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ABSTRACT

This paper presents the results of a factor analysis that identified five emerging constructs of power from surveys administered in two southeastern states of residence: Florida and Alabama. The five constructs were named the "Five Dimensions of Power" and are: autonomy, resources, responsibility, political efficacy and expertise, and hierarchical beliefs about power. These dimensions were used as dependent variables in a series of one-way ANOVAs (analysis of variance procedures) to analyze the effects of several context and personal demographic variables. Results indicated that state of residence and type of community were significant main effects on autonomy, and years employed had a significant effect on the attainment and use of resources. Two-way ANOVAs for state of residence revealed three significant interaction effects with gender, community, and level of school by political efficacy and expertise; two significant interaction effects for state of residence with age and years employed by responsibility; and one significant interaction effect for state of residence with level of school by hierarchical beliefs of power. Exploratory findings indicated that context and personal demographic variables had significant main and interaction effects on different beliefs of power within teachers' work cultures. Questions are raised as to how hierarchical beliefs of power impact the adoption of new mental models of power grounded in participation, involvement, and partnership models. (Contains 77 references.) (Author/ND)

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ISSUES OF DOMINATION AND PARTNERSHIP WITHIN EMERGING CONSTRUCTS OF POWER: TEACHER BELIEFS EMBEDDED IN PRACTICE

by

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Abstract

This paper presents the results of a factor analysis that identified five emerging constructs of power from surveys administered in two southeastern states of residence: Florida and Alabama. The five constructs were named the ***Five Dimensions of Power*** *and are: autonomy, resources, responsibility, political efficacy and expertise, and hierarchical beliefs about power. These dimensions were used as dependent variables in a series of one-way ANOVAs to analyze the effects of several context and personal demographic variables. Results indicated that state of residence and type of community were significant main effects on autonomy, and, years employed on resources. Two-way ANOVAs for state of residence revealed three significant interactions effects with gender, community, and level of school by political efficacy and expertise; two significant interaction effects for state of residence with age and years employed by responsibility, and lastly, one significant interaction effect for state of residence with level of school by hierarchical beliefs of power. Exploratory findings indicated that context and personal demographic variables had significant main and interaction effects on different beliefs of power within teachers' work cultures. Questions are raised as to how hierarchical beliefs of power impact the adoption of new mental models of power grounded in participation, involvement, and partnership models of power.*

Introduction

Beliefs about power underlie assumptions about how educators view authority, control, and their level of influence in schools today. Traditional power definitions are framed within *power over* models (Brunner, 1993; Burbules, 1986; Hargreaves, 1991; Wartenburg, 1990). Only recently have scholars started discussing new models of power, with power as something that moves *through* people (Clegg, 1989; Dunlap & Goldman, 1991). Yet, many reform efforts in schools today, such as Site-Based Management and Shared Decision-Making, hinge on the redefinition of power relationships within new mental models of power (Blount, 1994; Glasser, 1990; Hargreaves, 1994; Webster, 1994).

Unstated within these new mental models of organizational power are tacit assumptions about meaningful work, empowerment, and who benefits from changes in power structures (Levering, 1988; Limmerick & Cunnington, 1993). Further complicating the discussion of new mental models of power is the confusion over the word "empowerment." How does it relate to the ideas of involvement and participation? According to Liden and Tewksburg's (1995) synthesis of the recent literature on

"empowerment," four aspects are critical to definitions of empowerment: choice, competence, meaningfulness, and impact. Kanungo (1992) argued that empowerment should be viewed less as delegation and more as "enabling." He proposed that the connotation of "enabling" implies motivation through enhancing one's personal efficacy and ability to cope with environmental demands. Certainly, in our age of rapid change and decentralization, enabling others to act and respond quickly to the internal and external demands within their schools increases their sense of control and ability to be involved and thus participate. "Empowerment," however, is not synonymous with involvement and participation; it appears to be a movement that includes people in beginning to collaborate and make shared decisions. Through increasing participation in decision making, the hope is, there will be greater involvement.

Recently, however, several studies have reported findings that demonstrate how Shared Decision Making (SDM) and Site-Based Management (SBM) may be ignoring how to effectively involve teachers in decisions that are meaningful to them. Instead of increasing teachers' control and impacting more positive effects on students' learning, SDM has become a game where teachers pretend they are involved, guess what the principal wants, and then go to their classrooms (Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1990; Weiss, Cambone, & Wyeth, 1992). "Empowerment," in the above example, is a pejorative term. Instead of fostering trust, it fostered teachers' suspicions as to their perceived efficacy in participation, and thus lowered their commitment to active engagement or involvement. For some teachers, "empowerment" is viewed as a gimmick --- a game that is not genuine --- rhetoric not reality.

On the other hand, "empowerment" may be viewed best as an organizational strategy for beginning to share power, the initial step in redefining power within the formal organization. Sharing power *should* enable others to act, promote choice, increase impact, build competency, and be deemed meaningful for *all* the members in the school culture. "Empowerment" strategies necessitate new leadership styles that facilitate the

flow of power (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991; Wartenberg, 1990). This flow of power must be positioned within new frameworks of power where "empowerement" is one of several strategies for dismantling current hierarchical power structures. New mental models of power call into question past structures that: a) thwart increased participation, b) limit active and meaningful involvement, and c) discourage partnership models of power. Therefore, throughout this paper, the word "empowerment" is used in connection with new strategies of power. These strategies enable others to act in more partnership ways, encourage and support meaningful involvement, and foster structures that support participation for new organizational power models to emerge --- models that have positive effects for *all* students.

Rationale and Purpose

This study sought to identify emerging constructs of power embedded within the norms of teacher work culture. Foucault's (1977) definition of power was particularly useful. Specifically, Foucault viewed power as a multiplicity of force relations that are only understood in the particular contexts where these forces act. Similarly, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) defined power as both relational and contextual, and highly dependent on the resource allocation and utilization within the organization. Combining both of these definitions, several other aspects of power were examined. First, power was viewed broadly and historically from Eisler's domination and partnership culture theory model, which focused on two different sets of assumptions about the type of relationships that can be built within a culture (1993; 1995). Then power was viewed from the work being conducted by researchers like McLaughlin, Talbert, and Bascia (1990), who stress the importance of context variables in understanding different types of power relationships. Next, Darling-Hammond's typology of professional and bureaucratic accountability raised serious questions as to who benefits when new power models are incorporated: teachers, administrators, clients, and/or everyone? And finally, the *Five Dimensions of Power* are discussed as a framework for understanding how to move to new school organizational

power models. The paper concludes with the research questions, methodology, results, and conclusions.

Theoretical Framework

Dominator and Partnership Perspectives

Eisler's (1993; 1995) theory of Dominator and Partnership societies has evolved over the last 30 years from her work as an historical anthropologist that led her to write her major work, *The Chalice and the Blade* (1987). Findings from her research on the fundamental values held by cultures over the last 300,000 years raise serious questions for us concerning our rather simplistic assumptions about changes in power relationships within traditions of domination (Snyder & Acker-Hocevar, 1995; Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Wolf, 1995).

Eisler sets forth a picture of Partnership cultures (actualization power), characterized by linking (rather than ranking), cooperation, nurturance, participation, sharing, spirituality, the creative arts, and a balance of male and female roles. Dominator cultures (domination power), on the other hand, are characterized by the dominance of one sex over the other (in most countries, this is male dominance over females), institutionalized hierarchy and ranking of one role group over another, in-group versus out-group thinking, acquired wealth and resources, as well as poverty and institutionalized violence. Partnership societies, Eisler reported, thrived for about 250,000 years before the dawn of civilization. About 50,000 years ago, war strategies evolved across communities to gain more territory as institutions of dominance emerged within societies. In the last four or five thousand years of history, there has been an increased use of dominance as a way of life among nations throughout the world.

The roots of bureaucratic systems tend to reinforce the tenacious values inherent in top-down organizational structures. Resistance to altering power practices that tend to foster more autonomy through increased decision-making, implied expertise, and the ability to take on more responsibility, seem at odds with the present knowledge era

(Acker-Hocevar, 1994). Many of our schools are faced with attitudes and values from an industrial era, where expertise was used to better one's position. Today, however, conditions are ripe for the reversal of the dominator cultural patterns identified by Eisler that favor moving toward partnership models of power. At the heart of partnership models is the advancement of the common good based on values of shared power, shared information, and increased participation. Instead of decisions being made by a few for the many, decision-making becomes more broad-based, with an inclusion of a greater number of voices. Within this framework of power, options for increased autonomy, responsibility, and the more equitable distribution of resources is possible. Partnership models of power become a way to view power that promotes equity and social justice.

The Context of School Reform

The context of school reform is best understood as a series of concentric circles (see Figure 1). Whether one begins inward from the individual, or outward from state of residence, alters one's view of the context of school reform. Thus, one may begin with the individual, move to the level of school (elementary, middle, and high school), progress to the community (rural, urban, and suburban), and end with the state of residence (Alabama or Florida). This movement may be simultaneous, irregular, or proceed in a Ping-Pong fashion, bouncing back and forth from state, to individual, to community, and back to the type of school, or in any number of patterns. Hence, beliefs about power can be viewed as interdependent, situated within multiple contexts that both shape and inform these beliefs ---beliefs that are dynamic and operate within a multiplicity of force relations within particular contexts (Foucault, 1977). These contexts do not all exert equal pressure on the person at the same time.

Today, researchers have recognized how important context variables are in our examination of teacher beliefs. Foucault's (1977) and Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978) definitions of power remind us that power can only be understood within the specific relationships and the contexts (strucutures) that maintain these beliefs. These structures

are influenced by different socio-political contexts that interact with personal demographic variables to shape beliefs (Ferguson, 1984; Freire, 1968; hooks, 1995; Smircich, 1983). McLaughlin, Talbert and Bascia (1990) urge scholars to rethink the meaning of context "by taking a deep and broad look at the multifaceted influences of teachers' work" (p. viii). Additionally, they encourage an understanding of the multiple and embedded contexts "that have effects on teachers' work" (p. viii).

In her study of eight high schools, Metz (1990) reported the consequences of context. Despite striking similarities in the curriculum and design of all the high schools, the meaning and assumptions shared by group members within the schools differentiated them. Metz concluded that community, student body, and teachers' backgrounds affected teachers' definitions of work.

The current study focuses on the beliefs of power in two states, Alabama and Florida. The context of reform in these two states is different. Alabama was one of the few states, until just recently, where Goals 2000 was initially rejected. The original rejection of the Goals 2000 funds was ironic due to a 1993 federal court decision that made it clear that Alabama needed increased monies to address inequitable funding patterns in the state (Harder v. Hunt, 1993). Florida reform, in contrast, was driven not by the courts, but by the Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability. This legislative body supported and passed school reform in the spring of 1991, known to educators as Blueprint 2000. Blueprint 2000 was built around the goals in Goals 2000, and focused the state's reform attention on the school as the basic site of accountability.

According to the Alabama Education Accountability Plan, which is known to educators in the state of Alabama as Governor Fob James' Foundation Plan, the people of Alabama want two things from public education: 1) high achievement for students, and 2) a safe and orderly environment in which to learn (Education Accountability Plan, 1995). In contrast, Florida's legislature sought to provide educators with guidelines to develop what the state called Florida's future and most precious resource, its children. The

guidelines were to reverse the trends of top-down mandates to schools and address standards to "decentralize the system so school districts and schools are free to design learning environments and experiences to better meet the needs of each student" (Blueprint 2000, 1992, p. 2). Thus, accountability was defined differently in both states, with Alabama focusing more on the financial aspects of accountability, and Florida focusing more on performance criteria over time. While Alabama relied heavily on norm-referenced tests, Florida began moving toward criterion-referenced tests.

Bureaucratic and Professional Accountability

Likewise, Linda Darling-Hammed (1992) explored how current systems of accountability are structures that need to be changed in order to provide honest, useful vehicles of communication for accountability that consider both the school's context and promote professional practices in schools. Darling-Hammed advised that professional practices and accountability should seek to support behaviors that are more "client-oriented" and "knowledge-based." Professional accountability, she claimed, is different from legal and bureaucratic accountability, both of which have been defined by the traditional power practices familiar within most schools. Bureaucratic accountability *only* ensures that when the goals have been established, rules will be promulgated and enforced. Professional accountability, however, assumes that the work involved in teaching is complex and can be neither hierarchically prescribed nor controlled --- it must be structured in such a way that promotes and encourages practitioners to take responsibility for their decisions, both at individual and collective levels.

Five Dimensions of Power

In the following section, the *Five Dimensions of Power* are discussed: autonomy, responsibility, resources, political efficacy and expertise, and hierarchical beliefs about power (see Figure 2). These beliefs are depicted in a pyramid shape first, and then in puzzle shapes. The pyramid shows hierarchical power at the top, which holds Eisler's (1993; 1995) concept of a dominator culture in place. Autonomy is at the base of the

pyramid; it depicts emerging beliefs about choice among educators. Next, on the pyramid is responsibility. Within a dominator culture, responsibility remains in the hands of the few. The center section of the model, depicts political efficacy and expertise and the utilization and access to resources. Both of these dimensions are shaded, as they represent beliefs that have the potential to shift us into new models of power. For if expertise is used only to promote one's position in the hierarchy instead of sharing information collectively, and resources are used to exert control over others, power relationships are competitive not cooperative, and resources are limited not shared.

Figure 3 depicts the same dimensions of power in a different configuration. The intent of this model is to reconfigure how these dimensions might relate to one another in new models of organizational power. The *Five Dimensions of Power* are working toward sharing resources, using knowledge to forge partnership cultures, and solving problems for client groups. A missing puzzle piece suggest a new structure other than hierarchy.

The juxtaposition of the Figure 2 and 3 depict the *Five Dimensions of Power*, factors that impact power relationships and beliefs, within two different sets of assumptions. One set of assumptions assumes that shared power will continue to be at odds within a system of hierarchy. The other set of assumptions supports shared power that is grounded in partnership models of power. Under partnership assumptions, power moves freely through people to accomplish outcomes for students. Contrarily, under assumptions of domination, power works to benefit individuals. Issues of domination and partnership, therefore, underlie the interpretations of the *Five Dimensions of Power*. Partnership models of power discourage hierarchical beliefs. Information flows freely among and between people. Autonomy is defined as the *group's freedom* to make choices that are assumed to be in the best interest of the community-at-large. For autonomy in and of itself does not necessarily affect better results for clients (Liden & Tewksburg; 1995); it depends on whether it used to promote individual agency or community goals.

Professional autonomy. Professional autonomy in the survey involves being able to do one's job with minimal supervision. Kilbourn (1991) described it as self-monitoring and "a significant part of being a professional" (p. 722). According to Raelin (1986), professional autonomy appeared to "improve performance and motivation" (p. 24). Professional autonomy indicates a professional perspective that assumes a certain level of competence and accountability. Macpherson (1996) stressed the exercise of judgment and control over one's work. Nevertheless, autonomy in isolation is insufficient to meet the needs of educators. Kilbourn (1991) demonstrated that self-monitoring needs "a supportive professional environment" (p. 735). Teachers expect support, particularly in the midst of change (Weinstein, Madison, & Kuklinski, 1995).

Burbules (1986) argued that power is latent in structures of ideology, authority, and organization. Burbules states that the basis for his concept of relational power was built on Anthony Giddens's (1979) definition, which described power relations as "relations of autonomy and dependence" (p. 93). Giddens's definition does not view autonomy as the opposite of dependence, but acknowledges that both are elements of power relations.

Handy's (1993) work on the paradoxes of postmodern organizational life supports Giddens's definition. Handy cautions us against embracing over-simplistic definitions of power which place us in either/or positions. These positions can include such binary thinking as "empowerment" is good and not "empowering" people is bad. Pinchot and Pinchot (1993) stated that past bureaucratic structures have created unhealthy co-dependencies that must be addressed. These co-dependencies have encouraged the antithesis of "empowerment" through encouraging people to be fearful to make decisions. Is it any wonder, then, that there is resistance to changes in power relationships, where shifts in authority require more responsibility and accountability. No wonder power struggles occur when vested interests perceive a *loss of power*, the only way power can be viewed within hierarchy. Yet, on the flip side of the coin, many of our existing policies

continue to hold administrators accountable for what happens in the school. The question becomes: What conditions foster organizational change and the transformation of power relationships toward new mental models of power?

Dunlap and Goldman (1991) analyzed facilitative, interactive power. They presented specific, illustrative examples of individualized educational processes in special education, along with practices in clinical supervision, that demonstrated the limitations of traditional concepts of power. According to Dunlap and Goldman (p. 13), facilitative power "allows subordinates to enhance their individual and collective performance." Facilitative power supports professional autonomy, and "is power manifested *through* someone" instead of dominance, which is manifested as "power *over* someone" (p. 13).

Wasley (1991) confirmed the importance of Dunlop and Goldman's facilitative power. In her extensive case study research, she reported the stories of three teacher leaders, setting them within the context of recent reform movements in education. These three cases demonstrated that "without some measure of autonomy, some ability to make decisions on behalf of their colleagues---the teachers---teacher leaders cannot create effective positions, and without shared decision making, the roles are stripped of their potential power" (p. 165). Further, Wasley (1991) defined teacher leadership as having to "include some combinations of the following empowering responsibilities for teachers: 1) the autonomy to decide which strategies they will work with; and 2) the freedom to experiment with these techniques..." (p. 171).

The next section discusses the role of responsibility as it relates to organizational power. Responsibility is a confusing term. Many times educators have been given increased responsibilities without the corresponding authority, resources, and required expertise. Responsibility is viewed as a critical dimension of new mental models of organizational power that enables educators to be responsive to the needs of others.

Responsibility. In order for teacher leadership to understand shifts in power and to ensure autonomy, the relationship between responsibility and power must be acknowledged. Access to power should be gained through the acceptance of more responsibility. If responsibility and power are viewed as being one and the same, then educators and their immediate leaders will "develop skills, exercise judgment and control their work" (Macpherson, 1996, p. 6). This co-development of skills with responsibility empowers teachers; it *enables* them to have greater participation in the political life of schools. Likewise, increased skill development results in increased teacher confidence, better judgment, and a greater sense of impact on the outcomes of schooling (Liden and Tewksbury, 1995). Increases in involvement, in turn, lead to more responsibility and authority for, and control of, teachers' work by teachers within the political life of the school.

After a year of field study and an extensive literature review of structural, formal and institution-based efforts to empower teachers, Lichtenstein, McLaughlin, and Knudsen (1992) found that decentralization, or enhanced teacher authority, did not necessarily lead to teacher empowerment. They did find, however, that there was a relationship between teachers assuming greater responsibility for their individual and collective growth, and the traditional ways of thinking about the roles of teachers and administrators. Restated, as teachers exercised more choice over their professional lives, their relationships to administrators were altered. The conclusion drawn is that genuine changes in responsibility impact teacher and administrator relationships.

Next, the role of resources is discussed as it relates to organizational power. Resources are associated with power (Pfeffer 1992). If teachers are to be given more power, then they must have more control over the use of resources in their schools. The shift to SDM includes teacher involvement in prioritizing and allocating resources.

Resources. While connections have been made regarding the relationship between responsibility and power, the relationship between resources and power can also be linked. Typically, the more resources one has, the more powerful one is, and, hence, the more resources one can attain (Pfeffer, 1992). Access to resources influences how powerfully one is viewed. Also, access to resources may well determine a person's function and role position within a given system. Foster (1996) argued that resource acquisition is the origin of micropolitical behavior in social institutions, and concluded that research into the micropolitics of institutions should not only investigate the characteristics of micropolitical behavior, but also examine the relationship of those characteristics to more macro questions, including ones regarding the "control over" resources. Foster (1996) explained that micropolitical behavior involved actors finding a place for themselves in a setting, and assuring that resources were allocated in ways they perceived to be fair. He argued that micropolitics focuses on the distribution and use of resources in pursuing individual goals. Without a more systemic perspective of how to use resources to accomplish the goals of the system, individuals are at cross-purposes.

In an examination of resource attainment, control, and use of resources is an essential component to understanding relationships within micropolitical research. Mawhinney (1996) investigated the problems and prospects of some of the directions for new micropolitical research, and explored the potential for research that informs the current dialogue on systemic efforts on educational reform. She stated (1996) that if the goals of systemic reform are to be achieved, members of the school community must find ways to resolve conflicts; this will ensure that the decisions made will command enough respect to be widely accepted. Mawhinney refers to an approach taken by Bacharach and Lawler (1980) which distinguished group-level coalition politics "over" individual action, particularly by the "tactical use of power to retain or obtain control of real or symbolic resources" (p.1). Group-level coalitions can assist educators in obtaining more resources to support necessary conditions for achieving greater learning outcomes. These type of

coalitions are viewed as political partnerships, not partnerships based on shared power. Many times work units that obtain more resources are viewed with envy by other groups within a school or district. This method of acquiring resources is based on the needs of a few instead of what is best for many.

Access to external resources offers a political vantage point. In support of this, Burlingame (1996) believes that we ought to use sociological and political vantage points in order to explore the conflictive life of schools and communities. These sociological and political vantage points involve resources. Only with the possession of or access to resources can any kind of solution be reached, a precursor to successful reform. Understanding the relationships of various political interest groups within the community, and the need for support of change efforts, can substantially impact resource attainment, use, and control in schools.

Next, the role of political efficacy and expertise as it relates to organizational power is discussed. Being politically efficacious assumes knowledge of the system in which one operates. Expertise is associated with the ability to use knowledge so that one is viewed as influential, has impact on students and other professionals, and has the ability to attain resources. Political efficacy and expertise are critical aspects of organizational power in our current system. The question arises as to how political efficacy and expertise would look like under Darling-Hammond's assumptions of professional accountability and Eisler's theory of partnership cultures?

Political Efficacy and Expertise. Blase's (1991) collection and analysis of qualitative data pertaining to the micropolitical perspectives of education focused on organizational politics. According to Blase, organizational politics included the use of power and other resources to obtain preferred outcomes. Preferred outcomes can be obtained through political efficacy, which includes expertise. If a teacher is viewed as being an expert or knowledgeable in a political area, there exists a greater likelihood of having the ability to be an insider in the political power structure. According to Dunlap and Goldman (1991),

expertise, or professional knowledge, is a "source of internal political power" (p. 23).

Lichtenstein et. al. (1992) stated that knowledge is an "elemental, irreducible aspect of teacher empowerment" (p.11). Expertise leads to classroom efficacy, which is comprised of three primary elements: the knowledge within the professional community, the impact of educational policy on efficacy and expertise, and lastly, the overall knowledge of one's own subject area.

Thus, expertise forms the basis of power, which "means efficacy" (Burbules, 1986, p. 91), and is exercised "through others on the basis of trust and reciprocity" (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991, p. 22). Undergirding how much efficacy one has is implicit to understanding how different relationships between and among knowledgeable experts impact their level of influence (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991). This impact is particularly true when policies change. A politically efficacious person would be connected to information in the system (Wheatley, 1993). If the system were constructed to share knowledge and information, then everyone could potentially be efficacious.

Dunlap and Goldman's (1991) observations of and experiences in multiple school site programs led them to reconsider the dominant sociological theories typically used to explain power in schools. What they found was that political efficacy assumes that power is defined by acts of domination. This lends support to the argument that political efficacy is an element of power. Traditionally, this type of power through authority over and political influence tactics over others often resulted in worker alienation. Workers, such as teachers, felt helpless to respond to this type of domination.

Kanungo (1992) critically examined the issue of worker alienation in the context of business ethics. According to Kanungo, "any organizational strategy or technique that strengthens this self-determining or self-efficacy belief of workers will tend to make them feel empowered at work and, consequently, dealienated" (p. 417). In discussing political efficacy, Kanungo argued that "in contrast to the earlier definitions of empowerment as 'delegation' (of authority and resource sharing), the connotation of 'enabling' implies

motivation through enhancement of one's personal efficacy and ability to cope with environmental demands" (p. 417).

The ability to cope with environmental demands is of utmost importance in considering the process of cognitive politics. Anderson (1991) examined the process of cognitive politics in a suburban school and the extent to which ideological control is exercised in organizations that have been traditionally been viewed as nonideological. According to Anderson, "empowerment occurs when the powerless begin to understand those broader political and economic interests that get played out at the school board" (p. 127). Thus, in this sense, political understanding can lead to new definitions of power.

Next, hierarchical beliefs about power are discussed in relation to organizational power. Hierarchy is at the opposite end of a continuum from heterarchy, which assumes shared power through increased autonomy, responsibility, and accountability for group outcomes. Changing beliefs about top-down models of power requires a critical examination of the contextual and personal variables that support command and control structures in schools instead of mutually agreed upon goals that enable educators to respond to the needs of others.

Hierarchical Beliefs about Power. Power relations are embedded in the everyday relationships in schools (Burbules, 1986). In most cases, beliefs about power that exist in current educational practices include the idea that power is a top-down phenomenon. The hierarchical model of schools has been examined by micropolitical theorists. Blase (1991) presented an overview of some of the central ideas discussed by a range of prominent micropolitical theorists. He noted that some political theorists have argued that division of labor promotes the formation of interest groups competing against one another to achieve their goals. In addition, Blase points out that "hierarchical task-specialization may create differences among units in an organization on a number of salient dimensions, such as levels of power, goals, tasks...." (p. 3).

Power, goals, and tasks can be examined within a democratic perspective. Burbules (1986), in his theory of power in education, noted that a more democratic and egalitarian organization of society is both possible and desirable and that education can have a role to play in attaining that kind of society. He argued that "...power and power struggles are the consequences of underlying conflicts between human interest and those conflicts are inevitable given the hierarchical nature of our social system" (p. 95).

Linkages can be made between the hierarchical nature of our social system and the hierarchical nature of schools. Wasley (1991) found that a school's hierarchical nature had an effect on the relationships in the school. Wasley's observations led her to believe "that teachers unconsciously treated students in much the same way that the principal treated the teachers" (p. 96). Thus, manifestations of the superior/subordinate relationship inherent in hierarchical power structures were played out with students.

Not only are the relationships inherent in hierarchical power structures a concern in the United States, but also in Great Britain. Ball and Bowe (1991) examined the 1988 Education Reform Act, which introduced changes in England and Wales. These authors were especially concerned with two aspects of reform: 1) funding; and 2) organization and management, and the relationships between them. According to Ball and Bowe, "the role of the headmaster is clearly critical in the setting of decision parameters for the school..." (p. 43). In addition, "in most, but not all, schools, the head, or principal, is the reality definer" (p. 43). Thus, even in the midst of school reform, a hierarchical view of power existed that exerted force in the relationships and impacted the context of teacher work. Without the engagement of teachers in sense-making, the headmaster becomes the grand narrator of reality.

Summary

With a movement toward restructuring, both perceptions of power and the role of the principal are changing (Prestine, 1991). The inception of empowerment in the late 1990s was a means or a strategy to equalize power relations in order to alter traditional

power relationships involving top-down authority (Hargreaves, 1994). Acker-Hocevar, Touchton and Zenz (1995) found distinct gender differences in the language and beliefs of both males and females in regard to dimensions of power. Prestine (1991) examined factors that inhibited change in the traditional roles and relationships between teachers and principals, and factors that promoted collaborative, shared decision-making. She concluded that the role of the principal was paramount in encouraging teachers to make a commitment to changes in power relations and promote trust in the process. She emphasized that the principal must cultivate a network of relationships that promote four factors of change: new conceptions of power, need for systemic agreement, willingness to take risks, and "smart" schools. The implication is that decision making efforts will not be successful in a bureaucratic, hierarchical environment.

Eisler's theory, grounded in over thousands of years of historical evidence, research on the context of reform, and Darling-Hammond's view of accountability provide us with new frameworks of power under two different sets of assumptions. One set of assumptions rests on resisting hierarchical structures of power, and the other supports the transformation of power to partnership models of power. Studies such as Prestine's, and the present study, enable educators to make "sense" of their beliefs about power. Questions arise as to how present beliefs maintain current power structures. If educators are going to embrace partnership models of power that build and encourage shared power, research questions like the ones below must be addressed.

Research Questions

The primary purpose of this study was to examine teachers' perceptions of power both in Alabama and Florida, and to determine if there were differences in the perceptions of power due to state of residence or other demographic factors. The secondary purpose of this study was to begin to construct a model to identify the dimensions of power that could be used to assist schools in becoming more collaborative and partnership oriented,

while delineating the beliefs that would inhibit the development of shared power leading to more partnership work cultures for teachers. Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions.

1. What are the independent dimensions associated with organizational power relationships embedded in practice? In addition, what is the distribution of the dimensions across the sample?

2. How do these dimensions of power differ for Alabama and Florida teachers?

3. How do teacher demographic characteristics (e.g. gender, ethnicity, age, highest degree completed, years employed in education) and context variables (e.g. state of residence, level of school, and type of school influence these dimensions?

Methodology

Data were collected between November, 1995 and January, 1996 as part of a larger study involving teachers in elementary and secondary schools in rural, urban, and suburban areas in Alabama, Florida, Georgia and Nova Scotia (Acker-Hocevar, MacGregor & Touchton, 1995). This study focuses on schools in two southeast states, Alabama and Florida. Approximately 10 school districts were involved, equally represented by state, located in Northeastern Alabama, and South Central Florida. An attempt was made to include elementary, middle, and secondary schools, located in rural, urban, and suburban areas. For this study, teachers identified their own perceptions of whether their schools were located in rural, urban, or suburban areas. Thus, in Alabama over 80% of the teachers reported that they were employed in an urban school, as compared to 7.5% in Florida. Likewise, over 55% of Florida teachers reported serving in rural schools, as compared to 13% in Alabama. In Florida, over one-half of the teacher sample (61.5%) represented secondary school teachers, whereas, in Alabama fewer than one-third (31.1%) of the teachers represented secondary schools (see Table 1).

Surveys were distributed both in faculty meetings and placed in faculty mailboxes. Then, surveys were returned in sealed envelopes to central collection points in each school from which researchers retrieved them. Of the 220 surveys administered in Alabama, 177, or almost 81%, returned usable responses. For Florida, of the 300 surveys administered, 239, or almost 80%, were returned. Thus, the total sample consisted of 416 participants.

Characteristics of the sample of teachers are depicted in Table 1. Alabama's respondents were predominantly female (90.3%), as compared to Florida's respondents (78.6%). A separate analysis revealed, that regardless of state, the majority of the male respondents were employed at the high school and middle school levels. Over 84% of all respondents, were white, non-Hispanic participants.

On the whole, Alabama teachers are older than Florida teachers. Approximately 65% of the Alabama teachers report their ages as 41 years or older compared to 53% in Florida. Similarly, almost 64% of Alabama teachers have been employed 14 years or longer compared to almost 46% in Florida. Alabama teachers tend to hold higher degrees than Florida teachers, with 69.4% and 42.8% respectively, holding Masters degrees or above.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument consisted of 39 items that were tabulated on a four point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." In addition, the survey contained 11 demographic questions. Survey questions were initially developed through a pilot study that examined teachers' perceptions of power. The questions for this study were derived from the literature on organizational theory about power (e.g. Cherryholmes, 1988; Clegg, 1989; Dunlap & Goldman, 1991; Mechanic, 1962; Pfeffer, 1992; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Wartenberg, 1990; Weber, 1922) and the literature on school organizations about empowerment (e.g. Anderson & Blase, 1995; Duke & Gansneder, 1990; Hargreaves, 1994; Liden & Tewksbury, 1995; Marshall & Scribner, 1991; Murphy, 1991). Approximately 120 teachers answered nine open-ended questions

about empowerment, responsibility, accountability, resources, and power (Acker-Hocevar, Touchton & Zenz, 1995). A thematic analysis was conducted of the open-ended responses to all nine questions. To validate the themes that emerged from the pilot study, some respondents were selected to participate in focus group interviews to review and discuss the themes. Finally, these themes were used to develop the items on the survey, *Perspectives of Empowerment, Responsibility, Accountability, Resources, and Power Survey* (PERARP) used in this study (see Appendix).

Measure Construction

Measures were constructed from the survey data for each element of the analytical model (see Table 2). Five dimensions of power resulted from a factor analysis of survey items: 1) autonomy, 2) political efficacy and expertise, 3) responsibility, 4) resources, and 5) hierarchical beliefs about power. To obtain these dimensions, first, an inter-item correlation matrix was employed to identify which variables exhibited a correlation coefficient greater than .30. Twelve items were eliminated. Second, the remaining 27 items were examined to develop an a priori grouping of hypothetical constructs. Thirdly, the 27 items retained were used to conduct a principal components analysis using squared multiple correlations as initial estimates of communality. Lastly, a varimax rotation converging in seven iterations resulted in each item loading high (greater than .46) on one of five factors. Thus, scale scores were computed from individual items associated with each measure. The specific items used to construct these measures are contained in the Appendix. Together, the five dimensions accounted for 52.9% of the common variance among the items, with a Cronbach alpha of .82. A complete listing of the communalities, eigenvalues and alphas for each dimension appears in Table 2. Among the five dimensions of power, political efficacy exhibited the strongest eigenvalue (3.88), followed by responsibility (2.88), and autonomy (2.42). These measures exhibited alphas of .83, .74, and .78, respectively.

Analytical Procedures

Data analyses proceeded in three stages. In the first stage, descriptive statistics were computed for each dimension (i.e., means, standard deviations, ranges) of power to determine the distribution of these dimensions across the total sample. Second, means, standard deviations, and the ranges were again computed to determine differences between teachers from the two states, Alabama and Florida, on the dimensions of power.

In the third stage, mean scores of the five dimensions of power were used as dependent variables in an analysis of variance procedure (ANOVA). This procedure was used to test for significant main effects of the demographic variables on each of these five dimensions. A series of one-way ANOVAs examined the effects of individual demographic variables on all five dependent variables. Two demographic variables, state of residence and type of school community, had a significant impact on one dependent variable: autonomy. Subsequent two-way ANOVA procedures compared the means of state of residence and type of school community with each of the other demographic variables and the five dependent variables to see if there were significant interaction and main effects.

The general framework for interpreting these data were suggested by the progress and context of school reform in each state. The differences among teachers' perceptions on each of the five dimensions contributes to an understanding of the differences between beliefs that support partnership forms of power and the effect of context. These differences are discussed below.

Results

The mean scores for each of the five dimensions of power are presented in Table 3. They are shown for the teacher responses as a whole. Several patterns in these findings are noteworthy. First, the mean scores reveal a range of means from a high of 3.46 for the Autonomy Dimension to a low of 2.41 for the Hierarchical Beliefs about Power Dimension. The greater emphasis on Autonomy would be expected from theory, (e.g.

Hargreaves, 1991; Little, 1990; Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989), and can be explained by current attempts to increase teacher decision-making at the local school level (Conley, 1991; Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1990; O'Day and Smith, 1993; Weiss, Cambone & Wyeth, 1992).

The Political Efficacy and Expertise Dimension was the second highest dimension with a mean of 3.54. Research conducted by Lichtenstein, McLaughlin, & Knudsen (1992) found " a chain of connections between subject matter knowledge and policy involvement" (p. 17) for teachers involved in appropriate decisions in the classroom as well as broader policy decisions. Authority can be viewed as professional knowledge and the ability to use that knowledge in the classroom (Hargreaves, 1994). Professional knowledge carries its own kind of authority, and the exercise of that authority impacts students. This authority, when used in combination with decision making in the broader arena, translates into genuine teacher empowerment. It is not so much a question of giving authority to teachers as it is a question of allowing teachers to share authority. Furthermore, empowered teachers are involved in the exchange of information, are able to exert influence on decision-making, and have access to resources because of their active participation in the school (Robertson, Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1995).

The mean scores also reveal less of an emphasis on the Resource Dimension (X = 2.89), Responsibility Dimension (X = 2.83), and Hierarchical Beliefs about Power Dimension (X = 2.41). The Resource Dimension focuses on how teachers viewed the relationship between resources (e.g. external funding and material support) and power. This relationship has bureaucratic overtones and suggests that resources are used to control and reward individual teachers, and that they are also used by groups to retain or exert control over others (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980). The relationship between resources and power is also linked with unfairness in that resources may be allocated politically for the purpose of obtaining individual goals (Foster, 1996). This Dimension is linked to the Hierarchical Beliefs about Power Dimension because access to resources

offers a political and bureaucratic advantage. Burlingame (1996) points out that the political advantage operates to exacerbate the conflictive nature of life in schools. Blase (1991) found that authoritarian principals were perceived by teachers to use resources to exact compliance.

The Hierarchical Beliefs about Power Dimension focuses on traditional bureaucratic views of power relations that are "inherent in schools as we have currently structured them in administrative hierarchies and roles, in instructional methods, in classroom size and organization, in curricular values and practices, and in popular conceptions of what 'teachers' and 'students' should be and do in our culture" (Burbules, 1986, p. 111). Power is a top-down phenomenon in which administrators exert power over teachers, who in turn exert power over students. According to O'Hair and Reitzug (1996), schools have typically operated from a hierarchical model where principals are positioned at the apex of the hierarchy, thus rendering teachers relatively powerless. Both Burbules (1986) and Wartenberg (1990) conceive of power as a web, as a system of social relations. This social system functions to connect individuals with one another, while at the same time works to keep them apart. Similarly, power relations inhere in schools because they inhere in society between classes, sexes, and various racial, ethnic, and religious groups (Burbules, 1986; Eisler, 1993;95). Acker-Hocevar, Touchton, and Zenz (1995) found distinct gender differences in the language and beliefs of males and females in regard to the dimensions of power. Males viewed power from a hierarchical perspective, whereas females viewed power collaboratively and relationally.

Lastly, the Responsibility Dimension focuses on the reciprocity between power and the acceptance of responsibility. Responsibility, along with accountability, are essential elements of teacher empowerment (Darling-Hammond, 1992). These essential elements, according to Darling-Hammond, require the enforcement of the norms of professional and ethical practice, with the teachers' first concern being the welfare of the student. Additionally, in exchange for bureaucratic regulations of teaching -- rules prescribing what

is to be taught, and how -- teachers would become collectively responsible for the effectiveness of their practice. It is not surprising that this dimension ranked near the bottom among the five dimensions of power since the notion of the exchange of external regulation for collective autonomy within schools and communities has not been institutionalized.

In Table 4, the mean scores show only modest differences between the Alabama and Florida teachers on the five dimensions of power, with the exception of Autonomy. Florida teachers were more likely to report (X = 3.51) greater teacher autonomy than Alabama teachers (X = 3.39). In the next section of the paper, preliminary analyses used to explore the relationship of the demographic variables to the five dimensions of power are reported.

Teacher Demographics: Main Effects on One-Way Analysis of Variance

In order to determine how teacher demographic characteristics influenced these five dimensions, a series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted (see Table 5). On the Autonomy Dimension, state of residence was significant [F (1, 394) = 7.24, p > .01]. Florida teachers were more likely than Alabama teachers to agree that they felt empowered through their participation in decision-making. The greatest difference was that Florida teachers reported that they were afforded direct involvement in the implementation of decisions. With an alpha level of .05, the effect of years employed in education was statistically significant for the Resource Dimension, F (3, 328) = 3.43, p > .05. The longer teachers were employed in education, the more likely they were to view power as associated with the attainment and use of resources including using resources to control, reward, and remunerate others. With an alpha level of .01, the effect of type of school community was statistically significant for the Autonomy Dimension, F (2, 394) = 5.125, p > .01. There was a tendency for teachers in rural schools to report that they "strongly agreed" that an empowered educator is one who is afforded direct involvement in the implementation of decisions. Concerning teacher autonomy as an aspect of

empowerment, teachers in Florida and teachers in rural schools held the strongest views about their direct involvement in decision-making. On the other hand, the attainment and use of resources as a way of acquiring power was most characteristic of teachers who had the most seniority in education.

State of Residence and Community by Teacher Demographics: Interaction Effects

In order to determine the influence of state of residence and community on these five dimensions, a series of two-way ANOVAs were conducted. The interaction effects on the dimensions by demographic variables are reported in Table 6. Concerning the Autonomy Dimension, state of residence and highest degree had a significant interaction effect, $F(2, 390) = 3.51$, $p < .05$. Beliefs about autonomy as power depended on degree level in Alabama. The higher the degree attainment level, the more likely teachers were to report increased levels of involvement in the implementation of decisions.

There were four interaction effects for Political Efficacy and Expertise, two for state of residence, and two for community. State and community both interacted with level of schooling. In addition, state interacted with gender, while community interacted with state. Male teachers in rural Junior/Middle High Schools located in Alabama were more likely than their counterparts to view power as professional expertise and involvement in policy decisions.

Concerning the Responsibility Dimension, the interaction effects for state were statistically significant for age and years employed, $F(4, 313) = 3.38$, $p < .01$, and $F(3, 316) = 2.90$, $p < .05$ respectively. Teachers in Alabama in their 50s employed for less than 20 years viewed responsibility as a corollary of power. It is interesting to note that the teaching force in Alabama is significantly older than the teaching force in Florida. Thus, this Alabama teaching cohort is not the oldest employed group.

Concerning the Hierarchical Beliefs about Power Dimension, there were significant interaction effects for state, $F(2, 353) = 3.56$, $p < .05$, and community, $F(4, 353) = 2.92$, $p < .05$, on level of schooling. Alabama junior high/middle, and rural

elementary teachers held the most traditional bureaucratic views of power. In contrast, teachers in Florida junior high/middle schools and Alabama high schools, along with all suburban junior high/middle school teachers, held the least traditional views of power.

In sum, interaction effects on the Autonomy and the Responsibility Dimensions of power for state were significant by number of years employed, age, and degree. The most experienced, highest educated teachers in Alabama were the most likely to embrace autonomy and responsibility beliefs about power. Interaction effects for the Political Efficacy and Hierarchical Beliefs Dimensions of power for state were significant by gender and level of schooling. Males in junior high/middle and high schools in Alabama were the most likely to believe they were politically efficacious and held hierarchical beliefs about power. Similarly, when controlling for community, both state and level of schooling were significant. Alabama elementary and junior/middle high rural schools were the most likely to embrace political efficacy and hierarchical beliefs about power. Alabama teachers appear to hold more traditional views about power that depend on gender, level of schooling, and type of school community.

Main Effects on the Resource Dimension of Power.

Two-way ANOVAs were used to explore the effects of state and community on the demographic variables to determine differences for the five dimensions of power. The Resource Dimension had three significant main effects that were not reported in the higher level interaction analyses reported above in Table 6. The follow-up main effects are reported in Table 7. For state, the main effects of age and years employed were statistically significant, $F(4, 326) = 2.37$, $p < .05$, and $F(3, 328) = 3.08$, $p < .05$, respectively. Age and years employed influenced teachers' beliefs about the relationship between resources and power. The teachers in their 50s and those employed over 20 years in Alabama were most likely to believe that resources and power were closely related to one another and were used to control and reward individuals. For community, the main effect of the number of years employed was statistically significant, $F(3, 328) =$

3.58, $p < .01$. Teachers employed for 20 or more years and who taught in rural communities were the most likely to connect resources with power.

In sum, the main effects of state and community on resources were dependent on age and years employed. Older, longer employed teachers in Alabama rural communities were the most likely to believe that power and resources were related.

Discussion and Conclusion

In general, teachers in this study supported the concept of autonomy and agreed that an empowered educator is one who not only makes appropriate classroom level decisions, but also directly participates in the implementation of school policy decisions. As our results show, Florida teachers were significantly more likely than Alabama teachers to hold these same beliefs about what it means to be an empowered educator. This finding for Florida teachers was strongest for those in rural schools. The work by McLaughlin, Talbert and Bascia (1990), and Metz (1990) suggest that context exerts a great influence on beliefs and behaviors in schools.

Two patterns emerged regarding four of the five dimensions of power. First, in examining the interaction effects for state, we found that autonomy and responsibility were related. The most experienced and educated teachers in Alabama were the most likely to hold both these beliefs about power. That is, an empowered educator is not only one who autonomously makes appropriate classroom level decisions and participates in policy decisions, but who also views power as the acceptance of responsibility. According to O'Hair and Reitzug (1996) principals who engage in practices that facilitate schools becoming more democratic give more responsibility to teachers in several ways.

Second, in examining the interaction effects for state and community, we found a relationship between political efficacy/expertise and hierarchical beliefs about power. Teachers' beliefs about political efficacy/expertise and hierarchical beliefs were influenced by gender, level of schooling, type of community, and state. That is, male, middle and secondary school teachers in Alabama were the most likely to believe that a powerful

educator is one who knows how to "operate within the system," "to cut through bureaucratic red-tape," views his/her expertise as "controlling the learning environment to teach students," but also tends to believe that power is a "top-down phenomenon that rests on who you know" and is "exercised differently by males and females."

Lastly, we found that the Resource Dimension of power stood out among the five dimensions. The oldest and longest employed teachers were the most likely to hold the belief that the relationship between resources and power is best described as being able to access more and more resources and that these resources are to be used to control others. This was especially the case for older, longer employed teachers in Alabama rural schools.

In conclusion, norms within the various contexts of both teachers' and administrators' work cultures exert tremendous influence over beliefs of power and empowerment (Brunner & Duncan, 1995; Marshall, 1994;Rosenholtz, 1989). Questions surrounding these beliefs that have perpetuated the lack of shared power in schools must be raised if teachers' workplaces are to become more democratic, partnership-oriented places of work.

Schools operate within the larger environment in which they are situated. This environment, according to McLaughlin, Talbert and Bascia (1990), and teachers' work is contextualized within several arenas of action such as the school, district, state, and federal levels. As schools are open systems affected by their surroundings, they are influenced by the political, social, and economic ideologies which encourage partnerships and/or perpetuate domination within the norms of teacher work. Lips (1991) points out that many of us implicitly and uncritically accept male definitions of power as the norm-referent assumptions, beliefs, and values inherent in work systems. Until we identify and recognize power beliefs that are counter to moving to partnership cultures, it is doubtful that we will progress in that direction.

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Figure 1. Context of school reform

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Figure 2.

Moving From Domination to Partnership

Dimensions of Power

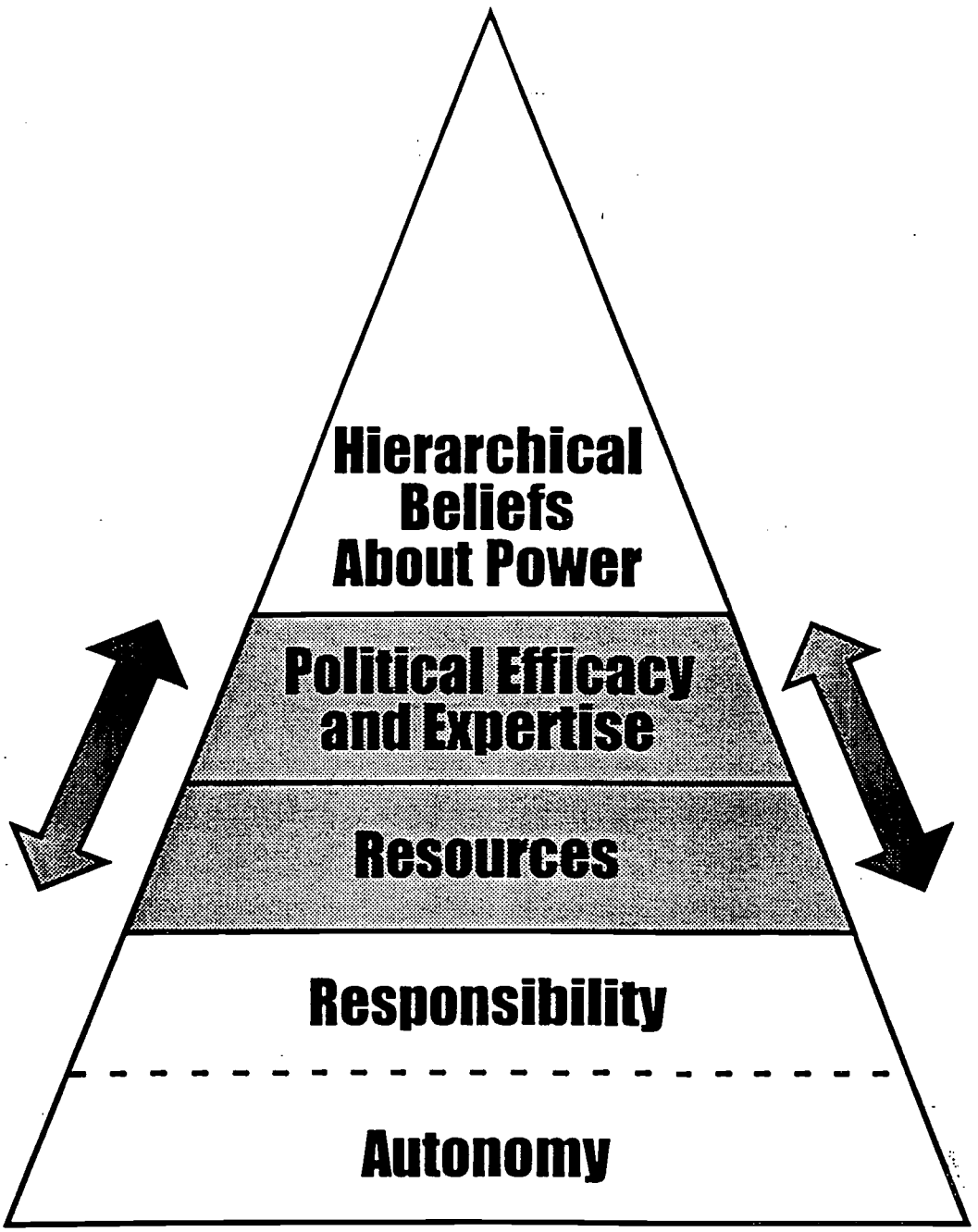

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Figure 3.

FIVE DIMENSIONS OF POWER

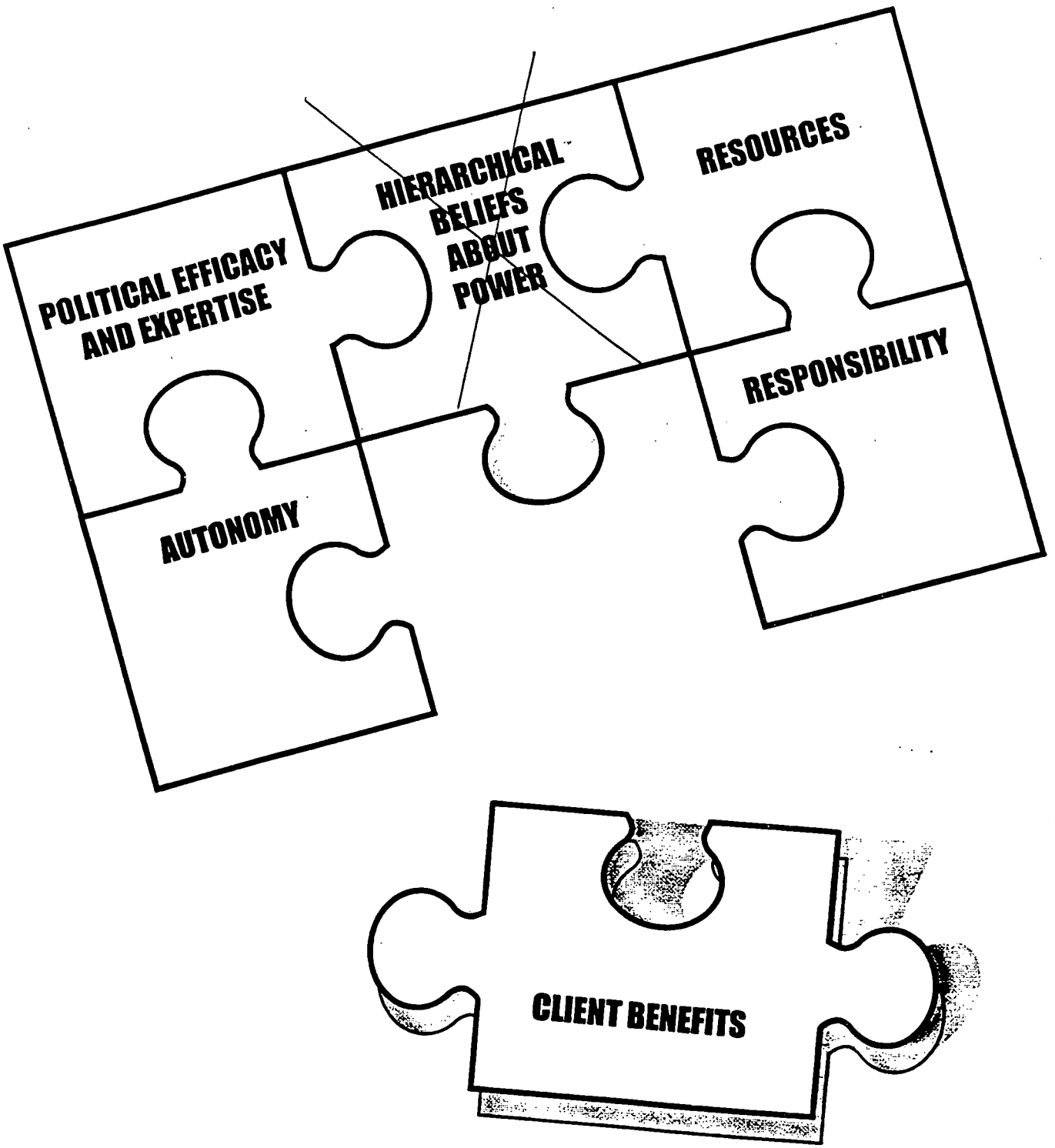

Table 1

Demographic Variables by State of Residence (Percentage)

State of Residence	Florida (N=177)	Alabama (N=239)
Gender of Respondent		
Male	9.7	21.4
Female	90.3	78.6
Ethnicity		
Native American	8.6	4.7
Black/African American	8.6	3.8
White	82.8	87.2
Hispanic	----	4.3
Age		
21-30	13.7	17.8
31-40	21.7	29.2
41-50	47.4	41.9
51-60	15.4	8.9
Over 60	1.7	2.1
Highest degree completed		
Bachelor's	30.7	57.2
Master's	59.7	28.4
Beyond Master's	9.7	14.4
Years employed in education		
1-6	17.6	32.8
7-13	18.8	21.4
14-20	33.0	21.8
21 +	30.7	23.9
Level of school where employed		
Elementary	55.9	33.1
Junior High/Middle School	13.0	5.4
High School	31.1	61.5
Type of school community		
Rural	13.0	55.2
Urban	80.2	7.5
Suburban	6.8	37.2

Table 2
Communalities, Eigenvalues, and Alphas for Five Dimensions of Power, with Total Alpha

Construct Variables	Communalities	Eigenvalues	Alphas
Autonomy			
Item 12	.72224	2.42031	.78
Item 13	.71856		
Item 14	.62678		
Item 15	.35272		
Political Efficacy			
Item 32	.32853	3.87516	.83
Item 34	.52966		
Item 36	.50976		
Item 37	.33724		
Item 39	.30405		
Item 40	.46553		
Item 41	.55640		
Item 42	.53621		
Item 43	.30778		
Responsibility			
Item 17	.33509	2.56234	.74
Item 18	.48776		
Item 19	.58255		
Item 20	.60932		
Item 21	.25525		
Item 23	.29236		
Resources			
Item 29	.48938	2.17413	.73
Item 30	.66063		
Item 31	.43245		
Item 33	.59167		
Hierarchical Beliefs About Power			
Item 46	.42399	1.93197	.65
Item 47	.50009		
Item 49	.48479		
Item 50	.52310		
		Total Alpha:	.8227

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges for Dimensions of Power (Total Sample)

Dimensions of Power	Total Group Mean	SD	Min	Max
Autonomy	3.46	.46	1.75	4.00
Political Efficacy	3.34	.38	1.89	4.00
Resources	2.89	.48	2.00	4.00
Responsibility	2.83	.50	1.50	4.00
Hierarchical Beliefs About Power	2.41	.39	1.00	3.50

Note: Scale was based on 1 = "Strongly Disagree," 2 = "Disagree," 3 = "Agree," and 4 = "Strongly Disagree."

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges Between States for Dimensions of Power

Dimensions	State							
	Alabama				Florida			
	Mean	SD	Min.	Max	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Autonomy	3.39	.50	1.75	4.00	3.51	.43	1.75	4.00
Political Efficacy	3.34	.37	1.89	4.00	3.35	.38	1.67	4.00
Resources	2.90	.46	2.00	4.00	2.88	.49	2.00	4.00
Responsibility	2.88	.45	1.67	4.00	2.79	.52	1.50	4.00
Hierarchical Beliefs About Power	2.42	.39	1.50	3.25	2.41	.39	1.00	3.25

Table 5

Summary of One-Way ANOVA Statistics: Main Effects of All Demographic Variables on Dimensions of Power

Demographics	Dimensions				
	Autonomy	Political Efficacy	Resources	Responsibility	Hierarchical Beliefs About Power
State of Residence					
DF	1	1	1	1	1
N	394	339	330	317	353
F	**7.243***	.113	.234	2.517	1.423
Gender					
DF	1	1	1	1	1
N	391	337	328	315	350
F	.293	.886	.022	1.257	1.999
Ethnicity					
DF	4	4	4	4	4
N	393	338	330	317	352
F	.713	2.179	.533	.579	1.665
Age					
DF	4	4	4	4	4
N	389	336	326	313	350
F	.901	.978	2.102	.958	.287
Highest Degree Completed					
DF	2	2	2	2	2
N	390	335	328	314	350
F	2.362	.845	.592	1.548	.412
Years Employed in Education					
DF	3	3	3	3	3
N	392	337	328	316	351
F	1.996	.174	**3.429****	.244	1.050
Level of School					
DF	2	2	2	2	2
N	394	339	330	317	353
F	2.896	1.259	.485	.671	.500
Type of School Community					
DF	2	2	2	2	2
N	394	339	330	317	353
F	**5.125***	.878	2.494	.680	1.945

Significance *F<.01
**F<.05

Note: Level of school approached the .05 significance level $F(2,416) = 2.896$ $p \leq .056$

Table 6

Summary of Two-Way ANOVA Statistics: Interaction Effects for State and Community by Demographics on Dimensions of Power

Demographics	Dimensions									
	Autonomy		Political Efficacy		Resources		Responsibility		Hierarchical Beliefs About Power	
	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F
State										
State	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Community	2	1.69	2	**3.45****	2	.292	2	.294	2	.207
Gender										
State	1	.376	1	**4.78****	1	1.51	1	1.10	1	.624
Community	2	.192	2	2.21	2	.418	2	.649	2	1.52
Age										
State	4	1.91	4	1.80	4	1.41	4	**3.38****	4	.502
Community	2	1.81	2	.715	2	.207	2	.538	2	1.23
Highest Degree										
State	2	**3.51****	2	.848	2	1.29	2	.265	2	1.01
Community	4	2.24	4	.630	4	1.84	4	.259	4	1.33
Years Employed										
State	3	1.75	3	2.02	3	.783	3	**2.90****	3	1.19
Community	6	.313	6	1.46	6	1.66	6	1.47	6	1.92
Level of School										
State	2	.471	2	**3.32****	2	2.13	2	.911	2	**3.56****
Community	4	.927	4	**3.44****	4	.671	4	.411	4	**2.92****

Significance *F<.01
**F<.05

Table 7
Summary of Two-Way ANOVA Statistics: Significant Main Effects for Selected Demographic Variables on Resources

Independent Variables	F	DF	N
State of residence Age	2.370**	4	326
State of residence Years Employed	3.081**	3	328
Community Years Employed	3.575*	3	328

Significance *F<.01
**F<.05

APPENDIX 1

PERSPECTIVES OF EMPOWERMENT SURVEY: FIVE DIMENSIONS

Construct I: Autonomy

Item 12. An empowered educator is one who is: allowed to make decisions.
Item 13. An empowered educator is one who is: afforded direct involvement in the implementation of decisions.
Item 14. An empowered educator is one who is: free to make changes.
Item 15. An empowered educator is able to do: one's job with minimal supervision.

Construct II: Political Efficacy and Expertise

Item 32. The relationship between resources and power is best described as: knowledge is a resource that can exert power.
Item 34. A powerful educator is one who is: knowledgeable, has and uses expertise.
Item 36. A powerful educator is one who: empowers others through listening, good communication skills and meeting their needs.
Item 37. A powerful educator is one who is: influential, respected, and knows how to operate within the system.
Item 39. A powerful educator is one who is: able to cut through bureaucratic red tape and affect change.
Item 40. A powerful educator is one who is: resourceful and an expert.
Item 41. A powerful educator is one who is: able to access external resources and is actively involved in the school.
Item 42. A powerful educator is one who has: control of the learning environment and impacts students.
Item 43. Power within the context of my current position is best described as: I exert professional power in the classroom to reach students through my teaching, choosing of curricula, and selection of materials.

Construct III: Resources

Item 29. The relationship between resources and power is best described as: power is being able to access resources.
Item 30. The relationship between resources and power is best described as: resources afford power.
Item 31. The relationship between resources and power is best described as: resources are powerful in that they are used to control, reward and remunerate others.
Item 33. The relationship between resources and power is best described as: the more resources one has, the more powerful one is and the more resources one can attain.

Construct IV: Responsibility

Item 17. The relationship between responsibility and power is: access to power is gained through acceptance of responsibility.
Item 18. The relationship between responsibility and power is: responsibility and power are one and the same.
Item 19. The relationship between responsibility and power is: responsibility and power are reciprocal, i.e. each being embedded in the other.
Item 20. The relationship between responsibility and power is: individuals are free to take on more responsibility thus more power.
Item 21. The relationship between responsibility and power is: responsibility is the non-abuse of power.
Item 23. Accountability is the same as responsibility.

Construct V: Hierarchical Beliefs About Power

Item 46. Power within the context of my current position is best described as: teachers are powerless.
Item 47. Beliefs about power that exist in current educational practices are: power is who you know.
Item 49. Beliefs about power that exist in current educational practices are: power is a top-down phenomenon, i.e., administrators exert power over teachers, who, in turn, exert power over students.
Item 50. Beliefs about power that exist in current educational practices are: power is defined differently for males and females.

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