionalization, this school would show the strongest evidence of reaching this goal. While empowerment is not fully actualized in this school, it would be placed further to the right on a continuum measuring teacher empowerment. It must be noted that while respondents in this school indicated the greatest degree of teacher influence, there was also evidence of strong administrator influence and an exceptionally high level of facilitative leadership. These factors may relate to the high degree of satisfaction and the low degree of disparity.

Respondents in School 6 rated the following dimensions higher than respondents in every school but School 5: teaching behavior, teacher influence, vertical communication, facilitative leadership, satisfaction, and curriculum. Respondents in this school rated the following two areas higher than respondents in any other school: resources and willingness. The level of disparity in this

school was lower than all schools except School 5. On a continuum, this school would also show strong evidence of teacher empowerment. Only School 5 would be further to the right on the continuum.

Respondents in School 7 rated the following five dimensions/categories higher than the seven other schools in the survey: administrator influence, relative centralization of influence, horizontal communication, policy, and disparity. The respondents in this school rated the following four dimensions/scales the lowest of the eight schools: vertical communication, facilitative leadership, satisfaction, and curriculum. Their place on the continuum would be to the far left. The respondents paint a picture of decision making which has a strong administrative component with little teacher influence. Teachers tend to relate to other teachers, but the frequency of communication with administrators is lower than any other school. Little facilitative leadership is reported.

Respondents in School 1, 2, and 3 showed the greatest variation. Respondents in School 2 rated empowerment the highest of the eight schools, and policy the lowest of the eight schools. Respondents in School 1 rated resources the lowest of the eight schools. Respondents in School 3 rated teaching behavior and willingness the lowest of the eight schools. School 1 would be placed on the left of the continuum. Only School 7 would show less evidence of

teacher empowerment. School 2 and 3 also show little evidence of teacher empowerment. They would be clustered to the right of School 1. These two schools have had recent changes in superintendents. Respondents in both schools commented on the changes as positive. Some respondents used the last school year as their guide to rating. Others used the current school year.

Ratings of respondents in School 4 and 8 offer some evidence of change. These schools would be located toward the center of a continuum of the eight schools. While advances have been made, it is clear that more work is needed.

In summary, there were similarities and differences among the eight schools. Profiles of these schools offer clear evidence of the extent of teacher empowerment and professionalization. In Chapter V, conclusions and implications of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is my belief that if teachers were treated as professionals and involved in decision-making, they would become better teachers, our schools would improve, all students would be successful, and our image within the community would become more positive.

Academic Teacher's Survey Comments

Summary of the Study

The preceding four chapters contain a background of the study, a review of the related literature, a description of the design of the study, the statistical procedures employed, and the analysis of the data collected. Chapter V serves to review the problem addressed in the study and presents conclusions and recommendations based upon the findings presented in Chapter IV. Respondent comments are included to reinforce the findings.

The purpose of the study was to address the issues regarding professionalization of teachers in regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. Professionalization was defined for the purpose of the study as the degree to which teachers participate in organizational decisions. The perceptions of vocational-technical high school teachers and administrators were

compared. In addition, the extent to which professionalization exists in eight regional vocational-technical high schools in southeastern Massachusetts was explored.

A review of the literature was incorporated into the design of the study. This review revealed many questions concerning teacher empowerment and professionalization. It is difficult to determine teacher and administrator feelings concerning the role of teachers in the decision making process. This is true in vocational-technical education where a centralized organizational structure exists which is coupled with a unique combination of certified academic teachers and vocational teachers who enter teaching directly from the trade.

The literature made reference to research which was conducted to determine teacher influence in the schools. The School Assessment Survey which was designed by Wilson Firestone and Herriot (1985) was adapted with permission of the authors for use in the present study. Four research questions were explored:

1. What are the perceptions of vocational and academic teachers toward teacher professionalization?
2. What are the perceptions of administrators toward teacher professionalization?
3. What are the similarities and differences among the three groups toward teacher professionalization?

4. To what extent does teacher professionalization exist in vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts?

The survey was distributed to 602 teachers and administrators in the eight regional vocational-technical high schools. Contact people within the schools distributed the surveys to teacher and administrator mail boxes and collected them.

Five hundred twenty one teachers and administrators (86 percent) returned the survey which measured their opinions on six dimensions and five categories related to teacher empowerment and professionalization. The six dimensions were: teaching behavior, facilitative leadership, centralization of influence, horizontal and vertical communication, empowerment and satisfaction. The five categories which contained items from each dimension were: curriculum, resources, policy, willingness and disparity.

The data were coded and tested for reliability within dimension and category items and between dimensions and categories. Reliability coefficients indicated strong associations within and between dimensions and categories. An analysis of variance was computed to determine differences among administrators, vocational teachers, and academic teachers. An analysis of variance was also computed to determine differences between respondent

ratings in the eight schools. Ratings were averaged for each dimension/category in computing these analyses.

Chi-square indices were computed to identify specific areas of differences among administrators, vocational teachers and academic teachers. These indices were not computed to determine the differences among the eight schools. It was concluded that this calculation was beyond the scope of the present study.

Conclusions

Respondent Characteristics

Important information was gathered about the respondents. A broad spectrum of inexperienced, tenured and veteran teachers completed the survey. They averaged ten years of experience, but nineteen percent of the vocational teachers were new teachers with less than three years experience. The administrators had less overall experience. Two of them were new to their positions this year, but several had been employed in their current position for fifteen years or more.

The majority of the respondents were males. Vocational-technical education is still dominated by male teachers and administrators. It appears that there is a correlation between years of experience and lower ratings

in many of the dimensions and categories. Teachers and administrators who have been in their position longer agree that there is less evidence of communication between teachers and administrators, facilitative leadership, and teacher influence. They tended to score lower in the curriculum and resources categories as well. These findings have important implications which will be addressed later in this chapter.

Examination of the Research Questions

The data provided evidence of vocational and academic teacher perceptions of teacher professionalization (research question 1). Vocational teachers indicated that teachers were willing to be involved in decision making, exhibited teaching behaviors which supported each other and students, and were involved in professional development activities such as taking courses and updating curriculum. They believe administrators control decisions in their school, communicate less with teachers, and provide leadership which may not be conducive to professionalization. These findings are consistent with Conley (1988) who reported little teacher involvement in policy decisions, schedule development, procuring materials and resources, and monitoring program objectives. Eight years after the Logos study (1981), many vocational teachers

still believe that vocational courses are more important than academic ones. This question invoked many comments and, in some cases, seemed to divide schools.

Academic teacher ratings offer evidence of a perceived lack of influence in curriculum decisions. This group indicates that teachers show less evidence of positive teaching behaviors and also believe teachers have less influence in school decisions. They indicate that administrators have strong influence in decision making. They are dissatisfied with their role and support teacher involvement in decision making. Their level of disparity supports their feelings of differences between their existing influence and desired role and their view of the diminished importance of their work. As a group, academic teachers are more supportive of teacher involvement in decision making.

The data provided evidence of administrator perceptions of teacher professionalization (research question 2). Administrators recognize their own influence in school decisions, but tend to overestimate the involvement of teachers in their schools as well as their roles as facilitative leaders. Administrators, for instance, believe teachers have a stronger role in curriculum and resource allocation decisions than teachers report. They believe that there is evidence of teacher professionalization in their schools, and they advocate an expansion of

this role. They are more satisfied with their role which more closely matches their desire for involvement. They believed their job is important and expressed the opinion that their job was secure. They agree that teachers should be empowered to participate in the school management.

The data indicated important similarities and differences among vocational teachers, academic teachers and administrators regarding teacher professionalization (research question 3). While vocational and academic teachers tended to agree in most areas, their opinions varied on their ratings of teaching behavior, facilitative leadership, curriculum, willingness, and disparity. Administrators and teachers differed in eleven of the dimensions and categories. Administrators tended to score items higher than teachers, and overestimated teacher influence in school decisions, particularly in the areas of curriculum and resource allocation.

The only area in which there were no differences were in ratings of horizontal communication, policy and empowerment. The policy category contained a number of items from the empowerment series. As a result, respondents might have indicated their desire for involvement in policy decisions rather than their actual involvement. Both administrators and teachers agree that teachers should be involved in decision making, but that does not

mean they are actually involved. This difference resulted in greater disparity for teachers, especially academic teachers.

The data revealed the extent to which professionalization exists in regional vocational-technical high schools (research question 4). It is clear that two of the eight schools have made progress toward empowering their teachers. Characteristics of these schools differ significantly from the other schools in the survey. While teacher influence is greater in these two schools, administrator influence is also strong. This is indicative of the desired middle ground Conley (1988) advocates. Teachers have greater influence, but the ultimate authority remains with the administration. One teacher succinctly stated, "Teachers have business in some areas, but not all, that's what administrators are for!" There is more facilitative leadership and a stronger sense of satisfaction and willingness in these two schools. The level of disparity, consequently, is lower. As one vocational teacher commented,

Working in this vocational high school has been the best thing I've done with my life. To see the students stay in school and become success stories is so satisfying. Everyone works together and there is love found here!

There is also evidence of a lack of empowerment and professionalization in four of the schools. These schools

are characterized by the strong centralized administrations described by Sergiovanni (1987) in which teachers play a minor role. There is greater dissatisfaction, less willingness, and more disparity between current status and desired roles. It is clear that teachers in these schools are not allowed to participate in the decision making process and have low professional commitment (Darling-Hammond, 1984). An academic teacher in one of these schools summarized these feelings in the following comments:

Teachers feel dissatisfied due to their feelings of powerlessness in decision making. Granted the salary isn't the best, but it could be acceptable if teachers feel they have a greater voice in decisions.

The areas in which teachers are usually involved are in curriculum related matters. There is some degree of involvement in the allocation of resources. Respondents in schools in which there was less professionalization rated lower their involvement in the latter.

Implications

The study explored the perceptions of teachers and administrators in regional vocational-technical high schools toward teacher empowerment and professionalization. The findings present important implications regard-

ing current level of teacher involvement as well as desired participation. Information gathered in the research should be utilized to promote the concepts of teacher involvement, and incorporated into training activities.

The level of education of the respondents varies dramatically. Almost forty percent of the vocational teachers have no education beyond high school. Academic teachers and administrators have Bachelor's degrees at the very least and may have earned Master's degrees. This diversity may account for some differences in perceptions. It must also be taken into account when inservice training is planned. The Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Occupational Education, has recently upgraded requirements for approval so that vocational teachers will work toward advanced degrees within five years of initial approval (Chapter 731, 1987). The findings in the study must be reviewed to determine the effect this requirement will have in discouraging potential teachers from changing careers from industry to teaching.

In addition, the information concerning the relationship between years of experience and lower ratings needs to be considered when attempting to change the role of teachers in decision making. It will be more difficult to convince veteran teachers and administrators that their role can change. Their conditioning may inhibit accept-

ance of new responsibilities or, in the case of administrators, their willingness to share the power in decision making.

The literature indicates that teachers have traditionally been involved in decisions that involve their own classroom. Administrators have been charged with allocating resources and implementing policy. The school committee develops the policy. The findings in the study reinforce the lack of involvement of teachers in policy and allocation of resource decisions. Although teachers seem to favor more influence in allocating resources, there is resistance to expanding their influence into policy areas. In some schools, there is little or no involvement in curriculum decisions, an area which traditionally "belongs" to the teacher.

The results of the study produce alarming concerns with regard to the role of the academic teacher in the vocational-technical high school. Customarily, that role has been minimized. A number of respondents still maintain that vocational courses are more important than academic ones. Only recently with the emphasis on academic reform have academic subjects become more important in vocational-technical education. Academic teachers feel isolated and less important in their mission. Vocational teachers still believe that vocational courses are more important than academic ones. The disenfranchisement of

academic teachers comes at a time when it is critical for vocational and academic courses to relate to and supplement each other. Academic teacher dissatisfaction appears related to higher levels of disparity. If the mission of vocational-technical education is to change, these issues must be addressed. The confusion surrounding program delivery does not promote the involvement of all teachers in school management.

Traditionally, decisions in which teachers have had input have focused on curriculum matters, and daily instruction. Academic teachers, especially, do not indicate a feeling of influence in these areas. Researchers have noted that policy areas have been the administrator's domain, and this was reinforced in the findings of the study.

The responses of teachers to their role in policy development and evaluation and supervision of teachers must also be reviewed. While administrators seem to favor a model in which teachers would coach or supervise other teachers, the teachers may be reluctant to participate. A number of teachers did not agree that teachers should coach other teachers. Administrators who are interested in implementing a mentoring or coaching model must carefully consider this finding.

There was also confusion about the role of teachers in hiring administrators and teachers. While a lack of

information about their role may have resulted in some confusion, it is obvious that training would be needed to utilize these ideas successfully.

The study revealed that those schools in which teachers and administrators report greater teacher influence are also characterized by a strong administrator influence, facilitative leadership, more vertical communication, satisfaction, and less disparity. The administrative style seems to reinforce teacher involvement. While schools in which less teacher influence is reported also have strong administrator influence, there is less facilitative leadership, less vertical communication, less satisfaction and greater disparity. For teacher empowerment to flourish, administrators must be willing to share the decision making, but must also be strong, caring and committed to their teachers.

The findings in the study suggest that the centralized organization of vocational-technical education is giving way to one which provides greater input for teachers. The schools which offer evidence of this change provide additional enhancements to the professionalism of their teachers (Lieberman, 1988). In contrast, the schools characterized by traditional authoritarian organizational structures are those which Maeroff (1987) believes have teachers who lack status, self esteem, control and authority.

Recommendations for Further Study and Action

The study provides baseline evidence of teacher empowerment in regional vocational-technical high schools in Massachusetts. The data suggest that these schools are similar in nature to schools included in earlier research. There is strong evidence that differing organizational structures in these schools encourage or discourage the involvement of teachers in school decisions, and affect teacher satisfaction and perhaps school climate.

As vocational-technical educators update their philosophy and mission, there will be important issues highlighted in these conclusions which must be addressed. If the mission of vocational-technical education is to become an education through vocations, rather than for vocations (Dewey, 1966), academic and vocational teachers along with administrators must unite. The current division can only increase the criticism of this delivery system in Massachusetts.

The findings of the study are important for teacher training institutions and policy makers in the Massachusetts Department of Education. The Department's efforts to promote integration of vocational programs and applied academic subjects should take into account the confusion concerning the mission of vocational-technical education. Before academic and vocational teachers are able to inte-

grate instruction, they must learn more about each other's role and the importance of a balanced curriculum. Inservice training is needed in many of these schools and probably in others in the Commonwealth. This integration may be successfully utilized to improve the image of vocational-technical education in Massachusetts.

In terms of preservice training, the Department of Education must reconsider the role of the academic teacher. Training should be required for new vocational and academic teachers to assist them in understanding their overlapping roles and mission. Presently, vocational teachers are required to upgrade their pedagogical skills. It is important that this training be extended to academic teachers as well.

Administrators and teachers of the schools in the study should use the data gathered here to begin to evaluate the need for change in their organizational structures. It is the researcher's conclusion that the schools which provide greater opportunities for teacher input have staff which are more satisfied and view their work as important. Schools with strong centralized bureaucratic structures would need to make fundamental changes in leadership style to implement a shared decision making model.

The study has given rise to a number of questions which might be investigated in further study. It would be

valuable to complete an in depth comparison of the eight schools, computing Chi-square indices to compare areas of similarity and difference. Comparison based on size, number of administrators, and urban or rural location would be helpful.

The present study was limited to superintendents, assistant superintendents, directors, assistant directors, vocational teachers, and academic teachers. Data were also collected from coordinators, supervisors, and guidance counselors. How would the results change if these groups were included? It would prove interesting to replicate the procedures utilizing the total population from each school. Consideration should also be given to including the coordinators and supervisors in the administrator category to determine if similar results are obtained.

Are these findings specific to vocational-technical schools? A similar study could compare the differences and similarities in the extent of professionalization in comprehensive high schools with vocational programs and regional vocational high schools. It would be important to identify those areas in which academic high schools compare organizationally to vocational-technical high schools.

What will happen to teacher involvement in these schools in subsequent years? A follow-up study in two or three years would provide evidence of the advancement or

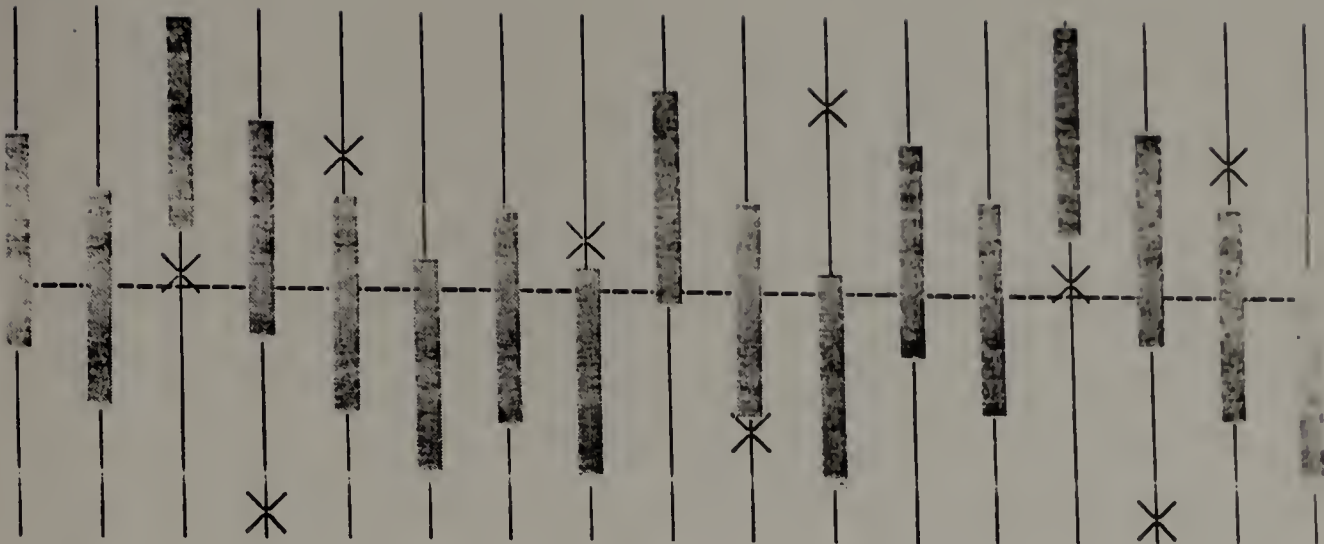
deterioration of teacher empowerment in the eight schools originally studied. This study could chronicle the progress made by those schools in the infancy stages of professionalization.

How is teacher satisfaction correlated with involvement in school decisions and what effect does increased involvement have on school climate? It is imperative to determine the impact of teacher empowerment on student attitudes, motivation, and progress.

What is the image of these schools in the community? Could differences between schools be determined?

In conclusion, the study offered evidence of the importance of teacher empowerment in vocational-technical education. If the image of vocational education is to be updated and improved, the logical place to start is with the teachers. Their role in the restructuring of vocational education is critical. In order to expand their responsibilities, administrators and policy makers must provide leadership which builds teachers' leadership skills, requires new roles, and seeks to deliver coordinated technical and academic programs preparing students for opportunities in a new technological society.

APPENDIX A
SCHOOL ASSESSMENT SURVEY



School Assessment Survey

To learn more about various aspects of this school, we are asking that the teaching staff tell us their views. Individual responses will be combined to form a series of organizational dimension scores for the school. These school scores will be fed back to the school in the form of a profile. This profile will enable the staff to compare their school with other schools as well as to compare the relative strengths and weaknesses across the various organizational dimensions.

Please complete this questionnaire as carefully and frankly as possible. All individual responses will be kept in strictest confidence and will be seen only by the research staff at Research for Better Schools. To assure this confidentiality, we ask that you enclose your completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and hand it to the person collecting the questionnaires. All questionnaires will be returned as a group directly to Research for Better Schools.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Developmental copyright © 9/85



444 North Third Street
Philadelphia, PA 19123
215-574-9300

1. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

- ☐ a. less than a Bachelor's degree
- ☐ b. Bachelor's degree
- ☐ c. Bachelor's degree plus 1 to 12 credit hours
- ☐ d. Bachelor's degree plus 13 to 24 credit hours
- ☐ e. Bachelor's degree plus 25 to 30 credit hours
- ☐ f. Master's degree
- ☐ g. Master's degree plus 1 to 30 credit hours
- ☐ h. Master's degree plus more than 30 credit hours
- ☐ i. Doctorate

2. Are you?

- ☐ a. Female
- ☐ b. Male

3. How many years of experience prior to this year have you had as a:

- a. Teacher in this school (do not count this school year) _____ years
- b. Teacher in another school in this district _____ years
- c. Teacher in another district _____ years

Total teaching experience _____ years

4. During the current year, what percent of your professional time is spent as:

- a. A teacher in this school..... %
- b. A teacher in another school..... %
- c. An administrator..... %
- d. A counselor..... %
- e. Other (please specify) _____ %

Total professional time 100%

5. *Schools and school districts organize teaching responsibilities in many different ways. Some of the more common are to organize by grade level, subject area, or specialist classification.*

a. Is your primary responsibility:

- (i) special education?
 ___ Yes
 ___ No
- (ii) Bilingual/ESL?
 ___ Yes
 ___ No
- (iii) librarian/media services?
 ___ Yes (If yes, go to Question 6)
 ___ No
- (iv) counselling/guidance?
 ___ Yes (If yes, go to Question 6)
 ___ No

b. Is two-thirds or more of your instructional time spent teaching a single grade level?

- ___ Yes
 ___ No

c. Please check which grade levels you teach:

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| ___ Pre K | ___ Grade 6 |
| ___ K | ___ Grade 7 |
| ___ Grade 1 | ___ Grade 8 |
| ___ Grade 2 | ___ Grade 9 |
| ___ Grade 3 | ___ Grade 10 |
| ___ Grade 4 | ___ Grade 11 |
| ___ Grade 5 | ___ Grade 12 |

d. Is two-thirds or more of your instructional time spent teaching a single subject?

- ___ Yes
 ___ No

e. Please check which subject areas you teach:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| ___ Reading/Language arts | ___ Music |
| ___ Remedial Reading | ___ Art |
| ___ English | ___ Performing Arts/Drama |
| ___ Social Studies/History | ___ Home Economics |
| ___ Mathematics/Computers | ___ Business/Commercial |
| ___ Science | ___ Vocational |
| ___ Foreign Language | ___ Physical Education/Health |
| ___ Industrial/Agricultural Arts | ___ Driver's Education/Safety |

6. *Schools try to help students develop in many ways. However, some people prefer to stress some areas of student development while others want to emphasize other areas. Listed below are some of the many possible areas of student development. Please rank these seven areas in terms of how important they are to you as a member of this school. Place a "1" after the most important area, a "2" after the second most important, and so forth until you have placed a "7" after that which you consider to be the least important of these seven areas of student development.*

AREA OF STUDENT DEVELOPMENT	IMPORTANCE RANK
a. Appreciating and striving for excellence (in school work or other areas).	_____
b. Critical and original thinking	_____
c. Basic skills (reading and math)	_____
d. Respect for authority (discipline, character building, etc.)	_____
e. Vocational understanding and skills	_____
f. Understanding others (cultural pluralism, getting along with peers, etc.)	_____
g. Self-esteem (self-concept)	_____

Please check to make sure that you have ranked all seven areas and that each area has a different rank.

7. This question asks you to furnish information about students in this school. The information is requested in the form of percentages, although we know it is difficult to give exact percentages for most of the questions. Please write in your SINGLE BEST ESTIMATE of the percentage that most accurately reflects your assessment of students in your school as a group.

Of the STUDENTS you currently teach, what percent...

- a. Are one or more years behind grade level in reading ability? _____%
- b. Are not interested in academic achievement? _____%
- c. Do not work up to their intellectual capabilities? _____%
- d. Were not adequately prepared to do the grade level work you expected when they entered your class? _____%
- e. Are not mastering the subject matter or skills you teach at the minimum level of satisfactory performance? _____%

8. This question asks you to furnish information about fellow teachers in this school. The information is requested in the form of percentages, although we know it is difficult to give exact percentages for most of the questions. Please write in your SINGLE BEST ESTIMATE of the percentage that most accurately reflects your assessment of teachers in your school as a group.

Of the TEACHERS in this school, what percent...

- a. Encourage students to work at a higher level than the students have worked in the past? _____%
- b. Give as much attention to the slower students as to the brighter ones? _____%
- c. Encourage all students to participate actively in classroom academic activities? _____%
- d. Plan their classes so that different learning needs of the students can be met? _____%
- e. Provide opportunities for students to go beyond the minimum demands of assigned work? _____%
- f. Try new teaching methods in their classrooms? _____%

9. Listed below are a number of statements that can describe a school. For each statement, please circle the number which best represents the overall picture of your school.

THROUGHOUT THIS SCHOOL...	Never	Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always	Always
a. The atmosphere is orderly and businesslike.	0	1	2	3	4	5
b. Students behave in an orderly manner in public areas (e.g., halls, buses, assemblies, cafeterias, bathrooms, etc.).	0	1	2	3	4	5
c. In class, students concentrate on their work with very little disruption.	0	1	2	3	4	5
d. Students are intimidated by other students when not directly supervised (e.g., in halls, buses, assemblies, cafeterias, lavatories, etc.).	0	1	2	3	4	5
e. It is a problem to get students to pay attention during lessons.	0	1	2	3	4	5
f. Students have to worry about their personal safety.	0	1	2	3	4	5
g. Keeping graffiti off the walls is a problem.	0	1	2	3	4	5

10. In most schools, specific issues or events may occur over which there are differences of opinions resulting in disputes. During the last 12 months, how often have disputes occurred (a) among teachers and (b) between teachers and administrators in your school regarding the following issues and events? In answer to these questions, please circle the appropriate number.

ISSUES AND EVENTS	FREQUENCY OF DISPUTES													
	(a) Among Teachers							(b) Between Teachers and Administrators						
	Never	Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always	Always	I Don't Know	Never	Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always	Always	I Don't Know
a. The teaching of controversial material.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
b. The need for administrative support for handling pupil behavior problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
c. The hiring or dismissal of a teacher.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
d. Teacher participation in nonteaching duties (e.g., lunchroom duty, bus duty, etc.).	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
e. Promotion of particular students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
f. Teacher absenteeism.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9
g. Teacher evaluation criteria or policies.	0	1	2	3	4	5	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	9

11. During a typical school year, many decisions must be made. Not all people influence any particular decision, and the degree of influence of different persons generally varies with the nature of the decision. Please indicate, in your opinion, how much influence teachers in this school, the principal in this school, and all others in this school system actually have on the following decisions.

Please insert the appropriate code number on each line:

- 0 = No influence
 1 = Minor influence
 2 = Moderate influence
 3 = Major influence

DECISIONS	INFLUENCE OF:		
	Teachers	The Principal	All Others in the School System
a. Selecting required texts or other materials.	_____	_____	_____
b. Establishing objectives for each course.	_____	_____	_____
c. Determining daily plans or activities.	_____	_____	_____
d. Determining concepts taught on a particular day.	_____	_____	_____
e. Identifying types of educational innovations to be adopted.	_____	_____	_____
f. Determining the allocation of teaching materials, supplies, or other resources.	_____	_____	_____
g. Determining the school's schedule (including teacher prep. periods)	_____	_____	_____
h. Adding or dropping courses.	_____	_____	_____
i. Making specific faculty grade level or course assignments.	_____	_____	_____
j. Determining the use of school space including classrooms, offices, or other areas.	_____	_____	_____

12. Schools differ in the need and opportunity they provide for teachers to discuss different topics (a) among themselves and (b) with administrators. Listed below are some common topics of communication. Please indicate your response by inserting the appropriate code number in each box. For discussions with other teachers, please think of the two teachers you talk to most often. (If it will help in answering these questions, please feel free to write in the initials of the teachers you choose.) For discussions with administrators in your school, please just indicate the average across all administrators if there is more than one with whom you speak.

0 = Never

1 = Once a month or less

2 = 2 or 3 times a month

3 = About once a week

4 = 2 or 3 times a week

5 = Once a day or more

TOPIC	(a)		(b)
	FREQUENCY OF DISCUSSION WITH TEACHER A:	FREQUENCY OF DISCUSSION WITH TEACHER B:	FREQUENCY OF DISCUSSION WITH ADMINISTRATORS IN THIS SCHOOL
a. Lessons or curriculum units that work well or poorly.	_____	_____	_____
b. Motivating or controlling specific children.	_____	_____	_____
c. Improving discipline generally.	_____	_____	_____
d. Defining or enforcing student performance, grading or promotion standards.	_____	_____	_____
e. Maintaining or improving positive relations with parents.	_____	_____	_____
f. Obtaining materials or resources needed for classroom instruction.	_____	_____	_____

13. Administrative activities within a school can be carried out in various ways depending on the persons involved, the building in which they work, and many other factors. Clearly there is no one best way for administrative activities to occur.

For each of the administrative activities listed below, please indicate how frequently (a) your principal, (b) the assistant principal with whom you have the most contact, and (c) the grade level or department head with whom you have the most contact, engage in each activity.

Please indicate your response by inserting the appropriate code number in each box. If your school does not have an assistant principal or grade level/department head, please check below and leave those columns blank.

— This school does not have an assistant principal. (If checked, leave column b blank)

— This school does not have grade level or department heads. (If checked, leave column c blank)

Response Codes

- 0 = Never
- 1 = Almost never
- 2 = Occasionally
- 3 = Frequently
- 4 = Almost always
- 5 = Always

<u>Administrative Activity</u>	(a) Your Principal	(b) Your Assistant Principal	(c) Your Grade Level/Department Head
a. Treats teachers as professional workers.	_____	_____	_____
b. Takes a strong interest in the professional development of teachers.	_____	_____	_____
c. Gives teachers the feeling that their work is an "important" activity.	_____	_____	_____
d. Has constructive suggestions to offer teachers in dealing with their major problems.	_____	_____	_____
e. Gives teachers the feeling that they can make significant contributions to improving the classroom performance of their students.	_____	_____	_____
f. Makes meetings a valuable professional activity.	_____	_____	_____

14. Expectations in schools for both students and adults vary markedly. These expectations can be communicated either through formally written rules or are part of a more informal, shared understanding about how things should be done in a school. Both these formal rules and informal agreements are important ways of encouraging high expectations. Over the last year please indicate for each of the activities listed below:

- (a) How high the expectations are in this school.
- (b) How much agreement there is among teachers about these expectations.
- (c) How consistent the expectations are across different student ability groups.

Please insert the appropriate code number on each line:

- 1 = very low
 2 = moderately low
 3 = neither low nor high
 4 = moderately high
 5 = very high

ACTIVITY	(a) LEVEL OF EXPECTATION IN THIS SCHOOL	(b) AGREEMENT AMONG TEACHERS	(c) CONSISTENCY ACROSS STUDENT ABILITY GROUPS
a. Student social behavior in class.	—	—	—
b. Student social behavior outside of class but in school.	—	—	—
c. Student attendance in school.	—	—	—
d. Student attendance in class.	—	—	—
e. Standards set for class work.	—	—	—
f. Amount of assigned homework.	—	—	—
g. Recognition of students' extra effort.	—	—	—
h. Level of achievement required for student promotion.	—	—	—
i. Time devoted to instruction by teachers.	—	—	—
j. Coverage of required curricular content.	—	—	—

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHER AND ADMINISTRATOR SURVEY

The purpose of this survey is to learn more about the multiple roles of the teacher in the regional vocational technical school organization. Please complete this questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. Your answers will be kept confidential. To assure this confidentiality, we ask that you enclose your completed questionnaire in the attached envelope, seal it, and hand it to the person collecting the survey.

1. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

- ___a. High school or GED
- ___b. Associate's degree
- ___c. Bachelor's degree
- ___d. Master's degree
- ___e. Doctorate

2. Sex: ___Female ___Male

3. Please complete this section describing your current position in this school by placing an X next to the appropriate title and completing the information requested below:

___a. VOCATIONAL shop/related teacher

What vocational area do you
teach? _____

Prior to teaching, how many years were you
employed in the trade?

_____ years

___b. ACADEMIC (English, math, science, social
studies, physical education etc.) teacher

What subject do you teach? _____

___c. GUIDANCE COUNSELOR

___d. COORDINATOR/SUPERVISOR (Guidance, Special
Needs, Vocational, Academic etc.)

____e. ADMINISTRATOR (Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Director, Assistant Director)

4. How many years have you been employed in your current position? _____ years
5. This question asks you to furnish information about teachers in this school. Please circle the number which best represents your assessment of teachers in your school as a group. Use the following codes:

0 = NONE
1 = FEW
2 = SOME
3 = MOST
4 = ALL

Of the TEACHERS in this school,
how many...

	NONE	FEW	SOME	MOST	ALL
a. Encourage students to work at a higher level than the students worked in the past?	0	1	2	3	4
b. Give as much attention to the slower students as to the brighter ones?	0	1	2	3	4
c. Plan their instruction so that different learning needs of the students can be met?	0	1	2	3	4
d. Try new teaching methods in their shops/classes?	0	1	2	3	4
e. Are willing to spend time outside of school to develop new curriculum or lessons?	0	1	2	3	4
f. Are currently taking courses or seminars to upgrade their teaching skills?	0	1	2	3	4
g. Are willing to offer suggestions to improve the operation of the school?	0	1	2	3	4

- h. Maintain safe, orderly shops and classrooms? 0 1 2 3 4
- i. Plan courses/units of instruction with other teachers? 0 1 2 3 4
- j. Share common planning periods with other teachers? 0 1 2 3 4
- k. Are willing to waive contract rights to gain more input in the decisions of the school? 0 1 2 3 4

6. Administrative activities within a school can be carried out in various ways depending on the persons involved, the building in which they work, and many other factors. Clearly there are many ways for administrative activities to occur which lead to effective management.

For each of the administrative activities listed below, please circle the number that indicates how frequently the administrators (SUPERINTENDENT-DIRECTOR, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, DIRECTOR, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR) in your school engage in each activity.

Please use the following codes:

0 = NEVER

1 = SOMETIMES (twice a month)

2 = OFTEN (twice a week)

3 = ALMOST ALWAYS (three or four times a week)

4 = ALWAYS (daily)

ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY				
	NEVER	SOME-TIMES	OFTEN	ALMOST ALWAYS	ALWAYS
a. Treat teachers as professional workers.	0	1	2	3	4
b. Take a strong interest in the professional development of teachers.	0	1	2	3	4
c. Give teachers the feeling that their work is an "important" activity.	0	1	2	3	4
d. Have constructive suggestions to offer teachers in dealing with their major problems.	0	1	2	3	4

- e. Give teachers the feeling that they can make significant contributions to improving the classroom performance of their students. 0 1 2 3 4
- f. Make meetings a valuable professional activity. 0 1 2 3 4
- g. Encourage staff developed in-service workshops. 0 1 2 3 4
- h. Make teachers feel their suggestions are valuable. 0 1 2 3 4
- i. Follow the recommendations of committees regarding policy development. 0 1 2 3 4

7. During a typical school year, many decisions must be made. Not all people influence any particular decision, and the degree of influence of different persons generally varies with the nature of the decision. Please indicate, in your opinion, how much influence teachers in this school, and the administrators (SUPERINTENDENT-DIRECTOR, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, DIRECTOR, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR) in this school actually have on the following decisions. Please insert the appropriate number on each line. Select the one number which best reflects your opinion and make sure all lines are completed.:

- 0 = NO influence
 1 = MINOR influence
 2 = MODERATE influence
 3 = MAJOR influence

	INFLUENCE OF	
	TEACHERS	ADMINISTRATORS
a. Selecting required texts or other materials.	_____	_____
b. Establishing objectives for each course.	_____	_____
c. Determining daily plans or activities.	_____	_____
d. Identifying new equipment/supplies to add to shops/classrooms.	_____	_____
e. Determining program budgets.	_____	_____
f. Determining the school's schedule (including teacher prep. periods).	_____	_____

- g. Determining how teaching materials supplies and other resources are allocated.

- h. Adding or dropping courses.

DECISIONS

_____	_____
_____	_____
TEACHERS	INFLUENCE OF ADMINISTRATORS

- i. Making teaching assignments.
- j. Determining the use of school space including shops, classrooms, offices and other areas.

- k. Enforcing student discipline policies.

- l. Hiring new teachers.

- m. Hiring new administrators.

- n. Participating in decisions about nonteaching duties (e.g. lunch-room duty, bus duty, etc.).

- o. Participating in the development of policies regarding promotion/retention of students.

- p. Participating in the development of attendance standards/policies for students.

- q. Developing evaluation procedures for teachers.

8. Schools differ in the need and opportunity they provide for teachers to discuss topics (a) among themselves and (b) with administrators. Listed below are some common topics of communication. Please indicate your response by inserting the appropriate number on each line. For discussions with other teachers, please think of one teacher you talk to most often. For discussions with administrators, please indicate the average across all administrators (SUPERINTENDENT-DIRECTOR, DIRECTOR, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT/DIRECTOR) if there is more than one with whom you speak. Please insert the appropriate number on each line. Select the one number which best reflects your opinion and make sure all lines are completed:

0 = NEVER

1 = SOMETIMES (twice a month)

2 = OFTEN (twice a week)

3 = ALMOST ALWAYS (three or four times a week)

4 = ALWAYS (daily)

TOPIC	FREQUENCY OF DISCUSSION				
	TEACHER			ADMINISTRATOR	
a. Lessons or curriculum units that work well or poorly.	_____			_____	
b. Motivating or controlling specific students.	_____			_____	
c. Improving discipline generally.	_____			_____	
d. Defining or enforcing student performance, grading or promotion standards.	_____			_____	
e. Maintaining or improving positive relations with the community.	_____			_____	
f. Obtaining materials or resources needed for class/shop instruction.	_____			_____	
9. Teacher empowerment may be defined as the participation of teachers in the governance of the school, the role of teachers in making decisions which impact on the operation of the school. Please indicate in the statements below the extent to which you agree or disagree that teachers should be involved in the decisions of this school.					
There are five possible responses: <u>STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD)</u> , <u>DISAGREE (D)</u> , <u>NEUTRAL OR UNDECIDED (N)</u> , <u>AGREE (A)</u> , and <u>STRONGLY AGREE (SA)</u> .					
Circle the response which best reflects your feeling or opinion on the role of the teacher in the operation of the school.					
a. Teachers should be involved in the development of student oriented <u>policies</u> like grading, promotion, and attendance.	SD	D	N	A	SA
b. Teachers should be involved in the hiring of new teachers.	SD	D	N	A	SA
c. Teachers should be involved in the hiring of administrators.	SD	D	N	A	SA
d. Teachers should choose the texts and supplies for their courses.	SD	D	N	A	SA
e. Teachers should assist or coach other teachers in planning instruction or with teaching methods.	SD	D	N	A	SA
f. Teachers should develop inservice training workshops for staff members.	SD	D	N	A	SA

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| g. Teachers should have a role in evaluating other teachers. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| h. Teachers should be involved in developing the school budget. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| i. Teachers should be involved in developing the mission or philosophy of the school. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| j. Teachers should be involved in the development of teacher oriented <u>policies</u> like hiring personnel, and evaluation of teachers. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
10. Please indicate in the statements which follow the extent to

which you agree or disagree. There are five possible responses: STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD), DISAGREE (D), NEUTRAL or UNDECIDED (N), AGREE (A), STRONGLY AGREE (SA).

Circle the response which best reflects your feeling or opinion.

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| a. I like my job. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| b. My job is important. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| c. Vocational courses are more important than Academic courses. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| d. Teachers have no business being involved in policy formulation, school governance, or school operation. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| e. I have job security. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| f. I am satisfied with my involvement in decision-making in this school. | SD | D | N | A | SA |

11. Please feel free to make any comments in the space below.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your responses will remain anonymous and will be pooled with those of other teachers and administrators completing the survey. Please place your completed questionnaire in the envelope which was provided, seal it, and return it to the designated individual in your school.

Your participation is appreciated.

APPENDIX C

AUTHOR PERMISSION TO ADAPT SURVEY

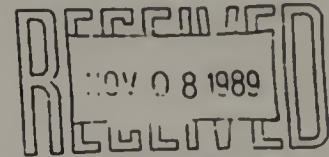
Research for Better Schools
 444 North Third Street
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
 19123-4107

215-574-9300



November 2, 1989

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



SOUTHEAST REGION

Ms. Angela Avery
 Team Leader
 Occupational Education
 Department of Education
 33 Main Street - Suite 2
 Lakeville, MA 02347

Dear Ms. Avery:

Thank you for your letters of October 9, 1989 and May 29, 1989 requesting permission to use the School Assessment Survey (SAS) in your dissertation research.

We wish to encourage research that fosters analysis of organizational conditions in schools and for that reason want to grant you permission to use the SAS instrument, or adapted portions of the questionnaire. It is our understanding that you will be using the instrument for research only and have no plans for financial gain by its use or adaptation.

To better understand the conceptual history behind the instrument as well as its psychometric properties, we strongly urge you to obtain a copy of the manual, The School Assessment Survey: A Technical Manual, if you have not already done so.. This can be obtained by contacting the Publications Office at RBS. To further assist you, I am enclosing a chronological bibliography of various writings related to conceptual and empirical understandings of the instrument.

A final request we would like to make is that you keep us informed of any progress in your research. We would like to have a copy of your completed dissertation and any articles or paper presentations that make use of the SAS.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me. I wish you the best in your research.

Sincerely yours,

Bruce Wilson
 Co-Director, Applied Research

APPENDIX D

COVER LETTER AND LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT



UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS
AT AMHERST

Hills House
Amherst, MA 01003
(413) 545-2155

Division of Educational Policy
Research and Administration

September, 1989

Dear Vocational-Technical Educator:

Vocational-technical education is changing in response to the world in which we live. Teachers and administrators face many challenges. There are pressures to upgrade academic skills, and provide sophisticated training. Educational reforms affect how and what we teach.

Many of the reforms provide new roles for teachers. It is important in vocational technical education to determine some of the issues which affect teachers. This research which is being conducted by graduate students under my supervision will identify teacher and administrator perceptions of the current status of vocational education in order to provide new direction and support a new image.

To learn more about the current roles of the teachers and administrators in the administration of the vocational-technical high school, we are asking teaching staff and administrators to tell us their views by responding to the enclosed questionnaire. In addition to determining the current state of teacher involvement in the decisions of the school, we hope to assess the willingness of teachers and administrators to expand the role and responsibilities of teachers.

Please complete the questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. Your answers will be confidential. Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope which has been provided and hand it to _____ who is collecting this information in your school. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire or the envelope.

Your assistance and prompt response are appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kenneth A. Parker
Associate Professor



The Commonwealth of Massachusetts Department of Education

1385 Hancock Street, Quincy, Massachusetts 02169

September, 1989

Dear Colleague:

It is with pleasure that the undersigned endorse the enclosed research survey which is being conducted by graduate students under the supervision of Dr. Kenneth Parker, Professor, at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst.

The role of the vocational-technical teacher in creating a new image for vocational-technical education is critical. It is important to explore perceptions and attitudes of teachers and administrators toward an expanded role for teachers in their schools. The issue is pertinent and timely in light of the current national and state educational reform movements. Both the Division of Occupational Education and the Massachusetts Vocational Association will benefit from exploration of the issues involved in professionalizing the image of vocational-technical education.

Therefore, we encourage you to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to the appropriate contact person as quickly as possible.

Your support and attention is appreciated.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "David F. Cronin".

David F. Cronin
Associate Commissioner
Division of Occupational Education

Marcus Ashley
Executive Director
Massachusetts Vocational
Association

APPENDIX E

CHI-SQUARE TABLES

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
5. Teaching Behavior				
a. Encourage Students	1.24 N= 502	1.35 333	2.57 188	19.25† 483
b. Attn slower	1.72 N= 502	1.32 331	2.45 190	4.04 483
c. Plan Instruction	2.44 N= 503	6.24 332	4.47 190	18.54† 484
d. Try New Methods	2.92 N= 495	9.54† 325	2.06 189	33.56† 476
e. Outside Time to Plan	.82 N= 500	.69 329	1.19 190	3.44 481
f. Taking Courses	3.73 N= 500	3.68 329	4.38 190	15.72† 481
g. Offer Suggestions	3.51 N= 504	2.47 333	5.41 190	6.99 485
h. Maintain Safety	2.56 N= 502	2.07 333	3.53 188	3.34 483
i. Plan with Teachers	11.68† N= 500	13.11† 330	8.18 189	9.14 481
j. Share Common Planning	2.14 N= 496	1.86 326	2.72 189	7.65 477
k. Waive Contract	11.46† N= 442	11.97† 293	6.95 166	1.39 425

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
6. Faciliative Leadership				
a. Professional Workers N=	11.25† 510	8.98 338	15.06† 191	5.41 491
b. Professional Development N=	12.91† 510	10.74† 338	16.32† 191	10.22† 491
c. Important Work N=	11.45† 510	9.50† 337	14.87† 192	5.54 491
d. Constructive Criticism N=	23.30† 511	17.72† 338	31.64† 192	10.34† 492
e. Positive Contribution N=	18.85† 508	14.98† 336	24.14† 190	9.26 490
f. Meetings Valuable N=	18.16† 509	12.69† 337	31.16† 191	18.76† 495
g. Staff Dev. Inservice N=	6.34 507	5.21 337	8.27 189	4.31 488
h. Valuable Suggestions N=	20.59† 511	17.40† 338	23.62† 192	4.30 492
i. Policy Implement N=	24.45† 506	20.51† 337	25.59† 188	4.39 487
7. Centralization of Influence				
a. Tchr Select Texts N=	5.41 480	5.49 335	5.14 190	4.87 489
Adm Select Texts N=	1.53 480	1.84 316	.93 182	1.06 462
Tchr-Admn Select Text N=	2.76 479	2.90 315	2.78 182	5.64 461

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
b. Tchr Establish Objectives N= 509	3.95 337	3.87 337	4.04 198	2.51 463
Admn Establish Objectives N= 481	.90 481	1.25 317	.74 182	5.67 463
Tchr-Admn Objectives N= 481	1.16 481	2.59 324	.54 182	4.19 463
c. Tchr Lesson Plans N= 504	.91 504	.98 335	.78 186	.44 487
Admn Lesson Plans N= 477	.72 477	.48 315	1.47 180	3.73 459
Tchr-Admn Lesson Plan N= 473	2.44 473	1.57 313	6.04* 177	8.53* 456
d. Tchr Identify Equipment N= 508	2.48 508	1.76 336	5.08 190	21.87* 490
Admn Identify Equipment N= 480	3.39 480	7.12 317	2.87 181	11.66 462
Tchr-Admn Equipment N= 479	.31 479	.16 316	1.01 181	6.42* 461
e. Tchr Budgets N= 501	11.99* 501	12.90* 331	11.58* 188	11.03* 483
Admn Budgets N= 485	2.53 485	3.29 323	1.22 179	5.09 468
Tchr-Admn Budgets N= 480	1.19 480	.91 319	2.30 178	2.88 463
f. Tchr Schedules N= 492	22.47* 492	22.53* 324	17.46* 186	7.62 474
Admn Schedules N= 491	.76 491	.16 328	.65 180	1.91 474

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
Tchr-Admn Schedules	.66 N= 475	.78 315	.45 177	.65 458
g. Tchr Supplies Resources	8.55* N= 495	9.21* 326	9.19* 187	12.55* 477
Admn Supplies Resources	1.48 N= 492	1.97 328	1.81 182	7.16 474
Tchr-Admn	4.06 480	4.76 318	2.65 180	1.60 462
h. Tchr Add/ Drop	13.10* N= 491	18.78* 323	6.25 186	32.70* 473
Admn Add/ Drop	4.00 N= 490	6.89 327	1.40 180	8.81* 473
Tchr-Admn Add/Drop	13.00* N= 474	17.89* 313	5.99* 178	9.14* 457
i. Tchr Tchr Assign	13.43* N= 489	15.33* 321	9.63* 186	7.68 471
Admn Tchr Assign	1.12 N= 488	1.01 323	1.35 182	1.75 471
Tchr-Admn Tchr Assign	1.57 N= 473	1.83 312	1.29 178	1.26 456
j. Tchr School Space	16.80* N= 499	16.46* 329	19.71* 187	29.23* 478
Admn School Space	5.02 N= 491	3.26 325	9.50* 184	6.49 473
Tchr-Admn School Space	.45 N= 482	.06 318	4.19 181	15.08* 465
k. Tchr Discipline	4.05 N= 498	4.31 330	4.65 186	8.87* 480

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
Admn Discipline N= 488	2.12 N= 488	.97 320	1.32 182	4.15 470
Tchr-Admn Discipline N= 481	.84 N= 481	1.63 317	.80 179	4.22 463
l. Tchr Hiring Teachers N= 496	17.71* N= 496	15.12* 326	24.62* 188	12.28* 478
Admn Hiring Teachers N= 491	.44 N= 491	.49 326	.31 182	2.19 474
Tchr-Admn Hiring Tchrs N= 480	8.80* N= 480	5.52 317	15.37* 180	6.04* 463
m. Tchr Hiring Admn N= 497	22.30* N= 497	18.42* 328	29.48* 187	5.47 479
Admn Hiring Admn N= 488	1.75 N= 488	1.70 324	1.82 181	2.32 471
Tchrs-Admn Hiring Admn N= 480	.47 N= 480	.43 318	.76 179	2.42 463
n. Tchr Non Tchng Duties N= 495	17.58* N= 495	14.44* 324	20.57* 184	6.60 478
Admn Non Tchng Duties N= 485	5.2 N= 485	5.06 321	4.06 180	1.06 469
Tchr-Admn Non Tchng Duties N= 476	4.53 N= 476	3.82 314	4.87 178	1.80 460

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
<hr/>				
o. Tchr Promotion	3.69 N= 505	3.31 334	4.69 189	3.86 487
Admn Promotion	2.53 N= 491	2.77 326	1.90 183	1.18 473
Tchr-Admn Promotion	7.43* N= 487	8.18* 323	5.29 182	2.76 469
p. Tchr Attend Policies	12.58* N= 502	10.47* 331	17.84* 189	11.56* 484
Admn Attend Policies	4.13 N= 492	4.24 327	3.17 183	1.78 474
Tchr-Admn Attn Policies	11.30* N= 485	8.86* 321	13.91* 182	4.91 467
q. Tchr Tchr Eval	9.05* N= 497	8.37* 329	10.13* 189	8.72* 479
Admn Tchr Eval	7.68 N= 491	9.20* 326	4.35 183	3.73 473
Tchr-Admn Tchr Eval	3.82 N= 487	14.78* 319	9.83* 180	3.47 463
8. Communication				
a. Hor-Lesson Plans	3.54 N= 505	4.88 336	1.57 186	9.97* 488
Vert-Lesson Plans	15.24* N= 484	13.56* 323	17.20* 180	10.78* 469
b. Hor-Control Students	.60 N= 508	.50 337	.96 188	2.71 491
Vert-Control Students	39.23* N= 508	31.17* 323	32.20* 181	2.50 470
c. Hor-Improve Discipline	3.25 N= 487	2.88 335	5.20 186	12.14* 487

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
Vert-Improve Discipline	41.44* N= 492	34.25* 326	36.32* 193	1.26 475
d. Hor-Grading	4.43 N= 503	4.86 335	3.99 185	9.19 496
Vert-Grading	17.80* N= 488	16.15* 325	18.50* 190	1.25 471
e. Hor-Public Relations	5.21 N= 504	3.81 334	8.70 187	30.90* 487
Vert-Public Relations	14.80* N= 492	13.94* 326	14.28* 193	7.67* 475
f. Hor-Resources	4.16 N= 501	3.98 333	6.60 185	19.15* 484
Vert-Resources	16.28* N= 490	13.38* 327	19.53* 188	4.83 473
9. Empowerment				
a. Policy Dev.	4.56 N= 513	3.73 340	5.97 192	3.07 495
b. Hiring Tchrs	4.25 N= 509	2.68 339	6.20 189	9.59* 490
c. Hiring Admn	2.09 N= 513	1.87 341	2.54 191	4.26 494
d. Texts	.57 N= 512	.65 341	.41 190	1.02 493
e. Planning Instruction	14.12* N= 512	14.06* 341	12.04* 191	4.26 493
f. Inservice	18.04* N= 512	20.80* 340	12.09* 191	5.15 493
g. Tchr Evaluation	3.17 N= 511	3.47 339	2.43 190	1.17 492

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Administrators	Ac Teachers Administrators	Voc Teachers Ac Teachers
h. School Budget	4.95 N= 511	5.10 340	4.96 191	7.93 492
i. Goals	4.33 N= 513	5.02 341	2.97 189	2.88 494
j. Tchr Policies	2.56 N= 508	3.60 338	1.12 193	7.42 489
10. Satisfaction				
a. Like Job	4.13 N= 509	3.00 335	6.41 193	7.81 490
b. Job Important	10.22† N= 513	8.82 338	12.43† 194	8.23 494
c. Voc Courses Important	4.89 N= 511	9.90† 336	2.13 194	61.95† 492
d. Tchrs Have No Business	2.41 N= 512	2.48 337	3.48 194	11.96† 493
e. Job Security	6.04 N= 510	5.52 335	6.24 193	7.79 492
f. Satisfied	78.20† N= 509	71.80† 336	53.45† 192	3.98 490
Disparity Empowerment- Current Status				
a. Policy	.11 N= 497	.05 331	.69 187	4.06 482
b. Policy	4.65 N= 497	3.56 328	6.18† 187	5.55 475
c. Hiring Tchrs	3.82 N= 487	2.09 322	10.67† 183	3.51 469
d. Hiring Admin.	7.72† N= 492	4.93 326	9.31† 184	6.35† 474

Chi-Square Tables

Item	All Teachers	Voc Teachers	Ac Teachers	Voc Teachers
	Administrators	Administrators	Administrators	Ac Teachers
e. Texts/ Supplies	5.48 N= 501	5.47 333	5.33 186	.09 483
f. Tchr Evaluation	8.03† N= 491	5.56 326	12.17† 183	1.75 473
g. School Budget	5.40 N= 494	3.82 328	7.51† 184	2.76 476
h. Policy Develop	15.75† N= 491	12.29† 324	11.52† 185	3.51 473

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ambrosie, F. and Haley, P. (1988). The changing school climate and teacher professionalization. NASSP Bulletin, 72, (504), 82-89.
- Antonellis, G., Eash, M., & Rotman, S. (1988). Teacher supply and demand in occupational education in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. University of Massachusetts. Boston, MA.
- The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1985). With consequences for all. A Report from the ASCD Task Force in increased high school graduation requirements. ASCD: Alexandria, VA
- Barth, R. (1988, May). Principals, teachers, and school leadership. Phi Delta Kappan. 69, 639-642.
- Borg, W. and Gall, M. (1983). Educational research: an introduction. (4th ed.) New York: Longman.
- Boyer, E. (1983). High School: A report on secondary education in America. New York: Harper and Row.
- Business-Higher Education Forum (1983, April). America's competitive challenge: The need for a national response. A Report to the President of the United States. Washington, D.C.
- Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. (1983). A Nation at Risk. Washington, D.C.
- Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. (1986) A Nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century. Washington, D.C.
- The Carnegie Foundation. (1988). The condition of teaching. A state by state analysis. Princeton, New Jersey.
- Chapter 74/731 of the General Laws of Massachusetts (1987). An Act to Improve Vocational Education.
- Chapter 188 of the General Laws of Massachusetts (1985). The public school improvement act.
- Chapter 727 of the General Laws of Massachusetts (1987). An act enhancing the teaching profession and recognizing education achievement.

- Commission on PreCollege education in Mathematics, Science, and Technology. (1983). Educating Americans for the 21st Century. Washington, D.C.
- Conley, S. (1988, November) Reforming paper pushers and avoiding free agents: The teacher as a constrained decision maker. Educational Administration Quarterly, 24, 393-404.
- Conley, S., Bacharach, B., & Bauer, S. (1989, February). The school work environment and teacher dissatisfaction. Educational Administration Quarterly, 25, 58-81.
- Conley, S. and Schmidle, W. (1988, Winter) Teacher participation in the management of school systems. Teachers College Record, 90, 259-272.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1984). Beyond the commission report: The coming crisis in teaching. Washington, D.C.: The Rand Corporation.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1985, Winter). Valuing teachers: The making of a profession. Teachers College Record, 87, 205-218.
- Dewey, J. (1966) Vocational aspects of education. in Democracy and education. (pp. 306-320) New York: Free Press.
- Drucker, P. (1973). Management: Tasks, responsibilities, and practice. New York: Harper and Row.
- Duttweiler, P. (1989, Winter). Changing the old ways. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 22,(2), 7-11.
- Erlandson, D. and Bifano, S. (1987, December). Teacher empowerment: What research says to the principal. NASSP Bulletin, 71,(503), 31-36.
- Etzioni, A. (Ed.). (1969). The semi-professions and their organization. New York: The Free Press.
- Gizzi, A. (1988). Socio-technical systems/quality of work life (STS/QWL) Alternative paradigm: An urban secondary school experience (1982-1983). Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

- Goodlad, J. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Goodlad, J. (1988, October). Studying the education of educators: Values-driven inquiry. Phi Delta Kappan, 70, 105-111.
- Haberman, M. (1986, June) Licensing teachers: Lessons from other professions. Phi Delta Kappan, 67, 719-722.
- Holmes Group (1986). Tomorrow's teachers. A Report of the Holmes Group. East Lansing, MI.
- Imber, M. (1983). Increasing decision making involvement for teachers: Ethical and practical considerations. The Journal of Educational Thought, 17, 36-41.
- In search of excellence-A talk with Tom Peters about the principalship. (1988; December). NASSP Bulletin, 72, 36-45.
- Karafotis, C. (1990). Teacher empowerment a format for educational change. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Massachusetts, Amherst.
- Lieberman, A. (1984). Rethinking school improvement research, craft, and concept. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Lieberman, A. (1988). Building a professional culture in schools. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Lieberman, A. (1988, May) Teachers and principals: Turf, tension, and new tasks. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, 648-653.
- Lightfoot, S. (1983). The good high school. New York: Basic Books.
- Little, J. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions in schools. American Educational Research Journal, 19, 325-340.
- Logan, J. (1988, August). From industry to the classroom: The rewards and realities of teaching. Vocational Education Journal, 63.(5), 16-19.

Logos Research Institute. (1981). Learning the teaching trade: A study of vocational teacher training in Massachusetts. Amherst, MA.

Maeroff, G. (1988). The empowerment of teachers: Overcoming the crisis of confidence. New York: Teachers College Press.

Massachusetts Department of Education. (1986). Teachers Speak Out: A Report on the Conditions of Teaching in Massachusetts. Quincy, MA.

Massachusetts Department of Education. (1987). Vocational technical advisory committees: A guide to effective utilization. Quincy, MA.

Massachusetts Department of Education. (1988). Massachusetts state plan for vocational education 1989-1990. Quincy, MA.

Naisbitt, James. (1982). Megatrends. New York: Warner Books.

National Commission on Secondary Vocational Education. (1984). The unfinished agenda: The role of vocational education in the high school. National Center for Research in Vocational Education. Ohio State University.

Palardy, J. (1988, May). Institutional structure: An impediment to professionalization? NASSP Bulletin, 72, 508, 82-88.

Parnell, Dale. (1985). The neglected majority. University Press.

Peters, T. and Waterman, Jr., R. (1984) In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies. New York: Warner Books, Inc.

Peters, T. (1987) Thriving on Chaos. New York: Warner Books.

Pratzner, F. (1985). The vocational education paradigm: Adjustment, replacement, or extinction. Journal of Industrial Teacher Education 22, (2), 6-19.

- Pratzner, F. (1987) Vocational education teacher education: A survey of preservice and inservice preparation. National Center for Research in Vocational Education. Columbus: Ohio State University.
- Rallis, S. (1988, May). Room at the top: Conditions for effective school leadership. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, , 643-647.
- Scharff, E. (1986). Wordly power: The making of the Wall Street Journal. Beaufort: Beaufort Books.
- Schlechty, P. (in press). Schools for the 21st Century: The condition for invention.
- Sergiovanni, T. (1987). The principal: A reflective practice perspective. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Soder, R. (1986) Professionalizing the profession. (Occasional Paper No. 4). Seattle: Center for Educational Renewal, College of Education University of Washington.
- Soder, R. (1988, December). Studying the education of educators: What we can learn from other professions. Phi Delta Kappan, 70, , 299-305.
- Stimson, T. and R. Appelbaum. (1988, December). Empowering teachers: Do principals have the power? Phi Delta Kappan, 70, , 313-316.
- Snyder, K. (1988, October) Managing a productive school work culture. NASSP Bulletin, 72, (510), 40-43.
- The forgotten half: Non-college youth in America. (1988) William T. Grant Foundation. Washington:D.C.
- Tucker, M. and Mandel, D. (1986, Sept.). The Carnegie Report- A call for redesigning the schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 68, .(1), 24-27.
- Tucker, M. (1988, February). Peter Drucker, knowledge work and the structure of schools. Educational Leadership, 45, (5) 44-47.

- Waterman, Jr., R. (1987) The Renewal Factor. New York: Bantam Books.
- Wilson, B., Firestone, W. and Herriot, R. (1985). School Assessment Survey. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.
- Wilson, B., Firestone, W. and Herriot, R. (1985). School Assessment Survey A Technical Manual. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.
- Wirth, A. (1987). Contemporary work and the quality of life. In K. E. Benne and S. Tuzer (Eds.) Society as education in an age of transition. 54-87. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education.
- Wise, A. and Darling-Hammond, L. (1987). Licensing teachers: Design for a teaching profession. Rand Co.: Santa Monica.

