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Social studies educators' professionalism in an age of high stakes accountability : examining teacher-level and school-level characteristics and testing policy associated with teacher authority in the secondary social studies classroom

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SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONALISM IN AN AGE OF HIGH STAKES ACCOUNTABILITY: EXAMINING TEACHER-LEVEL AND SCHOOL-LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS AND TESTING POLICY ASSOCIATED WITH TEACHER AUTHORITY IN THE SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES CLASSROOM

by

Hyeri Hong

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Doctor of
Philosophy degree in Teaching and Learning
(Curriculum and Supervision)
in the Graduate College of
The University of Iowa

August 2014

Thesis Supervisor: Professor Gregory E. Hamot

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Graduate College
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Iowa City, Iowa

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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PH.D. THESIS

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This is to certify that the Ph.D. thesis of

Hyeri Hong

has been approved by the Examining Committee
for the thesis requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy
degree in Teaching and Learning (Curriculum and Supervision)
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To my husband, Kyungmoo,
Without his support and love,

To my beautiful and adorable daughter, Kathryn,
Without her lovely smile and hugs,

To my parents and parents-in-law,
Without their affection and devotion,

And lastly,

To my newborn son, Karson,
Who was in my tummy and with me all the time while I was writing this dissertation,
Without his presence itself,

This dissertation could not have been written

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I would like to thank my family for their love and support. I express my gratitude to my parents and parent-in-law who always worry about my health and pray for me. I am also very thankful to my husband, Kyungmoo Lee, who has been my true friend and partner, for providing me heartfelt advice on my doctoral study and encouraging me to work harder when I was frustrated; to my daughter, Kathryn Lee, whose smile and existence are my hope; and to my newborn son, Karson Lee, who has always been with me throughout this dissertation study. Without my family's love, advice, and support, this dissertation could not have been finished.

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ABSTRACT

Using national data from the Survey of the Status of Social Studies (S4), this study examined the associations between teacher-level and school-level factors as well as testing policy, and the self-reported levels of authority and control over key classroom tasks among secondary school social studies teachers in the context of high-stakes accountability. This research sought to identify the importance of teacher authority in the classroom and how 6-12 social studies educators' professional authority is associated with teachers' professional characteristics (their degree background, teaching experience, and licensure paths), school-related factors (school types, school context, school poverty levels, and minority enrollment levels), and state testing policy.

A conceptual framework was developed to guide the selection of specific predictor and control variables and to examine the three theoretically based models through hierarchical multiple regression analysis techniques. The analytic sample included grades 6-12 social studies teachers (N=6,703).

Key findings from this study indicated that, as hypothesized, teacher-level characteristics significantly predicted secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority. Self-reported levels of teacher authority were maldistributed across the types of school, school context, school poverty levels, and minority enrollment levels. Greater minority and low-income student enrollments were associated with less authority and control in the classroom. Also, state testing policy significantly predicted social studies teacher authority. Specifically, middle and junior high school teachers who gave state mandated social studies tests reported significantly lower levels of authority and control than those who did not. On the other hand, high school teachers who gave state

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mandated social studies tests reported significantly higher levels of authority and control than those who did not. Also, teachers who believed that state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of authority and control than those who did not feel such pressure.

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CHAPTER I.
INTRODUCTION

Teacher Professionalism and Professional Authority

The question of whether teaching is a profession or not has been debated for many years (Shon, 2006). Although almost all teachers own a college degree and have been professionally trained, the American public still holds teaching in low regard (Shon, 2006). Ingersoll and Merrill (2011) showed that while most of elementary and secondary school teachers demonstrate some of the significant features of professionalism, many do not. Various researchers have argued that teaching is a semi-profession (Ingersoll and Merrill, 2011; Labaree, 2004; Lortie, 2002 ; Pratte & Rury, 1991).

The professionalization of teaching has been an ongoing project since the early 20th century. It has always been under the veil of confusion and controversy. What determines a profession and the professionalization of specific work? Some argue that teachers' special knowledge and abilities should be made better through professional development in order to professionalize teaching. Others claim that teachers' working environments should be enhanced and the value of public service and high standards should be infused into their work to professionalize teaching (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011).

Research suggests that key common criteria to distinguish between professions and non-professions are expertise and authority (or autonomy) (Downie, 1990; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011; Shon, 2006; Sykes, 1990). Ingersoll (2003) claimed that expertise and control held by group members in work conditions serve as key characteristics of professions. He states that professionals are regarded as possessing special knowledge, and require substantial autonomy and self-control to release their expertise into the work environment. The Holmes group proposes that professional teachers be required to possess specialized knowledge, and autonomy, and to be devoted to students' learning (Ambrosie, & Haley, 1988). The professional model developed by Ingersoll and Merrill (2011) emphasized the importance of expertise and a high level of

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autonomy as indicators of professionalism. Their professional model indicates five conventional characteristics to the profession, including credentialling, induction programs, professional development, specialization, authority over decision-making, salary levels, and social status of the occupation.

Shon (2006) presented expertise, professional autonomy, and the dedication to the well-being of the client as three features that professionals are expected to possess. A specific body of knowledge and skill enable professionals to exercise a great deal of autonomy and power over their practices (Shon, 2006). Downie (1990) also recognized expert knowledge and authority as main qualities of a profession. Six criteria for a profession suggested by Downie (1990) contain expertise, service via a professional relationship, social function involving the duty to speak out with authority, independence, professional education, and moral and legal legitimacy regarding the use of a distinctive body of knowledge and skill. A substantial degree of knowledge allows professionals to exercise professional authority and power over their tasks (Downie, 1990). Teachers can exercise professional authority on the basis of the expertise necessary to accomplish collective goals. A solid knowledge of the content area and competence in instructional techniques and assessment skills are essential qualities of teachers who hold and exercise authority as professional experts (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). In this regard, expertise works as the basis of authority of the professionals and both expertise and authority are considered to be essential to the nature of a profession.

Teacher professionalism has been a subject that had drawn a lot of attention from policymakers and has been promoted by educators in order to elevate the status, education, and work settings of teachers (Burbules & Densmore, 1991; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011; Ingersoll, Peggy, Bobbitt, Alsalam, Quinn, & Bobbitt, 1997; Shon, 2006; Sykes, 1990). The Holmes group claimed that in supporting to reform teaching, "attaining professional status for teachers is an essential part of the reform effort" (Ambrosie & Haley,1988, p.83). Because teacher professionalism is closely tied to

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teacher authority, the construct of professional authority is an essential characteristic of the profession. Teachers' professional authority is held and put into practice on the basis of subject matter and pedagogical expertise (Campbell, 2006). It is essential for teachers as professionals to exercise individual and collective discretion in making professional judgments that address the academic needs of students in the classroom (Campbell, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 1988). The lowered dignity of teachers reduces the role of a teacher to what Eisner observed as, "automatons rather than professionals who have a stake in what they are doing in classrooms" (Eisner, 2002, p.41). Therefore, a teacher's liberty to make the best decision for their students is fundamental to their empowerment. They become professionals in the same manner that doctors or lawyers are recognized as professionals who work with their own special brand of patients or clients (Ingersoll, 2003; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Proponents of increased teacher professionalism argued that teachers, who are identified as a source of professional knowledge to solve the problems of the nation's schools and make them better, should have increased control over both the school and classroom working conditions (Melenyzer, 1990 ; Short, 1994 ;Sykes, 1990). Hlebowitsh (2005) stressed that teachers must have the intellectual liberty and discretionary latitude to achieve the purposes of the curriculum and to make professional judgments on how the content area should be taught. Teachers need creativity and intelligence to design and engage in good teaching practice in the classroom. In order to realize educative involvements, the teacher needs the freedom to conduct a classroom and a curriculum that is consistent with professional principles. Also, teachers should have the right to raise doubts about and examine the characteristics of the curriculum that are not conducive to the educative process. Sykes (1990) emphasized that teachers need to participate in curriculum development in order to boost professionalism because it provides a condition where theory can be combined with practice.

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However, it was commonly observed in numerous studies that current trends in standardization and state-mandated testing accountability have affected classroom teachers' decision-making over curriculum and instruction in the classroom. Authority has migrated from the classroom teacher to federal and state governments, educational policymakers, and administrators outside the classroom. High-stakes testing policy has pressured teachers to align instruction with state-level testing and to yield to prepackaged curriculum in order to enhance students' scores on state tests. Such policies prevent teachers from pursuing powerful teaching and learning practices. These include exercising professional discretion in making curricular and pedagogical decisions and designing a meaningful learning environment, activities, and learning experiences to meet diverse needs and interests of students (Au, 2007; Au, 2011; Grant, Gradwell, Lauricella, Derme-Insinna, Pullano, & Tzetzo, 2002; Santoro, 2011; Wills & Sandholtz, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

Linking professional authority to teacher professionalism, teacher authority over classroom practice itself is a very important aspect that teachers should have as professionals. This study did not focus on general teachers' professionalism and authority, but paid special attention to social studies teachers' professionalism and professional authority specifically. The context of state-mandated testing accountability and curricular mandates worked as the main theme of this study in examining secondary social studies educators' professionalism and professional authority.

The purpose of this study is to examine closely the status of secondary social studies teachers' professional authority, and to address the associations of teachers' professional characteristics, school environmental factors, and state testing policy factors on secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over key classroom tasks. By scrutinizing the associations of teacher-related factors; school-related factors; and state-mandated testing policy factors on secondary social studies teachers' authority over curricular and instructional decisions, this study seeks to investigate the hypotheses

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that teacher professional authority is related to teacher-related and school-related factors, and testing policy. Also, this study intends to analyze how teacher authority and control are differentially distributed among different kinds of schools depending on school sector (public/private/charter), school context (urban/suburban/rural), school poverty levels, and minority enrollment levels.

Next, this study aims to raise awareness of and to foster a deep understanding of the role and value of teachers' professional authority in the social studies classroom. This study suggests the need to grant teachers more authority and control in the classroom while also holding them accountable for their work, especially in low-income and high-minority schools and what needed to be improved in educational policy in order to endow teachers with more authority and control over their work.

Research Questions

The following questions form the basis for this study.

1. To what extent do teachers' professional characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background and the nature of their certification, as well as the number of years in the profession of teaching, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential gender and race effects?

2. To what extent do school environmental factors, such as the type of school, school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and the school context, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for the potential effects of gender, race and teachers' professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the existence of mandated state tests for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the implementation of state standards on instructional decision-making, and on the evaluation and assessment practices as well as the use of state test results on job security predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control

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among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential effects of gender, race, teachers' professional characteristics, and school environmental factors?

The idea of classroom authority and control will be examined across six variables: 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, and 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching.

Significance of the Study

Why should teachers be granted increased authority and control over their classroom work and school-related issues? Why does professional authority and control matter to teachers? What impact does greater professional authority hold for teachers? In this section, I will discuss the literature that indicates the consequences of teacher authority and control over classroom work and school-wide issues.

The Impacts of Teachers' Professional Authority and Control

The allocation of power, authority, autonomy and control in schools is considered one of the most crucial topics in the study of current education and policy. One can consider it among the most important features to general school reform (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2011; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Endowing teachers with autonomy and power and, elevating the status of their profession can serve as a basis for solving the many of the issues facing the schools today (Melenyzer, 1990; Short, 1994). Teacher authority and autonomy is a common theme arising from studies conducted on teacher motivation, job satisfaction, stress (burnout), professionalism, empowerment, site-based management, charter schools, school restructuring, school management, and student learning achievement (Bogler &Somech, 2004; Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Brunetti, 2001; Dee, Henkin, & Duemer, 2003; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005 ;Rowan,1990; Sykes, 1990; Ulriksen, 1996). These studies emphasize a common topic, which is that teachers

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need to hold and be granted authority and power. Because of the various intertwined results that come from granting teachers decision-making authority, I developed a conceptual model that presents a comprehensive overview of the main impact features.

The Influence of Teacher Authority and Control on Teachers' Professional Life, Teaching, Student Learning, and Operation of Schools

A large body of research in Table 1.1 indicates four domains that are strongly associated with high levels of teacher authority and control. These include issues related to the professional life of the teacher, to instructional decision making, to student learning effects, and to organizational outcome measures (e.g., Brunetti, 2001; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Ingersoll, 1996; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2011; Kim Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Newmann, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Smylie, 1994; Ulriksen, 1996; White, 1992; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). The studies on the impacts of teacher authority and control draw findings from the data based on teachers' self-perceived authority. Figure 1.1 shows an overview of the four areas that teacher authority, power, and control affect. The arrows indicate that teacher authority and control influence the four areas and while each domain reciprocally influences one another. Outcome measures on empowerment, professionalism, job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, student academic performance, and school effectiveness, are tied to teacher empowerment.

Granting teachers authority and control over their work influences their professional life by not only increasing their sense of empowerment and professionalism (Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; White, 1992; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005), but by also improving their self-esteem, morale, job commitment, and job satisfaction (Brunetti, 2001; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2011; Ingersoll et al., 1997; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Newmann, 1993; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Rowan, 1990; Smylie, 1994; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Ulriksen, 1996; Weiss, 1999;

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White, 1992 ; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). Additionally, greater teacher authority and control decreases job stress (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005), and contributes to low rates of teacher turnover (Brunetti, 2001; Dee et al., 2003; Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2011; Ingersoll et al., 1997; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992). Pearson and Moomaw (2005) indicated that teachers who are given more general teaching autonomy feel high degrees of empowerment and professionalism, and teachers who are empowered feel a greater sense of professionalism. Pearson and Moomaw classify teaching autonomy into two aspects; general teaching autonomy and curricular autonomy. General teaching autonomy addresses issues related to classroom standards of conduct and personal on-the-job discretion. Curricular autonomy, however, is closely connected to instructional decision-making. Empowerment implies the extent to which administrators respect and honor teacher opinions on issues that have a direct bearing on school policies and classroom conduct. Teachers who think they are granted power and control possess a strong sense of professional identity, and acknowledge their job as a genuine profession (Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Additionally, increased authority and power boost teachers' dedication to, and satisfaction with their job (Brunetti, 2001; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll et al., 1997; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Newmann, 1993; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Rowan, 1990; Smylie, 1994; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Ulriksen, 1996; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992 ; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). Dee, Henkin and Duemer (2003) indicated that empowered teachers are greatly committed to the school. They claim that teachers are more likely to accept collective aims and values, more inclined to strive hard as a representative of the organization, and to hold a greater sense of organizational belongingness. These researchers also suggest that empowering teachers may decrease burnout and attrition rates.

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Table 1.1. Literature on Impacts of Teacher Authority and Control

Scholars	Four Domains that Increased Teacher Authority and Control over Their Jobs Improve									
	Teachers' Professional life							Instruction	Student learning	Organizational Outcome
	Empowerment	Professionalism	Job Satisfaction	Morale	Job Commitment	Reduction of Job stress	Low rates of teacher turnover and retention of quality teachers	Improving the professional ability of teachers and leading to implementation of quality teaching	Students' positive attitudes toward learning and improvement of student academic performance	Reducing school conflict, developing a positive school climate, generating good management of school,
Ingersoll(1996)										o
Pearson & Moomaw(2005)	o	o	o	o	o	o				
Brunetti(2001)			o				o			
Davis & Wilson (2000)			o	o		o				
Kim & Loadman(1994)			o							
Klecker & Loadman(1996)			o							
Stockhard& Lehman (2004)			o				o			
Ulriksen(1996)			o							
Weiss(1999)				o	o		o			
Zembylas & papanastasiou (2005)			o							
Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley(2006)							o			
Ingersoll&Alsalam(1997)					o		o			
Ingersoll(2003)					o		o			O
Ingersoll(2011)					o		o			o
Pearson& Hall(1993)		o	o				o			
White(1992)		o	o	o	o		o	o	o	
Marks & Louis(1997)					o			o	o	o
Marks & Louis(1999)										o
Newmann (1993)					o			o		
Luthans(1992)										o
Ingersoll(2001)							o			
Rowan(1990)					o			o		
Briggs &Wohlstetter (2003)								o	o	
Sweetland & Hoy(2000)								o	o	o
Smylie(1994)			o	o	o				o	
Wall&Rinehart (1998)										o
Johnson & Stevens(2006)									o	o

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Table 1.1. Continued.

Dee, Henkin & Duemer(2003)					o	o	o			O (Organizational commitment)
Crocco & Costigan(2007)			o		o		o		o	

Teachers' job satisfaction is associated with teacher motivation, empowerment and professionalism (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). Teachers who feel content with their jobs perceive high levels of professionalism and empowerment (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005), and those who are highly motivated to perform their work are more committed to, satisfied with and less stressed by their jobs (Baylor & Ritchie, 2002; Davis & Wilson, 2000). High levels of teacher control and autonomy over curriculum and instruction are negatively associated with on-the-job stress (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Involving teachers in school curriculum decisions (such as creating and designing curriculum, and selecting textbook), leads teachers to feel high degrees of self-esteem, job satisfaction, and professionalism, and increases their sense of ownership of and control over their classroom tasks (White, 1992).

High degrees of teacher authority and control in performing their classroom work also leads teachers to feel more devoted to their work and positively affects their persistence in the profession (Dee et al., 2003; Guarino, Satibanez, & Daley, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992). Giving teachers latitude to make instructional decisions improves their motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment to the profession (Brunetti, 2001; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992).

Teachers also seem to teach better when they have authority and control over their classroom. Giving teachers some autonomy and discretionary space also provides them

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with a feeling of pride when their students succeed academically, and a sense of accountability when their pupils experience academic failure (Newmann, 1993).

Increased authority and power encourage teachers to be more committed to, satisfied with, and confident in their job (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Newmann, 1993; Smylie, 1994). Increased authority also inspires them to utilize their expertise and experience to the utmost (Newmann, 1993), to strive for enhancements in instruction, to believe student achievement is mostly the result of their hard work, and to have conversations about and to provide feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of their instructional work (Marks & Louis, 1997). Teachers who are devoted to and, feel satisfied with their work are more likely to conduct effective classrooms that advance student learning and achievement (Newmann, 1993; Smylie, 1994). In this respect, empowering teachers contributes to promoting the professional competency of teachers (Newmann, 1993). Additionally, shared decision making powers among teachers promote a collective dedication to the improvement of teaching and learning, and a joint obligation to accomplish it (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003).

A third area that teacher authority and control affects is related to student academic performance. Teachers who have authority in the classroom feel satisfied with, committed to, and enthusiastic about their work (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Newmann, 1993; Smylie, 1994; White, 1992). These teachers tend to have a great sense of ownership over their instruction and tend to better strive to provide high quality lessons, responsive to the learning demands of pupils (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). As a consequence, the positive deportment and high energy of the teachers motivate students to respect them and their learning as valuable (Marks & Louis, 1997; Newmann, 1993; Smylie, 1994; White, 1992).

Sweetland and Hoy (2000) examined the influence of teacher empowerment on reading and mathematics achievement and noted that teacher empowerment has a strong relationship with student achievement in reading and mathematics. Granting teachers

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authority and control over instruction positively affects student academic performance (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). Marks and Louis (1997) observed that empowering teachers has an indirect impact on instructional quality and student academic achievement in mathematics and social studies by improving school teaching contexts, such as the quality of the teachers' professional community and their shared responsibility for student learning.

A fourth area related to teacher authority has to do with the operational organization of the school. Several studies indicated that empowering teacher judgment

brings forth effective organizational outcomes and a positive school climate (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Ingersoll, 2003; Johnson & Stevens, 2006; Luthans, 1992; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). Not surprisingly, effective organizational outcomes also lead to better student achievement effects. Empowering teachers in the domains of classroom work and school-wide social matters decreases school conflict, reduces teacher turnover, and positively influences the management of school organizations (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012). Sweetland and Hoy (2000) looked into the associations between teacher empowerment and school effectiveness. Their study found that allowing high levels of teacher participation in important classroom decision-making positively affected the teaching and learning activities of the school in a way that lead to higher school performance.

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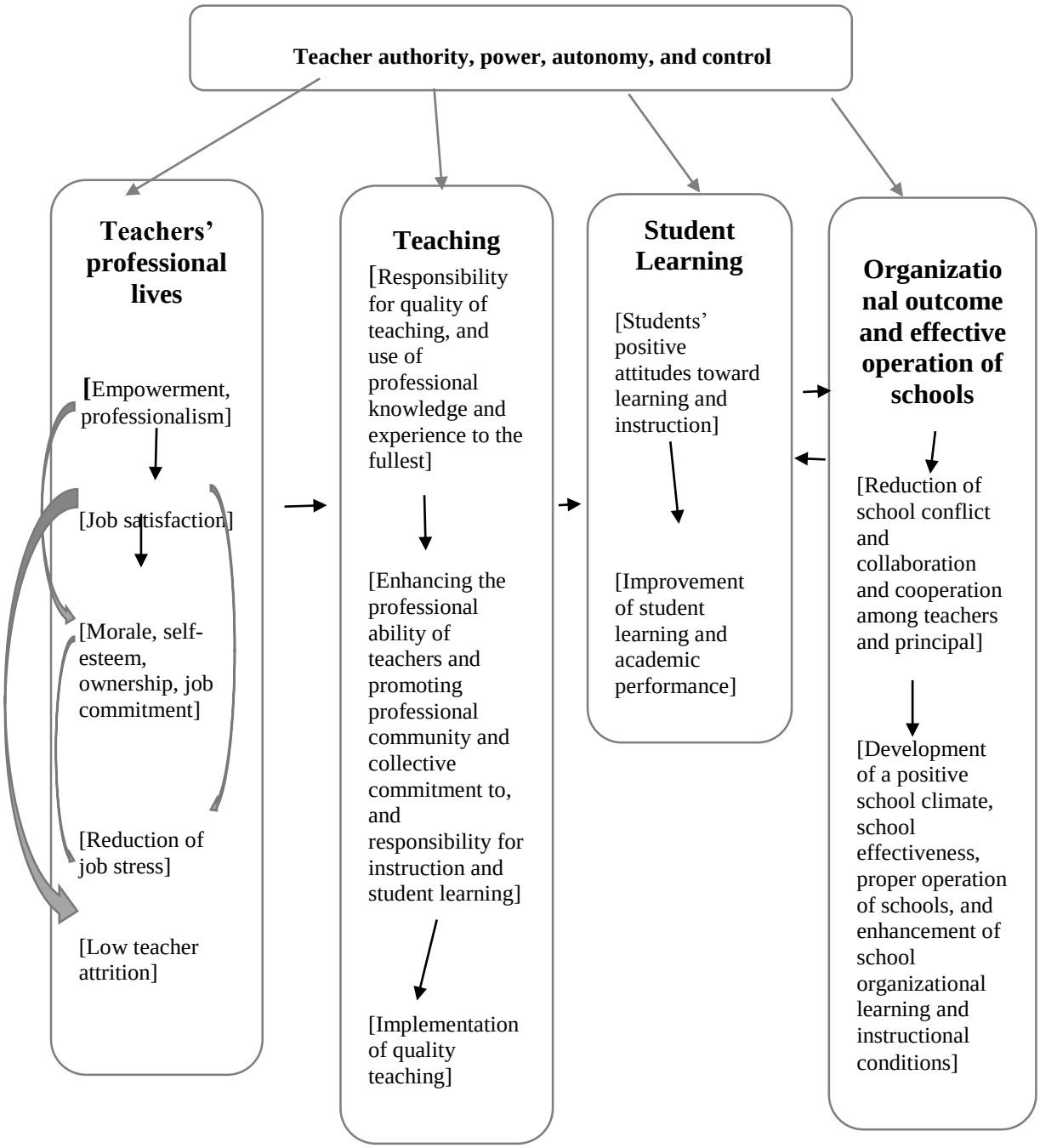

Figure 1.1. Impacts of Teacher Authority and Control

Note. → denotes "influence."

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Other studies also support the effects of increased teacher authority and control on organizational outcomes. Marks and Louis (1997) showed that empowering teachers has a significant influence on the instructional organization of schools and an indirect impact on instructional quality and student academic achievement. They noted that giving teachers power over four policy fields (listed as school administrations and management, students' school experiences, teachers' work life, and autonomy over instructional work) positively affects teaching environments. The findings of this study indicated that teacher empowerment has an indirect effect on authentic pedagogy, and on the quality of student work in mathematics and social studies (Marks & Louis, 1997). Marks and Louis (1999) also indicated that teacher empowerment has a strong and persistent relationship with organizational learning, which implies that it goes beyond what individual members of organizations learn collectively. As observed by Marks and Louis, teachers are involved in "the social processing of knowledge or the sharing of individually held knowledge or information in ways that construct a clear, commonly held set of ideas, focusing on intellectual, social, and cultural, components of the organization" (Marks & Louis, 1999, p.711). Similarly, increased teacher control of important teaching and learning decisions can enhance school effectiveness. Empowering teachers over the domains of teacher work life and student school experience makes a positive contribution to the capacity for organizational learning. Granting power to individual teachers over decision making, particularly decisions related to the core technologies of teaching and learning, exerts a positive effect over teachers' participation in and capacity for organizational learning (Marks & Louis, 1999).

High levels of shared decision making and working together among teachers play a crucial role in promoting a collective dedication to the improvement of teaching and learning and a joint accountability for achieving it (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003). Briggs and Wohlstetter (2003) regard teachers' decision-making authority as one of eight facets of schooling that are connected to successful school-based management (SBM), an

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identifying feature of many contemporary school reform movements. Schools implemented SBM to significantly restructure schools and classroom practices. Eight components of schooling that produce successful SBM include vision, decision-making authority, power, knowledge and skills, information, rewards, leadership, and resources. Teachers in successful SBM schools held and exercised high levels of autonomy in usefully revising instructional and learning programs. Also, principals in successful SBM schools, did not monopolize decision-making power but shared it with many stakeholders and faculty members by creating networks of decision-making groups.

Teacher decision-making power also plays a key role in determining school climate (Johnson & Stevens, 2006; White, 1992), and boosts cooperation and collaboration among teachers and principals (White, 1992). White (1992) demonstrated that teachers' participation in school curriculum decision-making encourages teachers and principals to collaborate each other and to inspire students to show favorable attitudes and behaviors in the classroom. As a result, teachers provide students better instructions and students learn more (White, 1992). According to Johnson and Stevens (2006), teachers' viewpoints on school atmosphere is positively and highly linked to student academic performance. They revealed that school climate is a feature that contributes to the comprehension of school achievement. Students perform better in schools where the atmosphere is positive from a teacher's points of view, and where teachers have good social relationships and actively engage in the decision-making process. School contextual factors may be interrelated with student performance (Johnson & Stevens, 2006). Allowing teachers to gain power and authority serves as a key factor in creating a positive school climate, promoting school effectiveness, and properly operating the schools (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Wall & Rinehart, 1998).

Four major findings demonstrate the benefits of increased teacher authority and decision-making power, and these four improvements are interrelated to one another. First, greater teacher authority and control in the workplace boosts teacher

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professionalism, empowerment, job satisfaction, morale, and commitment, decreases job stress, and ultimately reduces teacher turnover (Brunetti, 2001; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Dee et al., 2003; Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll et al., 1997; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Newmann, 1993; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Rowan, 1990; Smylie, 1994; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Ulriksen, 1994; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). Second, greater teacher authority simply improves teaching. The higher a teacher's professionalism, empowerment, job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment, the more likely they will be to seek to improve quality of their teaching, and to meet the learning needs of students (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Marks & Louis, 1997; Newmann, 1993; Rowan, 1990; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000; White, 1992). Third, greater teacher authority enhances student academic performance. The passionate and devoted attitude teachers brought to the classroom encourages students to work hard and improves student academic achievement (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Johnson & Stevens, 2006; Marks & Louis, 1997; Smylie, 1994; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000; White, 1992). Finally, greater teacher authority contributes to improved organizational efficiency and good school management. When one increases decision-making power of teachers, it fosters more collaboration, cooperation, and better communication channels between teachers and principals, which in turn contributes to decreased school conflict, improvements in learning, and generally better school operations (Dee et al., 2003; Ingersoll, 1996; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Johnson & Stevens, 2006; Luthans, 1992; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000; Wall & Rinehart, 1998).

In this sense, teachers' professional authority is a very important topic to be studied. This study will draw the attention of and have implications for teachers, administrators, researchers, and educational policymakers. Teacher professionalism has

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been a topic of educational reform for a long time to solve school problems, improve the quality of public school education, and attract and retain high quality teachers. As mentioned above, teachers' professional authority has brought about a lot of positive effects on teachers' professional life, their instruction, student academic achievement, and effective operation of schools. However, recent scholarly works indicated that state-wide testing policy has a great effect on teachers' classroom practices and curricular and pedagogical control, leading to the teaching-to-the test phenomenon. Testing receives much attention and support, and teachers are pressured to adjust their instructions to state assessments. They do not seem to be the main agents of power and influence over their work, but powerless victims that should conform to what administrators and policymakers want them to do and tell them to do. This study's results will raise awareness of the importance of increased teacher authority and control over teaching and learning tasks, which are fundamental rights and responsibilities of teachers and that no one can intervene in and impinge upon in an age of high-stakes accountability.

Rationale for the Study

Prior research studying teacher authority has been conducted in reference to teacher empowerment and professionalism and has examined the relationship between teacher autonomy and various outcomes pertaining to teacher job satisfaction, morale, job commitment, teacher retention, students' academic performance, and organizational effectiveness (e.g., Brunetti, 2001; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Johnson & Stevens, 2006; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Pearson& Moomaw, 2005; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). These studies indicated the positive effects of teacher authority and control on teachers' professional life, their instruction, student learning, and school effectiveness.

Much of the recent scholarly research has studied the effects of the high-stakes testing policy on curriculum and instruction, teaching styles, teacher burnout, teacher workplace relations, social studies marginalization, student learning, and reading and

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math achievement (e.g., Au, 2007; Berryhill, Linney, & Fromewick, 2009; Jones & Egley, 2007; Lee, 2008; Mausethagen, 2012; Srikantaia, Moilanen, & Swayhoover, 2009; Vande Corput, 2012; Watanabe, 2007).

Grant (2006) demands the need for empirical research on the impact of state-level social studies testing on social studies teachers and students in the classrooms. While there is plenty of research on reading and mathematics testing and classroom practices, research on the effect of state-level social studies testing policy on teachers and their teaching practice is very few. If any, most of the empirical studies are qualitative and have dealt with social studies teachers, testing and instruction at the elementary level.

To date there is no research investigating the associations of teachers' professional characteristics, school environmental factors, and state testing policy on secondary social studies teachers' professional authority and control over key classroom tasks. This study provides a missing piece in the understanding of the associations of teachers' characteristics and school-level factors, and testing policy factors on secondary school social studies teachers' professional authority in the classroom using the national largest survey data on US social studies teachers and quantitative methods.

Definition of Teachers' Professional Authority

Researchers use the terms autonomy, authority, power, influence, discretion, and control interchangeably in the literature. Some research employs the term "teacher empowerment" and examines the effects of teacher empowerment by empirically deriving teacher authority (or autonomy) as one of six dimensions to measure teacher empowerment (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999).

These scholarly descriptions of teacher authority (autonomy or empowerment) take on various, but related definitions. Empowerment is defined in terms of teachers' power to control critical decisions about teaching and learning conditions (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2005) stated the meaning of empowerment as

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"teachers' power to participate in decision-making about teaching and learning conditions" (p.433). Ingersoll (1996, 2003) paid attention to two types of authority: one is control exercised by individual teachers over planning and instructional decision-making in their classrooms, and the other is faculties' collective control over deciding on important school-wide educational issues. Short (1994) identified autonomy in detail as the teachers' perception that they have influence over diverse elements of their classroom life such as developing curriculum, selecting textbooks and planning instruction. Hlebowitsh (2005) described teacher discretionary space as the extent of freedom granted to a teacher in designing the curriculum to make emergent professional judgments in the classroom. The idea is to allow the teacher to have sufficient freedom to design the curriculum to make decisions arising unexpectedly from classroom situations. Klecker and Loadman (1996) gave a definition of teacher autonomy as "the teachers' sense of freedom to make certain decisions that control certain aspects of their work life, such as scheduling, curriculum, textbooks, and instructional planning" (Klecker & Loadman, 1996, p.4).

While literature defined teacher authority variously, these scholarly definitions indicated a common theme that teachers need to hold and exercise authority and power over a key domain – teachers' classroom work (teaching and learning). Teacher authority over curriculum and instruction is a basic right and responsibility of the profession. Curriculum embodies transmission of knowledge as well as a body of content knowledge to be learned. Therefore, curriculum implies subject matter content knowledge, structure of curricular knowledge, and pedagogy (Au, 2007).

Classroom autonomy is a domain on which a high premium has been placed by teachers (Conway, 1984) and is the focal area of teacher authority in this study. This study specifies teachers' authority and power to control and make discretionary judgments in their curricular and instructional work in the classroom as teachers' professional authority, linking teacher authority to teacher professionalism. Professional

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authority is differentiated from curricular authority by Campbell (2006). She defines curricular authority as "the legitimacy of the planned curriculum" (p.111), which is connected to "formalized and standardized curricular guidelines and objectives or less formal initiatives" (p.111). On the contrary, professional authority denotes that teachers make judgments and hold discretionary latitude based on their professional content and pedagogical knowledge, and competence and dedication to fulfill students' learning (Campbell, 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007). A solid knowledge of the content area and competence in instructional techniques and assessment skills are essential qualities of teachers who hold and exercise authority as the professional expert (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). Teachers' power over making decisions in classroom tasks is considered a fundamental aspect of their work and sense of their professional authority (Friedman, 1999).

Campbell (2006) indicated that these two forms of authority, curricular authority and professional authority, do not always go hand in hand because curricular authority required by external organizational, administrative, and community force conflicts with teachers' own sense of accountability for themselves as professional practitioners demanded by professional authority. The disagreement between curricular authority and professional authority represents the influence of the current context of high-stakes testing accountability on teachers' professional authority in the classroom.

As many studies such as Crocco and Costigan (2007), Gradwell (2006), Salinas (2006), Smith (2006), van Hover (2006) noted, teachers do not passively comply with or refuse to follow the demands of state-wide testing policies in a simple manner. Under top-down pressure, teachers as professionals and gatekeepers vigorously react to and negotiate with the testing policies grounded on their own beliefs of teaching and learning and knowledge of content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and schooling contexts.

In this vein, this study defines teachers' professional authority as teachers actively making professional decisions, exercising discretion and control in key curricular

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and instructional tasks, and executing ambitious teaching on the basis of their content and pedagogical expertise, and competence for teaching and commitment to student learning without passively yielding to directives from above in spite of pressures exerted by administrators or top-down tests. This study considers the constructs of teacher authority, control, power, discretion, and autonomy to be the same and uses the terms interchangeably. Key teaching and learning tasks teachers perceive to have the liberty to initiate and implement include selecting textbook and other materials, selecting content topics and skills to be taught, selecting which parts of the curriculum to put emphasis on in the instruction, choosing instructional techniques, and evaluating and grading students.

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CHAPTER II.
LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will discuss the literature comprising the conceptual framework of this dissertation research. First sub-part presents teacher professional characteristics associated with teacher authority. The second sub-part deals with teacher authority across school sectors, including public, charter and private school settings. The next sub-part addresses the effects of high-stakes testing policy on secondary social studies teachers' authority and control over five key areas of classroom work, including the selection of textbook and classroom materials, the content taught and the curriculum that is emphasized, as well as the teaching techniques, and evaluation methods used. The fourth sub-part will show the relationship between school environments and secondary social studies teachers' authority and control under the context of state-level testing policy. The final sub-section will demonstrate the effects of state-level testing policy on secondary social studies teachers' professionalism.

Teacher Professional Characteristics and Teacher Authority

Academic Degree, Licensure/Certification, and Teaching Experience

Multiple aspects of teacher knowledge affect teachers' exercise of professional authority and implementation of various teaching practices ranging from pedantic to ambitious teaching (Salinas, 2006). While teachers conform to the mandated testing policy, they simultaneously negotiate their response to the testing frameworks as a competent professional (Grant, 2000). Pace (2011) stressed teachers' gatekeeping role, asserting that despite the influence of the high stakes testing on social studies teaching, "teachers are not passive victims of school policy; they continue to make important decisions as they interpret policy and create educational experiences for their students" (p.34). Teachers' vigorous reactions as gatekeepers depend on teachers' expertise of content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational contexts emphasized by Shulman (1987). Teachers' degree background, the nature of their licensure/certification,

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and their teaching experience may serve as a key gauge for how much teachers are knowledgeable about content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and contexts.

It is common belief that academic degree background has much to do with teachers' knowledge of content, pedagogy, and curriculum (Ingersoll, 2003a). Teachers' content knowledge influences their pedagogical practices (Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Shulman, 1987; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991). About 20% of social studies teachers had neither a major nor a minor in any of the social sciences, social studies education or social studies related field (Ingersoll, 2003). Teachers in social studies field which is one of broad multi-disciplinarian areas are assigned to teach any of subjects within social studies department. Although a teacher has a certificate in social studies field, he or she is not qualified to teach all of the content areas in the field. Actually, over half of teachers who teach history did not have a major or minor in history (Ingersoll, 2002).

It is very likely that teachers who teach subjects for which they have little education or training are not knowledgeable about the subjects they teach and do not have expertise in general and subject-specific instructional techniques and assessment skills so that they can meet diverse learning needs and abilities of students (Ingersoll, 2003a; Ingersoll, 2003). The impacts of high levels of out-of-field teaching on learning outcome and the learning environment for students are not represented in student scores on multiple-choice standardized tests. Teachers who do out-of-field teaching tend to use textbooks mostly in the instruction, and what are learned from textbooks is best reflected in standardized examinations. Teachers without a strong background in the field are unlikely to be competent in teaching students how to think critically and arousing student interests in the subject. Teachers who are required to teach subjects in which they have little education might invest more time on preparation for the subject, and might allocate less amount of preparation time to their other courses (Ingersoll, 2003).

According to Thornton (1991), teachers make decisions on the basis of their bigger educational aims, clear-cut goals, and principles integrated in their knowing and

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views of content area, instruction, and learning. Researchers stress the importance of teachers' knowledge of discipline and curriculum in exercising instructional decision-making power, and wise or ambitious teaching in an era of state-level testing (Grant, 2003; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Pace, 2011; Salinas, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2006). Teachers who are educated well in their content knowledge are more competent to design and convey powerful instructions than out-of-field teachers (Shulman, 1987; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988).

Teachers' subject matter knowledge serves as a foundation for other kinds of teacher knowledge and their role as a professional. Shulman (1987) stresses that teachers who have in-depth pedagogical content knowledge, "the subject matter for teaching" (Gess-Newsome, 1999, p.3), are capable of converting his or her subject matter knowledge into "forms that are pedagogically powerful" (Shulman, 1987, p.15) and adjustable to the various capabilities and backgrounds of learners. According to Carter (1990), pedagogical content knowledge includes both teachers' knowledge about their subject matter and the way that knowledge is converted into classroom teaching practices. It is content specific and contains what teachers know about students' aptitudes and inspiration to learn particular issue within a field of study and what teachers comprehend about students' preconceived ideas that may prevent their learning (Carter, 1990). Shulman (1987) emphasizes that ideal teachers demonstrate knowledge to facilitate students to build up, understand and acquire ideas autonomously and actively.

Role of teachers as a professional with solid content and pedagogical content knowledge is directly connected with that of teachers in constructivist teaching and learning, and psychologizing of materials. Dewey's (1902) psychological organization of subject matter is a crucial factor that should be taken into account by teachers in instructing the content of a lesson (Hlebowitsh, 2005). According to Dewey (1902), "to psychologize the material is to take it and to develop it within the range and scope of the child's life" (p.10). That is, psychological formulation of the subject matter can be

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interpreted as exploring it and motivating students to enjoy learning by relating it to their experiences, interests, abilities, and backgrounds (Hlebowitsh, 2005). Constructing subject matter in a logical fashion is the appropriate purpose of learning, but the learner can definitely value the logic of the subject matter when he or she is psychologically and personally investigates the subject matter (Dewey, 1916/2001). Dewey (1916/2001) asserts that "If he cannot devise his own solution and find his own way out, he will not learn, not even if he can recite some correct answer with one hundred percent accuracy" (p.166).

Several studies reveal that teachers' content background, knowledge of pedagogy, curriculum, students, and educational contexts have an impact on their decision-making power in classroom teaching and implementation of ambitious teaching in a context of state-level testing policy. Grant and Gradewell (2005) insist that secondary social studies teachers' academic background and content knowledge influence their classroom practices and choice of classroom texts. Cooper is a history major, but McCallum is an anthropology major. As a history major, Cooper is more placed at an advantage in her teaching practices than McCallum. However, Grant and Gradwell indicate that their sample teachers have abundant knowledge of subject matter, so they choose various texts that stand for the fundamental conception of each instruction as well as that provide students access to a wide variety of viewpoints. Pace's (2011) research also shows an effect of social studies teachers' academic background on their classroom practices. 7th grade social studies teachers who participated in the study were originally elementary school teachers and did not have much experience at the middle school level. Ms. Roth was a history major while Ms. Berger did not possess rich knowledge of the subject matter. As elementary teachers, most of professional development both teachers engaged in centered upon literacy, especially in balanced literacy. Because of these education backgrounds of both teachers, a lot of literacy-focused practices are detected in their history teaching. Both participants were willing to incorporate literacy instructions into

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their history teaching in order to improve students' skills and test scores in English/language arts.

Salinas (2006) indicates the importance of teachers' content, curriculum, and context knowledge in a high-stakes testing context in her study of Texas high school social studies/history teachers. She stresses teacher knowledge is crucial in a high-stakes accountability circumstance by pointing out that teachers' knowledge and the ensuing decisions made carefully by teachers play a pivotal role in determining how those high-stakes tests are presented in curriculum, teaching, and assessment. First, she asserts that teachers' subject matter knowledge of American history is vital to the test preparation process and shapes teachers' response to the testing. The American history teachers make use of their knowledge to respond actively to the high-stakes testing. They do not surrender completely to the control of the state-mandated testing frameworks that would rebuild the 11th grade American History Studies course. Teachers consent or refuse to modify the content based on their own knowledge. Second, Salinas argues that the teachers act in response to the testing and administrative control in a complicated and subtle way when they are asked to develop the curriculum alignment guides and conduct benchmark exams. Although they should abide by administrators' requests, they still have a lot of discretion to determine whether or not to utilize curriculum guides, and to design and implement their own pedagogical and assessment practices, relying on their own beliefs and knowledge. Third, Salinas stresses that being well-informed about the new testing circumstance cultivates teachers' ability to confront the demands of high-stakes tests. Social studies teachers need to be aware of testing policies and norms, such as the components of "test formats and passing rates, testing and retesting dates, curriculum alignment, testing strategies and materials, and acts of overt/covert resistance" (p.187) that have explicit impacts on their curricular, instructional, and evaluation practices in the classroom. Therefore, teachers' sound knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, and educational circumstances empowers them to deal with administrative

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pressure caused by a high-stakes test and reasonably object to making considerable changes in their content, pedagogy and assessment strategies (Salinas, 2006).

Grant (2003) cites expertise in content, students, and educational circumstances as necessary elements for ambitious or wise teaching. van Hover and Heinecke (2006) adds extensive knowledge of curriculum, and pedagogy to what Grant considers as requirements for wise practices. That is, social studies teachers who enact wise practice know curriculum, various pedagogical methods, and their students well, and have expertise in the content they teach, so they have confidence in their teaching and are able to balance the testing demands and what they pursue for real learning (van Hover & Heinekce, 2006).

Teacher licensure pathways also play a crucial role in demonstrating teachers' ability and qualification to do well on their work and find a way out of the difficulties facing teachers in a testing circumstance. Crocco and Costigan (2007) show that the path that teachers enter teaching (whether to be licensed through traditional or emergency/alternative routes) works as a factor that affects the effect of narrowing of curriculum and scripted lessons on teacher retention. Although teachers feel depressed and discouraged with narrowed curriculum and pedagogy, and prescribed lessons, teachers who are prepared through traditional paths appear to be capable of creating approaches for their students and themselves in order that they would stay in inner-city schools. In addition, those teachers prepared through traditional pathways perceive the scripted curriculum and instruction are not a suitable way to attain educational purposes they pursue for their students. By contrast, teachers who are licensed through the alternative program and work in middle schools where administrators and mentors intensely compel teachers to abide by the scripted and confined curriculum strictly, seem to not have adequate skills and capacities to construct a competent practice that can break through the hardship they confront. Departure of teachers who enter teaching through

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nontraditional avenues from urban schools or the teaching profession is more prevalent (Crocco & Costigan, 2007).

Teaching experience appears to have much to do with teacher knowledge and professional ability to balance between testing pressure and implementation of ambitious teaching. Smith (2006) notes that as teachers are more experienced, they tend to be better informed about social studies instruction, teaching strategies under time pressures, jam-packed classroom full of students, mandated testing movement. Smith presumes that the subjects in her study use wise, critical practices because they have ample teaching experience. In a study of beginning high school social studies teachers in Virginia, van Hover (2006) also observes that novice teachers are only aware of the teaching context with the test-based accountability, and pay more attention to their own everyday survival issues like dealing with student behavior, block scheduling, mastering content, and covering everything on the test than student learning. Expert teachers understand the progress of student learning by employing data obtained from tests and utilize them to plan their teaching practices. The novice teachers in the study have started their career in a high-stakes testing context and this teaching context is the only one they know and have known. As these novice teachers are very accustomed to the presence of the state tests, it is hard for them to realize its ubiquitous impact. Although the subject teachers report that they do not perceive an explicit effect of the state tests on their content planning, van Hover discovers that three inexperienced World History teachers in three different schools cover the same core content in their teaching. How teachers interpret state standards and testing influences what high-stakes testing results in and how teachers act in response to it (van Hover, 2006). Teachers' beliefs of high-stakes testing, its influence on their creativity, discretion, and job satisfaction and reaction to it affect their notion and planning of their teaching practices and their decision-making in persisting in or leaving the teaching profession (Crocco & Costigan, 2007; van Hover, 2006). Depending on their viewpoints, teachers are willing to conduct ambitious practices, or justify the use of

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textbook-driven instruction that focuses on learning by repetition and recall of facts. van Hover argues that meaningful induction or professional development needs to be provided to help novice teachers attend to students' real learning and foster ambitious practices in a high-stakes testing circumstance (van Hover, 2006).

In summary, teachers who have strong academic background in their discipline and are licensed through traditional paths appear to have ample knowledge and a strong ability to cope effectively with the demands of state-mandated reforms and to foster wise teaching for meaningful student learning. Also, teachers who are less experienced tend to struggle with the difficult issues facing them that occur every day, so they are less able to pay meaningful attention to student learning or employ ambitious teaching within state-level testing environments. Based on their knowledge frameworks, teachers can actively and wisely respond to, and deal with state testing policies instead of following the testing force or using pedantic teaching without criticism. Teacher knowledge works as a mechanism that can leverage teachers' discretion and capacity to grapple with the testing mandates, conduct wise practices and care about student learning. Teacher knowledge and ability are considered to be closely connected to teachers' academic degree background, licensure route of entry into teaching, and teaching experience. Accordingly, it is important to investigate the relationship between secondary social studies teachers' academic degree background, licensure, teaching experience and their perceived classroom authority based on the hypothesis that education, licensure, and teaching experience deliver, shape, and strengthen teacher knowledge.

Teacher Authority across School Settings

An increase of charter schools in recent years offers the opportunity to compare the levels of teachers' instructional autonomy between neighborhood public schools and charter schools. Charter schools were established based on the notion of school choice, which is rooted in the idea of giving parents more choices in selecting a school for the education of their children. Research shows that charter schools allow teachers to

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participate in decision making and to choose, design, and implement curriculum independently, giving them the opportunity to try new things and to emphasize content areas less likely to be tested (Malloy & Wohlstetter, 2003; Manno, Finn Jr., Bierlein, & Vanourek, 1998; Smylie, Lazarus, & Brownlee-Conyers, 1996).

Empirical studies suggest that teachers who choose to work at a charter school enjoy more freedom and discretionary latitude than their neighborhood school counterparts. An NEA study showed that 61% of the sample teachers reported that having discretionary judgment over their teaching was key to the appeal of a charter school (Koppich, Holmes, & Plecki, 1998). About 50 % of teachers in charter schools in Massachusetts mentioned that they decided to work at a charter school due to the freedom to choose curriculum and instruction to be taught (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1998). Teachers in Arizona also stated they selected a charter school because they were more likely to hold and exercise autonomy with classroom decision (Mulholland, 1999). Other studies of teachers in charter schools in California and Colorado indicated that teachers perceived they had decision-making power over the content and curriculum to be instructed (Bomotti, Ginsberg, & Cobb, 2000; Corwin & Flaherty, 1995; Shore, 1997).

In a case study of several charter schools (Gawlik, 2007), findings show that most of the interviewed teachers in charter schools confirmed the common belief that teachers in charter schools worked under greater discretionary latitude and independence. The teachers who were former public school teachers responded that they hold more control over the school budget, the curriculum, and the various school policies in a charter school than in public schools. While traditional public schools are required to purchase state-adopted textbooks, and to follow state prescribe curriculum, frameworks of standards or state testing, charter schools do not necessarily do the same. Thus, charter schools and teachers feel they have greater decision-making power and freedom over the development, choice, and implementation of curriculum materials (Gawlik, 2007).

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A review of state charter school legislation discovered that charter schools are granted increased freedom and autonomy. Charter schools have freedom to choose their own curriculum and pedagogical techniques according to law in twenty-seven states. Also, interviews with teachers in charter schools in California supported that teachers believed they had an enormous amount of discretion and influence over curriculum and instruction. Many teachers reported that they are not bound by district dictates, rules, and mandated curriculum, and are provided with the freedom to make decisions on curriculum, instruction, school budget, and professional development, and other areas (Malloy & Wohlstetter, 2003).

Research evidence also reveals that teachers in private schools have higher levels of authority and control over their classroom practices than those in neighborhood public schools. Ingersoll's (2003) study using the national Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) demonstrates variations across schools in teacher control. In this case, school size matters. Teachers in small public schools hold the same level of control as those of small private schools. However, teaches who work in private schools have greater decision-making power over their instruction than those working at large public schools. Additionally, when it comes to the development of school curriculum, private school teachers are found to have far greater influence than those of public schools.

Farkas and Duffett (2010) surveyed national random sample of 866 public high schools social studies teachers and an over-sample of 245 social studies teachers from private high schools. The research found that social studies teachers who work in private high schools state that they have more decision-making power over the content taught, the sequence of the curriculum, and pedagogical approaches. 86 percent of private school teachers state that they have a lot of discretionary latitude to choose topics they teach, and to control progress of the classwork, whereas only 45 percent of public high school teachers said the same. Furthermore, 69 percent of private high school teachers report using project-based learning involving active participation, compared to only 53 percent

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of public high school teachers. Because teachers are not controlled by standards and tests at all in private schools, they are more likely to implement Socratic seminars and primary sources, and spend long hours on discussion. A Virginia private teacher who had prior experience in public school, reported that she was willing to suffer a pay cut and received less health benefits in exchange for exercising greater instruction discretion in the classroom. Also, a private teacher said that her principal allows teachers to have unlimited autonomy in their own classroom, emphasizing "Your classroom is your kingdom" (p.32).

On the other hand, teachers in public schools complain about the issue of time constraint and pacing guides for the purpose of checking whether they follow content standards (Farkas & Duffett, 2010). A Virginia public high school teacher mentioned about how state standards prevent her from teaching history, "I am told what I have to teach and I only have this amount of time to do it. I have to make choice. If there are only going to be three questions on this unit, I don't teach it as much" (Farkas & Duffett, 2010, p. 32).

Analyzing the different degrees of secondary social studies teachers' authority and control that affect their daily work in charter, private and traditional public schools offers an opportunity to infer the cross-school differences in secondary social studies teachers' control over their instructions.

The Influence of State-Mandated Testing Policy on Secondary Social Studies Teachers' Professionalism and Professional Authority

Unique Case of Social Studies Education

What influences have state-mandated testing policy had on curriculum and teaching in the classroom? Mary Lee Smith (1991) points out the problem of testing as greatly diminishing "the capacity of teachers to adapt to local circumstances and needs of pupils or to exercise any discretion over what to teach and how to teach it" (p.10). She is also concerned that "the focus on material that the test covers result in a narrowing of

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possible curriculum and a reduction of teachers' ability to adapt, create, and diverge" and "multiple choice testing leads to multiple-choice teaching" (p.10).

Research indicates that teachers align content and pedagogy to the standards of the high-stakes state tests (Au, 2009). However, the impact of state-level tests on social studies teachers and their teaching practices is complex and not always clear (Au, 2009; Grant & Salinas, 2008). According to Grant (2006), "tests do matter to teachers, but how they matter is uncertain" (p.38). Research findings are not consistent. Survey research by Vogler (2006) shows that standardized social studies testing has an effect on teacher practices that can vary by school context, and organizational factors (e.g., Fickel, 2006; Grant, 2005; Grant, Gradwell, Lauricella, Derme-Insinna, Pullano, & Tzetzo, 2002; Grant & Salinas, 2008; Pace, 2008; Segall, 2006; Smith, 2006).

Au (2009) claims that social studies education denotes "a special case" in reference to high-stakes, state-mandated testing. First, social studies testing policy varies. About twenty-one of the states have mandated state social studies/history tests (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambre, 2012). Most of state-mandated tests do not have a direct impact on students – In only 10 states, state social studies/history tests are employed to determine students' promotion or high school graduation (Grant, 2007). The consequence is that it is hard to grasp how state-level testing policies alter social studies teaching. Second, he points out a unique problem with social studies instruction (Au, 2009). Ross (2000) notes that "the dominant pattern of classroom social studies pedagogy is characterized by text-oriented whole group, teacher-centered instruction, with an emphasis on memorization of factual information" (p.47). Because lecture-based, teacher-centered, and textbook-driven teaching is commonly used by social studies teachers, it is likely that high-stakes testing does not have a dramatic effect on social studies teachers' instruction (Au, 2009). Third, the characteristics of social studies testing could include a combination of multiple-choice questions and document-based essay questions that allow teachers to implement innovative social studies instruction that fosters higher-level creative, critical historical

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thinking, writing and reasoning. To answer an essay based document-based question (DBQ) requires students to possess reading and critical analysis skills. Therefore, teachers have more freedom to choose the content and instructional approaches to teach social studies (Au, 2009).

A small body of empirical research closely looks into the effect of state-level testing on social studies instruction (Grant, 2006a). The growing research evidence shows that state-mandated testing has an impact on social studies teaching even if teaching-to-the-test effects are variable (Au, 2009). Grant (2006b) argues that "the stakes attached to state-level tests may matter less than the mere existence of a test" (p.315). Other researchers also support this argument, revealing that regardless of the consequences attached to state tests, the mere presence of standardized tests can have a potential effect on social studies teachers' classroom planning, practices, and evaluation (Clarke, Shore, Rhoades, Abrams, Miao, & Li, 2003; Grant, 2007; Pedulla, Abrams, Madaus, Russell, Ramos, & Miao, 2003; Segall, 2006; Yeager & Pinder, 2006). The following section will address state testing policy as it relates to the unique conditions of social studies teaching detailed by Au (2009).

Various Interstate Social Studies Testing Policy

The publication of *A Nation At Risk* report in 1983 introduced the current standards movement and test-based accountability mechanism (Au, 2009). Critics criticized K-12 public school system and its teachers as failure. They argued that countless social problems such as the decline of American economic competitiveness and productivity, poor academic achievement of students, the persistent achievement gap between minority and non-minority children, and juvenile delinquency and crime were all attributable to bad schools and bad teachers (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005; Ingersoll, 2012). Critics voiced that the solution to the reform of the education system was to tighten the centralized control over schools and to hold teachers more accountable through methods such as teacher entry examinations, standardized curricula, performance

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standards, teacher performance pay systems, and state and national standards and testing (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012). The No Child Left Behind legislation was adopted by the federal government in 2002 for the purpose of reforming a low performing public school system and improving the general quality of schooling (Hlebowitsh, 2007). Under the conditions of NCLB, schools should be held accountable for student proficiency in math and reading (Rothstein, Jacobsen, & Wilder, 2008), but social studies was not included into the tested subjects in testing mandates (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambre, 2012). As a result, social studies has a spotty presence on state testing protocols (Au, 2009).

As of 2009**,** thirty states do not administer mandatory social studies/history tests, and twenty-one states mandate state standardized tests that assess social studies (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambre, 2012). In 10 of those states (including Texas, Virginia, Mississippi, Kentucky, Massachusetts and New York), the test scores are staked to graduation from high school (Grant, 2007) or to grade to grade promotion. For example, in Massachusetts, schools are held accountable for students' performance, so they receive rewards or sanctions based on student progress (Wheelock, 2008). In Texas, the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) is administered to 8th grade students in social studies, and high school students are required to take the state social studies exam. These tests have a direct effect on students. Eighth graders must pass the test to move onto the next grade, and high school students must pass the TAKS to graduate from a high school and receive a diploma (Burroughs, Groce, & Webeck, 2005; Webeck, Salinas, & Field, 2005). In Texas, student achievements in the high-stakes tests are publicized, and the test results are used to appraise the performance of teachers, administrators, and school districts (Black & Valenzuela, 2004; Koretz, 2002; Salinas, 2006; Webeck et al., 2005). In the context of high-stakes testing in Texas, schools are under a lot of pressure to raise students' test scores (Black & Valenzuela, 2004; McNeil, 2000).

In Mississippi, as of 2013, the Subject Area Testing Program (SATP) is administered as end of-course, criterion-referenced tests in Algebra 1, Biology 1, United

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States History, and English (Mississippi Department of Education, 2013). Students' test scores have great implications for students, schools, and districts. The SATP test determines whether students can graduate from high school (Vogler, 2006). Also, School Performance Classifications are decided by students' test performance, and students' achievement levels play a part in determining the accreditation status of school districts (Burroughs et al., 2005).

New York administers the New York state Regents examinations in social studies, which is a high-stakes test. All students take the global history exam at the end of tenth grade and the American history exam at the end of eleventh grade. The Regents test consists of multiple-choice questions and the essay section (Gerwin, 2004).

In Virginia, accountability systems are implemented under Standards of Learning (SOLs) and are represented as content-based standards for all subject areas that detail the knowledge and skills that all children are required to learn. The state also offers high-stakes SOL tests that consist of 70-item, multiple-choice exams. High school students are required to take the SOL tests as an end-of-course exam and must receive a score of 400 or higher to graduate (van Hover, 2006).

Kentucky has the state assessment system established as the Kentucky Instructional Results Information System (KIRIS). The KIRIS index measures continual achievement of students. The state has the goal of expecting all students to accomplishing a proficient score on the KIRIS. Performance levels are classified into four levels: success, improving, declining, or in crisis. Schools that achieved or did better than state-defined goals are regarded to be successful and the teachers in the school receive a financial reward. A school that did not gradually improve during a period of two years is considered to be in decline and a school that makes no progress or performs worse than their criterion score or previous two year score is regarded as "in crisis." Schools designated as in decline or in crisis are given sanctions by the state (Fickel, 2006).

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California administers the Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) program, which has four tests: the California Standards Tests, the California Modified Assessment, the California Alternate performance Assessment, and the Standards-based test in Spanish. Students in grades eight, ten, and eleven are required to take a history-social science component to the California Standards Tests (CST). The test taken in grade eight is intended to measure the state's content standards for grades six through eight and is made up of 75 multiple-choice questions and six supplementary performance-based questions. The tenth and eleventh grade tests are intended to measure grade level standards. Each of these tests is composed of 60 multiple-choice questions and six performance-based questions. The CST is a high-stakes test, and the test results are reported and posted on the CDE Web site annually (California Department of Education, 2013). It is used to evaluate school performance and improvement of academic performance, and to determine student advancement to the next grade level (Doran & Izumi, 2004).

The other 11 states mandate a social studies test, but the test does not hold any real consequence for the students. In some states, like Michigan, test scores have a small direct impact on teachers. But none of the teachers in the 11 states fear dismissal because of low student test scores. High scores, however, result in rewards for the schools (Grant, 2007). Michigan requires students in grade 5, 8, 11 to take the state-mandated social studies test – the Michigan Evaluation Assessment program (MEAP). Although the MEAP is a low-stakes test, its results are publicized in the newspapers, and on the television, so a school district' reputation can be affected by the results. Principals worry that their students might transfer to another school if their test performance is not good (Segall, 2006). The various ways that social studies testing policies are enacted are presented in Table 2.

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Table 2.1. Examples of Interstate Social Studies Testing Policy

State	State tests	Low-stakes	High-stakes
Florida	No social studies test		
Kentucky	The Kentucky Instructional Results Information System (KIRIS)		o
Michigan	Michigan Educational Assessment of Progress(MEAP)	o	
Mississippi	The Subject Area Testing Program (SATP)		O (High school graduation)
New York	The Regents exam		O (High school graduation)
Texas	The Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS)		O(promotion and high school graduation)
Virginia	Standards of Learning(SOL) tests		o(High school graduation)
Kansas		o	
Massachusetts	The Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System (MCAS)		o
New Mexico	The New Mexico High School Standards Assessment (NMHSSA) and the New Mexico High School Competency Examination (NMHSCE)		O (High school graduation)
California	California Standards Tests (CST)		O (student promotion and school accountability)

Note. States that do not test social studies: AK, AZ, AR, CO, CT, DC, FL, HI, ID, IL,IN IA, ME, MN, MO, MT, NE, NV, NH, NJ, NM, ND, OR, PA, RI, SD, UT, VT, WA and WY. States that test social studies at only high school level: AL, MD, MS, and NC. States that test social studies at more than two levels (middle and high school): CA, KS, MI, and TX. WV (middle and elementary). States that test social studies at all three levels (elementary, middle, and high school): DE, GA, KY, LA, MA, NY, OH, OK, SC, TN, VA, and WI. (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambre, 2012).

State-Mandated Testing Policy and Secondary Social Studies Teachers' Authority and Control in the Classroom

Two persistent factors arise from the studies on how state-level testing influences teacher authority and control in the classroom. The first, known as pedantic teaching, often carries heavy dependence on textbook or workbook for test preparation. The second, known as ambitious or powerful teaching is defined by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) as teaching important, related, and thematic knowledge, focusing on in-depth study of content, using a variety of

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authentic pedagogical and evaluation activities, and being committed to student-centered creative learning (Yeager, 2005; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). It usually challenges the teachers to examine their own established classroom practices (Grant, 2005; Salinas, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). Testing policy influences teachers' choice of sources, content, pedagogy, and assessment as they prepare their students for the state test. At the same time, under the context of state-level testing and mandated curriculum, teachers negotiate the curricular mandates and state-mandated test norms as they aim to teach creative, critical historical thinking and reasoning (Smith, 2006; Webeck et al., 2005).

This section will examine the two factors and will set it in relation to four main concerns: control over the selection of textbook and sources, control over the selection of content and curriculum, control over the selection of teaching techniques, and control over the evaluation methods.

Control over the Selection of Textbook and Sources

Research shows that high-stakes testing constrains and complicates secondary social studies teachers' choice of classroom textbook and sources. Larson (2005), in a case study of a high school social studies teacher in Washington where students were required to take state- and district-mandated exams, found that the teacher used a wide range of authentic and innovative sources including computer technology, and this provided students opportunities to develop intellectual, interpretative, and analytical skills and to challenge their already established opinions in his class.

Grant and Gradwell (2005) address the issue of the influence of high-stakes testing context on two New York state middle schools. The teachers in the two participating schools worked out of different contexts. One school was located in the suburban area of the city and the students were mostly white. The other school was in a

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high-poverty area, and most of the student population was racially, ethnically, socio-economically, linguistically, and academically diverse international students. Teachers in the high poverty school concentrated on and spent more time on test-preparation activities than the teachers from the wealthier school. A teacher in the high poverty school observed the following:

> I have to get them ready for the state exam next year, so I look occasionally at the state exam to see what types of things they give and try to get them to match mine, in that same format, so that [students] are used to it. Like all the CRQs we do, Constructive Response Questions, those I follow the same format as the test so I try to find some source that's similar to something they would put on there, on the state exam, and use that (p. 259).

The principal of the same school advised all teachers to "do whatever they can" (p.259) to improve students' test performance. The principal's request affected teacher choice of texts for classroom use (Grant & Gradwell, 2005).

Teachers in the wealthier school, did not select sources based on state test preparation. The test in the case had little effect on the choice of sources and instruction (Grant & Gradwell, 2005). The findings of Grant and Gradwell's (2005) research demonstrate that classroom decisions in these two New York middle schools were not only influenced by high-stakes testing circumstance, but also by the prevailing school context, and demographic characteristics of the student enrollment.

Teachers select classroom materials differently depending on whether the course is required and whether the course is subjected to testing mechanism. Secondary social studies teachers tend to use standard textbooks in the required courses that are tested, whereas they tend to make use of various and complex primary and secondary materials in untested classes (Gerwine & Visone, 2006).

Gerwin and Visone (2006) show the difference in secondary social studies teachers' choice of classroom documents as it relates to required and elective classes

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in the context of high-stakes New York state Regents exams. In the tested required classes, the teachers do not make frequent use of primary sources. Their main focus is textbook review for test preparation. However, in the untested elective courses, teachers mainly employ primary sources and authentic historical documents such as film, or photographs to promote higher-level thinking and reasoning, and critical evaluation of historical events.

While Gerwin and Visone (2006) reveal the explicit impact of high-stakes testing on secondary social studies/history teachers' selection of classroom materials by revealing the difference between the untested elective and state-tested required courses in selecting sources, Smith (2006) notes a different kind of dilemma facing teachers. High school social studies teachers in Virginia experience some significant conflict over the selection of classroom sources. On the one hand, teachers have to be able to produce what students can understand, analyze, and evaluate history. On the other, they have to be aware of the need to prepare students for the state-tests so that they can graduate from high school. Balancing both aims, teachers make their own decision. Textbooks are viewed as the best sources to help students prepare for the state tests, and for success with the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) outcomes. Many teachers, however, still made use of multiple primary sources such as media and written texts to help students interpret, analyze and critically evaluate history (Smith, 2006).

Control over the Selection of Curriculum and Content

State-level testing policy exerts a strong influence over teachers' decision-making in choosing curriculum and content to teach. At the elementary level, NCLB

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testing policy pushed teachers to give more time to the instruction of tested subjects like reading and language arts, mathematics, and science, but devalued and reduced the instructional time of social studies in many classrooms **(**Rock, Heafner, O'Connor, Passe, Oldendorf, Good, & Byrd, 2006; VanFossen, 2005). For instance, surveys showed that elementary teachers allotted 70-100% of their teaching time to instructing tested subjects like language arts and mathematics, while paying little attention to untested subjects, such as science and social studies (Sandholtz, Ogawa, & Scribner, 2004). On the other hand, at the middle and secondary levels, the problem is not that the subject matter is not taught or its teaching time is decreased (Grant et al, 2002; Sandholtz et al., 2004; Wineburg, 2005). Content areas like science and social studies are considered important elements of the entire curriculum at the secondary level because the subject areas are established as essential courses to meet requirements for graduation (Pace, 2011; Sandholtz et al., 2004).

The influence of state-level testing policy on teachers' control over curriculum and content shows up in various forms. The most common result narrows the instructional curriculum to cover only content that appears on the test, which leads to excessive time on test preparation, and teaching-to-the test strategies (Au, 2009; Crocco & Costigan, 2007;Grant et al., 2002; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Guggino & Brint, 2010; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005; Vogler, 2006). Segall (2003) notes that state-level tests have a negative influence on teachers' practices, causing teachers to engage in low-level intellectual work of covering items on the state test or simply following the scripted curriculum.

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Pressure on middle and high school social studies teachers to align their curriculum and teaching to the mandated standards and state tests is starkly evident in high-stakes testing environments such as California, Texas, Mississippi, New York, Kentucky, Massachusetts, and Virginia. Teachers and schools feel a lot of pressure from state-level testing policies. For instance, in a study of a school district in California, district administrators stressed the significance of the curriculum standards and pressured classroom teachers to align their curriculum to the district standards (Sandholtz et al., 2004). In Texas, the middle school teachers restructured their teaching around the curriculum frameworks, state-established standards and test formats in response to the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). This is especially problematic at the middle school level because in Texas districts are required to match their instruction to the norms of the TAKS so that their students can pass the state tests and achieve high scores (Burroughs et al., 2005; Webeck et al., 2005).

In Mississippi where social studies are tested at the high school level, high school social studies teachers reported that state-level testing policy exerted a great influence on the content taught, and the instructional techniques used in the classroom. One teacher said that most of her peer teachers consider the content that is tested on the exam as most important. The other teacher reported that his principal told him, "If it isn't on the test, don't teach it" (Burroughs et al., 2005, p.17). Teachers also train their students to memorize facts and to cram for tests. Districts compel teachers to employ test preparation programs, to have all classroom assessments reflect the state test, and to invest considerable time on conducting a pretest and a test. A teacher's job

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depends on students' test scores. They are told they will "lose their job if the scores don't come up" (Burroughs et al., 2005, p.17). The message conveyed to teachers by administrators and state-level testing system is that achieving proficient test scores results from good teaching (Burroughs et al., 2005).

Qualitative studies of high school history/social studies teachers in Virginia demonstrate that the high-stakes Standards of Learning (SOL) tests have a huge effect on the teachers' content decisions even though the influences surface differently from teacher to teacher (van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). The state-mandated tests apparently leverage control over teachers. The curriculum taught is created by the tests, not by the teachers. Although teachers might not feel the indirect and pervasive influence of the SOL tests on their teaching practice because they are so used to the context, the accountability mechanism has a clear impact on teachers (van Hover, 2006). Teachers explain that the state's curriculum framework serves as a guide for designing their curriculum and they need to teach the standards before the state-mandated test (van Hover & Heinecke, 2005).

As in other states that have high-stakes state tests, teachers in New York City also report high-stakes testing influences on their instruction. In New York, all 5th, 8th, 10th, and 11th graders are required to take Regents' examinations in social studies. Social studies teachers must go through the large amount of content at each grade level usually by using a teacher-directed approach to cover the curriculum in the standards. As educators in other states report, New York City high school teachers say that they teach only topics that appear on the test (Crocco & Costigan, 2007).

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The problems caused by state-level testing are not limited to high-stakes testing conditions. As Grant (2006b) and Segall (2003) note, the impact of state-mandated testing on secondary social studies teachers' content decision emerges regardless of the stakes attached to the test. Teachers show similar responses to different testing contexts, and most of the teachers report to modify their curriculum, to a large or small extent, according to state tests. But social studies teachers who teach under non-tested conditions, also feel pressure to make changes in their teaching and to focus on test preparation (Grant, 2006; Segall, 2003, 2006; Yeager & Pinder, 2006).

In low-stakes testing environments like Michigan, and Kansas, social studies teachers also feel compelled to align the curriculum to the state standards, and to emphasize student test scores (Segall, 2006; Clarke et al., 2003). Segall (2006) points out that "a test dictates curriculum decisions and drives rather than reflect teaching" (p.116). Even a low-stakes state test and its mandated curriculum restrict teachers' choice of certain topics to be taught and decisions on sequence of content. Michigan teachers view the test "as a restricting force" (Segall, 2006, p.116). For example, teachers complain that state tests make it impossible to implement innovative activities such as inviting guest speakers, going on field trips, or doing projects that require much time in their classrooms. Michigan educators devote their instruction to preparing for the state tests more than their peers do in Kansas (Clarke et al., 2003). The reason is that the test results are published by the media, and the reputation of a school district and its teachers and administrators depends on them. The Michigan Evaluation Assessment program (MEAP) influences the school-wide social studies

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curriculum, and plays a role in dictating the curriculum, the content taught and the instructional techniques used (Segall, 2006).

In states that do not have state-mandated social studies tests, like California (until eighth grade) and Florida, testing policy still affects secondary social studies teachers' classroom practices. Pace (2011) sheds light on the effect of accountability on practices of two middle school teachers in California where social studies is not tested until eighth grade. Ms. Roth and Ms. Berger are seventh grade history teachers at Vista Park Middle School, which serve diverse student population: African American students make up 42% of the entire student population, while 28% are white and 25% are Asian and Latino students. Although it is the wealthiest middle school in the district, its test performance is lower than those of some elementary schools in the district. A lot of their students have poor literacy skills, so both Ms. Roth and Ms. Berger are disposed to incorporate practice of literacy skills into their history instructions in order to enhance students' literacy abilities and test scores in English/language arts. Also, they teach to state content standards and have students develop notebooks to help them prepare for history-social science state tests taken at eighth grade.

Yeager and Pinder (2006) observed Florida high school social studies teachers still felt forced to adjust their teaching to the state test, even without state compulsion to take the test. Without the tests, teachers struggled to make sense of their roles as history teachers and to find the time and rationale to teach history. Some teachers testified to the practice of setting aside full school days for practicing the Florida Comprehension Assessment Test (FCAT). Some principals directed teachers to

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address a Sunshine State Standard objective at the beginning of class each day, or to force teachers to teach reading skills by some prescribed routine (Yeager & Pinder, 2006).

Another side-effect of the state testing is that state-mandated tests emphasize the importance of generic skills, which results in neglecting social studies content. Social studies teachers are forced to focus on practicing literacy skills instead of teaching history content in their classes. Pace (2011) indicates that two middle school history teachers in California put more emphasis on literacy strategies than content of history. Their students' literacy skills are very weak, so they think their students need to cultivate literacy skills and it could also contribute to the improvement of English test scores. A history writing assessment that is administered biannually districtwide drive the participants' teaching practices in the classroom. The history writing assessment is intended to focus on both historical thinking and literacy. According to Pace (2011), it "posed a challenge to teachers' disciplinary knowledge, and its implementation centered upon literacy skills more than historical understanding. Ms. Berger emphasized reading and writing skills such as using documents to support an argument, analysis, and organization, rather than on historical content or concepts." Pace (2011) concludes that "accountability-oriented discourse on developing reading and writing skills, which provided an entire curricular package, are regarded as major influences on gatekeeping."

The MEAP measures reading comprehension, writing skills, and general intelligence rather than knowledge of social studies, so the exam appears to reduce the value of the content of social studies (Segall, 2006). Accordingly, teachers concentrate

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on teaching the skills that are helpful to answer the types of items on a test. For example, if a test has open-ended items that require students to write, teachers give special attention to instructing writing skills (Burroughs et al., 2005).

Yeager and Pinder's (2006) study notes that high school history teachers in Florida tend to teach literacy skills essential to pass the FCAT. Two external factors contribute to this. First, in the absence of social studies content on the test, teachers do what they can to help students prepare for the FCAT tests. Schools typically demand teachers to make use of an FCAT-based lesson plan format and hand in their lessons to be examined every week. The lesson plan format includes a list of content to be taught, the instructional approaches, evaluation methods, and the alignment of the lesson with the state standards, and a list of the FCAT skills presented in each lesson. The principal expects faculty to instruct students in reading skills with the use of a scripted workbook for teaching literacy skills. Not surprisingly, teachers say that following the scripted workbook makes them feel unprofessional (Yeager & Pinder, 2006). Second, demographic factors play a strong role in influencing the nature of social studies instruction. Teachers serving high proportions of minority, non-native English speaking, and low-ability students are often compelled to focus on the development of literacy skills. A history teacher complains, "I do feel more like an English teacher than a history teacher sometimes" (Yeager & Pinder, 2006, p.260).

State-level testing pressure and curriculum mandates also affect teacher decision making in the area of sequencing content and instruction. High school teachers in Kentucky, for instance, state that test pressures result in in a chronological manner of history instruction, rather than a thematic one (Fickel, 2006). Curricular

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mandates of the MEAP have resulted in restructuring the school curriculum's scope and sequence, which meant that teachers taught topics in different orders. For instance, teachers used to teach government in 12th grade, but the MEAP asked students to include government in the 9th grade. Therefore, teachers had to cover government in 9th grade curriculum in order to let students perform well on the MEAP. Similarly, teachers highlighted geography and economics in their teaching because the MEAP included questions on those subject matters (Segall, 2006).

The main negative effect of high-stakes testing on teachers' instructional practices is use of curriculum guides or scripted curricula. Curriculum guides and pre-packaged curriculum generally reduce teaching to a low-level mechanical work (Segall, 2003; Hlebowitsh, 2005). Pace (2008) addresses that California fifth grade teachers in underachieving and high-poverty schools are required to comply with the scripted curriculum by administrators and evaluators. New teachers in New York City also report that administrators force teachers to follow prescribed curriculum and then evaluate them based on the degree of adherence they demonstrate to the teacher-proof curriculum, especially in low-income schools. Such control not only discourages teachers and impedes their professional and personal growth by depriving them of the opportunity to foster their own instructional philosophies and practices, but it also makes it difficult to meet individual learning needs and to pursue responsive goals for all students (Crocco & Costigan, 2007).

Van Hover (2006) also notes that high school social studies teachers in Virginia utilized curriculum guides developed by their own department. The curriculum or pacing guides delineated topics to be on the state tests, particularized the

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amount of days and class periods that teachers spend on each topic, and helped to plan what and when to teach (David, 2008; van Hover, 2006). Teachers show different responses to curriculum or pacing guides. Some novice teachers recognize that pacing guides work as guidance to help them design the content and pedagogy (Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2002). In van Hover's (2006) research, all teachers are not bound by the curricular guides, but they still freely use them in designing content to teach. Several teachers alter their curriculum guidelines. The curriculum guides serve a role that highlights the significance of the SOLs in planning the lesson. The effect of state influence on teacher judgment appears through curriculum guides when teachers make a decision about the topics to instruct, and when they intend to cover the topics and the crucial facts or intellectual skills (van Hover, 2006).

The another prevalent issue with state-level social studies testing facing social studies teachers at secondary level is they have to concentrate on breadth**,** sacrificing the depth of curriculum because of time constraint and too much content to cover (Clarke et al., 2003; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Grant, 2005; Guggino & Brint, 2010; Fickel, 2006; Pace, 2011; Sandholtz et al., 2004; Salinas, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). Secondary social studies teachers report that there is not enough time to teach higher-level, critical historical thinking beyond the mere coverage of content listed in the textbooks and tested on the exam (Grant et al, 2002; Salinas, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005; Wineburg, 2005).

Many studies explain the time pressure secondary social studies teachers encounter. Time pressures put on teachers are clearly evident in both low-stakes and

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high-stakes environments. In a case study of Texas high school teachers working in the high-stakes testing context, teachers reported that they should contract the curriculum to cover larger amounts of content (Salinas, 2006). Also, qualitative studies of high school history/social studies teachers in Virginia (van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005) indicate that the prominent issue caused by the high-stakes state-level Standards of Learning (SOL) tests is lack of enough time to instruct everything before the state tests. This time constraint prevents teachers from looking deeply into topics. However, it also causes teachers to cover topics rapidly and broadly (van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). The SOL tests and curriculum guide teachers' selection of content they teach. Virginia high school social studies teachers point out that there is too much content to get through for a given class time, so they manage the mandated curriculum by organizing relevant content and choosing reasonable amount of objectives they can teach (Smith, 2006).

In New York, the same concerns about social studies education appear at the middle school level. There is not enough time for social studies instruction, so social studies curriculum is integrated into the ELA curriculum. At the high school level, teachers express the problem that the social studies curriculum are too extensive to cover for a given class time. A high school teacher asserts that the testing pressure that he has to cover everything within a limited amount of time prior to state tests really influences his instruction. Although he wants to deal with certain topics which look interesting or are related to his students, he does not because they would not be part of the state test (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). In Grant's (2005) study, a history/social studies high school teacher in New York also faces lack of time to cover everything

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before the state test is administered, so she cuts back on some topics such as the Industrial Revolution.

Although Michigan and Kansas have low-stakes state tests, secondary social studies teachers are often overwhelmed by the amount of content that needs to be covered in the standards. The effect is they go fast, which is not always the best instructional strategy especially with low performing students. In reality, teachers noted that the state-level testing policy causes some low-performing students to not catch up with the class and be left behind, and prevents teachers and students from studying the topics thoroughly (Clarke et al., 2003).

While pedantic pedagogy dominates secondary social studies teachers' practices when influenced by state-mandated testing, research shows that social studies teachers can nevertheless be "dynamic decision-makers" (Grant, 2005) in the classroom and promote a more ambitious or wise method of teaching. Although it clashes with state testing systems, ambitious teaching is believed to foster higher-order historical thinking and reasoning skills in the classroom. In a case study taken from a New York high school, Paula, a third year global history teacher, says that she feels pressed to teach low-performing students test-taking strategies in order to help them pass the test. She feels conflicted in making a choice between ambitious teaching and test-driven teaching, but negotiates the problem and opts for ambitious teaching with topics that she thinks are important and interesting to her students (Grant, 2005; Grant et al., 2002).

Smith (2006) notes that teachers have not entirely aligned their teaching to the structure of the high-stakes SOL tests. Teachers teach content that is required by the

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state test. Teachers who work with students with low reading abilities tend to focus on comprehension approaches in order to help students understand key points and enhance their reading skills enough to comprehend the state test questions. Despite the effects of state-mandated testing, teachers are still able to uphold some professional standard for their students, such as instructing them to raise doubts on historical facts and to critique texts (Smith, 2006).

Teachers use ambitious social studies/history teaching practices in elective courses that are not tested and do not have state curriculum. Under the explicit effect of testing policy, teachers' choice of content and curriculum vary greatly between the tested required course and the untested elective course. Teachers tend to use pedantic teaching in required courses, while making use of more ambitious or powerful instruction in elective classes. In Gerwin and Visone's (2006) research, secondary social studies teachers in New York classrooms taught lessons aimed at helping students pass the state tests in the state-tested courses, whereas the course goals were characterized by various and complex instructional references in the elective courses. Teachers feel pressed to help their students pass the state exams, so they tend to spend considerable instructional time reviewing textbook questions and working through the state curriculum guide especially when teaching required classes.

Fickel's (2006) case study of the social studies department of Wilson County high school in central Kentucky also reveals variations in the decision making of social studies teachers between required and elective courses. In the required classes, the teachers pay attention to instruction of facts and information centering on exploration of European events and history, and construct the curriculum in a

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chronological manner. Also, teachers feel the need to cover the content for the state tests so that their students are knowledgeable about it. The elective social studies courses, however, aim to cover the historical events and concepts from the global and multiple perspectives. Generally speaking, teachers can exercise more freedom to choose what to teach in their elective courses than in required courses.

Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques

Scholars are divided over whether state-mandated tests affect social studies teachers' instructional decisions. Some scholars argue that state-level testing policy has no or little influence on social studies teachers' pedagogy. Segall (2006) contends that the MEAP influences teachers' content decisions on taught topics, but not the instruction used to teach the topic. Au (2009) asserts that it is hard to say that pedagogical approaches are completely altered by the effects of state-mandated testing policy (Au, 2009). Gradwell (2006), in a case study of a single teacher in New York, and Gerwin (2004) also support that high-stakes testing policy does not influence social studies teachers' pedagogical decision making.

Van Hover (2006) indicates in his qualitative research that Virginia's high-stakes accountability measures do not affect seven novice high school teachers' instructional decisions. The participating seven teachers infrequently used lecture, but made use of a wide range of pedagogical approaches such as group work, discussion, guided practice, and multiple student-centered activities in their daily teaching. Although teachers reported their pace of instruction was affected by the SOL tests, their teaching was not heavily influenced by high-stakes testing. More commonly, issues related to the block scheduling, new content, level of student achievement, and

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years of experience affected the nature of instruction. Smith (2006) also concluded that the SOL curriculum does not influence teachers' decision-making in the instructional approaches, and noted that teachers generally rely on lecture to convey knowledge.

On the contrary, findings of much research support explicit effects of state-mandated testing on teachers' pedagogical decisions. Fickel (2006) asserts that high-stakes testing prohibits and limits teachers' pedagogical decision making. By limiting teacher' choice of innovative practices and multifaceted content, and by compelling teachers to focus on teaching test-taking strategies, the state test narrows the content of the curriculum and dampens the opportunity to be exposed to a wide range of knowledge. The effect is that authentic, student-centered learning activities were used less often (Fickel, 2006). Several studies illustrate that high-stakes social studies testing climate simply lessens the frequency of student-centered and activity-based teaching styles, in the interest of enacting more teacher-centered instructions relying on textbook, lecture, recitation and memorization (Fickel, 2006; Segall, 2006, Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005).

The qualitative study of New York state secondary social studies teachers who worked under the pressure of high-stakes state testing (Grant et al, 2002) supports this claim. The instructional practices of the teachers were found to be aligned to test norms, with teachers focusing on practice test questions and teaching test-taking strategies. The participating teachers also reported that they spend about 2 to 6 weeks on test review before the June Regents exam (Grant et al, 2002).

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A study that surveyed 107 high school social studies teachers in Mississippi (Vogler, 2006) also showed the direct consequence that the test had on teacher instructional style. In most cases, teachers simply used their instructional time to prepare students for the high school exit exam. The survey results showed that teachers make use of teacher-centered instructional techniques such as text-based lecture and direct instruction than student-centered instruction like discussion, role play, problem-solving activities, project, research papers, and cooperative learning (Vogler, 2006).

A comparison of secondary social studies teachers' different choice of pedagogical techniques in the untested elective courses and state-tested mandatory courses clearly shows how testing has a great influence on social studies teachers' daily teaching practices and activities (Fickel, 2006; Gerwin & Visone, 2006). Gerwin and Visone (2006), in a qualitative study of two social studies teachers in New York classrooms, and Fickel (2006), in a case study of the social studies department in central Kentucky, indicate the teachers make use of more ambitious pedagogical practices in untested elective courses than in state-tested required courses. High school social studies teachers are devoted to spending a lot of time on test preparation in state-tested courses. Teachers go over textbook questions and homework assignments, give a lecture, deliver facts, focus on memorization and recitation, show a short video film, use primary sources, and do not encourage lengthy discussion. On the contrary, in the elective courses, the teachers use discussion mainly, show a whole or longer video film, and inspire students to engage higher-level thinking skills (Gerwin & Visone, 2006; Fickel, 2006). For example, in elective courses such as the

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Global issues course, teachers get students involved in learning activities such as a global issue survey, various group research projects, and simulations. Teachers choose instructional approaches out of their professional beliefs about teaching and learning. External forces lead teachers to do more lecturing and direct instruction in the required history courses (Fickel, 2006). In a school district where the teachers work have not forced teachers to use a specific textbook, a specific pedagogical approach, or a scripted curriculum, the district's professional development program educated teachers to match content to state tests and to develop midterm or final exams that mirrored the state-mandated tests. Even as teachers are given freedom to choose their own teaching goals, methods, and assessments in their courses, the district emphasized success on state tests and test scores, which likely led to the use of pedantic pedagogy (Gerwin & Visone, 2006).

Time issue relevant to the extensive curriculum not only affects content taught, but also influences teachers' pedagogical choice. At the high school level, New York teachers observed that the social studies curriculum is too comprehensive to fully cover, so the only option they have is to use a fast moving lecture technique. State testing, as noted, exacerbates the problem. A high school social studies teachers in New York complained that he had to remove collaborative activities because it took too much time and patience (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). Additionally, some high school social studies teachers in Virginia stated that pressures to cover an extensive range of topics limited the amount of time to teach and compelled them to employ teacher-centered instruction and lecture. A teacher explained that she commonly used

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projects and cooperative learning activities, but could only employ lecture and discussion because of time demands (van Hover & Heinecke, 2005).

While researchers argue differently on whether state-level testing policy affects or is associated with teachers' influence over the selection of pedagogical approaches, I would contend that social studies teachers' decision in the choice of instructional techniques tends to be made based on their own beliefs, their professional knowledge, and their interpretation of external pressures. Research evidence supports the idea that teachers implement some student-centered and project-based activities according to their beliefs (Fickel, 2006; Larson, 2005; Webeck et al., 2005). In Texas, under high-stakes testing circumstances, an eighth-grade U.S. history teacher and social studies department head made wide use of a variety of student-centered and teacher-centered instructional strategies. State tests can act as a constraint, but teachers still have the choice to go forward with an ambitious pedagogy (Webeck et al., 2005). Also, in a qualitative study of high school social studies department in central Kentucky, Fickel (2006) found innovative collaboration in a number of high-stakes testing settings. The department creates a required class for the new freshmen to provide an opportunity for in-depth, conceptual learning. In this course, teachers use more student-centered activities including comprehension and construction of maps and graphs, public speaking, simulations, proposal and oral presentations, and cooperative learning (Fickel, 2006). Larson's (2005) case study of a single teacher in Washington, where state tests are mandated, also demonstrated that the social studies teachers can enact exemplary inquiry approaches to teaching.

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Under testing policy demands, teachers typically have discretionary latitude to use their classrooms as their private sphere where they can make content and instructional decisions (Grant, 2005; Smith, 2006). Virginia high school teachers reported that they focus their teaching on SOL preparation so that their students can receive high school diploma, but that they do not always rely on lecture and prefer using multiple instructional methods. Teachers experience conflicts between the need to transmit knowledge through lecture for test preparation often under time constraints and the need to teach for critical understanding (Smith, 2006).

Control over Evaluation and Assessment of Students

Findings from various studies indicate that state-mandated testing affects the selection of evaluation approaches quite prominently. Gerwin and Visone (2006) note differences in teacher selection of assessment methods between required and elective courses. In state-tested required classes, social studies teachers tend to use multiple-choice tests and focus on reviewing course materials and preparing students how to write an essay for the state test. On the other hand, in the elective courses, teachers rarely use multiple-choice exams, but instead evaluate their students based on lengthy writing essay exams that are designed to encourage students to reflect upon their own perspectives. Teachers in New York classrooms use more ambitious evaluations in their untested elective classes than in their state-tested required courses (Gerwin & Visone, 2006).

According to van Hover (2006), the Virginia high-stakes state exams influence beginning teachers' assessment decisions. Secondary social studies teachers assert that the SOL tests have a powerful impact on certain assessment decisions (van Hover,

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2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). Lack of time to cover the state standards prior to the state tests forces teachers to eschew performance-based evaluations, and to embrace multiple-choice exams that use a test format that can be graded quickly and efficiently (van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). If their students perform poorly on the SOL tests, teachers and administrators will be blamed for low test scores and their job security might be in jeopardy. Thus, the design of the state tests exercises considerable influence over teaching practices (Smith, 2006).

Technically, Virginia teachers have the power to determine their own unit assessments. Teachers use multiple ambitious evaluation formats like group projects, presentations, debates, essay writing, but they also employ their unit tests regularly. The unit tests are comprised of the 50 fact-recall, multiple-choice items and follow the end-of-year SOL test formats. Teachers tend to want to give questions that can help students become familiar with the multiple-choice, fact-recall test formats that they will see on the high stakes test routines (van Hover, 2006). Even teacher-made exams must include the content dictated by the SOL curricula. Teachers are required to write formative tests and unit assessments that match the SOL essential questions and learning objectives. Some teachers perceive the mandated documentation of unit assessments "as a violation of their individuality, creativity, and professionalism" (Smith, 2006, p.242). Others believe it is needed to support students for state test preparation (Smith, 2006).

Smith (2006) observed that a high school social studies teacher reported that her high school's social studies department had to match pedagogical approaches to SOL objectives and do the same with assessments (Smith, 2006). The teacher drew an

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analogy to factory by noting that the government was "manufacturing work" (Smith, 2006, p.239). The 'manufacturing' reference is linked to the principle of scientific management, which considered teachers as assembly line workers and administrators as managers who supervise and watch them. This analogy of schools with factory is associated with the 'new Taylorism' articulated by Au (2011), who asserts that increasingly our nation's schools are operating under the system similar to the principle of scientific management. As Au (2011) and Smith (2006) point out, the state testing system drives teachers to work under mandatory dictates from top down authorities instead of from a basis of shared understanding and professional judgment.

Fickel's (2006) qualitative study of Wilson County High school located in Kentucky also demonstrated the impact of state testing policy on teachers' use of assessment practices. Previous year's test results in Kentucky indicated that student test scores significantly declined. The low test scores frustrated teachers. The school district noticed that their course curricula seemed to match with the core content document, but they found that they did not use much of the open-response type questions that commonly appear on the state test. They aimed to alter the assessment strategies used in the school to better acquaint students with high stakes test formats. In class, teachers taught their students how to answer and practice open-response questions, and how to construct a well-integrated single-paragraph response (Fickel, 2006).

Several studies also show that ambitious assessments can also emerge under the influence of state testing. Teachers call into question dictates of state testing when teaching in their private classrooms. Some teachers think of the state tests as "a form

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of hegemony that a white middle class controls people of other races and classes and enhance their group's power" (Smith, 2006, p.241). In spite of external force of state-level testing, teachers maintain the implementation of a wide variety of performance based assessments, containing writing assignments, research projects, oral reports, group presentations, and other kinds of innovative assessments in their practices (Burroughs et al., 2005; Larson, 2005). Secondary social studies teachers generally believe that standardized tests may efficiently measure what students know about factual information, but they caution against the use of single test in making such a judgment (Burroughs et al., 2005).

State-Level Testing and School Environmental Factors (School Context, Poverty Levels, and Minority Enrollment Levels)

Much research points out that the instructional authority of teachers is limited in schools where large percentages of ethnic and racial student minorities are enrolled, and where low-income students are disproportionately enrolled (e.g., Burroughs et al., 2005; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Ogawa, Sandholtz, Martina-Flores, & Scribner, 2003; Segall, 2006; Wills, 2007).

In a study of an item analysis of two standardized exams, Popham (2001) found that 45 percent of the social studies test items are related to socioeconomic backgrounds of students. Segall (2006) also supports the relation of state testing to the socio-economic factors of students. The MEAP predominantly assesses socio-economic aspects of students, so the test results are associated with students' socio-economic backgrounds. Teachers feel the MEAP measures teachers based on elements such as SES over which they exert little influence.

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District-level and administrative curriculum control and constraint are imposed on social studies teaching disproportionately in low-performing schools which also serve high proportions of minority students from low-income households (Pace, 2011). Several studies provide clear examples of constraint placed on teacher instructional judgment in low-performing schools (e.g., Burroughs et al, 2005; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Segall, 2006; Wills, 2007). A secondary social studies teacher in Michigan, for instance, reported that because the reputations of schools are determined by MEAP test scores performances, his social studies department chair gave him specific order to teach-to-the MEAP and to cover the content on the state tests in a timely way. In a low-income district, where student test scores are low, building administrators tend to see professional development in terms that result in explicit attention being paid to test preparation. Teachers view the exam as a pressure that suppresses their freedom to do certain practices and activities in their classrooms. Teachers report that they cannot invite in guest speakers, go to field trips, or allow students to participate in activities involving a great deal of time (Segall, 2006).

Grant and Gradwell's (2005) study shows how middle school history teachers' authority is constrained when working in a low-income, low-performing schools. According to Grant and Gradwell, teachers who serve racially, socioeconomically, and linguistically diverse student populations, with poor ELA test scores, selects classroom texts based on the administrators' requests for raising test scores and norms of the state tests.

Similarly, Burroughs et al (2005) indicate that in low-performing schools, administrators force teachers to adjust their teaching to the TAKs frameworks and

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objectives. Wills' (2007) research of a low-income, rural school in California show that teachers struggle to teach social studies content that appears on the test without encouraging learning that is tied to lifting a test score. In a study of history-social studies teaching under test-based accountability in California, Pace (2008) showed that teachers who work in high-performing, low-minority and low-poverty schools hold and exercise greater levels of professional authority and liberty, and devote more time to social studies teaching than those serving low-performing, low-income schools with large proportions of working-class, and minority students. Teachers who serve working-class students of color at low-performing schools are especially pressured to teach prescribed curriculum. Their freedom to choose the content taught and pedagogy is clearly constrained by administrators. Teachers confirmed this condition directly by noting that "if our test scores drop, we're going to be in trouble" (Pace, 2008, p.33).

Social studies instructional time and quality are influenced by student demographics such as student social class and ability levels (Burroughs et al, 2005; Smith, 2006; Yeager & Pinder, 2006). An ethnographic study of Virginia high school social studies teachers (Smith, 2006) showed how student performance levels affected the instructional decisions of teachers and their devotion to the state-mandated tests. The diverse reading abilities of the students made it difficult for teachers to teach students to read critically. A teacher reported, "A lot of them are nonreaders or they may be able to decode the word so they can say it, but they have absolutely no idea what it means when they look at the whole sentence. They can't even decode a question" (p.235). Her point is that students might know the content, but that their low reading proficiency represents an obstacle for passing the SOL tests.

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In a study of history teachers in two Florida high schools, Yeager and Pinder (2006) demonstrated that contextual factors such as student demographics substantively affected teacher decisions on what to teach and how to teach. High school history teachers in Florida, where social studies is excluded from statewide testing policy, were compelled to focus on improving literacy skills even as they taught the social studies content. Their schools serve low-achieving diverse student population consisting of a mix of African American, Hispanic, white, and Asian students. Teachers of non-native English speakers in the study focused on more developing the literacy abilities of the students than on history content knowledge. Teachers in the study were asked to submit lesson plans reflecting state tests every week. Each lesson plan included a list of content, the instructional approaches and assessments used, the state standards covered, and a list of the skills required for the state tests. The school administrator ordered teachers to instruct reading skills that focused on state test and to use a scripted literacy skills workbook twice a week (Yeager & Pinder, 2006).

Another problem that constrains teacher authority and control in low-income urban schools is the common and often mandated practice of scripted teaching. A study of job satisfaction and attrition rates among New York City teachers (Costigan, 2004) found that educators in low-performing middle schools were not even allowed to exercise much choice in selecting responsive teaching practices. Instead, they were given and expected to use "scripted lessons" designed by educational publishers and test preparation companies (Costigan, 2004, p. 140). Scripted lessons literally attempt to script every detail of a teacher's language and behavior (Costigan, 2004; Hlebowitsh,

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2005). According to Crocco and Costigan (2007), administrators commonly force teachers in high-poverty schools to use scripted lessons that cover Regent exam items, and teachers commonly complain that such a practice comes at the cost of more in-depth study and vital student-centered activities. A high school social studies teacher in New York City notes the problem:

> The Regents really shapes the way I run the class . . . I have to cut out certain cooperative activities because they're time consuming. It definitely affects my teaching. It's always in the back of your mind. . . . Certain topics I would expand on, especially if they were relevant to the kids or of particular interesting to me, but I don't because they're not tested on it. (Crocco & Costigan, 2007, p. 521)

Mandating teachers to teach pre-scripted lessons obviously comes at the cost of professional judgment and flexibility and makes it difficult for teachers to deal with the emergent condition of the classroom (Costigan, 2004; Hlebowitsh, 2005). Teachers who work in high-poverty urban schools feel this effect most profoundly (Crocco & Costigan, 2007).

Interestingly, a different situation seems to prevail in high-performing schools. Wills (2007) raises doubts on whether this type of constraint imposed instruction is also happening in affluent, low-minority schools. Pace (2011) confirms that the instruction of social studies teachers in low-performing schools is more restrained by testing policy than in high-performing, high-income schools.

Hess (2005) also observes teachers in a high school serving middle- and upper-class students maintain and even enhance their powerful teaching practices even as they give due attention to the skills considered most important on the state tests. However, in schools that show poor or unsatisfactory test results, teachers are strongly compelled to modify their pedagogy in the direction of the state exams. Hess (2005) concludes that students in affluent schools tend to engage in wise or ambitious practices, whereas those

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in low-income schools are more likely to receive pedantic and teacher-centered instruction generally rationalized as good for raising test scores.

Additionally, Grant and others (2002) show that teachers have considerable instructional freedom in high-performing schools. They contend that although they find some narrowing of curriculum, and a modicum of instruction designed to enhance test-taking skills, they did not see teachers in high-performing schools altering their instruction to match the frameworks of the state tests. They suggest one of the reasons that the teachers made little changes in their practices had to do with their confidence in the test performance skills of their students.

State-Level Testing and Teachers' Sense of Professionalism

Numerous research studies demonstrate that state-mandated testing affects the manner in which secondary social studies teachers select textbooks, content topics and skills to be taught, instructional techniques, and evaluation methods. Furthermore, it is clear that state testing has an especially profound effect in suppressing teacher authority in low-income, high-minority, and low-performing schools. While these issues are very important to address, what deserves more attention is the obvious impact that state-level testing policy has on how teachers interpret themselves as professionals.

A fundamental principle of test-based accountability and standardized curriculum is derived from the doctrine of business efficiency, scientific management, hierarchical bureaucracy and centralized supervision, which was prevalent during the early 1900s (Au, 2011; Savage, 2003), as well as from behaviorist theory, which is grounded in the belief that high-stakes testing policy will result in improved instructional practices and higher student academic performance (Vogler & Virtue, 2007). According to Au (2011), a "New Taylorism" controls teachers' work in the U.S. public schools today. Au explains that John Franklin Bobbitt's scientifically managed education regards students as raw materials, teachers as factory workers required to follow the guidance of administrators, and administrators as authoritative directors that supervise and order teacher behavior.

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When teachers are literally not allowed to make decisions with something as basic as the selection of instructional methods, all of the control usually falls to the administrators, who prescribe the specific approaches to teaching and urge teachers to use them (Au, 2011).

The nature of the teaching is of course different from factory work. Factory workers use the same materials to make each product; the characteristics of their materials do not affect their rate of production. Teachers, however, must work with students who have diverse characteristics and backgrounds. Individual students vary by intelligence, home environments, work ethic and so much more (Berk, 1988; Savage, 2003).

Test-based accountability, complete with its scripted curriculum and standardization of teaching, is based on a business model of education and on the logic of behaviorist theory (Au, 2011; Guggino & Brint, 2010; Ingersoll, 2003; Segall, 2003; Segall, 2006). Segall (2006) claims that "standardized testing engages or violates teachers' sense of being" (p.125), and affects teachers' perceptions of themselves "as professionals, as decision-makers, as autonomous beings in charge of what happens in their classrooms" (p.125). The latent curriculum that the state tests convey is "the disempowerment and disenfranchisement of teachers" (Segall, 2006, p.125). Wills and Sandholtz (2009) employ the term "constrained professionalism" to describe the condition that many teachers find themselves in, as they face mandates that remove basic professional privileges. It may be difficult for teachers to educate their students when their perception of themselves as professionals is compromised and when they are deprived of influence and power. This sense of powerlessness may have a significant influence on the implicit curriculum communicated to students (Segall, 2006).

State-mandated testing obviously influences the professional involvement of the teachers in classroom decision. It also affects the professional identity of the teacher. Secondary social studies teachers in Michigan stated that the MEAP always affects their

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classroom decision-making. Teachers of world history courses, for instance, could not conduct in-depth discussions about issues such as the Middle Ages, or the Crusades because these topics were not covered on the test (Segall, 2006). Additionally, middle school social studies teachers in Texas were denied the opportunity to implement authentic learning for students, but were commonly given time for test-related professional development (Burroughs et al., 2005). In a survey study of California teachers, teachers who reported being compelled to teach scripted lessons, and teach exclusively to state standards and state tests, also reported lower morale and motivation, and more on-the-job stress (Guggino & Brint, 2010). The circumstances of state-level testing and curricular mandates demonstrate that teachers are not treated as professionals who possess professional expertise, but subordinates who should follow what top-down authority dictates.

The gap between the view of good teaching held by social studies teachers and the view held by the state certainly leads to two very different commitments to teacher authority and control. Many teachers think tests do not validly represent their students' improvement. They argue that classroom accomplishment is best shown when students are promoted to the next grade and ultimately graduated from school. The view of good teaching held by administrators usually corresponds with the kind of teaching promoted by teaching-to-the test pressures (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). van Hover and Heinecke (2005) observed that some high school social studies teachers in Virginia experienced a conflict between what was best for lifting state test scores and what was, in fact, wise history/social studies practice. The state tests in Virginia stress the importance of memorization of historical facts and correct answers, but the teachers think it important to develop historical thinking, and to deeply understand and analyze history. Administrators evaluate teachers based on the percentage of students that pass the state tests, so it causes teachers to focus more on test preparation. Time dedicated to professional development follows the same logic (van Hover & Heinecke, 2005).

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The most crucial aspect of good teaching is to use a variety of teaching techniques (Hlebowitsh, 2005). Forcing teachers to teach a scripted curriculum and to use a standardized mechanical teaching approach will not lead to responsive and professional-rationalized instruction, because the option for creative and professionally autonomous judgment is stymied. Researchers stress that test-based accountability diminishes the discretionary latitude that teachers need for their personal and professional improvement, and that in the end, allows them to design their own curriculum and develop their own teaching practices (Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Hlebowitsh, 2005). Testing policy and curricular mandates dispossess teachers of opportunities to select and use a wide range of pedagogical methods, to dig into the subject matter profoundly, and to teach students high-level, critical thinking skills beyond the mere memorization of facts (Clarke et al., 2003; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Smith, 2006; Vogler, 2006). When teachers are urged to teach scripted lessons and to cover only test sensitive materials, they are denied their most basic professional right, which is to the use of their expertise. And this comes at the cost of their professional identity and morale, which leads to lower levels of job satisfaction and higher rates of teacher attrition (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). Crocco and Costigan (2007) indicate that novice teachers who are prevented from exercising creativity, flexibility and professional discretion often feel discouraged and leave the profession. This happens more often to teachers working in low-income schools. Many studies demonstrate that when social studies teachers are treated as professionals, they actively respond to, negotiate and sometimes resist the influence of state curriculum and tests (e.g.; Smith, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005 ;Webeck et al., 2005). In these cases, secondary social studies teachers strive to implement ambitious or wise practices that are based on content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of pedagogical methods, and knowledge of students and educational contexts (Grant, 2005; Salinas, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). They use primary sources to teach critical thinking, and employ a wide variety of pedagogical methods and assessment approaches

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to develop students' ability to interpret, analyze, and critically evaluate historical events (Smith, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005).

Although testing pressures on secondary social studies teachers often compel them to focus on test preparation, some educators still try to exercise their own professional authority. Curriculum and pedagogical decisions made in the semi-privacy of the classroom carry a certain range of freedom. In this sense, social studies teacher professionalism is not entirely stifled nor lost under the pressures of state-level testing policy.

Conclusion and Conceptual Framework – What Are the Implications of Previous Literature on Secondary Social Studies Teachers' Authority for the Current Study?

The studies reviewed in this chapter provide seven key conclusions. First, teacher authority is one of the crucial components that teachers possess as professionals. Second, greater teacher authority and control generate positive outcomes. It improves the professional lives of teachers, the quality of their teaching and school climate, and some indicators of student learning and achievement. Third, teachers' knowledge of content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational circumstances serves as a basis for exercising their authority over their teaching practices, coping efficiently with testing pressure, and conducting wise practices in a state-mandated testing context. Teachers' knowledge and ability to attend to student learning and to confront the challenge state-level testing reform brings about, such as narrowed and scripted curriculum, and teaching to the standards and tests, are closely connected to their academic background, licensure paths, and teaching experience. Fourth, teachers in private and charter schools tend to have more freedom to choose what they do in the classroom than public school teachers working in neighborhood schools. Fifth, although social studies testing policy varies among states, the mere existence of the state tests tends to negatively affect the range of professional authority granted to secondary social studies teachers. The effects of state-

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level testing policies on the social studies teachers vary across school locality and demographic context. Sixth, state-level mandated testing results have much to do with socioeconomic status of students. Secondary social studies teachers working in low-income, high-minority, and underachieving schools are simply more constrained than those working in high-income, low-minority, and high-performing schools. Social studies teachers in underprivileged schools tend to be forced to use pedantic teaching, and to focus on teaching literacy skills and test preparation in the classroom. Finally, state-level testing policy not only influences the professional authority and decision-making power of social studies teachers, it affects their professionalism. Decrements in the professionalism of secondary social studies teachers lead to lower levels of job satisfaction, and higher rates of teacher turnover. While state testing policies generally restrain the professional sense of being for educators, many educators nonetheless make efforts to actively respond to, and negotiate state testing influences and find a way to exercise professional judgment, and conduct an ambitious or wise teaching method.

The conceptual framework depicted in Figure 2 explains the relationship between state-level testing, school environments, teacher-level factors and the professional authority and control of educators. First, Arrow **A** shows the various interstate social studies testing policies that affect schools. These testing policies also put direct pressure on secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **B**) and affect the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority (Arrow **I**). School players interpret and implement testing regimentation according to organizational factors, such as school sector (public, charter, or public school), school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and school context (urban, rural, or suburban). District and school administrators convey a message to teachers that typically highlights the importance of the state testing, which is reflected in the nature of in-service development meeting, review sessions for the state tests, and various instructional dictates, such as a scripted teaching (Arrow **C**). Principals are more likely to pressure secondary social

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studies teachers who serve low-performing students in low-income and high-minority schools to focus on test preparation. In this way, school environmental factors are associated with the self-reported levels of teachers' classroom authority (Arrow **H**). Research supports that regardless of the stakes attached to the state-level tests, state-level testing policy tends to affect secondary social studies teachers' control over their classroom tasks. Social studies teachers make sense of, and respond to administrative dictates based on their professional identity, and their knowledge of content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational context (Arrow **D** and **E**). Arrow **F** indicates the direct relationship between the teacher-level factors and the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority. Teachers respond to the constraints imposed on their authority and control and perceive the levels of their authority depending on the nature of their degree background, the nature of their certification, and the number of years in the profession of teaching. They simply follow state or administrative dictates or endeavor to negotiate through them (Arrow **G**).

The present study will test and examine the following three theoretically based hypotheses through hierarchical multiple regression in the subsequent chapters. First, teachers' professional characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background, the nature of their certification, and the number of years in the profession of teaching, make contributions to the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **F**). I hypothesized that teachers' professionalism and professional authority can be enacted on the basis of their expertise in content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational contexts. The level of expertise can be inferred from teachers' degree background, the nature of their certification, and their teaching experience. Second, school environmental factors, such as the type of school (public/private/charter), school context (urban/suburban/rural), school poverty levels, and minority enrollment levels, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **H**).

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Third, the existence of mandated state test for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the use of state test results on job security predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers (Arrow **I**).

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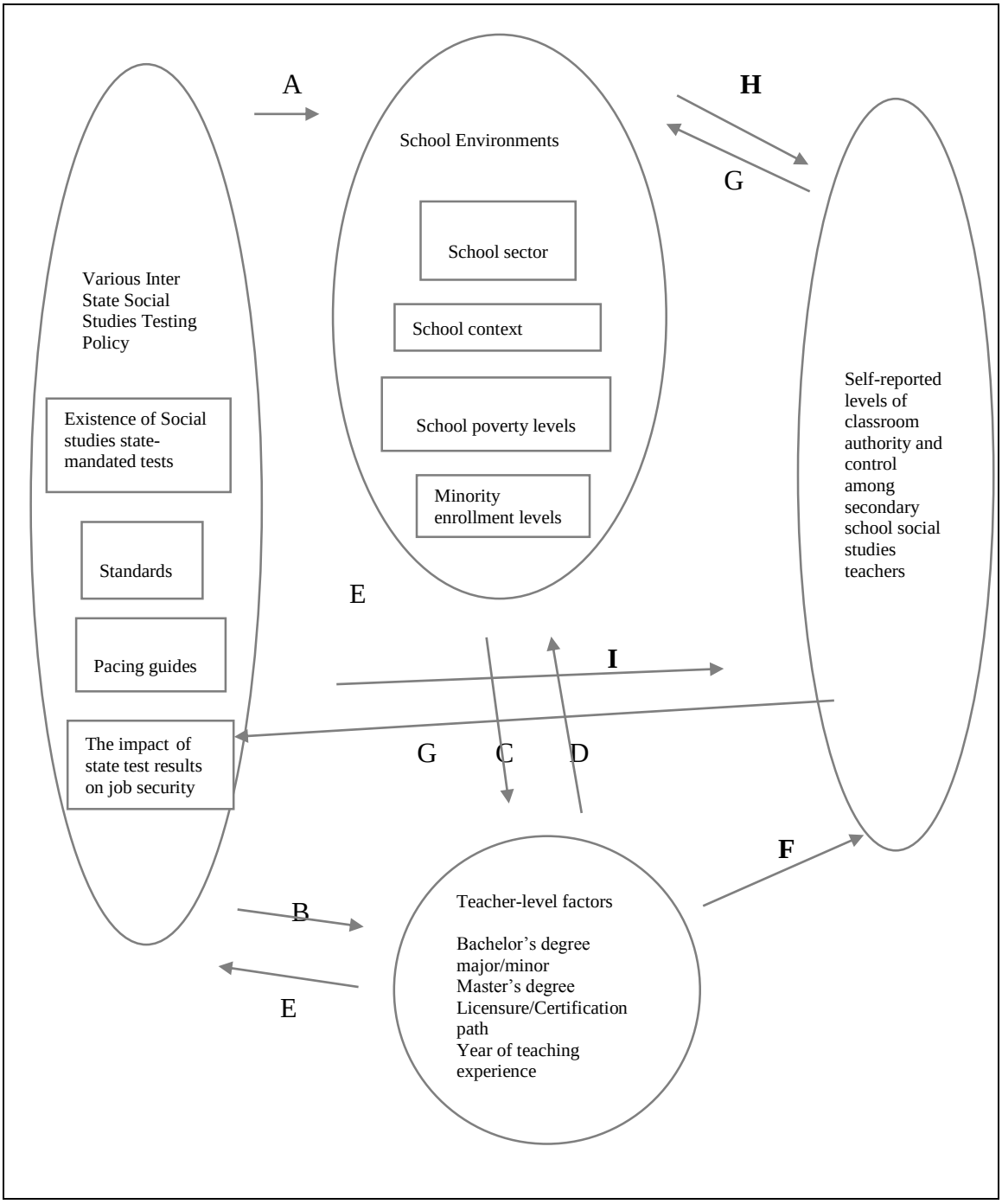

Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework of the Relationship between Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and State Testing Policy and Self-Reported Levels of Professional Authority and Control of Secondary Social Studies Teachers

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CHAPTER III.
METHODS

The intention of this study is to empirically examine the association of teacher-level and school-level factors, as well as factors related to state-level testing policy, on secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority and control. This chapter consists of five sections. The first section explains the details of the data source, the data collection process, and the analytic samples for the Survey of the Status of Social Studies (S4). The second section presents variables. The third section details the empirical framework of the study. The fourth section presents analysis strategy of the study. The final section explains the limitations of this study.

Description of Data Source and Analytic Samples

This study utilizes the Survey of the Status of Social Studies (S4). Qualitative research constitutes most of prior research of social studies teachers' work (Fitchett & Vanfossen, 2013). Few studies have been found that surveyed the discipline of social studies to examine teacher attributes and professional perspectives (Leming, 1991). Considering the small numbers of findings of previous large-scale social studies research, the Survey of the Status of Social Studies (S4) was created by and for social studies educators, and was intended to examine social studies teachers' characteristics, professional attitudes, and social studies education to look into "the professional world of social studies education" (Fitchett & Van Fossen, 2013, p.9). The S4 was created to offer generalizable findings that can explain the fundamental reasons for social studies teaching and to add further insights into how to nurture prospective educators (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013).

In 2010, the S4 was conducted. It asked teachers from 44 states questions about their curriculum and instruction via their work email, and received responses from K-12 social studies teachers (n=11295) in those states. The District of Columbia, Hawaii,

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Missouri, New Mexico, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming did not participate in the study. Teachers were sampled through stratified, random sampling techniques in five states (Florida, Indiana, Kansas, Ohio, and Wisconsin), and an average response rate was 50%. The remaining 39 states used convenience samples with an average response rate of below 25 %. In order to see whether response rates variations would contribute significant error to a cross-state comparative analysis, a post hoc test was conducted to compare responses from states that employed stratified, random sample to responses from states that used convenience sampling. Results showed that there are not statistically significant practical differences ($\eta^2 < 0.02$) between the groups. The S4 survey data were collected from the large sample, so the study has high statistical power and provides the largest data ever collected on US social studies teachers' school demographics, instructional methods, and what they teach (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013).

This study utilized middle, junior high (6-9) and high school (9-12) social studies teachers (N=6,703) from the S4 as an analytic sample. The analytic sample of the original S4 data includes a total of 3,145 middle and junior high school teachers, and a total of 3,557 high school teachers, respectively. List-wise deletion of missing data was used. Therefore, the total teacher samples available for the analysis are reduced after entering all the predictor and criterion variables at each middle and junior high level (6-9th grade), and high school level (9th-12th grade). Table 3.1 lists the analytic sample sizes for the S4 data.

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Table 3.1. Analytic Sample Sizes by Criterion Variables

	Control over the selection textbook	Control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught	Control over the selection of which parts of curriculum to emphasize in the instruction	Control over the selection of teaching techniques	Control over the evaluation and grading of students	Overall control over the collective five areas of planning and teaching
Middle and Junior High(6-9th grade)	1,688	1, 688	1, 689	1,687	1,675	1,699
High (9-12th grade)	2,511	2,504	2, 507	2, 509	2,497	2,521

Note. The discrepancy in the analytic sample sizes used in the regression analysis is a result of missing values.

Missing Data

The SPSS software automatically performs the list-wise deletion of records with missing data. List-wise deletion of missing data is a technique that excludes cases from an analysis because of a missing value in at least one of the specified variables. The analysis is only run on cases which have a complete set of data. Therefore, list-wise deletion may not only reduce sample size and statistical power, but also produce biased results (Graham, 2009; Lynch, 2003). However, Lynch (2003) suggests that if the number of missing cases on any particular variable amounts to less than 5%, excluding missing cases (list-wise deletion) is an appropriate method that will not adversely influence the integrity of the statistical results. For this study, all the variables other than minority enrollment levels in the teacher samples of middle and junior high schools (6-9th grade) and high schools (9-12th grade) have less than 3.5% and 3.1% missing respectively, so list-wise deletion is an appropriate method to deal with missing data (Lynch, 2003). Minority enrollment levels have 11.3% missing in

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the teacher sample of middle and junior high schools and 11.4% missing in that of high schools, so missing data analysis was performed to see if the variable is missing completely at random (MCAR), which indicates "the missing data mechanism is ignorable" (Lynch, 2003, p.1), and thus list-wise deletion is a suitable method to be used by comparing the means between missing cases and non-missing cases (Allison, 2002).

In the teacher sample, at a p-value of 0.05, independent t tests yielded no statistically significant differences between subjects with missing data on minority enrollment levels and those with valid minority enrollment levels. Because the subjects with missing values are not different than the subjects without missing values, which indicates the missing values are completely random, list-wise deletion is the best method that will not generate biased results for regression analysis (Allison, 2002).

The Variables

Outcome variable

The outcome, criterion variable, is the self-reported levels of secondary school social studies teachers' classroom authority and control over six categories: 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching. The survey asked teachers to respond to the five-part S4 question "How much actual control do you have in the classroom at this school over the following areas of your planning and teaching: selecting textbook and other materials; selecting content topics and skills to be taught; choosing which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in my instruction; selecting teaching techniques; evaluating and grading students." Respondents reported on the extent they

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have control over classroom work using a Likert scale along four conditions - a great deal of control, moderate control, minor control, and no control. I converted the scales to range from 1- 4 (1 means teachers have no control, and 4 means teachers have a great deal of control). I used both the self-reported degree of teacher authority and control in each category individually. I also aggregated all the five categories of teacher control in developing the construct of teacher authority. A Cronbach's alpha analysis showed this construct was moderately reliable (α=.73 for a construct of middle and junior high school teachers' authority; α=.74 for a construct of high school teachers' authority).

Predictor Variables

Predictor variables are classified into teacher-level, school-level, and testing policy factors. At teacher-level, I include teachers' academic degree background, such as bachelor's degree major or minor in and master's degree in a social studies related discipline, certification status, and years of teaching experience for predictor variables. At school-level, I include school sector (public/charter/private), school poverty levels, percent of non-white students enrolled in schools, and school context (urban/suburban/rural). At testing policy-level, existence of mandated state test on social studies in middle and junior high school (6-9th grade) or high school levels (9-12th grade), the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, the effect of state test results on job security and use of pacing guides are contained as predictor variables. Nominal predictor variables are dummy coded for hierarchical multiple regression analysis, as listed in Table 3.2.

The following constitutes a complete list of all the S4 variables utilized for this study.

Demographic Control Variables

Gender -1) Male; 2) Female

Race - variable employs the following racial categories:

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1) American Indian or Alaskan Native; 2) Asian/Pacific; 3) Black/African American; 4) Latin American/Hispanic; 5) White, Non-Hispanic

Predictor Variables

Teacher-level factors

Academic degree background

Bachelor's degree major in 1)A social studies related field; 2) education; 3) a non-social studies related field; 4) I don't have a Bachelor's degree

A minor in 1) A social studies related field; 2) education; 3) a non-social studies related field; 4) I don't have a minor

Master's degree in 1) A social studies related field; 2) education; 3) a non-social studies related field; 4) I don't have a Bachelor's degree

Certification/Licensure path

1) I was licensed after attending a four-year teacher preparation program.
2) I was licensed as part of a Master's degree program.
3) I was licensed as part of a five-year program
4) I was licensed as part of a post – baccalaureate program.
5) I was licensed through emergency certification.
6) I was licensed through an alternative program not listed above.
7) At this time, I am not licensed.

Number of Years Taught (0-40)

School-level factors

School type 1) public; 2) charter; 3) private (including parochial)

School Context 1) Urban/City; 2) Suburban; 3) Rural/Small Town

The Socio-economic status of most students in my school

1) High-income; 2) Upper Middle; 3) Middle ;4) Lower Middle; 5) Lower

Percent of the non-white students you teach (0-100)

Testing Policy Factors

(Middle and Junior high, 6-9th grade) Existence of a mandated state test in : 1) Math; 2) English; 3) Science; 4) Social Studies

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(Secondary and Senior high, 9-12th grade) Existence of a mandated state test on social studies : 1) Yes ; 2) No

Use of a pacing guide for social studies in the school/district 1) Yes; 2) No

State Standards influence my instructional decision-making
1) strongly agree; 2) somewhat agree; 3) somewhat disagree; 4) strongly disagree

State standards influence my evaluation and assessment of students
1) strongly agree; 2) somewhat agree; 3) somewhat disagree; 4) strongly disagree

I believe that state/district test results will impact my job security
1) strongly agree; 2) somewhat agree; 3) somewhat disagree; 4) strongly disagree

Outcome Variables

Self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority and control over six categories: 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching.

1) No control
2) Minor control
3) Moderate control
4) A great deal of control

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Table 3.2. Final Listing of Variables for Hierarchical Regression Model

Variable Labels	Context	Variable Name	Description
Demographic Control Variables		Gender	Male*, Female
		Race	American Indian, Asian/Pacific, Black, Hispanic, White*
Predictor Variables	Teacher-level factors	Academic degree	Bachelors major/minor in a social studies related field, Masters in a social studies related field
		Licensure/Certification	Full, traditional certification* Emergency or alternative certification No certification
		Years of teaching experience	0-40
	School-level factors	School Type	Public*, Charter, or Private
		Socio-economic status of students in the school	High-income Upper Middle Middle Lower middle Lower
		Percent of non-white students enrolled in the school	0-100
		School's geographic location (context)	Urban/City* Suburban Rural/Small-Town

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Table. 3.2. Continued

	Testing policy factors	Existence of mandated state tests (middle and junior high)	Mandated state test on social studies/ Mandated state test on math, English, and science (no test on social studies)*
		Existence of mandated state tests on social studies (high)	Yes* No
		Use of Pacing Guides	Yes* No
	Testing policy factors	State standards influence my instructional decision-making	Strongly Agree Somewhat Agree Somewhat Disagree Strongly Disagree
		State standards influence my evaluation and assessment of students	Strongly Agree Somewhat Agree Somewhat Disagree Strongly Disagree
		I believe state/district test results will impact my job security	Strongly Agree Somewhat Agree Somewhat Disagree Strongly Disagree
Outcome Variables	Self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority and control over six categories	How much actual control do you have in the classroom at this school over the following areas of your planning and teaching :1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching.	1) No control 2) Minor control 3) Moderate control 4) A great deal of control

Note. *= Reference group

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Table 3.3. Nominal Variables and Coding System

Variables	Coding
Demographic Control Variables	
Gender	
Female	1, 0
Male	Reference Group
Race/Ethnicity	1, 0
American Indian	1, 0
Asian/Pacific	1, 0
Black	1, 0
Hispanic	Reference Group
White*	
Predictor Variables	
Teacher-level factors	
Academic degree	
Bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field	Reference Group
Bachelor's degree major in education	1, 0
Bachelor's degree major in a non-social studies related field	1, 0
No Bachelor's degree	1, 0
A minor in a social studies related field	Reference Group
A minor in education	1, 0
A minor in a non-social studies related field	1, 0
No minor	1, 0
Master's degree in a social studies related field	Reference Group
Master's degree in education	1, 0
Master's degree in a non-social studies related field	1, 0
No Bachelor's degree	1, 0
Licensure/Certification Path	
Licensed after attending a four-year teacher preparation program, as part of a Master's degree program, part of a five-year program, and part of a post-baccalaureate program	Reference Group
Licensed through emergency certification, an alternative program not listed above, no licensure	1, 0

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Table 3.3. Continued

School-level factors	
School type Public school Charter school Parochial and Private school	 Reference Group 1, 0 1, 0
School's geographic location(context) Urban/City Suburban Rural/Small-Town	 Reference Group 1, 0 1, 0
Testing policy factors	
Existence of mandated state social studies tests *Middle and Junior High Level(6^{th}-9^{th})* Yes No *Secondary and Senior High Level(9^{th}-12^{th})* Yes No	 1, 0 Reference Group Reference Group 1, 0
Use of Pacing Guides Yes No	 Reference Group 1, 0

Empirical Framework

Figure 3.1 illustrates the relationships that I explore through hierarchical multiple regression analyses techniques on the S4 data. The empirical model in Figure 3.1 includes specific predictor and control variables to model the relationships. Consistent with the conceptual model, this model illustrates the relationship between teacher-level and school-level characteristics, testing policy and the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority. First, Arrow **A** shows the various interstate social studies testing policies that affect schools. These testing policies also put direct pressure on secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **B**) and

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affect the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority (Arrow **I**). School players interpret and implement testing regimentation according to organizational factors, such as school sector (public, charter, or public school), school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and school context (urban, rural, or suburban). District and school administrators convey a message to teachers that typically highlights the importance of the state testing, which is reflected in the nature of in-service development meeting, review sessions for the state tests, and various instructional dictates, such as a scripted teaching (Arrow **C**). Principals are more likely to pressure secondary social studies teachers who serve low-performing students in low-income and high-minority schools to focus on test preparation. In this way, school environmental factors are associated with the self-reported levels of teachers' classroom authority (Arrow **H**). Research supports that regardless of the stakes attached to the state-level tests, state-level testing policy tends to affect secondary social studies teachers' control over their classroom tasks. Social studies teachers make sense of, and respond to administrative dictates based on their professional identity, and their knowledge of content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational context (Arrow **D** and **E**). Arrow **F** indicates the direct relationship between the teacher-level factors and the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority. Teachers respond to the constraints imposed on their authority and control and perceive the levels of their authority depending on the nature of their degree background, the nature of their certification, and the number of years in the profession of teaching. They simply follow state or administrative dictates or endeavor to negotiate through them (Arrow **G**).

The representation of the arrows *A, B, C, D, E, and G* demonstrates that the relationships exist in the system theoretically and I can infer their direct effects from the empirical analyses, but it is hard to capture them in the empirical analyses based on the data available for the current study.

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This study will test and examine the following three theoretically based hypotheses through hierarchical multiple regression in the next chapter. First, teachers' professional characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background, the nature of their certification, and the number of years in the profession of teaching, make contributions to the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **F**). I hypothesized that teachers' professionalism and professional authority can be enacted on the basis of their expertise in content, curriculum, pedagogy, students, and educational contexts. The level of expertise can be inferred from teachers' degree background, the nature of their certification, and their teaching experience. Second, school environmental factors, such as the type of school (public/private/charter), school context (urban/suburban/rural), school poverty levels, and minority enrollment levels, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary social studies teachers (Arrow **H**). Third, the existence of mandated state test for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the use of state test results on job security predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers (Arrow **I**).

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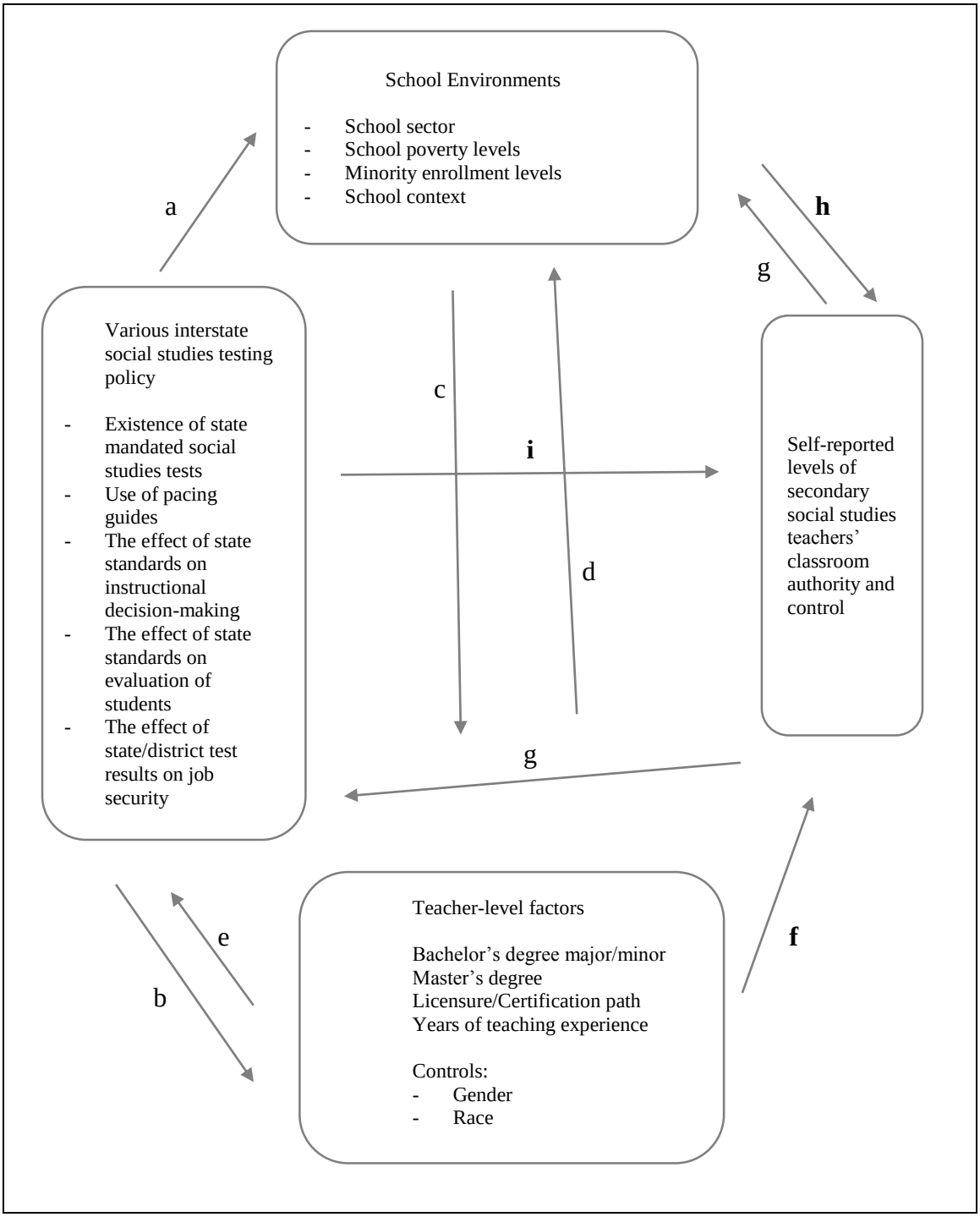

Figure 3.1. Empirical Model of the Relationship between State Testing Policy, School and Teacher- related Characteristics, and the Self-reported Levels of Classroom Authority and Control among Secondary Social Studies Teachers

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Analysis Strategy

Hierarchical multiple regression forms the basis of the research method, due to the nature of the data. The hierarchical approach is appropriate in the present study because the solid theoretical and empirical model supports the reason to enter a set of predictor variables first for predicting the criterion variable and hold several variables entered earlier constant to investigate the predictive efficacy of a set of variables entered later (Hays, 1994). Using a conceptual model to investigate the associations between their predictor variables and the criterion variable while taking account of the potential effects of many other factors entered earlier, a series of hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted. In the four-step hierarchical regression analyses, analytic models are cumulative, and each subsequent step includes all variables from the previous step. In particular, the structure is as follows:

Step 1 includes only gender and race of secondary social studies teachers;

Step 2 adds teacher-level factors, which are a bachelor's degree major or minor in a social studies related field and a master's degree in a social studies related field, licensure/certification path and teaching experience;

Step 3 introduces school-level factors, which include school sector, school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and school context;

Step 4 includes testing policy factors, which are the use of pacing guides, the effects of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, the effect of state test results on job security, and the existence of a mandated state test on social studies in middle and junior high school (6-9th grade) and high school levels (9-12th grade).

Because the hierarchical regression model is additive, Step 4 represents the full model in that it includes the entire set of predictor variables. I present results as R square, R square change, unstandardized regression coefficients, their standard errors, and standardized regression coefficients, also referred to as beta coefficients. The main

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hypotheses are as follows: 1) secondary social studies teachers' degree background is related to the self-reported levels of their authority and control; 2) secondary social studies teachers' licensure/certification path is related to the self-reported levels of their authority and control; 3) secondary social studies teachers' years of teaching experience predicts the self-reported levels of their authority and control; 4) school sector (public/charter/private) is associated with the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 5) school context (urban/suburban/rural) is associated with the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 6) school poverty level predicts the self- reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 7) percent of non-white students in the school predicts the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 8) the existence of a mandated state social studies tests predicts the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 9) the use of pacing guides is related to the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' control; 10) the effect of state standards on secondary social studies teachers' instructional decision-making predicts the self-reported levels of their control; 11) the effect of state standards on secondary social studies teachers' evaluating and assessing their students predicts the self-reported levels of their control over evaluation; and 12) the effect of state/district test results on secondary social studies teachers' job security predicts the self-reported levels of their control.

Limitations of the Study

This dissertation promotes better understanding on the self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' authority in an age of high stakes accountability. However, this study has limitations of data and interpretation that deserve the reader's attention. First, this study does not include qualitative data that have observational interpretation and contextual detail. The teacher perceptions that inform the study are constrained to teachers' survey responses that may or may not completely interpret teachers' nuanced viewpoints about authority in the classroom. To overcome this

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limitation, efforts were made to explain the quantitative findings of this study with previously reported findings from mixed-methods and qualitative studies that examined secondary social studies teachers' control over practices under the influence of state-level testing policy. Second, although this shortcoming is not confined to this study, a remarkable limitation is that researchers cannot measure the degree of teacher authority in a direct manner (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Ingersoll & May, 2010, 2011). The concept of teacher authority is measured by teachers' own perceptions rather than by direct observation. Third, the domain of teacher authority is somewhat limited in scope as this study deals with teacher control in the classroom domain, rather than focus on the scope of authority across school-wide issues such as student discipline, curricula, school funds, and hiring and evaluating teachers that might capture broader domains of teacher authority. Fourth, the sampling methods of the S4 data are defective (Fitchette & VanFossen, 2013). Specifically, the S4 data did not collect responses from 4 states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Missouri, New Mexico, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming. Teachers were sampled through stratified, random sampling techniques in five states (Florida, Indiana, Kansas, Ohio, and Wisconsin), and an average response rate was 50%. The remaining 39 states used convenience samples with an average response rate of below 25 %. The number of respondents who responded to the survey may be different from those who did not participate in the study or chose not to respond. Because "sampling procedures were flawed, it is not appropriate to suggest the data are nationally-representative" (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013, p.25). Therefore, the data need to be interpreted with caution. The fifth limitation is that S4 was self-administered. School demography data such as minority enrollment levels and school poverty levels were not gathered based on percent of students eligible for free/reduced lunch at the school but were self-reported. Self-reported data have potential problems. Self-reported information may not be correct because participants may interpret or understand particular questions or rating scales in the different way. Sixth, the S4 does not include school information, so

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we do not know how many teachers in the sample are in a school and in a school district. The final limitation is that S4 data are not experimental data and hierarchical regression technique does not explain casual relationships between predictor and criterion variables. Consequently, readers need to interpret the outcome measure carefully.

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CHAPTER IV.
RESULTS

This chapter consists of three sections, which are constructed according to the research questions addressed in Chapter 1. The first section provides the descriptive findings about predictor variables and outcome variables. The second section presents the results of Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables and the results of the hierarchical multiple regression that address research question 1-3: 1. To what extent do teachers' characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background, and the nature of their certification, as well as the number of years in the profession of teaching, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential gender and race effects? 2. To what extent do school-level characteristics, such as the type of school, school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and school context, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for the potential effects of gender, race and teacher-level characteristics? 3. To what extent do the existence of a mandated state test for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the implementation of state standards on instructional decision-making, and on the evaluation and assessment of students as well as the use of state test results on job security predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential effects of gender, race, teacher-level, and school-level characteristics? The second section is composed of six categories and shows the results of analysis in relation to the contributions of teacher-related and school-related characteristics and testing policy to the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary social studies teachers examined across each of five variables individually and the aggregate sum of teacher control in all five categories: 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2)

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the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching. Results for each category will be presented at middle and junior high school and high school level separately. The third section concludes this chapter by summarizing the results of this study.

Descriptive Findings for the Analytic Sample

Table 4.1 presents the means and standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values of predictor variables in the study. The data represent a nationwide population of 6,703 secondary school social studies teachers. 46.9 percent of social studies teachers teach middle and junior high school students and 53.1 percent of whom teach high school students. The overwhelming majorities of teachers are white and all other races constitute 9.2 percent. The average years of teaching experience is 14.6 years. Only 10.22 percent of teachers have three or less years of experience. 66.4 percent of teachers have a Bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field; 39 percent of this group has a Bachelor's degree minor in a social studies related field, and 17.3 percent has a master's degree in a social studies related field. 91.1 percent of teachers were licensed through traditional paths, such as attending a four-year teacher preparation program, a Master's degree program, a five-year program, or a post-baccalaureate program. 8.4 percent of teachers were licensed through emergency certification or an alternative program, and 0.5 percent were not licensed. In relation to minority enrollment levels, 37.5 percent of teachers reported teaching in an intensively white school that enrolled 0 to 10 percent of non-white students, and 40.9 percent reported teaching in a majority white school that enrolled 11 to 50 percent of non-white students. 14.4 percent of teachers reported teaching in a majority minority school that enrolled 51 to 89 percent of non-white students and 7.3 percent reported teaching in an intensively minority schools that enrolled 90 to 100 percent of non-white students. 32.5 percent of teachers

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reported that their schools/districts use a pacing guide for social studies, while 67.5 percent said they do not. 40 percent of middle and junior high school social studies teachers responded that they gave a mandated state test in social studies. 65.8 percent of high school social studies teachers reported that they gave a mandated state test in social studies. Regarding the survey question of "state standards influence my instructional decision-making," 48 percent of teachers strongly agreed; 40.1 percent somewhat agreed. A total of 88.1 percent of secondary school social studies teachers answered that state standards affect their process of reaching a decision in their instructional work. Of teachers who responded to the survey question of "state standards influence my evaluation and assessment of students," 40 percent of them strongly agreed and 42 percent somewhat agreed. A total of 82 percent of secondary social studies teachers responded the state standards have an effect on their control over the evaluation and grading of students. Of teachers who answered the survey question of "I believe that state/district test results will impact my job security," 22.4 percent strongly agreed and 34.5 percent somewhat agreed. A total of 56.9 percent of teachers indicated that state/district test results will influence their job security.

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Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics
Predictor Variables
Secondary school social studies teachers (N=6703)

Predictor Variables		**Mean/Frequency**	**SD**	**Min**	**Max**
Assignment (N=6702)					
Middle and Junior High		**3,145(46.9%)**			
High		**3,557(53.1%)**			
Gender (N=6565)					
Male		**2,908(44.3%)**			
Female		**3,657(55.7%)**			
Race (N=6483)					
American Indian or Alaskan Native		**58(0.9%)**			
Asian/Pacific		**29(0.4%)**			
Black/African American		**253(3.9%)**			
Latin American/Hispanic		**141(2.2%)**			
White, non-Hispanic		**5,887(90.8%)**			
Experience (N=6578)		**14.6**	**0.98**	**0**	**79**
Novice (less than or equal to 3 years)		**671(10.22%)**			
More than 3 years		**5,907(89.78%)**			
Academic Degree					
Bachelor's degree major in (N=6593)	a social studies related field	**4,378(66.4%)**			
	Education, a non-social studies related field, no bachelor's degree	**2,215(33.6%)**			
Bachelor's degree minor in a Social studies related field (N=6179)	a social studies related field	**2,408(35.9%)**			
	Education, a non-social studies related field, no minor	**3,771(61%)**			
Master's degree in a Social studies related field (N=5976)	a social studies related field	**1,034(17.3%)**			
	Education, a non-social studies related field, no bachelor's degree	**4,942(82.7%)**			

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Table 4.1. Continued

Licensure/Certification path(n=6566)				
Traditional	**5,979(91.1%)**			
Emergency/alternative program	**552(8.4%)**			
No Licensure	**35(0.5%)**			
School Sector(N=6555)				
Public	**6,349(96.9%)**			
Charter	**95(1.4%)**			
Private	**111(1.7%)**			
School Context(N=6573)				
Urban/City	**1,600(24.3%)**			
Suburban	**2,575(39.2%)**			
Rural/Small-Town	**2,398(36.5%)**			
School poverty levels(N=6548)				
High income	**122(1.9%)**			
Upper Middle income	**832(12.7%)**			
Middle income	**2,122(32.4%)**			
Lower middle income	**2,222(33.9%)**			
Lower income	**1,250(19.1%)**			
Minority enrollment levels(N=5942)	**31.3%**		**0**	**1 0 0**
Intensively white(0-10% nonwhite)	**2,229(37.5%)**			
Majority white (11-50%)	**2,430(40.9%)**			
Majority minority (51-89%)	**850(14.4%)**			
Intensively minority (90-100%)	**433(7.3%)**			
The Use of A Pacing Guide (N=6523)				
Yes	**2,119(32.5%)**			
No	**4,404(67.5%)**			
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests at middle and junior high school (N=2394)				
Yes	**958(40%)**			
No	**1,436(60%)**			
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests at High school(N=3538)				
Yes	**2,329(65.8%)**			
No	**1,209(34.2%)**			

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Table 4.1. Continued

The Effects of State Standards on Instructional Decision Making (N=6597)				
Strongly agree	**3,166(48 %)**			
Somewhat agree	**2,646(40.1%)**			
Somewhat disagree	**577(8.7%)**			
Strongly disagree	**208(3.2%)**			
The Effects of State Standards on Evaluation and Assessment of Students (N=6590)				
Strongly agree	**2,637(40.0%)**			
Somewhat agree	**2,769(42%)**			
Somewhat disagree	**900(13.7%)**			
Strongly disagree	**284(4.3%)**			
The Impact of State Test Results on Job Security(N=6540)				
Strongly agree	**1,463(22.4%)**			
Somewhat agree	**2,257(34.5%)**			
Somewhat disagree	**1,776(27.2%)**			
Strongly disagree	**1,044(16.0%)**			

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Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics
Outcome Variables included in Teacher Authority and Control Construct

Variable	Secondary school teachers (N=6,703)		Middle and Junior High school teachers (N=3,145)		High school teachers (N=3,557)	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
Select text	2.64	1.09	2.55	1.09	2.73	1.1
Select content topics and skills to be taught	2.90	1.00	2.75	1.03	3.05	0.95
Choose which parts of curriculum to emphasize	3.23	.89	3.16	0.93	3.34	0.86
Teaching Techniques	3.75	.54	3.75	0.53	3.76	0.54
Evaluate/grade students	3.63	.60	3.62	0.62	3.63	0.60
Overall Control (Select text, select content topics and skills to be taught, choose which parts of curriculum to emphasize, select teaching techniques, and select evaluation and grading of students)	15.79	3.81	15.48	3.39	16.38	3.15

Note. 1 – Teachers have no control
2 – Teachers have minor control
3 – Teachers have moderate control
4 – Teachers have a great deal of control
Overall Control : 5 –Teachers have no control
10-Teachers have minor control
15- Teachers have moderate control
20 – Teachers have a great deal of control.

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Table 4.2 shows all means and standard deviations for each category of five variables and the aggregate sum of teacher control in the collective five variables. Table 4.2 indicates that on average, teachers reported the lowest levels of authority and control over the selection of textbooks and other materials, while they reported the highest levels of authority and control over the selection of teaching techniques. Overall, high school teachers reported higher levels of authority over all classroom tasks in comparison to middle school teachers.

Category 1: Control over the Selection of Textbook and Other Materials

Before the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed, the relevant assumptions of the statistical analysis were tested. First, a sample size of 6,703 was deemed adequate given 15 independent variables to be included in the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The independent variables were examined for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. At the junior high school level, results of the variance inflation factor were all less than 2.0 and those of collinearity tolerance were all greater than .50. Results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 3.0, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .45 at the high school level. This indicates that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Table 4.3 shows Pearson correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the middle and junior high school level, a correlation was weak but some of them were statistically significantly correlated with control over selecting textbooks and other materials (r = -.24, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels ; r = .23, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. rural); r= -.13, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. suburban); r=.17, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on job security; r=-.16, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides ; r=.15, p<.0001 for years of teaching experience ; r= -.13, p<.0001 for licensure/certification). This result indicates that the data was suitably

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correlated with the dependent variable for examination through hierarchical multiple regression to be reliably undertaken.

Table 4.3. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1688)

Variables	Control over the selection of textbook and other materials
Male	-.06*
White vs. Indian	.00
White vs. Asian	-.02
White vs. Black	-.08**
White vs. Hispanic	-.05*
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.01
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.03
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.02
Years of teaching experience	.15***
Licensure/certification	-.13***
Public vs. Charter	.02
Public vs. private	.06**
Urban vs. Suburban	-.13***
Urban vs. Rural	.23***
School Poverty Levels	-.08***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.24***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.16***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.04
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.04
The impact of state test results on job security	.17***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Table 4.4 shows Pearson correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables at the high school level. At the high school level, a correlation was

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weak but most of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with control over selecting textbooks and other materials (r = -.28, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels ; r = .23, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. rural); r= -.11, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. suburban); r=.22, p<.0001 for years of teaching experience ; ; r= -.17, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides ; r=.15, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on job security). This result indicates that the data was suitably correlated with the dependent variable for examination through hierarchical multiple regression to be reliably performed.

Table 4.4. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2511)

Variables	Control over selecting textbook and other materials
Male	-.06**
White vs. Indian	.04*
White vs. Asian	.03
White vs. Black	-.07***
White vs. Hispanic	-.08***
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.01
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.03
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.05*
Years of teaching experience	.22***
Licensure/certification	-.10***
Public vs. Charter	.04*
Public vs. private	.13***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.11***
Urban vs. Rural	.23***
School Poverty Levels	-.07***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.28***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.17***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.05**
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.09***
The impact of state test results on job security	.15***

Note. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

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Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over the selection of textbook and other materials was the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (a bachelor's degree major or minor in a social studies related field and a master's degree in a social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector (public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, including the use of pacing guides, the existence of a mandated state test on social studies in junior high school or high school levels, the impact of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4).

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Table 4.5. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Textbook and Other Materials at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1688)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.12*(.06)	-.05	-.13*(.06)	-.06	-12*(.06)	-.05	-.10(.06)	-.04
white vs. Indian	.03(.33)	.003	.08(.32)	.01	.03(.31)	.002	.07(.31)	.01
white vs. Asian	-.42(.41)	-.03	-.41(.40)	-.02	-.21(.39)	-.01	-.15(.39)	-.01
white vs. black	-.38**(.12)	-.08	-.30*(.12)	-.06	-.14(.11)	-.03	-.11(.11)	-.02
white vs. Hispanic	-.37*(.18)	-.05	-.23(.18)	-.03	.03(.17)	.004	.04(.17)	.01
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			-.00(.05)	0	-.05(.05)	-.03	-.06(.05)	-.03
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.07(.06)	-.03	-.10(.05)	-.04	-.11*(.05)	-.05
Master's degree in Social studies			-.03(.09)	-.01	-.06(.08)	-.02	-.06(.08)	-.02
Years of Teaching Experience			.01***(.003)	.13	.01***(.003)	.10	.01***(.003)	.1
Licensure/Certification			-.40***(.1)	-.1	-30**(.1)	-.08	-.27**(.1)	-.07
Public vs. Charter					.41*(.2)	.05	.40*(.2)	.05
Public vs. Private					.27(.14)	.04	.21(.15)	.03
Urban vs. Suburban					-.19**(.07)	-.09	-.17*(.07)	-.08
Urban vs. Rural					.32***(.07)	.14	.32***(.07)	.14
School poverty levels					-.08*(.03)	-.07	-.07*(.03)	-.07

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Table 4.5. Continued.

Minority enrollment levels					-.01***(.001)	-.14	-.004***(.001)	.12
The Use of Pacing Guides							-.19**(.06)	.08
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.02(.05)	.01
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional Decision-Making							-.05(.04)	.03
The Effects of state test result on job security							.12***(.03)	11
Constant	2.61		2.51		3.00		2.87	
R^2	.01**		.04***		.12***		.14***	
R^2 Change			.03***		.08***		.02***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Textbook and Other Materials among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.5 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over the selection of textbooks and other materials at middle and junior high school level**.**

Model 1. The results of step 1 indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two independent variables (gender and race/ethnicity) equaled .012, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(5, 1682)}$=4.133, p<.01). Gender was the statistically significant independent variable, β = -.05, p<.05. Race (White vs. Black ; White vs. Hispanic) was also statistically significant, β = -.08, p< .01, and β = -.05, p<.05, respectively.

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Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After entry of teacher-related factors at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 4% (F (10, 1677) = 7.47; p < .0001). The introduction of teacher-related factors explained additional 3 % variance in teacher control over the selection of textbook and other materials, after controlling for gender and race effects of secondary social studies teachers. In step 2 two out of five teacher-related predictor variables were statistically significant, with years of teaching experience recording a highest Beta value (β = .13, p < .001) and the licensure/certification reporting a higher Beta value (β = -.10, p < .001) than Bachelor's degree major in a social studies-related field (β = 0, p =.99), Bachelor's degree minor in a social studies related field (β = -.03, p =.24), and Master's degree in a social studies related field (β = -.01, p =.73). Teaching experience is the best predictor of teacher authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials and licensure/certification makes the second greatest contribution to teacher authority and control. The results demonstrate that the more years of teaching experience middle and junior high school social studies teachers have, the more control and authority over the selection of textbook and other materials they reported. Additionally, teachers who were licensed through traditional paths, like attending a four-year teacher preparation program, part of a Master's degree program, part of a five-year program, or part of a post-baccalaureate program reported higher levels of authority and control than those who were licensed through emergency certification or an alternative program, and who were not licensed.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. In step 3, everything accounted for 12% of variance and school-level factors added another 8% of the variance. All of the school-level factors other than school sector (public vs. private) contributed significantly to the explanation of social studies teachers' authority and control over selecting textbook and other materials. Among all the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels have the greatest impact on high school

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social studies teachers' control over the selection of textbook and other material (β = -.144, p < .0001), followed by school context (urban vs. rural, β = .141, *p* < .0001; urban vs. suburban, β = -.09, *p* < .01), school poverty levels (β = -.07, *p* < .05 and school sector (public vs. charter, β = .05, *p* < .05). Differences between public and private schools did not explain teacher control over selecting textbook and other materials to a statistically significant degree (β = .04, *p* = .14). The results of model 3 show that the higher minority and low-income student enrollments in the public school setting were associated with less authority over textbook selection and other materials secondary social studies teachers use. Regarding school context, social studies teachers who worked in urban areas reported higher authority and control than those who worked in suburban areas, while teachers in urban settings reported less authority and control than those who worked in rural/small town areas. Charter school teachers reported higher levels of classroom authority than public school teachers, net of all other predictors in the model.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. In the final step, policy factors were entered: the use of pacing guides, the existence of a state mandated social studies test, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security. This model was statistically significant F(20, 1667)=13.19, p<.0001) and explained 14% of the variance in teacher authority and control. Policy factors explained additional 2%, after controlling for the effects of gender, race, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors (R^2 change =.02). The results of model 4 indicate that junior high school social studies teachers' perception on the effect of state test results on their job security made the greatest contribution to their control over the selection of textbook and other materials (β = .11, *p* <.0001), followed by the use of pacing guides (β = -.08, *p* <.01). Teachers who disagreed with the effects of state test result on job security reported higher levels of classroom authority than those who agreed. Teachers who did not use pacing guides reported lower levels of classroom authority than those who did, net of all other

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predictors in the model. The use of pacing guides significantly predicted teacher control over the selection of textbooks and other materials. Teachers who did not use pacing guides reported significantly lower levels of authority than those who had. The existence of state mandated social studies test at middle and junior high school level and the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making made no contribution to middle and junior high school social studies teachers' authority and control.

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Table 4.6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Textbook and Other Materials at High School Level (N= 2511)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.12** (.04)	.06	-.10*(.04)	.04	-.03(.04)	-.016	-.02(.04)	-.01
white vs. Indian	.38(.23)	.03	.47*(.23)	.04	.40(.22)	.03	.42*(.21)	.04
white vs. Asian	.45(.34)	.03	.49(.34)	.03	.63*(.32)	.04	.59(.32)	.03
white vs. black	-.50***(.14)	-.07	-.42**(.13)	.06	-.14(.13)	-.02	-.11(.13)	-.02
white vs. Hispanic	-.63***(.16)	-.08	-.52**(.15)	.07	-.24(.15)	-.03	-.23(.14)	-.03
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			.03(.05)	.01	-.01(.05)	-.002	-.002(.05)	-.001
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.04(.04)	-.02	-.05(.04)	-.02	-.05*(.04)	-.02
Master's degree in Social studies			-04(.05)	-.02	-.07(.05)	-.03	-.08(.05)	-.03
Years of Teaching Experience			.02***(.002)	.20	.02***(.002)	.17	.02***(.002)	.16
Licensure			-.26***(.07)	-.07	-.19**(.07)	-.05	-.22**(.07)	-.06
Public vs. Charter					.47*(.18)	.05	.41*(.18)	.04
Public vs. Private					.63***(.11)	.11	.53***(.11)	.09
Urban vs. Suburban					-.18**(.06)	-.08	-.16**(.06)	-.07

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Table 4.6. Continued.

Urban vs. Rural					.27***(.06)	.12	.27***(.06)	.12
School poverty levels					-.02(.03)	-.02	-.01(.03)	-.01
Minority enrollment levels					-.01***(.001)	-.20	-.01***(.001)	-.18
The Use of Pacing Guides							-.19***(.04)	-.08
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.04(.04)	-.02
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional Decision-making							.04(.03)	.03
The Effects of state test on job security							.07**(.02)	.06
Constant	2.8		2.54		2.82		2.67	
R^2	.016***		.07***		.16***		.18***	
R^2 Change			.05***		.09***		.02***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Associations of Teacher-level and School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Textbook and Other Materials among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.6 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), their standard errors, $R^{2,}$ and R^2 change for teacher control over the selection of textbooks and other materials at high school level**.**

Model 1. The results of step 1 indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two independent variables (gender and race/ethnicity) equaled .016, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(5, 2505)}$=8.37, p<.0001). Gender was the statistically significant independent variable, β = -.06, p<.01. Race (White vs. Black ; White vs. Hispanic) was also statistically significant, β = -.07, p< .0001, and β = -.08, p<.0001. This

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model showed that gender and race made significant contributions to self-reported levels of high school teachers' authority and control over selecting textbook and other materials.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After entry of teacher-related factors at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 7% (F (10, 2500) = 18.15; $p < .0001$). The introduction of teacher-related factors explained additional 5% variance in high school teachers' control over choosing textbook and other materials, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of high school social studies teachers. In step 2, two out of five predictor variables were statistically significant, with years of teaching experience recording the highest Beta value ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$) and the licensure/certification reporting a high Beta value ($\beta = -.07$, $p < .001$). Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field ($\beta = .01$, $p = .59$), Bachelor's degree minor ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .35$), and Master's degree in social studies related field ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .45$) made no contribution to high school teachers' control. The best predictor of high school teachers' control over the selection of textbook and other materials is teaching experience, followed by the licensure/certification in model 2. Like the results of middle and junior high school, high school teachers who had more years of teaching experience reported higher levels of authority and control than those with less years of teaching experience. High school teachers who reported they were licensed through traditional path, such as attending a four-year teacher preparation program, Master's degree program, a five-year program, or a post-baccalaureate program, on average, reported more authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials than those who reported they were licensed through emergency certification, or an alternative program, and were not licensed ($p<.001$), all else held constant.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. Table 4.6 indicates that 16% of high school teachers' authority and control was accounted for by the model 3. Additional 9% was explained by the school-

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level predictor variables listed. All of the school-level factors, except school poverty levels, contributed significantly to the explanation of high school social studies teacher control over the selection of textbook and other materials. Among all the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels served as the greatest predictor of high school social studies teachers' control over the selection of textbooks and other material ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .0001$), followed by school context (urban vs. rural, $\beta = .12$, $p < .001$; urban vs. suburban, $\beta = -.08$, $p < .01$), and school sector (public vs. private, $\beta = .11$, $p < .001$; public vs. charter, $\beta = .05$, $p < .05$). School poverty levels did not predict teacher control over selecting textbooks and other materials to a statistically significant degree ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .5$). The model suggested that the more minority students are enrolled in the school setting, the less authority high school teachers reported. Also, urban school teachers, on average, reported less authority than rural school teachers ($p<.001$), all else held constant. Urban school teachers, on average, reported to have more authority than suburban school teachers ($p<.01$), all else held constant. In regards to school sector, teachers who worked in public schools, on average, reported less authority than those who worked in private ($p<.001$), and charter school environments ($p<.05$), holding all else constant.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. In the final step, four policy predictors were entered: the use of pacing guides, the existence of state mandated social studies test, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security. This model was statistically significant $F (20, 2490)=26.41$, $p<.0001$) and explained 18% of variance in high school teacher control. The introduction of policy factors explained additional 2%, after controlling for the potential effects of gender, race, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors (R^2 change =.02). Among the policy factors listed, the use of pacing guides made the greatest contribution to high school social studies teachers' control ($\beta = -.08$, $p < .001$). On average, teachers who use pacing guides reported higher

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levels of classroom authority than those who do not (p<.001), net of all the other predictors in the model. The effect of state test results on job security predicted teacher control to a statistically significant degree (β = .06, $p < .01$). On average, teachers who strongly disagreed with the effects of state test results on their job security reported higher levels of authority than those who strongly agreed with it (p<.01), holding all else constant. However, the existence of state mandated high school social studies test and the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making made no significant contributions to high school teacher control over the selection of textbook and other materials.

Category 2: Control over the Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught

In this section, I examine the variable on selecting content topics and skills. Prior to the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the relevant assumptions of this statistical analysis were tested. First, the independent variables were examined for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. At the junior high school level, results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.1 and those of collinearity tolerance were all greater than .49. Results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.1, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .45 at the high school level. These results indicate that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Table 4.7 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the middle and junior high school level, most of the predictors were weakly but statistically significantly correlated with control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught (r = -.22, p<.0001 for the use of pacing guides ; r = .19, p<.0001 for the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making; r= .17,

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p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security; r= -.16, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels).

Table 4.7. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1688)

Variables	Control over selecting content topics and skills to be taught
Male	-.15***
White vs. Indian	-.02
White vs. Asian	.00
White vs. Black	-.07**
White vs. Hispanic	.07**
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	-.10***
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.02
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.08**
Years of teaching experience	-.01***
Licensure/certification	-.02***
Public vs. Charter	.02
Public vs. private	.09***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.11***
Urban vs. Rural	.14***
School Poverty Levels	-.04
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.16***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.22***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.07**
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.19***
The impact of state test results on job security	.17***

Note. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

At the high school level, most of the predictors were weakly but statistically significantly correlated with control over selecting content topics and skills to be taught (r = -.25, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides ; r = .23, p<.0001 for the effect of state

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standards on instructional decision-making; $r = .22$, $p < .0001$ for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security; $r = -.19$, $p < .0001$ for existence of mandated state social studies test ; $r = -.17$, $p < .0001$ for minority enrollment levels). Table 4. 8 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables.

Table 4.8. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2504)

Variables	Control over selecting content topics and skills to be taught
Male	-.07***
White vs. Indian	-.00
White vs. Asian	.01
White vs. Black	-.07***
White vs. Hispanic	-.01
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.01
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.04*
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.03*
Years of teaching experience	.09***
Licensure/certification	.01
Public vs. Charter	.02
Public vs. private	.11***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.06**
Urban vs. Rural	.10***
School Poverty Levels	-.06**
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.17***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.25***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.19***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.23***
The impact of state test results on job security	.22***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

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Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught was the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (a bachelor's degree major or minor in and a master's degree in social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector (public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, which included the use of pacing guides, the existence of mandated state test on social studies in middle and junior high school or high school levels, the impact of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4).

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.9 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 , and R^2 change for

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teacher control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught at middle and junior high school level**.**

Model 1. The model was statistically significant (F (5, 1682) =10.95, p<.0001). Table 9 shows that the model as a whole explained 3% of variance in reported levels of teachers' control over the selection of content topics and skills.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. Teacher-related factors (Bachelor's degree major/minor in a social studies related field, Master's degree in a social studies related field, licensure/certification and years of teaching experience) were introduced. The model as a whole explained 4% of the variance in teacher control and teacher-level factors explained additional 1 % in teacher control, after controlling for gender and race of middle and junior high school socials studies teachers. This model was also statistically significant (F (10, 1677) = 7.05, p<.0001). Only two variables, Bachelors' degree major in social studies related field and Master's degree in social studies related field were statistically significant and recorded the highest beta value (β = -0.06, $p < .05$). These two variables are the best predictors of teacher control in model 2. The model suggests that teachers who do not have a bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field reported lower levels of authority than those who have, holding all the other predictors constant. Teachers who do not have a master's degree in a social studies related field reported lower levels of authority than those who have, net of all the other predictors.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. The model was statistically significant (F (16, 1671) =11.32, $p < .0001$). The model explained 10 % of the variance in teacher control. The school-level factors accounted for additional 6% of variance in reported levels of teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. Among school-related factors, school sector (public vs. private), school context (urban vs. suburban), and minority enrollment levels made significant contributions to the

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explanation of teacher control. Minority enrollment levels made the greatest contribution to teacher control (β = -0.16, $p < .001$). Next, school context (urban vs. suburban) was a significant predictor (β = -0.11, $p < .01$), followed by school sector (public vs. private) (β = 0.09, $p < .001$). The model shows that on average, private school teachers reported higher levels of authority than public school teachers. The relationship between teacher authority and minority enrollment levels is negative, net of all the other predictor variables. As minority enrollment levels increase, teacher authority declines. The model tells us that on average, suburban school teachers reported lower levels of authority than urban school teachers.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. Model 4 shows the full model. This model is also statistically significant ($F(20, 1667)=14.45$, $p < .001$) and as a whole explained 15% of the variance of teacher control over the selection of content topics and skills, after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. The best predictor of teacher control was the use of pacing guides (β = -0.14, $p < .001$), followed by the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making (β = 0.1, $p < .001$) and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security (β = 0.1, $p < .001$). The results indicate that teachers who do not use pacing guides reported lower levels of authority than those who do. Teachers who strongly disagreed with the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making reported higher levels of authority than those who strongly agreed. Teachers who strongly disagreed with the effect of state test results on their job security reported higher levels of authority than those who strongly agreed. However, the existence of mandated state social studies tests did not make any contribution to teacher control.

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Table 4.9. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1688)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.33***(.05)	-.15	-.3***(.06)	-.13	-.29***(.05)	-.13	-.24***(.05)	-.11
white vs. Indian	-.16(.31)	-.01	-.13(.31)	-.01	-.18(.30)	-.01	-.13(.30)	-.01
white vs. Asian	-.03(.39)	-.002	.01(.39)	0	.21(.38)	.01	.31(.37)	.02
white vs. black	-.28*(.11)	-.06	-.27*(.11)	-.06	-.14(.11)	-.03	-.07(.11)	-.01
white vs. Hispanic	.46**(.17)	.07	.45**(.17)	.07	.65***(.17)	.10	.64***(.16)	.09
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			-.13*(.05)	-.06	-.18**(.05)	-.08	-.17**(.05)	-0.08
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.02(.05)	-.01	-.04(.05)	-.02	-.05(.05)	-.02
Master's degree in Social studies			-.21*(.08)	-.06	-.23**(.08)	-.07	-.24**(.08)	-.07
Years of Teaching Experience			.00(.003)	.00	-.002(.003)	-.02	-.002(.003)	-.02
Licensure			-.11(.10)	-.03	-.03(.09)	-.01	.02(.09)	.004
Public vs. Charter					.25(.20)	.03	.25(.19)	.03
Public vs. Private					.50***(.14)	.09	.37**(.14)	.06
Urban vs. Suburban					-.23**(.07)	-.11	-.19**(.07)	-.09
Urban vs. Rural					.12(.07)	.06	.14*(.07)	.06
School poverty levels					-.02(.03)	-.02	-.02(.03)	-.02
Minority enrollment levels					-.01***(.001)	-.16	-.004***(.001)	-.11

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Table 4.9. Continued.

Use of Pacing Guides							-.32***(.06)	-.14
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.04(.05)	-.02
The effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							.15***(.04)	.10
The Effects of state test results on job security							.11***(.03)	.10
Constant	2.89		3.13		3.5		3.17	
R^2	.03***		.04***		.10***		.15***	
R^2 Change			.01**		.06***		.05***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Associations of Teacher-level, and School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4. 10 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 , and R^2 change for teacher control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught at high school level**.**

Model 1. The model was statistically significant (F (5, 2498) =5.02, p<.001) and as a whole explained 1% of variance in reported levels of teachers' control over the selection of content topics and skills.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. Teacher-related factors (Bachelor's degree major/minor in a social studies related field, Master's degree in a social studies related field, licensure/certification and years of teaching experience) were introduced and explained

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additional 1 % in teacher control, after controlling for the gender and race effects of high school socials studies teachers. This model was also statistically significant (F (10, 2493) = 5.00, p<.001) and as a whole explained 2% of the variance in teacher control (Adjusted R square =.02). Only teaching experience was statistically significant, reporting the highest beta value (β = 0.09, $p < .0001$). This result indicates that an additional year of teaching experience corresponds to an increase in high school social studies teacher authority over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, net of all the other predictor variables. More teaching experience of high school social studies teachers is linked to more teacher authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. This model was significantly different from zero (F (16, 2487) =10.12, $p < .0001$). The school-level factors explained additional 4% of variance in reported levels of teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. The model as a whole explained 6 % of the variance in teacher control. Among school-related factors, school sector (public vs. private), school context (urban vs. suburban), and minority enrollment levels made significant contributions to the explanation of teacher control. The model tells us that minority enrollment levels are negatively associated with teacher control, ($p < .001$). On average, an additional percent of non-white students in schools reduces teacher authority by an average of .004 points on the 4-point scale. Also, private school teachers reported higher levels of authority than public school teachers ($p < .01$), net of all other predictors in the model. Suburban school teachers reported lower levels of authority than urban school teachers ($p < .05$), net of all other predictors in the model.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. This model shows the full model and is also statistically significant (F(20, 2483)=23.32, $p < .0001$) and as a whole explained 16% of the variance of high

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school teachers' control over the selection of content topics and skills, after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. Policy factors added another 10% of the variance. All the policy factors significantly contributed to high school teachers' control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught. The best predictor of high school social studies teachers' control was the use of pacing guides ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < .0001$), followed by the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < .0001$), the effect of state test results on teachers' job security ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < .0001$), and the existence of mandated state social studies tests ($\beta = -0.11$, $p < .0001$). The result demonstrates that teachers who gave a mandated state social studies test reported higher levels of authority and control than those who did not. Also, teachers who strongly agreed that state test results impacted their job security reported less authority and control than those who did not report an impact. Similarly, teachers who strongly agreed with the influence of state standards on their instructional decision-making reported lower levels of authority and control than those who strongly disagreed with the effect of state standards.

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Table 4.10. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught at High School Level (N=2504)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.13***(.04)	-.07	-.13**(.04)	-.07	-.09*(.04)	-.05	-.05(.04)	-.03
white vs. Indian	-.03(.20)	-.003	-.001(.20)	.00	-.04(.20)	-.004	.04(.19)	.004
white vs. Asian	.13(.3)	.01	.14(.30)	.01	.19(.30)	.01	.10(.28)	.01
white vs. black	-.41**(.12)	-.07	-.41**(.12)	-.07	-.24*(.12)	.04	-.17(.11)	-.03
white vs. Hispanic	-.05(.14)	-.01	-.02**(.14)	-.003	.13(.13)	.02	.13(.13)	.02
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			.02(.05)	.01	.002(.05)	.00	.004(.04)	.002
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.07(.04)	-.04	--.07(.04)	-.04	-.07(.04)	-.04
Master's degree in Social studies			-.03(.05)	-0.01	-.04(.05)	-.02	-.04(.04)	-.02
Years of Teaching Experience			.01***(.002)	.09	.01**(.00)	.06	.004(.002)	.04
Licensure			.08(.06)	.03	.13*(.06)	.04	.05(.06)	.02
Public vs. Charter					.20(.17)	.02	.12(.16)	.01
Public vs. Private					.52***(.10)	.10	.34**(.10)	.06
Urban vs. Suburban					-.18**(.05)	-.09	-.13*(.05)	-.07

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Table 4.10. Continued.

Urban vs. Rural					.02(.06)	.01	.06(.05)	.03
School poverty levels					-.02(.02)	.02	.02(.02)	.02
Minority enrollment levels					-.01***(.001)	-.16	-.004***(.001)	-.10
The Use of Pacing Guides							-.31***(.04)	-.16
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.23***(.04)	-.11
The Effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							.15***(.02)	.12
The Effects of state test results on job security							.11***(.02)	.12
Constant	3.13		3.05		3.33		2.91	
R^2	.01***		.02***		.06***		.16***	
R^2 Change			.01***		.04***		.10***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Category 3: Control over the Selection of the Curriculum to Emphasize in the Instruction

This section examines the variable on selecting which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction. Prior to the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the independent variables were examined for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. Tests for multicollinearity indicated that at the junior high school level, results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.00 and those of collinearity tolerance were all greater than .50.

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Results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.1, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .48 at the high school level. These results indicate that multicollinearity was not likely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Table 4.11 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the middle and junior high school level, most of the predictors were weakly but statistically significantly correlated with control over selecting curriculum to emphasize in the instruction (r = -.21, p<.0001 for use of a pacing guide ; r = .20, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security; r= .18, p<.0001 for the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making; r= -.17, p<.0001 for existence of mandated state social studies test). This indicates that the data were suitably correlated with the dependent variable for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably undertaken. The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over the selection of the curriculum to put emphasis on) were all weak, ranging from r = .00, p =.46 to r = -.21, p < .0001.

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Table 4.11. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1689)

Variables	Control over the selection of which curriculum to emphasize in the instruction
Male	-.10***
White vs. Indian	.002
White vs. Asian	-.02
White vs. Black	-.08**
White vs. Hispanic	.06**
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	-.04*
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	.01
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.02
Years of teaching experience	-.09***
Licensure/certification	-.03
Public vs. Charter	.06**
Public vs. private	.06**
Urban vs. Suburban	-.08**
Urban vs. Rural	.10***
School Poverty Levels	-.08**
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.14***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.21***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.17***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.18***
The impact of state test results on job security	.20***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 4. 12 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the high school level, the correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over the selection of curriculum to put emphasis on) were all weak, ranging from r = .002, p =.45 to r = .25, p < .0001). However, most of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with control

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over selecting curriculum to emphasize (r = .25, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security ; r = -.23, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides; r= .22, p<.0001 for the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making; r= -.20, p<.0001 for existence of mandated state social studies test ; r= -.12, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels) This indicates that the data was suitably correlated with the dependent variable for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably undertaken.

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Table 4. 12. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2507)

Variables	Control over the selection of curriculum to emphasize in the instruction
Male	-.05**
White vs. Indian	.002
White vs. Asian	.02
White vs. Black	-.07***
White vs. Hispanic	.003
Bachelor's degree major in a Social studies related field	-.02
Bachelor's degree minor in a Social studies related field	-.004*
Master's degree in a social studies related field	-.01*
Years of teaching experience	-.01***
Licensure/certification	.02
Public vs. Charter	.01
Public vs. private	.09***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.05**
Urban vs. Rural	.07***
School Poverty Levels	-.06**
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.12***
The Use of Pacing Guides	-.23***
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.20***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.22***
The impact of state test results on job security	.25***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$;The discrepancy in the sum of numbers regarding sample size is a result of missing values.

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over

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selecting which parts of curriculum to emphasize was the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (Bachelor's degree major or minor in and master's degree in social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector(public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, which are the use of pacing guides, the existence of a mandated state test on social studies in middle and junior high school or high school levels, the impact of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4). Because the hierarchical regression model is cumulative, step 4 represents the full model in that it includes the entire set of independent variables.

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of the Curriculum to Emphasize in the Instruction among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.13 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction at middle and junior high school level**.**

Model 1. The results of step 1 indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two independent variables (gender and race/ethnicity) equaled .019, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(5, 1683)} = 6.54$, $p<.0001$). Male was the statistically significant independent variable, $\beta = -.1$, $p<.0001$. Race (white vs. black ; white vs.

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Hispanic) was also statistically significant, β = -.07, p< .01, and β = .06, p<.05, respectively.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After controlling for the effects of gender and race of these teachers, the model accounted for 3% of the variance and the introduction of teacher-related factors explained additional 1 % variance in teacher control over the selection of which parts of the curriculum to highlight in teaching. Two out of five teacher-level predictor variables were statistically significant, showing that years of teaching experience is the best predictor of teacher control (β = -.09, p<.001), and the licensure/certification also made the contribution to teacher authority (β = -.05, p<.05). Years of teaching experience is positively and significantly correlated with teacher authority, indicating the more teaching experience teachers had, the less authority they reported over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize. Furthermore, licensure is positively and significantly associated with teacher authority. This indicates that teachers who were licensed through traditional paths reported higher levels of authority and control than do those who were working through an emergency certification, or certified through an alternative program, and not licensed at all (coded as 0= licensed through traditional paths and 1= licensed through emergency certification, an alternative program, or no licensure).

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. The model explained 7% of variance. School-level factors added additional 4% of variance. All of the school-level factors other than school context (urban vs. rural) contributed significantly to the explanation of social studies teacher control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize. Of the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels made the greatest contribution to middle and junior high school social studies teachers' control over the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize (β = -.12, p<.001), followed by school context (urban vs. suburban, β = -.10, p<.01), school poverty levels (β = -.08, p<.01), and school sector (public vs. charter, β = .06,

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p<.05, public vs. private, β = .05, p<.05). School context (urban vs. rural) did not predict social studies teachers' control over the selection of the curriculum to a statistically significant degree (β = .04, p=.28). School sector is positively and significantly associated with teacher authority (coded as 0=public, 1=charter, and 1=private). School context (urban vs. suburban) is negatively and significantly associated with teacher authority (coded as 0=urban and 1=suburban). Minority enrollment levels and school poverty levels are negatively and significantly associated with teacher authority. These results show that in high-minority, high-poverty, public school settings, teachers report lower levels of control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction than those who work in low-minority, low-poverty, non-public school contexts.

Answers to research question # 3

Model 4. Table 4.13 indicates that 14.3% of middle and junior high school social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize was accounted for by the predictor variables listed. The full model was statistically significant (F (20, 1668) =13.89, p<.0001) and explained 14.3% of variance in teacher control. Policy factors explained additional 7.2%, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors. The results of the full model show that the effect of state test results on job security served as the greatest predictor for teacher control over the selection of curriculum (β = .13, p<.001). This result indicates that social studies teachers who believed that state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of authority than those who did not feel such pressure. The existence of state mandated social studies tests (β = -.123, p<.001), the use of pacing guides (β = -.12, p<.001), and the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making (β = .08, p<.01) also contributed significantly to the explanation of social studies teachers' control over choosing curriculum. Social studies teachers who used a pacing guide reported higher levels of authority than those who did

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not. With respect to the existence of a state mandated social studies test, teachers reported lower levels of authority when they used a mandated state social studies test than when they did not.

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Table 4.13. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of the Curriculum to Emphasize in the Instruction at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1689)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.19***(.04)	-.1	-.19***(.05)	-0.09	-.17***(.05)	-.09	-.14**(.05)	-.07
white vs. Indian	.04(.3)	.004	.07(.28)	.01	.05(.27)	.004	.13(.26)	.01
white vs. Asian	-.36(.4)	-.03	-.38(.35)	-.03	-.24(.34)	-.02	-.14(.33)	-.01
white vs. black	-.30**(.1)	-.07	-.29.**(.12)	-.07	-.21*(.1)	-.05	-.10(.1)	-.03
white vs. Hispanic	.35*(.15)	.06	.31*(.15)	.05	.46**(.15)	.08	.44**(.14)	.07
BA major in social studies-related field			-.01(.05)	-.01	-.05(.05)	-.03	-.04(.04)	-.02
BA minor in social studies-related field			.03(.05)	.01	.01(.05)	.004	-.01(.05)	-.005
Master's degree in Social studies-related field			-.04(.08)	-.01	-.05(.07)	-.02	-.05(.07)	-.02
Years of Teaching Experience			-.01***(.002)	-.09	-.01***(.002)	-.11	-.01***(.002)	-.11
Licensure			-.17*(.08)	-.05	-.11(.08)	-.03	-.07(.08)	-.02
Public vs. Charter					.44*(.2)	.06	.46*(.2)	.06
Public vs. Private					.28*(.13)	.05	.24(.12)	.05
Urban vs. Suburban					-.19**(.06)	-.1	-.14*(.06)	-.07
Urban vs. Rural					.07(.06)	.04	.09(.06)	.05

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Table 4.13. Continued.

School poverty levels					-.07**(.03)	-.08	-.07**(.03)	-.07
Minority enrollment levels					-.004***(.001)	-.12	-.002*(.001)	-.06
The Use of Pacing Guides							-.25***(.05)	-.12
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.23***(.05)	-.12
The Effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							.11**(.03)	.08
The Effects of state test results on job security							.12***(.02)	.13
Constant	3.29		3.46		3.92		3.63	
R^2	.02***		.03***		.07***		.143***	
R^2 Change			.01**		.04***		.072***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

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Table 4.14. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of the Curriculum to Emphasize in the Instruction at High School Level (N=2507)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.09**(.03)	-.05	-.09**(.03)	-.05	-.06(.03)	-.04	-.03(.03)	-.02
white vs. Indian	.003 (.18)	0	0(.18)	0	-.02 (.18)	-.002	.07 (.17)	.01
white vs. Asian	.24(.27)	.02	.23(.27)	.02	.26 (.27)	.02	.18 (.25)	.01
white vs. black	-.40***(.11)	-.07	-.41***(.11)	-.08	-.29**(.11)	-.05	-.23*(.10)	-.04
white vs. Hispanic	.01(.12)	.001	-.01(.12)	-.00	.09(.12)	0.01	.10(.12)	.02
Bachelor's degree major in social studies-related field			-.05(.04)	-.02	-.06(.04)	-.03	-.06(.04)	-.03
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies-related field			-.01(.04)	-.01	-.01(.03)	-.01	-.02(.03)	-.01
Master's degree in Social studies-related field			.001(.04)	0	-.002(.04)	-.001	-.01(.04)	-.004
Years of Teaching Experience			-.001(.002)	-.01	-.003(.002)	-.03	-.01**(.002)	-.06
Licensure/Certification			.06(.06)	.02	.09(.06)	.03	.02(.06)	.008
Public vs. Charter					.12(.15)	.02	.04(.15)	.004
Public vs. Private					.38***(.10)	.08	.20*(.09)	.04
Urban vs. Suburban					-.16**(.05)	-.09	-.11*(.05)	-.06
Urban vs. Rural					.001(.05)	.001	.03(.05)	.02
School poverty levels					-.04*(.02)	-.05	-.01(.02)	-.01
Minority enrollment levels					-.003***(.001)	-.11	-.002*(.001)	-.05

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Table 4.14. Continued.

The Use of Pacing Guides							-.27***(.04)	-.15
The Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.22***(.04)	-.12
The Effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							.11***(.02)	.11
The Effects of state test results on job security							.14***(.02)	.17
Constant	3.39		3.42		3.73		3.29	
R^2	.01**		.01**		.04***		.15***	
R^2 Change			.001		.03***		.11***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Associations of Teacher-level and School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of the Curriculum to Emphasize in the Instruction among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.14 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction at middle and junior high school level**.**

Model 1. The results of step 1 indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two independent variables (gender and race/ethnicity) equaled .01, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(5, 2501)}$= 4.27, p<.01). Gender was the statistically significant independent variable, β = -.05, p<.01. Race (White vs. Black) was also statistically significant, β = -.07, p< .0001.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After entering teacher-related factors, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1% (F (10, 2496) = 2.44; p < .01). The introduction of teacher-

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related factors explained additional 0.1 % variance in high school social studies teachers' control over the selection of which part of curriculum to highlight in teaching, after controlling for gender and race effects of social studies teachers (R2 Change = .001). Of all five teacher-level variables, none was statistically significant and made contributions to teacher control.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. In model 3, variance accounted for (ΔR^2) was equal to .04, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(16, 2490)} = 5.8$, $p < .0001$). All of the school-level factors other than school context (urban vs. rural) and school sector (public vs. charter) contributed significantly to the explanation of high school social studies teacher control over the selection of curriculum to emphasize. Among all the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels made the greatest contribution to high school social studies teachers' control over selecting curriculum to emphasize ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .0001$), followed by school context (urban vs. suburban, $\beta = -.09$, $p < .01$), school sector (public vs. private, $\beta = .08$, $p < .0001$) and school poverty levels ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .05$). School context (urban vs. rural) ($\beta = .00$, $p = .98$) and School sector (public vs. charter) did not predict teacher control over selecting curriculum to a statistically significant degree ($\beta = .02$, $p = .44$) These results indicate that in high-minority, high-poverty, public school settings, high school teachers report lower levels of control over the selection of the curriculum to stress in the instruction than those who work in low-minority, low-poverty, private school contexts.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. In the final step, four policy predictors were entered: the use of pacing guides, the existence of a mandated state social studies test, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security. This model was statistically significant ($F(20, 2486) = 21.04$, $p < .0001$), explained 15% of variance in teacher control. The introduction of policy factors

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explained additional 11%, after controlling for the effects of gender, race, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors. The results of step 4 model indicate that when holding the other factors constant, all policy factors significantly predict teacher authority and control over the selection of which parts of curriculum to emphasize in the instruction. Among all the variables, high school social studies teachers' perception on the effect of state test results on their job security had the highest association with their control over selecting the curriculum to emphasize ($\beta = .17$, $p < .0001$). Next, the use of pacing guides ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .0001$) made the second most significant contribution to teacher control. Also, state mandated tests predicted teacher control at the statistically significant level ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .0001$) as did the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making ($\beta = .11$, $p < .0001$). Teachers who strongly agreed with the influence of state mandated test results on their job security showed significantly lower levels of control over curriculum selection than those who did not report job security anxieties. High school social studies teachers who strongly agreed with the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making reported that they have significantly lower levels of authority and control over curriculum selection than those who did not agree with the effect of standards. Interestingly, teachers who did not use pacing guides reported lower levels of authority than those who did. Also, high school teachers who gave a mandated state social studies test reported more authority than those who did not.

Category 4: Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques

In this section, teachers' reported levels of control over the selection of teaching techniques were regressed on four sets of independent variables. Prior to the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, preliminary analyses were conducted to examine the independent variables for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. Tests for multicollinearity indicated that at the junior high school level, a very low level of multicollinearity was present (The variance inflation factor (*VIF)* < 2.00 for all the variables) and collinearity tolerance

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values were all greater than .49. Results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.1, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .47 at the high school level. These results indicate that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Table 4.15 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the middle and junior high school level, some of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with control over the selection of teaching techniques in the instruction (r = .12, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security; r = -.12, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels; r= -.08, p<.0001 for school poverty levels; r= -.06, p<.01 for existence of mandated state social studies test). This indicates that the data were suitably correlated with the dependent variable for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably performed. The correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable (control over the selection of teaching techniques) were all weak, ranging from r = -.001, p =.49 to r = .12, p < .0001).

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Table 4.15. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1687)

Variables	Control over the selection of teaching techniques in the instruction
Male	.07**
White vs. Indian	.01
White vs. Asian	.01
White vs. Black	-.03
White vs. Hispanic	.04
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.04*
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	.03
Master's degree in social studies related field	.01
Years of teaching experience	-.02
Licensure/certification	-.001
Public vs. Charter	.01
Public vs. private	.03
Urban vs. Suburban	.01
Urban vs. Rural	.04*
School Poverty Levels	-.08***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.12***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.04*
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.06**
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.03
The impact of state test results on job security	.12***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Table 4.16 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the high school level, the correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over the selection of teaching techniques) were all weak, ranging from r = .00, p =.49 to r = .15, p < .0001. However, most of the predictors were significantly correlated with control over selecting teaching techniques (r = .15, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on teachers' job security; r = -.14,

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p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels; *r*= -.10, *p*<.0001 for use of pacing guides; *r*= -.08, *p*<.0001 for school poverty levels; *r*= -.07, *p*<.0001 for existence of mandated state social studies test). This indicates that the data were suitably correlated with the dependent variable for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably conducted.

Table 4.16. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2509)

Variables	Control over the selection of teaching techniques in the instruction
Male	.07***
White vs. Indian	.01
White vs. Asian	-.01
White vs. Black	-.03
White vs. Hispanic	-.03
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.02
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	0
Master's degree in social studies related field	.04*
Years of teaching experience	-.04*
Licensure/certification	-.001
Public vs. Charter	-.04*
Public vs. private	.04*
Urban vs. Suburban	-.003
Urban vs. Rural	.06**
School Poverty Levels	-.08***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.14***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.10***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.07***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.07***
The impact of state test results on job security	.15***

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Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over choosing teaching techniques, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over selecting teaching techniques were the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (Bachelor's degree major or minor in and master's degree in social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector (public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, which include the use of pacing guides, the existence of mandated state test on social studies in junior high school or high school levels, the impact of state standards on instructional decision-making, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4). Because the hierarchical regression model is cumulative, step 4 represents the full model in that it includes the entire set of independent variables.

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Associations of Teacher-level and School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.17 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over selecting teaching techniques in the instruction at middle and junior high school level**.**

Model 1. In step 1, the model was statistically significant (F (5, 1681) =2.61, p<.05). R square = .008, which indicates the strength of the model and means that the model as a whole explained 0.8% of variance in reported levels of teachers' control over the selection of teaching techniques.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. In step 2, teacher-related factors (Bachelor's degree major/minor in social studies related field, Master's degree in social studies related field, licensure/certification and years of teaching experience) were entered and explained additional 0.2 % in teacher control, after controlling for gender and race effects of middle and junior high school socials studies teachers. This model was not statistically significant (F (10, 1676) = 1.70, p=.08) and as a whole explained 1 % of the variance in teacher control. All teacher-level variables did not significantly predict teachers' reported levels of control over selecting teaching techniques.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. The model was significantly different from zero (F (16, 1670) =3.07, $p < .0001$). The model explained 3% of the variance in teacher control and accounted for additional 2% of variance in reported levels of teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. Among school-related factors, only one variable, minority enrollment levels, made a significant contribution to the explanation of teacher control over selecting teaching techniques (β = -0.1, $p < .01$). This model shows that greater numbers of minority students enrolled

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resulted in lower levels of reported teacher control over the selection of teaching techniques. The other school-level factors did not predict teacher control to a statistically significant level.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. This model shows the full model. This model is also statistically significant ($F(20, 1666) = 3.57$, $p < .0001$) and as a whole explained 4% of the variance of teacher control over the selection of teaching techniques. The policy factors explained additional 1.2% in teacher control, after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. Only the effect of state test results on teachers' job security was shown to be a statistically significant predictor in reported levels of teacher control over selecting teaching techniques ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < .0001$). The results of the hierarchical multiple regression show that greater reported levels of state test effects on job security was linked to lower levels of control over the selection of teaching techniques. In other words, teachers who strongly agreed that the state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of control over the selection of teaching techniques than teachers who did not. This seems to indicate that teachers who are evaluated and sanctioned based on the state test results will be in less control over the selection of teaching techniques in the classroom than those whose evaluation will not include state results.

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Table 4.17. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques in the Instruction at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1687)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	.08**(.03)	.07	.07**(.03)	.07	.08**(.03)	.07	.09**(.03)	.08
white vs. Indian	.06(.2)	.01	.05(.2)	.01	.06(.16)	.01	.08(.16)	.01
white vs. Asian	.13(.2)	.02	.12(.2)	.01	.16(.20)	.02	.18(.2)	.02
white vs. black	-.06(.06)	-.03	-.07(.06)	-.03	-.01(.06)	-.01	.003(.06)	.001
white vs. Hispanic	.13(.09)	.04	.13(.09)	.04	.20*(.09)	.06	.2*(.09)	.06
Bachelor's degree major in social studies-related field			.04(.03)	.04	.03(.03)	.03	.03(.03)	.03
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies-related field			.03(.03)	03	.03(.03)	02	.02(.03)	02 .
Master's degree in Social studies related field			-.01(.04)	.01	-.01(.04)	.01	-.01(.04)	-.01
Years of Teaching Experience			-.00(.001)	.03	-.00(.001)	01	-.003(.001)	-.05
Licensure/Certification			.00(.05)		.02(.05)	.04	.04(.05)	.02
Public vs. Charter					.06(.10)	.02	.06(.10)	.01
Public vs. Private					.05(.07)	.02	.04(.07)	.01
Urban vs. Suburban					.002 (.04)	.002	.01(.04)	.01
Urban vs. Rural					.03(.04)	.03	.04(.04)	.03
School poverty levels					-.03 (.02)	-.06	-.03(.02)	-.05
Minority enrollment levels					-.002**(.001)	-.1	-.002** (.001)	-.08
Use of Pacing Guides							-.01(.03)	-.01
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.03(.03)	-.03
The effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							-.001(.02)	-.002
The Effects of state test results on job security							.06***(.01)	.11

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Table 4.17. Continued.

Constant	3.69		3.69		3.86		3.72	
R^2	.008*		.01		.03***		.04***	
R^2 Change			.002		.02***		.012***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.18 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over selecting teaching techniques in the instruction at high school level**.** Model 2-4 results address the research questions of this study.

Model 1. In step 1, the model was statistically significant (F (5, 2503) =3.41, p<.01). R square = .007, which indicates the strength of the model and indicates that the model as a whole explained 0.7% of variance in reported levels of high school social studies teachers' control over the selection of teaching techniques.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. The model as a whole explained 1% of the variance in teacher control and was statistically significant (F (10, 2498) = 2.46, p<.01). The introduction of teacher-level factors accounted for additional 0.3 % in teacher control, after controlling for gender and race effects of high school socials studies teachers. The teacher-level variables made no significant contribution to high school teachers' reported levels of control over selecting teaching techniques.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. In step 3, the model was significantly different from zero (F (16, 2492) =5.82, $p < .0001$). The model as a whole explained 4% of the variance in teacher control. The school-level factors accounted for additional 3 % of variance in reported levels of

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teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. Among school-related factors, minority enrollment levels made the most significant contribution to the explanation of teacher control over selecting teaching techniques ($\beta = -0.12$, $p < .0001$). This model shows that an additional percent of minority enrollment levels reduces teachers' control over the selection of teaching techniques. In other words, greater minority enrollments resulted in lower levels of reported teacher control over the selection of teaching techniques. Additionally, school poverty levels predicted teacher control to a statistically significant level ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .05$) and school sector (public vs. charter) was also shown to be associated with teacher control ($\beta = -.04$, $p < .05$). School poverty levels are negatively associated with teacher authority. High-income school teachers reported higher levels of authority than low-income school teachers. School sector was positively and significantly related to teacher authority (coded as 0=public and 1=charter). On average, charter school teachers reported lower levels of authority than public school teachers.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. Step 4 shows the full model. This model is also statistically significant ($F(20, 2488) = 7.92$, $p < .0001$), as a whole explained 6% of the variance of teacher control over the selection of teaching techniques. Policy factors accounted for additional 2.4 % in teacher control after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. The effect of state test results on teachers' job security was shown to be the most statistically significant predictor in reported levels of teacher control over selecting teaching techniques ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < .0001$). Also, use of pacing guides was shown to be a statistically significant predictor of high school social studies teachers' control ($\beta = -0.06$, $p < .01$). The results show that teachers' perceptions of the effect of state test results on their job security are positively associated with high school social studies teacher control over selecting teaching techniques. In other words, teachers who strongly agreed that the state test results

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impacted their job security reported lower levels of control over the selection of teaching techniques, while teachers who strongly disagreed with the idea that test results impacted their job security reported higher levels of control. This indicates that teachers who are evaluated and sanctioned based on the state test results report lower levels of control over the selection of teaching techniques and that their choice of teaching techniques may be more controlled by the administrators or department chairs than those who do not.

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Table 4.18. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Selection of Teaching Techniques in the Instruction at High School Level (N=2509)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	.08***(.02)	.07	.07**(.02)	.07	.09***(.02)	.08	.09***(.02)	.09
white vs. Indian	.07(.11)	.01	.05 (.12)	.01	.04(.11)	.01	.06(.11)	.01
white vs. Asian	-.05(.17)	-.01	-.06 (.17)	-.01	-.06(.17)	-.01	-.07(.17)	-.01
white vs. black	-.11(.07)	-.03	-.12 (.07)	-.04	-.04 (.07)	-.01	-.02(.07)	-.01
white vs. Hispanic	-.10(.08)	-.03	-.10(.08)	-.03	-.04(.08)	-.01	-.02(.08)	-.01
BA major in social studies-related field			.03 (.03)	.02	.02(.03)	.02	.03(.03)	.02
BA minor in social studies-related field			.001 (.02)	.001	0(.02)	0	-.01(.02)	-.01
Master's degree in Social studies-related field			.03 (.03)	.03	.03 (.03)	.02	.03(.02)	.02
Years of Teaching Experience			-.002 (.00)	-.04	-.003**(.001)	-.06	-.004***(.00)	-.08
Licensure/Certification			-.001 (.04)	-.001	.02(.04)	.01	.01(.04)	.01
Public vs. Charter					-.19*(.10)	-.04	-.23*(.10)	-.05
Public vs. Private					.09(.06)	.03	.03(.06)	.01
Urban vs. Suburban					-.04(.03)	-.03	-.02(.03)	-.02
Urban vs. Rural					.03(.03)	.03	.04(.03)	.03
School poverty levels					-.03*(.01)	-.06	-.02(.01)	-.05
Minority enrollment levels					-.002***(0)	-.12	-.002***(0)	-.09
Use of Pacing Guides							-.06**(.02)	-.06
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.04(.02)	-.03

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Table 4.18. Continued.

The effect of State Standards on instructional decision-making							.02(.01)	.03
The Effects of state test results on job security							.06***(.01)	.12
Constant	3.72		3.72		3.92		3.76	
R^2	.007**		.01**		.04***		.06***	
R^2 Change			.003		.03***		.024***	

Note. b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Category 5: Control over the Evaluation and Grading of Students

In this section, teachers' reported levels of control over the evaluation and grading of students were regressed on four sets of independent variables. Before the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed, the independent variables were examined for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. At the junior high school level, results of the variance inflation factor were all less than 2.65 and collinearity tolerance values were all greater than .37. Results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 2.9, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .34 at the high school level. This indicates that a very low level of multicollinearity was present and multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Pearson correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables were calculated and the results are shown in Table 4.19. At the middle and junior high school level, some of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with control over evaluating and grading students ($r = .14$, $p<.0001$ for the impact of state test results on

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teachers' job security; r = -.11, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels ; r= -.10, p<.0001 for existence of mandated state social studies test ; r=.10, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. rural); r= -.09, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides). The correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable (control over the evaluation and grading of students) were all weak, ranging from r = .001, p =.48 to r = .14, p < .0001.

Table 4.19. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Criterion Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1675)

Variables	Control over the evaluation and grading of students
Male	.03
White vs. Indian	.003
White vs. Asian	-.01
White vs. Black	-.03
White vs. Hispanic	.03
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.03
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.004
Master's degree in social studies related field	.01
Years of teaching experience	-.001
Licensure/certification	-.05*
Public vs. Charter	.01
Public vs. private	.03
Urban vs. Suburban	-.06**
Urban vs. Rural	.10***
School Poverty Levels	-.02
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.11***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.09***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.10***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.04*
The impact of state test results on teachers' job security	.14***
The Effect of State Standards on evaluation and assessment of students	.08**

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Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Table 4.20 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables. At the high school level, some of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with control over evaluating and grading students ($r = .14$, $p<.0001$ for the impact of state test results on job security; $r = .10$, $p<.0001$ for the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students; $r= -.10$, $p<.0001$ for use of pacing guides ; $r= -.10$, $p<.0001$ for existence of mandated state social studies test). The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over the evaluation and grading of students) were all weak, ranging from r = .00, p =.49 to r = .14, p < .0001.

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Table 4.20. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2497)

Variables	Control over the evaluation and grading of students
Male	-.003
White vs. Indian	.02
White vs. Asian	.01
White vs. Black	-.02
White vs. Hispanic	-.02
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	.01
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	.002
Master's degree in social studies related field	.02
Years of teaching experience	.00
Licensure/certification	.02
Public vs. Charter	-.03
Public vs. private	.06**
Urban vs. Suburban	-.08***
Urban vs. Rural	.10***
School Poverty Levels	-.02
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.09***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.10***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.10***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.06**
The impact of state test results on teachers' job security	.14***
The Effect of State Standards on evaluation and assessment of students	.10***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over evaluating and grading students, a hierarchical multiple

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regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over the evaluation and grading of students was the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (Bachelor's degree major or minor in and master's degree in social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession, were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector (public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, which included the use of pacing guides, the existence of a mandated state test on social studies in middle and junior high school or high school levels, the influence of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security, were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4).

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Evaluation and Grading of Students in the Instruction among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4. 21 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over the evaluation and grading of students in the instruction at middle and junior high school level**.** Model 2-4 results address the research questions of this study.

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Table 4.21. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Evaluation and Grading of Students at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1675)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	.04(.03)	.03	.03 (.03)	.03	.04(.03)	.03	.04(.03)	.03
white vs. Indian	.01(.19)	.001	.02 (.19)	.003	.01(.19)	.001	.04(.18)	.01
white vs. Asian	-.11(.25)	-.01	-.12 (.25)	-.01	-.04(.25)	-.004	.01(.25)	.001
white vs. black	-.07(.07)	-.03	-.06 (.07)	-.02	-.01(.07)	-.003	.03(.07)	.01
white vs. Hispanic	.10(.1)	.02	.12 (.10)	.03	.20(.10)	.05	.19(.10)	.05
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			.04 (.03)	.03	.02(.03)	.02	.02(.03)	.02
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.01 (.03)	-.01	-.01(.03)	-.01	-.02(.03)	-.02
Master's degree in Social studies			-.00 (.05)	-.001	-.01(.05)	-.01	-.02(.05)	-.01
Years of Teaching Experience			-.001 (.002)	-.01	-.002(.002)	-.03	-.002 (.002)	-.03
Licensure			-.11 (.06)	-.05	-.08(.06)	-.03	-.06(.06)	-.03
Public vs. Charter					.08(.12)	.02	.08(.12)	.02
Public vs. Private					.07(.09)	.02	.07(.09)	.02
Urban vs. Suburban					-.04(.04)	-.03	-.02(.04)	-.02
Urban vs. Rural					.07(.04)	.06	.08(.04)	.06
School poverty levels					-.002(.02)	-.01	.002(.02)	.003

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Table 4.21. Continued.

Minority enrollment levels					-.004** (.001)	-.10	-.001*(.001)	-.07
Use of Pacing Guides							-.05(.04)	-.03
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.09**(.03)	-.07
The Effect of State Standards on Evaluation							.06(.03)	.06
The Effects of state test on job security							.07***(.02)	.11
Constant	3.59		3.60		3.70		3.55	
R^2	.002		.01		.023**		.05***	
R^2 Change			.003		.02***		.024***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Model 1. In step 1, the model was not statistically significant (F (5, 1669) =.83, p=.53). The model as a whole explained 0.2 % of variance in reported levels of teachers' control over the evaluation of students.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. In step 2, the model as a whole explained 1% of the variance in teacher control and teacher-level factors accounted for additional 0.3 % in teacher control, after controlling for gender and race effects of middle and junior high school social studies teachers. This model was not statistically significant (F (10, 1664) = 0.92, p=.52). All teacher-level variables did not significantly predict teachers' reported levels of control over evaluating and grading students.

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Answers to research question #2

Model 3. In step 3, the model was significantly different from zero (F (16, 1658) =2.44, $p < .01$). The model as a whole explained 2.3% of the variance and the school-level factors accounted for additional 2% of variance in reported levels of teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. Among the school-related factors, only one variable, minority enrollment levels, made a significant contribution to the explanation of teacher control over the evaluation and grading of students, ($\beta = -0.1$, $p < .01$). This model shows that greater minority enrollments led to lower levels of reported teacher control over the task of evaluating and grading students. The other school-level factors did not predict teacher control to a statistically significant level.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. Step 4 shows the full model. This model is also statistically significant (F(21, 1653)=3.90, $p < .0001$) and as a whole explained 5% of the variance of teacher control over the evaluation of students. The introduction of policy factors explained additional 2.4% in teacher control, after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. Only two variables, the effect of state test results on teachers' job security and existence of mandated state social studies tests were found to be statistically significant predictors in reported levels of middle and junior high school social studies teachers' control over evaluating and grading students, respectively, ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < .0001$) ($\beta = -.07$, $p < .01$).The results show that teachers' perceptions of the effect of state test results on their job security are positively associated with middle and junior high school social studies teacher control over the evaluation and grading of students. In other words, teachers who strongly agreed that the state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of control over evaluation than those who did not feel such an impact. This indicates that middle and junior high school teachers who are evaluated and sanctioned based on the state test results reported lower

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levels of control over the task of evaluating students than those who do not. Also, mandated state social studies tests predicted middle and junior high school social studies teachers' control over the evaluation of students to a statistically significant level. Social studies teachers who report they gave a mandated state social studies test reported significantly lower levels of control over the evaluation and grading of students than those who observed they did not give students mandated state social studies tests.

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Table 4.22. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Evaluation and Grading of Students at High School Level (N=2497)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.003 (.02)	-.003	-.004(.02)	-.003	.01(.03)	.01	.02(.02)	.02
white vs. Indian	.15(.13)	.02	.14(.13)	.02	.12(.13)	.02	.16(.13)	.02
white vs. Asian	.07(.19)	.01	.07(.19)	.01	.10(.19)	.01	.09(.19)	.01
white vs. black	-.07(.08)	-.02	-.08(.08)	-.02	-.03(.08)	-.01	-.01(.08)	-.002
white vs. Hispanic	-.07(.09)	-.02	-.07(.09)	-.02	-.01(.09)	-.003	.002(.09)	.001
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			.01(.03)	.01	0(.03)	.00	0(.03)	.00
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			.003(.03)	.002	-.003(.02)	-.002	-.01(.02)	-.01
Master's degree in Social studies			.03(.03)	.02	.02(.03)	.02	.02(.03)	.01
Years of Teaching Experience			0(.001)	.01	-.001(.001)	-.01	-.001(.001)	-.02
Licensure			.04(.04)	.02	.06(.04)	.03	.04(.04)	.02
Public vs. Charter					-.18(.11)	-.03	-.20(.11)	-.04
Public vs. Private					.18**(.07)	.05	.12(.07)	.04
Urban vs. Suburban					-.10**(.04)	-.08	-.08*(.03)	-.07
Urban vs. Rural					.05(.04)	.04	.06(.04)	.05
School poverty levels					-.02(.02)	-.02	-.01(.02)	-.01
Minority enrollment levels					-.002**(.001)	-.08)	-.001*(.001)	-.05
Use of Pacing Guides							-.06*(.03)	-.05

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Table 4.22. Continued.

Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.08**(.03)	-.07
The effects of State Standards on evaluation							.05*(.02)	.08
The Effects of state test on job security							.06***(.01)	.10
Constant	3.63		3.59		3.73		3.57	
R^2	.001		.002		.02***		.05***	
R^2 Change			.001		.02***		.03***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Evaluation and Grading of Students in the Instruction among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.22 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over evaluating and grading students in the instruction at high school level**.** Model 2-4 results address the research questions of this study.

Model 1. In step 1, the model was not statistically significant (F (5, 2491) = .60, p=.70). The model as a whole explained 0.1% of variance in reported levels of teachers' control over the selection of teaching techniques.

Answers to research question #2

Model 2. This model explained as a whole accounted for 0.2% of the variance in teacher control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of high school socials studies teachers. The introduction of teacher-level factors explained additional 0.1 % in teacher control. This model was not also statistically significant (F (10, 2486) = .50,

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p=.89). All teacher-level variables did not significantly predict teachers' reported levels of control over evaluating and grading students.

Answers to research question #3

Model 3. In step 3, the model was significantly different from zero (F (16, 2480) =3.54, $p < .0001$). The model explained as a whole explained 2.2 % of the variance, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of social studies teachers and teacher-level factors. The introduction of school-level factors accounted for additional 2 % of variance in reported levels of teacher control. Among all the school-related factors, school context (urban vs. suburban) and minority enrollment levels made the most significant contributions to the explanation of teacher control over evaluating students (both $\beta = -.08$, $p < .01$). School context is negatively and significantly associated with teacher authority (coded as 0=urban and 1=suburban). Teachers who work in inner city schools are found to report higher degrees of control over the task of evaluating students than those who work in suburban schools. Greater minority enrollments led to lower levels of reported teacher control over the task of evaluating and assessing students. Additionally, school sector (public vs. private) predicted teacher control to a statistically significant level ($\beta = 0.05$, $p < .01$). School sector is positively and significantly associated with teacher authority (coded as 0=public and 1=private). Private school teachers reported higher levels of authority than public school teachers.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. Step 4 shows the full model. This model is also statistically significant ($F(21, 2475)= 5.88$, $p < .0001$), as a whole explained 5% of the variance, after taking into account the effects of gender and race of teachers, teacher-level, and school-level factors. The policy factors predicted additional 3 % variance in teacher control over the evaluation of students. All policy factors made significant contributions to the explanation of high school social studies teachers' control. The effect of state test results on teachers' job security was shown to be the most statistically significant predictor in

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reported levels of teacher control over evaluating and grading students ($\beta = 0.1$, $p < .0001$). Also, the effects of state standards on evaluation and assessment, the existence of mandated state social studies tests, and the use of pacing guides were shown to be statistically significant predictors of high school social studies teachers' control (in numerical order, $\beta = .08$, $p < .05$, $\beta = -.07$, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.05$, $p < .05$). The results of the full model show that teachers' perceptions of the effect of state test results on their job security are related to the reported levels of teacher control in the area of evaluation and assessment. In other words, teachers who strongly believed that state test results impacted their job security reported significantly lower levels of control in the area of evaluation and assessment, while teachers who felt less of an impact of testing reported higher levels of control. This indicates that teachers who are evaluated and sanctioned based on the state test results report lower levels of control over evaluating students than those who do not. It is possible that where test results are impactful, the choice of evaluation methods is controlled by administrators or department chairs instead of teacher themselves. Additionally, teachers who strongly agree with the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students reported significantly lower levels of authority, while those who felt less of an effect of state standards reported higher levels of authority. Interestingly, teachers who give the mandated state social studies tests have significantly higher authority than those who do not. Also, teachers who use pacing guides have significantly higher authority than those who do not.

Category 6: Overall Control over the Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching

In this section, total sum of teacher control over five areas of classroom work, 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, were investigated. Before the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was

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performed, the independent variables were examined for collinearity. An examination of correlations revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. At the junior high school level, results of the variance inflation factor were all less than 2.62 and those of collinearity tolerance were all greater than .38. At the high school level, results of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were all less than 3.0, and collinearity tolerance were all greater than .34. This suggests that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem at both junior high and high school levels.

Correlations among the Predictor and Outcome Variables

Pearson correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables were calculated and the results are displayed in Table 4.23. At the middle and junior high school level, most of the predictors were weakly but statistically significantly correlated with overall control over five areas of planning and teaching (r = .23, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on job security; r = -.20, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels; r=-.18, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides; r= .17, p<.0001 for school context (urban vs. rural)). The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over five areas of planning and teaching) were all weak, ranging from r = .004, p =.44 to r = .23, p < .0001.

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Table 4.23. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1699)

Variables	Overall control over the collective five areas of planning and teaching
Male	-.09***
White vs. Indian	.004
White vs. Asian	-.02
White vs. Black	-.09***
White vs. Hispanic	-.04
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	-.05*
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.03
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.05*
Years of teaching experience	.03
Licensure/certification	-.08***
Public vs. Charter	.02
Public vs. private	.08***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.10***
Urban vs. Rural	.17***
School Poverty Levels	-.09***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.20***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.18***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.10***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.13***
The Effect of State Standards on Evaluation and Assessment of Students	.16***
The impact of state test results on job security	.23***

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

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Pearson's correlation coefficients among the predictor and outcome variables are shown in Table 4.24. At the high school level, most of the predictors were statistically significantly correlated with overall control over five areas of planning and teaching (r = .22, p<.0001 for the impact of state test results on job security; r = -.21, p<.0001 for use of pacing guides; r= -.21, p<.0001 for minority enrollment levels; r=.18, p<.0001 for the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students). The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variable (control over five areas of planning and teaching) were all weak, ranging from r = -.01, p =.39 to r = .22, p < .0001.

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Table 4.24. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients among the Predictor and Outcome Variables at the High School Level (N=2521)

Variables	Overall control over the collective five areas of planning and teaching
Male	-.03
White vs. Indian	.02
White vs. Asian	.02
White vs. Black	-.07***
White vs. Hispanic	-.03
Bachelor's degree major in Social studies related field	-.01
Bachelor's degree minor in Social studies related field	-.03
Master's degree in social studies related field	-.02
Years of teaching experience	.09***
Licensure/certification	-.02
Public vs. Charter	-.02
Public vs. private	.12***
Urban vs. Suburban	-.08***
Urban vs. Rural	.14***
School Poverty Levels	-.08***
Minority Enrollment Levels	-.21***
Use of Pacing Guides	-.21***
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests	-.14***
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional decision-making	.17***
The Effect of State Standards on Evaluation and Assessment of Students	.18***
The impact of state test results on job security	.22***

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

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Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To examine the relative contributions of teacher-related, school-related, and testing policy factors in the explanation of secondary school social studies teachers' authority and control over five areas of planning and teaching work, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Self-reported levels of teacher control over five areas were the dependent variable. Independent variables that explain teacher authority were entered in four steps. In step 1, gender and race/ethnicity of teachers were taken into account as independent variables (Model 1). In step 2, teacher-level factors, such as (a) academic degree (Bachelor's degree major or minor in and Master's degree in social studies related field), (b) licensure/certification, and (c) years of experience in the profession were entered into the step 2 equation as the independent variables (Model 2). In step 3, school-level factors, such as (a) school sector (public, private or charter), (b) school context (urban, suburban or rural/small town), (c) school poverty levels, and (d) minority enrollment levels, were entered into the step 3 equation (Model 3). In step 4, testing policy factors, which are use of pacing guides, existence of mandated state test on social studies in junior high school or high school levels, the impact of state standards on instructional decision-making, the impact of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the impact of state test results on teachers' job security were entered into the step 4 equation as independent variables (Model 4).

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Table 4.25. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching at Middle and Junior High School Level (N=1699)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.66***(.15)	-.09	-.61**(.18)	-.09	-.55**(.17)	-.08	-.44*(.17)	-.06
white vs. Indian	.20(.18)	.01	.35(1.02)	.01	.21(.98)	.01	.42(.10)	.01
white vs. Asian	-1.13(1.23)	-.02	-1.10(1.23)	-.02	-.46(1.24)	-.01	-.09(1.20)	-.002
white vs. black	-1.21**(.36)	-.08	-1.05*(.36)	-.07	-.60(.36)	-.04	-.35(.35)	-.02
white vs. Hispanic	.79*(.55)	.04	.95(.55)	.04	1.71**(.54)	.08	1.68**(.53)	.07
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			-.22(.17)	-.03	-.38*(.17)	-.06	-.37*(.16)	-.06
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.14(.17)	-.02	-.22(.17)	-.03	-.26(.16)	-.04
Master's degree in Social studies related field			-.40(.27)	-.04	-.46(.27)	-.04	-.49(.26)	-.04
Years of Teaching Experience			.01(.01)	.02	-.003(.01)	-.01	-.004(.01)	-.01
Licensure /Certification			-1.01**(.31)	-.08	-.73*(.30)	-.06	-.57(.29)	.05
Public vs. Charter					1.01(.63)	.04	.93(.61)	.04
Public vs. Private					1.40**(.45)	.07	1.13*(.45)	.06
Urban vs. Suburban					-.68**(.22)	-.10	-.52*(.22)	-.08
Urban vs. Rural					.63**(.23)	.09	.68**(.23)	.10

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Table 4.25. Continued.

School poverty levels					-.26**(.10)	-.08	-.23*(.10)	-.07
Minority enrollment levels					-.02***(.003)	-.15	-.01*** (.003)	-.11
Use of Pacing Guides							-.67*** (.18)	-.09
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.38*(.17)	-.06
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional Decision-Making							-.10(.19)	-.02
The Effect of State Standards on Evaluation and Assessment of Students							.30(.17)	.07
The Effects of state test results on job security							.55***(.08)	.16
Constant	16		16.48		18.20		16.85	
R^2	.017***		.03***		.09***		.14***	
R^2 Change			.01**		.07***		.05***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Associations of Teacher-level, School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching among Middle and Junior High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.25 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over five areas of planning and teaching at middle and junior high School Level**.**

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Model 1. The results of step 1 indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two independent variables (gender and race/ethnicity) equaled .017, which was significantly different from zero ($F_{(5, 1693)}$=5.94, p<.0001). Gender was the statistically significant independent variable, β = -.09, p<.0001. Race (White vs. Black ; White vs. Hispanic) was also statistically significant, β = -.08, p< .01, and β = .04, p<.05 respectively.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After entry of teacher-related factors at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 3% (F (10, 1688) = 4.73; p < .0001). The introduction of teacher-related factors explained additional 1 % variance in middle and junior high school social studies teachers' control, after controlling for gender and race effects of those social studies teachers. In step 2, of five teacher-related predictor variables, licensure/certification was the only statistically significant variable, reporting the highest Beta value (β = -.08, p < .01). It was found that social studies teachers who were licensed through traditional paths, such as attending a four-year teacher preparation program, part of a Master's degree program, a five-year program, or a post-baccalaureate program, had significantly higher levels of authority and control over five areas of planning and teaching work than those who received licensure through an alternative program or emergency certification, or were not licensed.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. This model accounted for 9% of variance and school-level factors added another 7% of the variance. All of the school-level factors other than school sector (public vs. charter) contributed significantly to the explanation of social studies teachers' authority and control. Among all the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels are the greatest predictor of middle and junior high school social studies teachers' control (β = -.15, p < .0001), followed by school context (urban vs. suburban, β = -.10, p < .01; urban vs. rural, β = .09, p < .01), school poverty levels (β = -.08, p < .01) and school

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sector (public vs. private, β = .07, $p < .01$). Differences between public and charter schools did not explain teacher control to a statistically significant degree (β = .04, p = .11). The results of model 3 show that the more minority and more low-income students are enrolled in the school setting, the less authority and control middle and junior high school social studies teachers reported. Teachers of public schools reported lower levels of authority and control than do those in private schools. Regarding school context, social studies teachers who worked in urban areas reported higher authority and control than those in suburban areas, while teachers in urban settings reported less authority and control than those who worked in rural areas.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. In the final step, policy factors were entered: use of pacing guides, existence of state mandated social studies test, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security. This model was statistically significant F(21, 1677)=13.25, p<.0001), explained 14% of the variance in teacher authority and control, and the policy factors accounted for additional 5%, after controlling for the effects of gender, race, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors (R^2 change =.05). The results of model 4 indicate that middle and junior high school social studies teachers who agree with the effect of state test results on their job security have significantly lower authority than those who disagree. Teachers who do not use pacing guides reported significantly lower levels of authority than those who have (p <.0001). Also, teachers who gave a state mandated social studies test reported significantly lower levels of authority and control over five areas of classroom work than those who did not.

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Table 4.26. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Teacher Control over the Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching at High School Level (N=2521)

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Male	-.20(.13)	-.03	-.17(.13)	-.03	-.03(.12)	-.01	.07(.12)	.01
white vs. Indian	.70(.67)	.02	.80(.67)	.02	.64(.65)	.02	.89(.63)	.03
white vs. Indian	.70(.67)	02	.80(.67)	02	.64(.65)	02	.89(.63)	03
white vs. Asian	.97(.10)	02	.99(.99)	02	1.20(.10)	02	1.02(.93)	02
white vs. black	-1.36**(.40)	.07	-1.32**(.40)	.07	-.66(.39)	.03	-.48(.38)	.02
white vs. Hispanic	-.70(.45)	.03	-.59(.45)	.03	-.01(.44)		.04(.43)	002
Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field			-.06(.15)	.01	-.13(.15)	.02	-.12(.15)	.02
Bachelor's degree minor in social studies related field			-.17(.13)	0.03	-.19(.12)	.03	-.22(.12)	.03
Master's degree in Social studies			.04(.16)	01	-.02(.15)	.003	-.03(.15)	.004
Years of Teaching Experience			.03***(.01)	09	.02**(.01)	05	.01(.01)	03
Licensure/Certification			-.07(.21)	.01	.13(.21)	01	-.06(.20)	.01

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Table 4.26. Continued.

Public vs. Charter					-.53(.54)	.02	-.85(.52)	.03
Public vs. Private					1.77***(.34)	10	1.21***(.33)	07
Urban vs. Suburban					-.63***(.18)	.10	-.51**(.17)	.08
Urban vs. Rural					.34(.18)	05	.4*(.18)	06
School poverty levels					-.15(.08)	.05	-.06(.08)	.02
Minority enrollment levels					-.02***(.003)	.17	-.01***(.003)	.12
Use of Pacing Guides							-.82***(.13)	.12
Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests							-.44**(.13)	-.07
The Effect of State Standards on Instructional Decision-Making							.16(.12)	.04
The Effect of State Standards on Evaluation and Assessment of Students							.19(.12)	.05
The Effects of state test results on job security							.40***(.06)	.13
Constant	16.51		16.19		17.44		16.10	
R^2	.007**		.02***		.07***		.14***	
R^2 Change			.01**		.06***		.06***	

Note**.** b= unstandardized regression coefficient with standard error in parentheses; Beta = standardized regression coefficient. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

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Associations of Teacher-level and School-level Factors, and Testing Policy on Control over the Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching among High School Social Studies Teachers

Table 4.26 shows the unstandardized regression coefficient (b) with standard error in parentheses, the standardized regression coefficients (β), their standard errors, R^2 and R^2 change for teacher control over five areas of planning and teaching at high school level**.**

Model 1. The results of step 1 indicate that the model accounted for 0.7% of the variance in teacher control, and was statistically significant ($F_{(5, 2515)} = 3.79$, $p < .01$). Race (White vs. Black) was the only statistically significant variable, $\beta = -.07$, $p < .01$. This model shows that white teachers have significantly higher authority than black teachers.

Answers to research question #1

Model 2. After entry of teacher-related factors at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 2% ($F(10, 2510) = 3.96$; $p < .0001$). The introduction of teacher-related factors explained additional 1% variance in high school social studies teachers' control, after controlling for the effects of gender and race of high school social studies teachers. Of all the five predictor variables, years of teaching experience made the sole and significant contribution to teacher control, ($\beta = .20$, $p < .0001$). An additional year of teaching experience increases high school social studies teacher authority by an average of .03 points.

Answers to research question #2

Model 3. Table 4.26 indicates that 6% of high school teachers' authority and control was accounted for by the school-level predictor variables listed. Of all the school-level factors, minority enrollment levels made the greatest contribution to the explanation of high school social studies teacher control ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .0001$), followed by school context (urban vs. suburban, $\beta = -.10$, $p < .0001$), and school sector (public vs. private, $\beta = .10$, $p < .0001$). School poverty levels did not predict teacher control to a statistically significant degree ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .06$). Greater minority student enrollments

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were associated with less classroom authority. Also, urban school teachers reported significantly higher authority than suburban school teachers. School sector data indicated that teachers who work in public schools reported significantly less authority than those who worked in private school environments.

Answers to research question #3

Model 4. In the final step, four policy factors were entered: use of pacing guides, existence of state mandated social studies test, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students, and the effect of state test results on teachers' job security. This model was statistically significant $F(21, 2499)=18.80$, $p<.0001$) and explained 14% of variance in high school teacher control. The policy factors explained additional 6%, after controlling for the potential effects of gender, race, teacher-related factors, and school-related factors. Among the policy predictors listed, the effect of state test results on job security made the greatest contribution to high school social studies teachers' control ($\beta = .13$, $p < .0001$). The use of pacing guides and the existence of mandated state social studies tests predicted teacher control to a statistically significant degree ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .0001$; $\beta = -.07$, $p < .01$ respectively). However, the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making and the influence of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students made no significant contributions to high school teacher control.

Summary of Results

The results indicate that teachers' characteristics, school-level characteristics and policy factors predicted self-reported levels of secondary social studies teachers' authority and control in five key areas of classroom work. 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, and 5) the evaluation and grading of students. The findings of this

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study are summarized in the following table 4.27 and described for each of the research questions.

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Table. 4.27. Summary of the Results

Variable		Teachers' professional factors	School environmental factors	State-level testing policy factors
The Selection of Textbook and Other Materials	Middle and Junior high	Years of teaching experience	School sector (public vs. charter)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban vs. rural)	
			School poverty levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
		Licensure/certification	Minority enrollment levels	
	High	Years of teaching experience	School sector (public vs. private vs. charter)	The use of a pacing guide
		Licensure/certification	School context(urban vs. rural vs. suburban)	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
			Minority enrollment levels	
The Selection of Content Topics and Skills to be Taught	Middle and Junior high	Bachelor's degree major in social studies related field	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
		Master's degree in social studies related field	School context(urban vs. suburban)	The effect of state standards on instructional decision-making
			Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
	High	Years of teaching experience	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
			Minority enrollment levels	The effect of state standards on instructional decision-making
				The impact of state test results on teachers' job security

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Table 4.27. Continued.

The Selection of Which Parts of the Curriculum to Emphasize	Middle and Junior high	Years of teaching experience	School sector (public vs. private vs. charter)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
		Licensure/certification	School poverty levels	The effect of state standards on instructional decision-making
			Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
	High	None	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
			School poverty levels	The effect of state standards on instructional decision-making
			Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
The Selection of Teaching Techniques	Middle and Junior high	None	Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
	High	None	School sector (public vs. charter)	The use of a pacing guide
			School poverty levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
			Minority enrollment levels	
The Evaluation and Grading of Students	Middle and Junior high	None	Minority enrollment levels	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
				The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
	High	None	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
				The effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students
			Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security

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Table 4.27. Continued.

The Collective Five Areas of Planning and Teaching	Middle and Junior high	Licensure/certification	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
			school context(urban vs. rural vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
			School poverty levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security
			Minority enrollment levels	
	High	Years of teaching experience	School sector (public vs. private)	The use of a pacing guide
			School context(urban vs. suburban)	The existence of mandated state social studies tests
			Minority enrollment levels	The impact of state test results on teachers' job security

Research Question #1

To what extent do teachers' characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background and the nature of their certification, as well as the number of years in the profession of teaching, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential gender and race effects?

As can be seen from Table 4.27, similar and different findings are detected across six variables: 1) the selection of textbook and other materials, 2) the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, 3) the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, 4) the selection of teaching techniques, 5) the evaluation and grading of students, and 6) the collective five areas of planning and teaching. First, the number of years in the profession of teaching predicted middle and junior high social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbooks and other materials and the curriculum selection. Middle and junior high school teachers who logged more

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years of teaching experience reported higher levels of authority and control over the selection of textbooks and other materials in the classroom over less experienced teachers. On the other hand, more experienced teachers reported less authority over the selection of the curriculum to emphasize. Also, teaching experience predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Teaching experience in the classroom among high school social studies teachers resulted in higher levels of reported authority and control.

Second, the findings of this study revealed that licensure/certification served as a predictor for middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the curriculum selection, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Moreover, the licensure/certification predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials. Teachers who were licensed through traditional paths reported higher levels of authority and control against those who were licensed through emergency certification, or an alternative program, or not licensed at all.

Finally, the procurement of a bachelor's degree major in social studies related field and the procurement of a master's degree in social studies related field predicted middle and junior high social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught. In other words, middle and junior high school teachers who earned a bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority and control than those who had a bachelor's degree major in education, or a non-social studies related field, or no bachelor's degree at all. Also, middle and junior high teachers who had a master's degree in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority over those with a master's degree in education, or a non-social studies related field.

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Research Question #2

To what extent do school-level characteristics, such as the type of school, school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and the school context, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for the potential effects of gender, race and teacher-level characteristics?

There are similar findings across the six variables. First, minority enrollment levels predicted teachers' authority and control in all the six variables. Minority enrollment levels and teacher authority were negatively and significantly associated. Greater minority enrollments were associated with less authority and control in the classroom.

Second, school poverty levels served as a predictor for middle and junior high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the curriculum selection, the selection of teaching techniques, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Also, school poverty levels predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the curriculum selection and the selection of teaching techniques. Greater low-income enrollments were associated with less authority and control in the classroom.

Third, school sector data (public vs. charter) predicted middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials and the curriculum selection, and high school teachers' authority over the selection of textbook and other materials and the selection of teaching techniques. Teachers who worked in public schools reported lower levels of authority and control than those who worked in charter schools. The school sector data (public vs. private) predicted middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, and all the five areas of planning and teaching, and high school teachers' authority over the selection of

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textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, the evaluation and grading of students, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Public school teachers reported lower levels of authority and control than private school teachers.

Finally, school context data (urban vs. suburban) predicted middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. School context data (urban vs. suburban) also served as a predictor for high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, the evaluation and grading of students and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Teachers who worked in urban/city school settings reported higher levels of authority and control in the classroom than teachers in suburban schools. School context data (urban vs. rural) predicted middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials and all the five areas of planning and teaching, and high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials. Teachers who worked in urban school settings reported less authority and control over those working in rural schools.

Research Question #3

To what extent do, the existence of mandated state tests for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the implementation of state standards on instructional decision-making and on the evaluation and assessment practices as well as the use of state test results on job security, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential effects of gender, race, teacher-level, and school-level characteristics?

Common findings are found across the six variables. First, the impact of state test results on teachers' job security predicted middle and junior high, and high school

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teachers' authority and control in all the six variables. Teachers who agreed that state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of authority and control than those who did not feel such an impact. This indicates that teachers who were assessed, rewarded, and sanctioned on the basis of the state test results reported lower levels of authority compared to those who did not.

Second, the use of a pacing guide predicted high school teachers' authority and control in all the six variables, and middle and junior high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Teachers who responded their school districts used a pacing guide for social studies reported higher levels of authority and control compared to those who reported their school districts did not.

Third, the existence of mandated state social studies tests predicted middle and junior high school teachers' authority and control over the curriculum selection, the evaluation and grading of students, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. Middle school teachers who gave a mandated state social studies test reported lower levels of authority over teachers who did not give such exams. The existence of mandated state social studies tests also predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills, the curriculum selection, the evaluation and grading of students, and all the five areas of planning and teaching. High school teachers who gave a mandated social studies test reported higher levels of authority and control than those who did not.

Fourth, the effect of state standards on instructional decision-making predicted middle and junior high, and high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills and the curriculum selection. Teachers who believed that state standards affected instructional decision-making reported lower levels of authority over those who did not hold such beliefs.

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Finally, the effect of state standards on evaluation and assessment of students predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the evaluation and grading of students. High school teachers who believed that state standards affected evaluation and assessment reported lower levels of authority and control against those who did not.

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CHAPTER V.
DISCUSSION

This study investigated three main research questions. First, to what extent do teachers' characteristics, such as the nature of their degree background and the nature of their certification, as well as the number of years in the profession of teaching, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for potential gender and race effects?

Second, to what extent do school-level characteristics, such as the type of school, school poverty levels, minority enrollment levels, and the school context, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for the potential effects of gender, race and teacher-level characteristics?

Third, to what extent do, the existence of mandated state tests for social studies, the use of a pacing guide, the implementation of state standards on instructional decision-making and on the evaluation and assessment practices as well as the use of state test results on job security, predict the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers, controlling for the potential effects of gender, race, teacher-level, and school-level characteristics?

In this chapter, I discuss the main findings from this study and how the findings support or are in contradiction with existing research. The chapter concludes with implications for future research.

Teacher Professional Characteristics and the Self-Reported Levels of Classroom Authority and Control among Secondary Social Studies Teachers

Academic Degree and Teacher Authority

This study reveals that professional characteristics do predict self-reported levels of classroom authority and control in the classroom, after controlling for the effects of race and gender of teachers, but without accounting for the school-level factors and factors related to state testing policy.

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Results indicate that holding a bachelor's or master's degree in a social studies related field predicted middle and junior high school social studies teachers' self-reported levels of authority and control in the area of choosing content topics and skills to be taught. In other words, middle and junior high school teachers who held a bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority and control over the selection of content topics and skills than did those with a bachelor's degree majors in education, or in a non-social studies related field, and those with no bachelor's degree. Also, middle and junior high teachers who held a master's degree in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority over the selection of content topics and skills than did those who held only a master's degrees in education, or a non-social studies related field.

Academic degree background has much to do with a teacher's knowledge of subject matter, pedagogy and curriculum (Ingersoll, 2003a). Content knowledge among teachers as well as the importance of pedagogical and curricular knowledge works as a motivational power for teachers to exercise professional discretion and ambitious teaching in the classroom (Grant, 2003; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Pace, 2011; Salinas, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005). Especially, the content knowledge of teachers is highly related to their decision in selecting content topics and skills to be taught. Teachers' subject matter knowledge is at the root of other types of teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1987). Teachers who have a strong academic background in a social studies related discipline may have greater knowledge of the subject matter, more confidence in teaching the content area, and better decision-making powers in deciding on what to teach and how to teach than their out-of-field peers (Ingersoll, 2003; Shulman, 1987; Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988). Teachers who do not have a strong background in the field tend not to be able to teach students how to think critically and arouse students' interest in the subject (Ingersoll, 2003).

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The results of this study showing the association between teachers' own academic background and their decision-making power in teaching practices fit well with previous studies (Pace, 2011; Salinas, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005), which see the content knowledge and background of the social studies teachers as fundamental to the exercise of authority over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught in a high-stakes testing circumstances. As emphasized in Salinas (2006), teacher content knowledge and knowledge of educational contexts play an important role in the context of high-stakes accountability. Teacher knowledge must be of great importance in preparation of the state tests because teachers rely on their content knowledge to teach social studies. Salinas (2006) showed that teachers not only taught the specific period or events that appeared on the state tests, but they also spent time covering relevant topics to help students become active citizens and think critically about contemporary issues. While they followed the demands of the high-stakes accountability, at the same time they retained a wider sense of teaching. For example, when teachers were requested to align their curriculum to the state standards and test, and to develop the new curriculum guides, teachers were usually unwilling to give up on the curriculum documents they created for their own unique teaching purposes, and "their professional understandings of the ways in which American history should be designed, taught, and assessed" (Salinas, p.189).

Exemplary teachers should possess an in-depth knowledge about the structures of a particular content area, the principles of theoretical formation, and knowledge related to pedagogy, curriculum, and students, as researchers argued (Carter, 1990; Shulman, 1987). Teachers require such knowledge in order to "psychologize" the content (Dewey, 1902). In other words, teachers need to be able to motivate students to construct, comprehend, and learn concepts independently and enjoyably by connecting learning experiences to prior experiences, interests, capacities and backgrounds (Carter, 1990; Dewey, 1902; Hlebowitsh, 2005; Shulman, 1987).

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Teaching Experience and Teacher Authority

The results of this study show that teaching experience is related to middle and junior high social studies teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbooks and other materials and over the curriculum selection, and high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, over the selection of content topics and skills, and over the collective five areas of planning and teaching. At both middle and junior high, and high school levels, teachers who had more years of teaching experience reported higher levels of authority and control over the choice of textbook and other sources than did those with less experience. The high school social studies teachers with more teaching experience reported higher levels of authority over the selection of content and skills and the collective five areas of teaching examined in this study. This suggests that high school teachers with more experience perceived more power to make decisions in selecting content and skills to be taught.

Several studies are consistent with the findings of this study. Previous research examining the difference between experts and novices have shown that expert teachers have a sounder and more complicated structure of knowledge crafted largely from their classroom experience (Berliner, 2004; Carter, 1990; Meyer, 2004; Rockoff, 2006; Salinas, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006). Knowledge of discipline, curriculum, and educational circumstances created and accumulated over many years of teaching offers increased power to teachers (Salinas, 2006). Beginning teachers tend to lack in understanding of learners' prior knowledge and its importance to lead to constructivist teaching practices, and to pay attention to superficial traits or particular objects. Inexperienced teachers are likely to attend more to their daily challenges related to their survival like managing student behavior, gaining knowledge about content, and teaching topics that would be on the test than student real learning (van Hover, 2006). By contrast, expert teachers with more teaching experience are more likely to employ a collection of knowledge that is fashioned around classroom experience, make sense of an elaborated

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notion of prior knowledge, and draw on their students' prior knowledge effectively (Carter, 1990; Meyer; 2004). Also, experienced teachers tend to be more knowledgeable about social studies teaching, and how to teach in a classroom setting with a roomful of students. They are capable of caring about student learning and comprehending the progress of student learning by employing information derived from tests to design their teaching practices and engage in wise, critical practices in the context of state-mandated testing reform (Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006). Berliner (2004) suggested that teachers become more familiar with unexpected classroom events as their teaching experience increases. It may take 5 to 7 years for teachers to be skillful in their work (Berliner, 2004).

As previous research indicated (Salinas, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006), teaching experience is associated with teacher knowledge and ability to exercise professional judgments and to enact ambitious teaching in response to the demands of high-stakes accountability. Teachers with more teaching experience tend to possess better knowledge about content, pedagogy, classroom events, and students (Berliner, 2004; Salinas, 2006). Teachers with more experience seems to have the ability to handle the classroom, to devise strategies to meet students' learning needs, and to cope with challenges caused by pressures from administrators and state-level testing policy. In this regard, this study suggests that teaching experience must play an important role for teachers' classroom authority and ambitious teaching in an age of high-stakes accountability.

This study also indicates that more experienced middle and junior high school social studies teachers reported lower levels of authority and control over the selection of curriculum. This finding was unexpected, but seems to be consistent with other research (Yeager and Pinder, 2006) which found that a novice teacher had more control over her instruction by integrating her history teaching with development of students' literacy skills without sacrificing teaching of historical knowledge in comparison to an experienced teacher who focused heavily on instruction of literacy skills at the expense of

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history teaching. It seems that teacher willingness to be in control of their instructional practices and to implement ambitious teaching may be a factor here.

Additionally, this study shows that inexperienced teachers reported higher levels of authority. This may be the result of a misperception held by beginning teachers as observed in prior research (van Hover, 2006). Novice teachers hardly recognized the prevalent impact of the state testing policy on their instruction. The novice teachers started their career in a high-stakes testing context and were not familiar with what it was like working in other teaching contexts (van Hover, 2006). van Hover (2006) discovered that three beginning World History teachers in three different schools covered the same core content in their teaching. But how teachers interpreted the effect of state standards and testing on their teaching and how they perceived their control over their instructions were not consistent with how much actual control they actually had in the classroom. This finding supports the idea that beginning teachers may know only the context they face currently. They may not acknowledge the impact of testing policy on their choice of the curriculum. However, experienced teachers may report a lower authority because they carry a historical memory of past practices. They may perceive that their discretion to choose the curriculum is more constrained by the state testing policy or administrators in the present than in the past.

Licensure/Certification and Teacher Authority

The current study shows that the nature of licensure/certification was related to middle and junior high teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials, the curriculum selection, and the collective five areas of planning and teaching examined in this study. Moreover, the licensure/certification predicted high school teachers' authority and control over the selection of textbook and other materials. Teachers who were licensed through traditional routes reported higher levels of authority and control over the choice of sources, curricular decisions, and the entire five domains of teaching (the selection of textbook and other materials, the selection of content topics

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and skills to be taught, the selection of which parts of the curriculum to emphasize in the instruction, the selection of teaching techniques, and the evaluation of students) in comparison to those who were licensed through emergency certification, or an alternative program, or not licensed at all.

Supporters for the traditional pathway to licensure contend that teachers licensed through traditional preparation pathways have learned instructional and classroom management strategies essential to successful teaching through coursework provided by teacher preparation program, usually housed in an education school (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Crocco and Costigan (2007) showed that teachers who enter teaching through traditional paths are able to forge strategies to break through challenges caused by the testing pressures and thus can survive in urban schools. On the other hand, those licensed on alternative paths appear to not have enough capacities to overcome the administrative and testing constraints they experience, so they more frequently leave the inner-city schools or profession. Based on the previous research(Crocco & Costigan, 2007) examining the difference in teaching between teachers licensed through traditional avenues and through alternative ones, this study suggests that teachers who enter teaching through traditional paths may possess better ability to deal with the typical day-to-day challenges facing them in the classroom and respond effectively to the demands of administrators and state testing policy in comparison to those licensed through alternative routes or with no license.

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School Environmental Factors and the Self-reported Levels of Classroom Authority and Control among Secondary Social Studies Teachers

School Sector and Secondary Social Studies Teacher Authority

This study shows that public school social studies teachers reported lower levels of authority and control than those of private or charter schools. Specifically, this study shows that when one compares social studies teachers working in charter schools to social studies teachers working in traditionally-zoned public schools, the public school teachers reported lower levels of authority and control over the selection of textbook and other sources, the curriculum selection, and the selection of teaching techniques than do their counterparts in charter schools. Also, compared to social studies teachers of private schools, social studies teachers in public schools reported lower levels of authority in the classroom.

These results are supported by earlier studies indicating that teachers in charter and private schools have greater authority and control than those in neighborhood or traditionally zoned public schools. Teachers choose to work at charter schools because they are granted a lot of freedom to select curriculum and pedagogy, and to focus on subject matter that is excluded from state-mandated tests (Bomotti, Ginsberg, & Cobb, 2000; Corwin & Flaherty, 1995; Gawlik, 2007; Koppich, Holmes, & Plecki, 1998; Malloy & Wohlstetter, 2003; Manno, Finn Jr., Bierlein, & Vanourek, 1998; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1998; Mulholland, 1999; Shore, 1997; Smylie, Lazarus, & Brownlee-Conyers, 1996). Conventional public schools are often required to adopt textbooks selected by states, and to sometimes abide by state standards, state-mandated tests, and prepackaged curriculum programs, whereas charter schools usually do not have to comply with those demands (Gawlik, 2007). This can explain the reason why charter school social studies teachers enjoy increased discretion and power over their classroom work in comparison with those in traditional public schools.

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This study indicates that secondary social studies teachers in private schools reported they were granted more authority and control compared with those in traditional public schools. This finding resonates with previous studies showing teachers in private schools possessing greater decision-making power in developing school curriculum and in choosing content and pedagogical practices (Farkas & Duffett, 2010; Ingersoll, 2003). While social studies teachers in public high schools complained about the restricted freedom to choose what to teach, those in private high schools responded that they held and exercised high levels of classroom authority (Farkas & Duffett, 2010).

School Environments and Secondary Social Studies Teacher Authority

The findings of this study reveal the strong relations that minority enrollment levels and school poverty levels exert on the reported levels of authority and control among secondary school social studies teachers. Minority enrollment levels serve as a predictor for teacher authority over the selection of textbook, content, curriculum, teaching techniques, evaluation, and all of these five areas at both middle and high school level. Minority enrollment levels are highly associated with secondary social studies teachers' authority in all key five domains of classroom tasks. Greater minority enrollment in the schools results in lower reported levels of teacher authority and control. Enrollment levels of non-white students also have much to do with school poverty levels because socioeconomic status is closely connected to race and ethnicity in schools (Hlebowitsh, Hamot, Hong, & Leitz, 2013; Lee & Burkam, 2002). For instance, 34% of African American children and 29% of Hispanic children belong to lowest income households, whereas only 9% of white children do (Lee & Burkam, 2002).

Table 5.1 displays the strong relationship between income and race/ethnicity based on school samples represented in the national S4 data. For descriptive purposes, I employ four categories of schools classified based on the percent of minority students: (a) intensive white schools, whose student population is mostly white and only 0-10 percent of students are non-white; (b) majority white schools, holding an enrollment of 11-50

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percent of non-white students; (c) majority minority schools, which carry on an enrollment of 51-89 percent of non-white students; and (d) intensively minority schools, whose 90-100 percent of student population is non-white (Hlebowitsh et al., 2013). As indicated in Table 5.1, the S4 survey data show that 57.7 percent of intensive white schools and 53 percent of majority white schools belong to high income to middle income schools, whereas only 18.5 percent of majority minority schools and 11.4 percent of intensively minority schools are classified as high-income to middle income schools. 81.5 percent of majority minority schools and 88.6 percent of intensively minority schools are considered lower-middle and lower-income schools.

Table 5.1. Relationship between Income and Race

	Intensive White (0-10% nonwhite)	Majority White (11-50% nonwhite)	Majority Minority (51-89% nonwhite)	Intensively Minority (90-100% nonwhite)
High income	3.40%	1.1	0	0.2
Upper Middle	18.3	12.4	2.4	1.9
Middle	36	39.5	16.1	9.3
Lower Middle	32.5	33.9	41.9	26.7
Lower	9.9	13.1	39.6	61.9

Source: The S4 data.

Not surprisingly, school poverty levels also play a major role in predicting secondary social studies teachers' authority and control. According to the findings of this research, the socio-economic status of students in schools are also related to reported levels of teacher authority and control in the classroom. This includes control over the

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selection of textbook among middle school social studies teachers, the selection of curriculum to emphasize among both middle and high school teachers, the selection of teaching techniques among high school teachers, and the collective five areas of teaching among middle school teachers.

These findings are supported by much research that indicate teachers' pedagogical and curricular authority is intimately connected to characteristics of the student population they serve, like socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, ability, and English language status (Burroughs, Groce, & Webeck, 2005; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Ogawa, Sandholtz, Martina-Flores, & Scribner, 2003; Pace, 2008; Segall, 2006; Wills, 2007). These studies commonly point out that teacher authority and control are more constrained in low-income, high-minority schools than those in affluent, low-minority schools. Student achievement and cognitive skills are also strongly correlated with socioeconomic backgrounds (Lee & Burkam, 2002; Roscigno, Tomaskovic-Devey, & Crowley, 2006), and race/ethnicity (Lee & Burkam, 2002). Thus, school performance standing is highly associated with the race and socio-economic status of students (Diamond & Spillane, 2004). Chicago Public Schools data demonstrate that schools that failed to make adequate yearly progress (AYP) typically contain a higher percentage of African American and students from low-income families in comparison to the other Chicago Public Schools. While 52% of the district's student population is African Americans, 83% of African American students attend low-performing schools. In addition, the average percent of low-income students is 84% in the district, whereas the average for schools "in need of improvement" has 92% low-income students. While 10% of the district student population are white students, less than 1% of the students enroll in low-performing elementary schools. These data indicate that structural issues connected to race, socio-economic background, and residential segregation strongly increase the likelihood that low-income students of color attend neighborhood schools segregated by race and family income (Diamond & Spillane, 2004; Roscigno et al., 2006). Poor African

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American students tend to attend the underachieving schools, whereas affluent white students are more inclined to enroll in high-achieving magnet schools (Diamond & Spillane, 2004).

In schools with lower achieving students, administrators are under some pressure to encourage test-driven instruction which includes strategies such as aligning instruction to state tests and state standards (Burroughs et al., 2005; Santoro, 2011; Segall, 2006), following a scripted curriculum (Costigna, 2004; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Pace, 2008; Santoro, 2011), and focusing on test review and test preparation techniques (Yeager & Pinder, 2006). While NCLB and state-level testing reform began for the sake of improving achievement and narrowing the achievement gap between affluent, white and poor, minority students (Hlebowitsh, 2007), the testing policy has subjected high-poverty schools to a school experience driven by tests, with the effect of reducing the teacher's exercise of intelligent and creative authority (Popham, 2001; Savage, 2003).

This study infers based on the sample studied that policies of state-level testing may disproportionately disadvantage social studies teachers and students in low-income, high-minority schools. First, Segall (2006) indicates that from teachers' perspectives, results of the state tests in Michigan are mainly connected to socio-economic aspects of students. Children from affluent and middle-class families are more likely to achieve higher scores in comparison to those from low-income families. Thus, teachers who serve high-SES student population will tend to be evaluated as good teachers, whereas those who work with students from low-SES families will tend to be evaluated as ineffective teachers (Popham, 2001).Teachers perceive the MEAP evaluates teachers on the basis of elements such as SES over which they have little control (Segall, 2006). The state tests in Michigan, MEAP, are low-stakes, but the student test scores determine the reputations of the schools. Accordingly, in working-class school districts, where students are more likely to not pass the MEAP, administrators push teachers to find a way to lift the MEAP scores (Segall, 2006). Popham (2001) argues that "it is both inaccurate and unfair to

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evaluate a school staff on the basis of its students' scores on standardized achievement tests if those tests contain many SES-linked items" (p.58).

Second, based on the large sample studied, one of the issues that emerge from the findings is that state-level testing policy may undermine social studies instruction and its quality in lower-class, high-minority schools (Burroughs et al, 2005; Smith, 2006; Yeager & Pinder, 2006). Test preparation activities are not usually sound instructional activities. Students in high-income, low-minority school settings are usually subject to ambitious instruction that involve a wide range of authentic sources, in-depth learning of social studies content, a curriculum that arouses student interests, student-centered activities, and meaningful evaluation approaches that promote their higher order, creative, and crucial thinking skills. Low-income, minority students are deprived of such opportunities when their experience is excessively test driven (Burroughs et al., 2005; Hess, 2005; Pace, 2011). Moreover, because students in low-income, high-minority schools are more likely to be struggling readers, their teachers pay more attention to literacy skills with the consequence of sacrificing instruction in social studies/history content (Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Segall, 2006; Pace, 2011;Yeager & Pinder, 2006). Not surprisingly, students in low-income, high-minority school circumstances are deficient in social studies knowledge (Pace, 2011). It seems that test-based accountability aggravates race and social class inequality in education by putting limits on the instructional judgment of the teachers working in lower performing schools (Pace, 2011; Popham, 2001).

Third, the administrative and testing pressures put on teachers in low-income school districts serving high percentages of minority students can frustrate teachers, stifle their autonomy, creativity, and flexibility, and make them feel unprofessional (Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Pace, 2011). Higher levels of teacher authority over their work serves to boost teachers' job satisfaction, morale, commitment, professionalism, and empowerment, and to reduce job burnout. It also contributes to lower rates of teacher turnover and higher

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rates of retention of high quality teachers (Brunetti, 2001; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Dee et al., 2003; Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll et al., 1997; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Marks & Louis, 1999; Newmann, 1993; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Rowan, 1990; Smylie, 1994; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Ulriksen, 1994; Weiss, 1999; White, 1992; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005). Lower levels of teacher authority do not nurture these good effects. Teacher attrition rates are high, especially in schools with high levels of minority students (Scafidi, Sjoquist, & Stinebrikner, 2007). One may infer that the reason of high teacher attrition in lower income, minority schools could be related to the prevailing testing culture in the schools. Quality teachers who feel frustrated, who report lower degrees of job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment, and who claim greater job stress tend to also be teachers with lower levels of classroom control.

State-Level Testing Policy and the Self-reported Levels of Classroom Authority and Control among Secondary Social Studies Teachers

The Association between the Use of State Test Results on Teachers' Job Security and Teacher Authority

The study shows that the effects of state test results on teachers' job security have strong associations with the reported levels of authority among secondary social studies teachers over the choice of textbook and other sources, the content topics and skills to be taught, the curriculum to emphasize, teaching techniques, evaluation procedures used. Teachers who agreed that state test results impacted their job security reported lower levels of authority and control than those who did not feel such an impact. This indicates that teachers who were assessed, rewarded, and sanctioned on the basis of the state test results reported lower levels of authority compared to those who did not.

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As Grant (2006) point out, "the presence or absence of stakes attached to a state history test (p.315)" may not be of importance in secondary social studies teacher authority. "The mere existence of a test (Grant, 2006, p.315)" itself seems to be a factor. Teachers in any state are not generally dismissed because of poor student test performance (Grant, 2007). However, previous empirical studies show that when the state test results influence teachers' job security, teachers may report lower levels of authority in the classroom. Secondary social studies teachers likely feel pressured to teach to the standards and state tests, and to raise student test scores even in environments where social studies tests are excluded from the state tests (e.g., Burroughs, Groce, &Webeck, 2005; Clarke, Shore, Rhoades, Abrams, Miao, & Li, 2003; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Grant & Gradwell, 2005; Guggino & Brint, 2010; Pace, 2011; Segall, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover & Heinecke, 2005; Vogler, 2006 ;Yeager & Pinder, 2006). For example, school performance status or reputation, and job security of teachers and administrators are determined by students' test scores in high-stakes testing environments in states like Kentucky, Mississippi, New York, Texas, and Virginia, so district and school administrators compel teachers to employ test preparation programs and invest a lot of time reviewing and preparing for the state tests (Burroughs et al, 2005; Crocco & Costigan, 2007; Fickel, 2006; Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006; Webeck, Salinas, & Field, 2005). Teachers are often told they will "lose their job if the scores don't come up" (Burroughs et al, 2005, p.17) or "If it isn't on the test, don't teach it," or "good test scores equal good teaching" (Burroughs et al, 2005, p. 17).

In low-stakes state test settings such as Michigan and Kansas, social studies teachers also feel compelled to alter their teaching in response to state testing (Clarke et al., 2003; Segall, 2006). Despite the low-stakes status of the state tests in Michigan, social studies teachers are nevertheless evaluated based on the student test scores released through media reports by school administrators and by the state. A Michigan teacher notes the pressure of the state exam:

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> Every time we step into the classroom to start the school year one of the end results needs to be: Are these kids going to be ready to take the MEAP? And are they going to do well? You always teach with the pressure of the MEAP hovering over you (Segall, 2006, p.115)

A high school social studies teacher in a large inner-city district reports, "I am the department head, and I am trying to have the teachers in my department match the state standards with their curriculum" (Clarke et al., 2003, p. 34). A middle school social studies teacher in a suburban district in Michigan describes the association among the state test, standards and instruction as follows:

> The state test just gives you a heightened awareness of how your students are going to be measured.... What do they need to know, and what is it in my subject area that I should at least introduce them to before they take the test....It tells you that these benchmarks are important, so make sure they're in your instruction and the students are able to do those things (Clarke et al., 2003, p. 38).

Additionally, in Florida, where no social studies state test exist, high school social studies teachers still find themselves practicing literacy skills while teaching history and social studies content in order to help their students improve upon their reading and writing skills and thus pass the state tests (Yeager & Pinder, 2006).

The Association among Existence of Mandated State Social Studies Tests, State Standards, and Teacher Authority

This study found that the presence of mandated state social studies tests and the influence of state standards on instructional decision-making and evaluation and assessment of students are associated with the reported levels of authority among secondary social studies teachers. Middle and junior high school (6-9th grade) social studies teachers who gave mandated state social studies tests reported lower levels of authority over the selection of the curriculum to highlight and over the evaluation methods to select, as well as the collective five areas of classroom work than their peers who had no mandated exams. These findings are corroborated by previous empirical studies. For instance, middle school social studies teachers in Texas were compelled to change their instructions in alignment with the state curricular frameworks, standards, and test norms (Burroughs et al., 2005; Webeck et al., 2005). In New York where state social studies testing is high-stakes, middle school social studies teachers reported that

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administrators and mentors forced them to comply with the prescribed curriculum, allowing for little instructional time for social studies. As a result, social studies is incorporated into the ELA curriculum and English is taught through the use of historical literature (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). In New York State, all public school 8th graders were required to take a comprehensive state exam on US history from the colonial period to the present. Although the New York state tests do not affect promotion to 9th grade, teachers in the Dale Brook district devoted a lot of time to preparing students for the 8th grade social studies exam in order to improve student performance on the high-stakes Regents test in world and US history (Gerwin & Visone, 2006). It seems that most features of classroom control are more restrained by the sheer presence of the state social studies testing, no matter what consequences the state tests hold for students, teachers, and schools.

By contrast, high school social studies teachers who gave state mandated social studies tests reported higher levels of authority over the selection of content topics and skills to be taught, over the evaluation approaches, and the collective five domains of teaching than those who did not. These findings are not easy to explain. As Au (2009) indicated, because of various social studies testing policy between states, the impact of state-level tests on social studies teachers and their teaching practices is complex and not always clear. Social studies teachers' perception of their authority may greatly vary by their interpretation of how much actual control they have, by their own professional identity and beliefs, and by school demographic factors and school contexts.

These findings can be interpreted in several ways. First, high school social studies teachers' perceptions of higher authority and control in circumstances that the state mandated testing is given imply that secondary social studies teachers exercise professional judgment and try to use ambitious teaching in response to the state testing policies. Despite the influence of the state tests, they do not yield to the policies thoughtlessly or powerlessly, but as active decision-makers and gatekeepers in the choice

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of content, assessment, and overall control over all five areas of planning and teaching. In other words, they respond, react to, and negotiate their control over classroom practices within testing policy conditions (Grant, 2005; Smith, 2006).

Second, some teachers may perceive testing or top-down pressures as a violation of their authority, but others may interpret them as a guide or support for teachers' classroom practices or test preparation. Depending on how they recognize testing constraints, their self-perceived levels of authority and control may vary (Smith, 2006).

Third, while high school social studies teachers in high-stakes or low-stakes testing settings are pressured to comply with the scripted curriculum, and tailor their teaching to the state standards, curriculum, and tests in state-tested courses, they have a lot of freedom to employ ambitious or wise teaching in untested elective courses (Fickel, 2006; Gerwin & Visone, 2006). The self-reported levels of authority and control of high school teachers working in elective courses might be significantly higher.

Fourth, social studies secures a high status at the high school level because its curriculum is considered an important requirement for student graduation through the state tests, so teachers might feel the need to exercise more control over the selection of content and assessment in the settings where state mandated social studies tests are administered. As Yeager and Pinder (2006) show in their study of two high school teachers in Florida where social studies is excluded from the state tests, high school social studies teachers still feel pressured to teach literacy strategies rather than social studies content in order to improve English/Language Arts achievement scores on state tests. This could explain why the self-reported levels of authority and control of high school teachers working in a context with absence of social studies state tests may be significantly lower.

The Association between Pacing Guides and Teacher Authority

This study shows that secondary social studies teachers who reported that their districts/schools used a pacing guide reported higher levels of authority over the selection

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of textbooks and content, curricular emphasis, the collective five areas of planning and teaching at both middle and high school level. Among high school teachers only, higher levels of authority were reported over the selection of instructional techniques, and evaluation methods. These results show that pacing guides do not significantly undermine the exercise of classroom control among teachers. Pacing guides are often developed and used by school district administrators to help teachers effectively plan the sequence and scope of their content areas, to establish proper timelines, and to instruct students on important concepts and skills consistent with state standards and end-of-year state tests (Witzel & Riccomini, 2007). Some beginning teachers commented that pacing or curriculum guides were helpful in designing and organizing sequences and scopes of the content or curriculum (Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2002). In a study of Texas high school social studies teachers, Salinas (2006) pointed out that although teachers are requested by administrators to develop the curriculum alignment guides that match the content to the parameters of the state standards and tests, decision on whether to implement the curriculum guides are made by teachers. They specify only the content to be taught; Their pedagogy is not violated. Also, they have freedom to choose assessment approaches regardless of test results. They do not modify their own assessment strategies to resemble those of the Social Studies Exit Level TAKS. The results of these previous research reveal that when teachers respond wisely to the high-stakes testing context and employ ample knowledge about pedagogy, they do not make changes in their instruction nor report lower levels of authority because of the curriculum or pacing guides.

Implications

I inferred four implications from the findings of this study.

Implication #1: Teachers' professional characteristics, such as teaching experience, teacher licensure/certification, and degree background are important factors in exercising teachers' professional authority in the classroom.

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This study shows that more experienced teachers reported higher levels of authority in the classroom over less experienced teachers. This study also shows that teachers who were licensed through traditional paths reported higher levels of authority and control against those who were licensed through emergency certification, or an alternative program, or not licensed at all. Moreover, this study indicates that teachers who earned a bachelor's degree major in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority and control than those who had a bachelor's degree major in education, or a non-social studies related field, or no bachelor's degree at all. Also, middle and junior high teachers who had a master's degree in a social studies related field reported higher levels of authority over those with a master's degree in education, or a non-social studies related field.

More experienced teachers tend to be more knowledgeable about social studies teaching, pay more attention to student learning and be more able to exercise professional judgments and to engage in ambitious teaching in the context of high-stakes accountability (Smith, 2006; van Hover, 2006). Teachers licensed through traditional preparation pathways have learned instructional and classroom management strategies necessary to successful teaching through coursework provided by teacher preparation program, usually housed in an education school (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009), so these teachers are capable of devising strategies to deal with challenges resulting from the administrative and testing pressures (Crocco & Costigan, 2007). Teachers who hold a bachelor's degree in a social studies related field or a master's degree in a social studies related field are likely to have in-depth content knowledge, more confidence in teaching the subject matter, and make better discretionary judgment in making a decision on what to teach and how to teach in comparison to teachers who do not have a college degree in the field taught (Ingersoll, 2003). As shown in Chapter II, granting teachers increased authority produces positive effects on the professional lives of teachers, on their quality of teaching, on student learning, and ultimately on organizational effectiveness.

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The S4 data indicate that out-of-field teaching is prevalent. Among the 6-12th grade middle and high school social studies teachers, 66.4% of the teachers hold a college major, 35.9% minor, and only 17.3% a master's degree in the social studies related field. Out-of-field teaching "devalue, deskill and disempower teachers' work" (Ingersoll, 2003, p.159), and is associated with teachers' low morale, engagement, and commitment. Out-of-field assignments are not due to lack of teacher qualifications (Ingersoll, 2003). Rather, it happens because administrators often mis-assign teachers to the field in which they have little training because out-of-field assignments are more efficient and cost-effective than hiring new teachers (Ingersoll, 2003). In this regard, the findings of this study suggest that states and school districts recruit and retain more experienced teachers and more teachers who were licensed through traditional routes, and who hold at least a college minor in a social studies related field, and assign teachers to teach subjects in which they have background.

Additionally, this study suggests that states and school districts should endeavor to improve working conditions of teachers in order to retain high quality, experienced teachers. Recruiting more high quality teachers seems urgent. However, the failure to supply qualified teachers does not mainly result from teacher shortages but for the most part from the conditions of schools (Ingersoll, 2004). Main reasons why great numbers of qualified teachers leave the profession are low levels of job satisfaction, low compensation, and issues such as a lack of support from the school administrators, the problems of student discipline, and little faculty control over school-wide issues (Ingersoll, 2004). Improving working conditions of teachers will contribute to the solution of school staffing problems by retaining high quality teachers and attracting qualified college graduates to the teaching profession.

While recruiting more high-caliber teachers and enhancing school conditions seem solutions to school staffing problems, this study suggests, adopting Ingersoll (2003a)'s suggestions, that the fundamental problem should be addressed in order that all

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children in the nation are educated by qualified teachers. The lowly status of the teaching job is a major contributor to underqualified teachers, teacher shortages, teacher misassignment, and low teacher retention rates (Ingersoll, 2003a). Underlying out-of-field teaching and recruiting teachers through alternative licensure program is the assumption that teaching is a low-skill job that does not require teachers to have adequate training and special knowledge, and thus teachers are regarded not as specialists but as generalists that can teach a wide range of subjects. This study implies that the quality of the teaching job should be improved in order to "upgrade the quality of teaching in the long term" (Ingersoll, 2003a, p.24).

Implication #2: Secondary social studies teachers' self-reported classroom authority as defined here is more constrained in high-minority and low-income schools than in low-minority and high-income schools.

As mentioned in chapter II, a large body of literature has revealed that teacher authority and control produce positive effects on the professional lives of teachers, on their quality of teaching, on student achievement and learning, and ultimately on organizational effectiveness. Conversely, low levels of authority may generate negative consequences including lower levels of professional empowerment, job satisfaction, morale, job commitment, self-esteem, and ownership. These negative effects may lead to high rates of teacher turnover in high-minority and low-income schools. Additionally, decreased teacher authority in the classroom may degrade the quality of social studies instruction because of increased pressure from administrators to raise student test scores, which could lead to pedantic teaching based on textbooks, lecture, and the rote memorization of facts and practice of strategies. In this regard, low-income minority children are likely to be disadvantaged in the age of high-stakes accountability. As Hess (2005) points out, students in affluent schools tend to engage in wise or ambitious practices, whereas those in low-income, high-minority schools are more likely to receive pedantic and teacher-centered instruction generally conceived to raise test scores.

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Implication #3: The self-reported levels of classroom authority and control are higher among middle and junior high school social studies teachers who respond that they do not give social studies state mandated tests than teachers who do have a mandate. On the other hand, the self-reported levels of classroom authority and control are lower among high school social studies teachers who respond they do not give social studies state mandated tests than those who do.

This study notes that middle and junior high school teachers report they have more freedom to choose what to teach and how to teach in an environment where social studies is not tested by state exams. On the contrary, high school social studies teachers report higher levels of authority when they give state mandated social studies tests. These results are hard to interpret because of several reasons. The literature base is weak. Social studies testing policies vary by states and teachers' perceptions of classroom authority and control may depend on their local contexts.

Despite these limitations, this study implies that when social studies are tested in state tests, its curriculum is considered highly important and high school teachers can grant meaning and necessity to teach the subject matter. As Yeager and Pinder (2006) showed in their research of high school social studies teachers in Florida, social studies teachers struggle to find their place and purpose in an environment where social studies is not the part of the state test system.

Implication 4#: When the results of state-level tests influence the job security of teachers, the reported levels of teacher authority decrease.

The findings of this study show that testing policy makes a significant contribution to the explanation of secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority. When state testing policy influences secondary social studies teachers' job security, teachers perceive decreased classroom authority and control. In considering the association between testing policy and secondary social studies teachers' classroom authority and control, what is the most desirable relationship? Ingersoll (2003, 2011)

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pointed out that accountability and teacher power should be balanced. When one becomes greater, the other should be greater at the same time. A lack of balances between the two can create concerns. Granting too much power to teachers without proper accountability may cause harm and irresponsibility for employees' action. Besides, holding teachers accountable without sufficient authority is unjust (Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, 2011), and may increase teacher attrition, degrade quality of teaching, hinder student learning, and undermine organizational effectiveness, as a lot of previous studies have indicated in Chapter II. Ingersoll (2003, 2011) noted that it is important to hold teachers accountable for the work they have control over, and to allow teachers to exercise control over the work they are held accountable for. In other words, teachers should be given sufficient control over their work, but they should also be accountable for it.

The findings here suggest that classroom authority and test-based accountability can be unified. Teachers are not powerless victims of testing policy, but they are professionals and gatekeepers in making decisions in their classroom works. As professionals and gatekeepers, teachers should have ample classroom authority. Teachers, however, should also be held accountable for what they can control, and rewarded or evaluated on something more than student standardized test scores. Student academic achievement is highly related to race and class. Test-based accountability may disadvantage both low-performing, working-class students of color and teachers who serve them. Teachers who work in low-performing, low-income and high-minority schools feel pressure to raise student test scores, so they may be compelled to teach to the standards and the state tests by district and state administrators, or decide to depart from the profession. Therefore, underachieving, low-income, and minority students may be put at a disadvantage. These students may experience high rates of teacher turnover, which may lead to a common practice of out-of-field teaching. Moreover, they may be exposed to test-driven instruction that depends on textbooks, lecture, and recall of historical facts.

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They may not be provided quality social studies education that uses a variety of primary and secondary sources, in-depth coverage of content and curriculum, a wide range of student-centered pedagogical approaches and assessment methods that can develop high order creative, critical thinking skills.

Conclusion and Future Research

This study contributes new findings to limited empirical studies of the relationship between state-level chosen testing policy and secondary social studies teacher authority. Although literature is growing, there is still a limited body of research literature examining the relationship between state testing policy and teacher authority in the classroom. The findings of this study invite further research on the effects of testing policy on teachers' instruction and students' learning. Additional research needs to be conducted on testing how state-level testing policy affects instructional practices in varied environments or how testing policy in states with mandated high-stakes exams might also affect classroom conduct.

Another important undertaking is research on effects of state-level testing policy on quality of instruction of tested and untested subjects in underachieving, high-minority and low-income schools in comparison to those in high-achieving, low-minority and high-income schools to examine how high stakes accountability influences curricular and instructional inequality.

Further qualitative research is required to investigate more precisely accounts for the nature of the school experience when teachers are given less or more freedom to control their classrooms. This would include observational accounts of individual responsiveness and engagement with the comprehensive purpose of schooling.

Additionally, further studies on the examination of the relationship between student achievement and teacher control, and teacher turnover and control will need to be undertaken. Relationship of teacher authority to their professional intentions and student achievement in high-minority, low-income schools compared with low-minority, high-

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income schools needs to be examined. Future studies on the topic of the principal-ship and its relationship to honoring or delimiting teacher classroom control are also recommended.

Finally, we need to investigate how teachers' knowledge, skills, teaching experience and licensure paths are related to their gate-keeping role, and how teachers respond to, and negotiate with testing policy based on their belief, knowledge and professional identity. This kind of research would inform policy and practice in order to better understand the effects of high-stakes accountability on teachers' gate-keeping role and instruction, and students' learning experience and access to quality education.

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APPENDIX

Table A.1

Correlation between Outcome Variables (Middle and High School Teachers) (N=3,145)

	Control textbook	Control content	Control curriculum	Teaching techniques	Evaluation
Control textbook	1				
Control content	0.46**	1			
Control curriculum	0.34**	0.64**	1		
Teaching techniques	0.19**	0.28**	0.38**	1	
Evaluation	0.22**	0.30**	0.35**	0.51**	1

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$ (two-tailed).

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Table A.2

Correlation between Outcome Variables (High School Teachers) (N=3,557)

	Control textbook	Control content	Control curriculum	Teaching techniques	Evaluation
Control textbook	1				
Control content	0.47**	1			
Control curriculum	0.33**	0.67**	1		
Teaching techniques	0.19**	0.36**	0.44**	1	
Evaluation	0.2**	0.35**	0.39**	0.48**	1

Note. Statistical significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$ (two-tailed).

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