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PROFESSIONALISM AND SECONDARY TEACHERS
IN NEW ZEALAND

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree
of Master of Arts
in Education at
Massey University

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1969

ABSTRACT

"From the economic and social standpoint a country's educational system is its main means both of perpetuating the values and skills of its population and preparing it for the changes which progress requires".

(Phillips 1964)

One of the mainstays of a country's educational system is its teachers and therefore much of the responsibility for the future welfare of a society rests on their shoulders.

From such a basis this study attempts to examine a group of teachers from a segment of New Zealand's teaching force with the aim of contributing to a more empirically based analysis of secondary teachers in this country. As this investigation is concerned with teachers in their occupational roles, rather than with teaching, the concept of professionalism is used as the main structuring element in the research.

An attempt is made to justify the basic premise that all teachers should be professionally orientated. Such an orientation is conceived as having three basic elements; technical competence, autonomy and service ideal. A professional teacher is seen as one who has a feeling of expertise in his occupational role (competence); wants the freedom to do the job the way he thinks it ought to be done (autonomy); and considers his basic loyalty to be to his pupils rather than the institution (service). An index of professionalism is calculated for each respondent on the basis of the answers to items in a composite question-set (see question 33, Appendix).

The sample comprised one hundred and eighty-six teachers from ten schools situated in and around a light industrial and servicing centre in the lower half of the North Island. This number represented a response rate of

just over fifty percent. Responses were coded on to I.B.M. cards for analysis, and calculation of statistical significance (using chi-square) was done by computer. The more specific purpose of the research is to examine some of the possible background correlates of a professional role perception in teaching by investigating the relationship between professionalism and sex-role, socio-economic background, advanced training and occupational position.

A further intention is to see what possible consequence professionalism has on other elements of the teaching situation by looking for relationships between it and teaching style, extra-curricular activities, perceptions of aims of education, external examinations, emphasis in education, teacher satisfaction and participation in professional associations.

Much of the value of this research is in terms of the lack of significant findings, pointing to one or all of the following:-

(i) the methodical inadequacies in the operationalisation of the concept of professionalism; (ii) the inappropriateness of the concept for teaching; (iii) the distinction which must be made between a professional role perception and professional behaviour.

However some significant findings do emerge in relation to sex-role and marital status, emphases in teaching style, emphases in other elements of education, outside examinations, interest and activity in the Post Primary Teachers' Association and satisfaction in teaching. Most of these results are consistent with the concept of a professional role orientation (especially the service element), but some point to the disparity between a professional orientation and professional behaviour.

Although only limited generalisations can be drawn from the data, this study has value in that it begins research in an area of New Zealand education so far little investigated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am very grateful for the help given to me by Dr.G.S.Fraser not only in terms of the reading of drafts and discussing of material but also for his personal encouragement at all times.

Thanks are also due to Professor C.Hill and Dr.R. Adams who kindly read sections of the draft and offered many helpful suggestions.

To all the teachers who co-operated by completing a questionnaire I acknowledge a debt of gratitude.

In constructing my questionnaire I used items from John L.Colombotos' study (1962) and the International Study of Teachers.

Finally I am grateful to my wife for her extraordinary patience and support.

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PART I

THE BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

This Part comprises four chapters which give the general background of the study.

Chapter I outlines the aims of the study and the reasons for its undertaking.

Chapter II is a theoretical consideration of the major concepts of the investigation, these being professionalism and role perceptions.

In Chapter III the major hypotheses are outlined and

Chapter IV is a survey of the methodology.

CHAPTER I

THE AIMS AND PURPOSE OF THIS INVESTIGATION

"Mass education is one of the major revolutionary forces of the Twentieth Century".

(Dewey 1943)

Few would deny the truth and force of the above statement, therefore it is incumbent on governments, educational administrators and teachers to ensure that this revolutionary force is channelled in the right direction. While recognising that the overall statement of educational policy is a philosophical and social question and therefore outside the range of this investigation, the operationalisation of such a statement in the classroom is the direct responsibility of the teacher.

Teachers are the educators in our schools and therefore interpret for the benefit of their pupils the educational policy as laid down by the educational bureaucracy, government and society as a whole. Thus the occupational attitudes and role orientations of teachers are likely to have considerable influence on the way they put into practice a society's educational policy. Further it is argued that teachers themselves, as educational practitioners, should have a great deal of influence in the establishment of educational policy.

The underlying proposition of this research is that teachers should perceive their occupational roles in a professional way. The concepts of role orientations, professionalism, as well as the underlying proposition above, are discussed fully in Chapter II and it suffices in this brief introduction to simply set the problem in its context.

The main purpose of this investigation then is to see to what extent a sample of teachers perceive their occupational roles in a professional manner. Although the question could be asked of any section of the teaching body the present research specifically examines a sample of secondary teachers. In addition to professionalism, other variables examined are some of the background correlates of a professional role perception and the implications of the latter for selected teaching operations and certain teacher attitudes.

The general purpose of this study is to examine the professional characteristics of a sample of secondary teachers. Specifically :-

- (i) to analyse the relationship between certain background correlates (namely, sex-role, socio-economic background, advanced training and occupational position) and professionalism, and
- (ii) to investigate possible relationships between a professional role perception and teaching style, extra-curricular activities, perceptions of the aims of education, external examinations, emphases in education and teacher satisfaction, and participation in professional associations.

Many statements, usually without the benefit of supporting data, have been made about secondary teachers in this country and people outside teaching have an idea of a teacher stereotype which could well be inaccurate. Apart from the question of professionalism, the present research should contribute to a more empirically-based analysis of secondary teachers in New Zealand.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Professionalism

Confusion has arisen over the term professionalism because it has been used for two different purposes. Traditionally the term was used to both label certain occupations and to describe them in a morally evaluative sense. More recently some social scientists want the expression to be neutral evaluatively, simply denoting a set of objective criteria which can be used as a measuring rod when examining certain occupational groups.

Traditional Usage

As early as 1711 Addison referred to the "Three great professions of Divinity, Law, and Physic", indicating by the use of the word great the evaluative sense added to the objective meaning of the term. These occupations have enjoyed a high social prestige for a long time. Other occupations such as dentistry have only acquired this prestige fairly recently.

Traditional usage sees the term more as an ethical concept rather than a scientific one. As well as being ethical, the concept becomes rather what Turner (1957) called a "Folk concept", where by it is an honorific title and a term of approbation. Because of this morally desirable connotation of professionalism many groups strive to win for themselves this title.

Scientific Definitions

Attempting to derive a useful sociological measuring instrument, many writers have postulated a more neutral, scientific definition of the term professionalism, but not

only is there lack of agreement with regard to the objective criteria of a profession (Cagan 1953) the definitions themselves have many operational difficulties.

The first major attempt to make professionalism a scientific concept was that of Flexner (1915) in his paper "Is Social Work a Profession?". He postulated six essential characteristics.

- (i) Its activities are essentially intellectual.
- (ii) There is a large individual responsibility.
- (iii) The raw material is gathered from science and learning and
- (iv) this is worked up to a practical and definite end.
- (v) There is an educationally communicable technique.
- (v) Practitioners become increasingly altruistically motivated.

Placing the emphasis somewhat differently Carr-Saunders (1933) defined a profession as "An occupation, based upon specialised intellectual study and training, the purpose of which is to supply a skilled service or advice to others for a fee".

Tyler (1952) saw only two essential characteristics of a profession.

- (i) The existence of a code of ethics.
- (ii) The basing of operations on general principles.

A high degree of commitment to an area of specialisation was also thought to be a general characteristic of all professions by Gerstl (1967).

The above definitions point to the lack of agreement as to the objective criteria.

A further point of confusion was added by Flexner (1915) who, after postulating the six characteristics already mentioned, made the classic statement, "but after all, what

Prison

matters most is professional spirit". Thus the term professional is being given two quite distinct jobs to do:

- (i) to describe an occupation according to certain objective criteria and
- (ii) to describe a particular role orientation of practitioners within an occupation.

Confusion has arisen because many writers do not make clear which connotation of the term they are using.

This point is carried even further by Hughes (1960) when he stated that professionalism was a state of mind, not a reality.

Becker (1962) recognised this lack of reality and saw a distinction between the 'symbol' and reality. He attempted to resolve the conflict between the folk concept and the scientific concept by determining what various groups meant by the term and how they used it.

He drew up an idealistic list of criteria as a symbol against which occupational groups can be measured to see to what extent they approach the ideal of a profession; no group being fully professional. The symbol, containing fourteen elements, is by far the most comprehensive descriptive definition of professionalism.

The Symbol

To be fully professional an occupation should have the following characteristics.

Knowledge

- (i) A monopoly of some esoteric and difficult body of knowledge necessary for the continued functioning of society.
- (ii) Scientific principles and logical analysis are the means of deriving the set of abstract principles which constitute this knowledge.

Training and Controlled Entry

(iii) The acquisition of this knowledge requires a lengthy educational process leading to a qualification which only the most able can attain.

(iv) Entry into the occupational group is thus controlled.

A Professional Organisation with Internal Control

(v) A professional association to enforce a code of ethics.

Characteristics of personnel and working conditions

(vi) Freedom from lay control.

(vii) Members who are private practitioners; there being no institution to compete with clients for their loyalty.

(viii) Practitioners who are altruistically motivated.

(ix) Members who have sizable incomes, high community prestige and a voice in community affairs.

Although these criteria are most comprehensive from the point of view of describing the ideal of a profession there are immediate difficulties if they are to be used operationally; the criteria being only relative not absolute. For example at what stage when measured against these criteria does an occupation become a profession? How long must the educational process be? What proportion of the population is the most able?

The answer to these and other similar questions is presumably that the "symbol" simply enables sociologists to rank occupations according to the extent to which they measure up to the criteria. However, does this mean then that all occupations are more or less professional, or is there still some point at which an occupation can be said to be non-professional? As a consequence of the problem many writers find themselves forced to recognise as professions many occupations for which the term does not seem appropriate (Becker 1962).

Flexner (1915) recognised that the concept must be kept relatively exclusive, otherwise it would lose its significance.

Why then, do sociologists insist on using this term with all its ambiguities?

The Importance of the Concept of Professionalism

Corwin (1964) sees professionalism and bureaucratisation¹ as competing ways of organising an employee society; both being fundamental developments in this century.

He states that a bureaucracy and a profession are two ideal types having three fundamental differences :-

- (i) the degree of standardisation of tasks and procedures;
- (ii) the degree of authority permitted;
- (iii) efficiency and standards.

The conflict between these forms of organisation is a source of tension in many occupations. Chart I illustrates the differences between employee expectations according to whether they work within a professional or bureaucratic structure.

The organisational climate of an occupation influences to a considerable extent the behaviour orientations of the employees in that structure (Moeller and Charters 1966), but Corwin (1961) found it meaningful to speak of a professional employee within a bureaucratic organisation, although he found such people to have more conflict than those with a bureaucratic orientation within the same organisation. The distinction is made here between professional structures and professional role orientations of practitioners. Therefore it is possible for practitioners to have role orientations which are professional while working within an organisation which is bureaucratically structured.

This point is central to the present study for, although the structure of teaching could be said to be bureaucratic rather than professional, the writer contends that not only is it possible, but in fact necessary, for teachers to have a professional role perception. Necessary because of the need to safeguard the welfare of pupils within the bureaucratic structure of the school system.

CHART ICONTRASTS IN THE BUREAUCRATIC AND PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYEEPRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION

<u>Organisational Characteristics</u>	<u>Bureaucratic-Employee Expectations</u>	<u>Professional-Employee Expectations</u>
<u>Standardisation</u>		
Routine of work	Stress on uniformity of clients problems.	Stress on consequences of clients problems.
Continuity of Procedure	Stress on records and files.	Stress on research and change.
Specificity of Rules	Rules stated as universals and specific.	Rules stated as alternatives and diffuse.
<u>Specialisation</u>		
Basis of Division of Labour	Stress on efficiency of techniques; task orientation.	Stress on achievement of goals; client orientation.
Basis of Skill	Skill based primarily on practice.	Skills based primarily on monopoly of knowledge.
<u>Authority</u>		
Responsibility for Decision Making	Decisions concerning application of rules to routine problems.	Decisions concerning policy in professional matters and unique problems.
Basis of Authority	Rules sanctioned by the public.	Rules sanctioned by legally sanctioned professions.
	Loyalty to the organisation and to supervisors.	Loyalty to professional associations and clients.
	Authority from office (position).	Authority from personal competence.

(From Ronald G. Corwin - 1964)

Here again one is reminded of Flexner's equivocation (1915) but no confusion need arise if writers are quite clear as to whether they want the term professionalism to be descriptive of occupational structure or denote a particular role perception. As this study is primarily concerned with a role perception it is to this that the term usually refers.

The Symbol and Teaching

Becker (1962) did not see his symbol as appropriate for teaching. He thought it unrealistic and stated that teachers should work out their own symbol; one better suited to the life situation of teaching. This may well be the case with regard to certain objective criteria of the structure of teaching although need not be so if role perceptions are considered.

It is of interest at this stage to see to what extent the symbol is inappropriate.

That the official teaching body does not have a monopoly of some esoteric and difficult body of knowledge is evidenced by the number of teaching operations performed by groups such as the family, the church, and the post-school work situation. From this it would seem that teaching operations do not necessitate practitioners being highly qualified. (Certainly within the official body of secondary school teachers 29.3% have less than a university diploma - P.P.T.A. 1967).

However, it must be recognised that although academic qualifications in themselves do not make the practitioner a good teacher a thorough knowledge of subject material is necessary if that subject is to be adequately taught. While the writer agrees that a more or less formal training in teaching strategies and techniques is also necessary, it is recognised that this idea is not accepted by all members of the secondary teaching body in this country.

Further, in socialising agencies, such as family and church informal rather than formal training programs are probably more appropriate. Therefore the non-possession of academic qualifications does not necessarily imply lack of training for the particular teaching operations involved.

With regard to the first criteria of a monopoly over some esoteric body of knowledge, the teaching body is no less professional than say the medical profession, as nurses, radiographers etc. all have claim to some share in medical knowledge, yet they are not usually considered to be members of that profession. (They are not, for example, members of the N.Z.M.A.). The same would apply to accounting, architecture and many others. This points to the fact that many occupational groups which are usually accepted as professions have no more monopoly over the appropriate body of knowledge than teaching.

Also with regard to the first criteria, it is becoming increasingly recognised that an adequate education system is necessary for the continued functioning of a modern society, both socially and economically, especially the latter. New Zealand is, at the moment, experiencing a shortage of qualified personnel which is world wide. The "brain drain" is a serious problem in many countries.

The second criteria of the symbol is perhaps harder to relate to teaching for in general terms there are two disciplines involved. First, subject material; it could be argued that a university degree, in say English, is not necessary to teach that subject at the third form level. However few would question the necessity of a university training in English to adequately teach that subject in the upper school. The same applies to other subjects and the more advanced the level of training the better able the teacher probably is to present that subject at any level. Second, a discipline which for the purpose of this study will be called education. This involves a knowledge of the total of dynamics which operate in a learning situation. However the necessity of this discipline for teachers has been questioned

by many, teachers included, who maintain that any required training in this direction can be gained on the job. However educationalists, the experts on the learning situation, would probably agree that even if a formal training in 'education' is not vital, it is certainly of great benefit to a teacher and more important, to the pupils.

That the majority of secondary teachers do not have such training, in fact a large minority have very little or no university training, does not make this criteria in the symbol inappropriate, although the lack of such training points to one non-professional aspect of teaching. It goes without saying that if teachers are to teach adequately (and after all, with reference again to the medical profession, anybody can use 'Grandma's remedy'), they require training in both subject material and 'education'. Such training will require a lengthy educational process (this has been partially recognised in the primary service as the training period has been increased from two to three years). Even in the secondary service a minimum qualification has been recognised by all as desirable when the supply of teachers permits.

Because of the well established principal of state education there is no possibility that the majority of secondary teachers will ever be private practitioners. This is not to say, however, that a strong teacher body could not have control over entry into the 'profession' and thus be able to exercise internal control over its members.

Although all teachers, both primary and secondary, in state schools are employed by lay boards in this country, the latter have little or no influence over teachers in their occupational roles. (A great deal more control is exercised by the inspectorate). In effect, teachers do have freedom from lay control.

The Post Primary Teachers' Association does have a code of ethics but no means of enforcing it as not all teachers are members and the association has no control over entry.

Therefore although it could make recommendations it is denied the ultimate means of discipline, debarment from the 'profession'.

Teachers do not have sizable incomes and high community prestige² and although they do not at the moment have much of a voice in community affairs this is not prevented by the structure of the occupational group.

Although Becker (1962) makes no attempt to designate priorities in his criteria, such priorities are relevant when using the criteria as a yardstick to measure teaching as an occupation. Secondary teaching in some aspects looks surprisingly professional (e.g. The existence of a professional association (P.P.T.A.), a code of ethics, a high proportion of people with advanced training, practitioners who are altruistically motivated) but these may not be the important ones. Becker (1962) must have had something like this in mind when he said that the professional model was not an appropriate one for teaching.

Other studies reinforce the idea of the non-professional nature of teaching. Smith (1957) could not find a uniform code of ethics, but did find variations in standards of entry. "Educational associations are weak, financial rewards low and autonomy is limited" (Gerstl 1967). The high turnover of teachers coupled with the high proportion of untrained entrants and the fact that teaching is a vehicle for upward social mobility (for men at least) makes it necessary to consolidate a professional outlook in each generation (Bassett 1957).

Because of the fact that in developed countries most, if not all, members of a society have seen at first hand a great deal of teachers professional activities, there is not the same aura attached to a classroom as there is to a doctor's surgery or a court of law. Teaching skills are hard to demonstrate to a lay audience and in fact are very difficult to assess even by a sophisticated observer.

Lastly the American National Education Association (1963) found that administrative chores consume 15% of a teacher's time a day and 25% to 50% of a teacher's time is spent in activities unrelated to classroom work. Although no specific study has been made, it is not unreasonable to assume that similar conditions prevail in New Zealand.

It would seem that, in many respects, the symbol is not very appropriate for teaching. This is not to say however that teaching should not be more professional than it is at the moment. Because of the bureaucratic structure of schools³ the teaching occupation has many bureaucratic elements but the next section attempts to show that in fact teaching should be more professional.

Should Teaching be a Profession?

Marshall (1939) saw professions as, in effect, with some characteristics, those occupations in which 'Caveat Emptor' cannot be allowed to prevail, i.e. the client must be assured of competent service as he does not have sufficient knowledge to assess the worth of the service for himself.

In an occupation where the practitioner is responsible for, but not to, the client, a high degree of autonomy is necessary to ensure that the clients' interests are served (Becker 1962).

Further, occupations which have as their prime aim general social welfare, also need autonomy to engage in serious social controversy when necessary (Stanley, Smith, Benne and Anderson - 1956).

The practitioner is the expert in his field.

Lastly, lack of professionalisation tends to lead to the centralisation of official authority in the hands of a relatively few managers. Findings suggest that a centralised authority structure, while being well suited for the co-ordination of tasks into simple routines, is not suitable

for the organisation of tasks which involve professional specialities (Blau, Heydebrand and Stauffer 1966).

Thus it is evident that certain occupations require the prestige, authority and autonomy to enable them to carry out their tasks properly and to fulfil their obligations to society. It is the writer's contention that teaching is such an occupation.

Admittedly certain of Becker's criteria (1962) can never be met but teaching could and should become more professional with regard to qualifications, internal control of standards and conduct, autonomy and social responsibility.

"From the economic and social standpoint a country's educational system is its main means both of perpetuating the values and skills of its population, and of preparing it for the changes which progress requires" (Phillips 1964). Therefore it should have prior claims, through a salary structure and prestige, on the most able in society.

Practitioners in all other professions and in fact most, if not all workers, in a society such as ours are dependent on, and receive the ground work for, further specialisation in the elementary and secondary schools.

While it is recognised that the government through the Education Department could do much to raise the professional status of teaching, (e.g. raise salaries, improve minimum qualifications etc.) if teaching is to become more professional then much of the impetus must come from teachers themselves. It is likely that this impetus will be related to the extent to which they are professionally orientated.

Professionalism as a Personality Dimension.

Now that people rather than organisations are the subject under discussion the term professional refers to a role orientation rather than the objective structure of an occupation.

Having examined the extent to which teaching as an occupation is professionally structured attention is now turned to teachers themselves. To what extent are teachers professionally orientated?

To answer this question it is first necessary to digress and survey role orientations as such.

Role

The term role has been used to denote prescription, description, evaluation and action. Confusion has arisen because, as with the term professionalism, it has been asked to do too much. It is impossible to adequately describe the diversity and complexity of a person's behaviour - matrix⁴ with a single concept such as role (Thomas and Biddle 1966). Because of this there has been a proliferation of terms and definitions used by writers either to denote the total behaviour or segments of it.

Definitions of Role

Role may be regarded as a link between culture and personality (Thomas and Biddle 1966). It represents the dynamic aspect of status⁵ and the term is used to designate the sum total of culture patterns associated with a particular status. Role thus includes the attitudes, values and behaviours ascribed by society to any and all persons occupying this status (Linton 1936).

For Sargent (1950) a person's role is a pattern or type of social behaviour which seems situationally appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group. But perhaps the most common definition is, that role is the set of prescriptions defining what the behaviour of a position member should be (Thomas and Biddle 1966).

The definitions cited so far appear to give emphasis to the prescriptive elements but a more pertinent explanation of the term role for this study is that of Moreno (1953) who saw

that a person's role in a given situation will be determined by all impinging social norms, demands and rules, the role performance of others, the observance and reactions of others, and by the individual's particular capabilities and personality.

He saw the genesis of role growing through two stages; role perception and role enactment. The major variable in this research is a particular role perception.

The writer's emphasis does not deny the crucial importance of situational determinants (prescriptive elements) but rather sees the individual as primarily acting not reacting. An individual is able to manipulate the external prescriptive elements of his status so as to be able to enact the role which he perceives to be most relevant in a given situation. This is not to say of course that his perception of the role is not influenced by other prescriptive elements prior to the particular status situation involved. Many of these elements will have been internalised and become part of the individual's personality.

In a teaching situation three broad groups of elements may be identified:-

- (i) the objective situation of the school setting itself;
- (ii) the subjective perception of that situation by the individual concerned (this perception will be influenced by the individual's total past experience)-
The Role Perception; and
- (iii) as a result of the interaction of the above two the individual's behaviour in a teaching situation.

The Objective Situation - The Role Set

For Merton (1957) the concept of Role Set is central. It refers to the particular segment of the behaviour matrix relevant to a particular social status. It is defined as the complement of role relationships which persons have by virtue of occupying a particular social status. For example

the role of a public school teachers has its distinctive role set relating the teacher to his pupils, to colleagues, the school principal and employing authority, local organisations, professional organisations, parent teacher organisations, etc.

Elements of the role set can and often do create role conflicts for the status occupant. He may be subjected to differing role expectations of differing interests from others in his role set. However the status occupant can minimise their influence in a number of different ways. If he can align conflicting segments of his role set against each other he may be fortunate enough to be able to act as an influential bystander while the others resolve their conflicts.

Another way is for the structure of a status situation to insulate the status occupant from observation by the role set and give him the necessary autonomy to adopt the role he thinks best suited. (This is especially the case when that status is one involving a high degree of technical competence, or specialised knowledge).

Without this insulation the status occupant will be forced to behave at the level of the lowest common denominator of the expectations of the role set. There is, however, an obvious danger in too great an insulation especially in occupational statuses dealing with social welfare. There is an optimum degree of observability by members of the role set, but as this will differ according to the status concerned, and as this optimum level is very difficult, if not impossible, to measure, the whole question must be left largely to sort itself out.

A third means of lowering role conflicts is for the status occupation to join an organisation of others in similar social statuses, with similar difficulties of coping with an unintegrated role set. This becomes the basis for the formation of organisations and normative systems among those occupying similar social statuses and this in turn leads to the emergence of professional codes which are designed to state in advance what the socially supported

behaviour of the status occupant should be⁶.

All of the preceding section is directly relevant to the teaching situation. Teachers must face the conflicting expectations of their role set (some of the elements of which have been given in the example cited) and attempt to resolve these conflicts in one or all of the ways indicated. An individual's particular role perception will probably determine the means he uses to do this. In the case of a professional role perception, resource to a professional association is the most likely. It is the individual who makes the initial move towards joining such an association and therefore such people are likely to be predisposed by their particular role perception to resolve their role conflicts in this way. Nevertheless simply joining an appropriate association does not give a status occupant a professional role perception; there being other characteristics of such a role perception.

Role Perception - A Professional Orientation

A teacher in his occupational status will have a number of specific roles to perform and his enactment of these roles will be influenced by his role perception. One such role perception involves a professional outlook, another a bureaucratic outlook (Career). As has been indicated there are many reasons why a professional role perception is most appropriate, in fact necessary for teachers (see page 14).

What then comprises a professional role perception? Although as has been stated, there is no general consensus about the criteria of professionalism, the following elements can be found in most, if not all, definitions.

Technical Competence

All would agree that the work of a profession involves a body of abstract knowledge. It is intellectual rather than manual and only by virtue of his specialist knowledge can the professional claim exclusive competence in his field.

To gain the necessary knowledge a long period of specialised training is necessary and this to most professionals represents an investment - a life's work. As a result of this dedication, professionals identify strongly with their professional groups (if these do in fact operate as professional groups and are not just such in name only).

They are also much more concerned over the effectiveness of their role (bearing in mind that teaching is a client-centred occupation) and the judgement of their effectiveness by other professionals, rather than with favourable evaluation by the bureaucratic structure within which they are status occupants.

Further, because of their advanced training, they will have a feeling of expertise in carrying out their occupational functions. Such feelings of expertise will be likely to engender a constant revision of occupational behaviour so as to be able to cater for the needs of pupils to the best of their ability.

Autonomy

Because of the technical nature of their work teachers are presumed to be competent to exercise authority and make decisions in their occupational capacity. Thus it is necessary, structurally, to give them sufficient isolation from the conflicts of the lay segments of their role set to allow them to carry out their professional duties in an appropriate manner. They alone have the skill to decide what is appropriate.

Unless the individual is prepared to exercise his professional authority, and has sufficient training to be able to do so, no amount of insulation from this role set will make him act professionally. Therefore an important aspect of a professional's role perception is that he is able and prepared to act autonomously.

Service Ideal

A third essential element of a professional role perception is centred in the generally accepted criteria of the client-centred nature of professions. The welfare of the client should come before profit, self-interest and institution.

The concept of a professional orientation or a professional role perception is a major variable in this study. It has three essential characteristics. To be considered professionally orientated a teacher must see himself as :

- (i) an expert in his field (technical competence);
- (ii) trust and use his judgement in occupational matters (autonomy);
- (iii) be prepared to give service, considering the welfare of pupils to be above any other status interests (service ideal).

Colombotos (1962), from whom the criteria were adopted, found them to be moderately intercorrelated (up to .38 between autonomy and competence items) indicating that they are not altogether distinct dimensions. They remain sufficiently distinct, however, to make worthwhile the analysis of the criteria separately, as well as together to give a professional index. It is to be expected that individuals will rate differently on the different criteria.

Studies of Role Perceptions

Although a number of different terms have been used, several studies have identified, among others, a professional role perception. These are summarised in Chart 2.

Wilensky's professionals (1956) were of two types but had the following features in common. Their primary identification was with their profession and their main

interest was in doing a job which would meet the approval of their colleagues. The main difference between the two types was that the "Program Professional" also had an interest in particular programs supporting union goals, whereas the "Technician Professional" pushed the norms of professional neutrality and objectivity to the extreme and had little interest in the impact of his role on the organisational program. The "Missionary" of Wilensky's study, whose aim is to reform, has some relevance to the criteria of service ideal.

In the Reissman study (1948) of state civil servants, two role orientations correspond to the professional. The "Functional Bureaucrat" identifies with an outside profession and "just happens to be working for the Government", while the "Specialist Bureaucrat" identifies with both the profession and the agency.

Marvic's "Specialist" (1954) also identifies with an outside profession and Blau (1955) found that "Professionals" were more concerned with raising standards than maximising production.

In a study of nursing roles by Habenstein and Christ (1955), both the "Professionaliser" who focuses upon modes of operations based on scientific knowledge, and is case-orientated, and the "Traditionaliser" who focuses on the service ideal and is more patient-centred, have role perceptions equivalent to the professional of this study.

In distinguishing between "Cosmopolitan" and "local" community roles, Merton (1957) defined the former as being low on loyalty to the employing agency, and high on commitment to professional role skills and identification with an outside professional group.

The "Professionally Orientated Welfare Worker" of Ohlin's study (1956) was client-centred, while the "Protective Agent" was ambivalent between the welfare of the client and punitive action.

CHART 2

PROFESSIONAL ROLE PERCEPTIONS IDENTIFIED IN DIFFERENT STUDIES

Author	Occupational Group Studied	Name given to Role Orientation	Characteristics
Wilensky	Labour Unions	(a) Program Professional	(a) Has interest in union goals.
		(b) Technical Professional	(b) Extreme professional neutrality. Both identify with outside professions and seek colleague approval.
		(c) Missionary	(c) Aims at social reform.
Reissman	State Civil Servants	(a) Functional Bureaucrat	(a) No identification with agency "just happens to be working for the Government".
		(b) Specialist Bureaucrat	(b) Identifies with agency as well as outside profession.
		(c) Service Bureaucrat	(c) Corresponds to Missionary above.
Marvic	Workers in Military Research	(a) Specialist	(a) Identifies with outside profession.
		(b) Hybrid	(b) Identifies with both service and outside profession.
Blau	Workers in Government Agencies	(a) Professional	(a) Concerned with raising standards not productivity.
Habenstein and Christ	Nurses	(a) Professionaliser	(a) Focuses on modes of operations and is case orientated.
		(b) Traditionaliser	(b) Focuses on service ideal, more patient-centred.
Merton		(a) Cosmopolitan	(a) High commitment to professional role and skills - Identifies with outside profession.
Ohlin et al.	Welfare Workers	(a) Professional	(a) Client centred.
		(b) Protective Agent	(b) Vacillation between helping the offender and protecting the community.
Colombotos	Teachers	(a) Professional role orientation	(a) Technical competence, Autonomy, Service ideal.

(Chart 2 shows the correspondence of the above professional role orientations).

The studies reviewed above did identify role orientations other than those mentioned, some of which (i.e. careerist) are relevant to a study of teachers. The current study was not designed to identify those other types but this is not to say that there would not be great value in utilising these other orientations in a similar study.

Professionalism and Teachers

Even though schools are bureaucratic (Bidwell 1965), one of the basic premises of this study is that teachers themselves should have professional role perceptions. To what extent is this possible?

The bureaucratic structure of schools is likely to influence the role perceptions of teachers. However, although Corwin (1961) did not think that the concept of individual differences could have much meaning for teachers who meet one hundred and fifty or more pupils a day, he did recognise that in another occupation (nursing) practitioners could be professionally orientated within the bureaucratic structure of that occupation.

Davis (1964) found teachers not to be highly concerned with the opportunity to be original and creative. They have little chance to concentrate sufficiently on any one aspect of their subject specialisation to be original and creative.

The standardisation of courses and examinations in secondary schools in this country leaves little room for autonomy in this respect.

The number of teachers' divergent obligations indicates that their role is more diffuse than other professional roles (Parsons 1956). Primary teachers admittedly see fewer pupils but their role is, nevertheless, no less diffuse.

"The business of socialising children, of motivating, inspiring and encouraging them, of transmitting values to them, awakening in them respect for facts and a sense of critical appreciation; all this is unspecific" (Wilson 1962).

Teachers are more concerned with techniques rather than aims of education. A great majority do not take educational theories seriously but prefer to "get on with the job" (Bassett 1957). They consider it is only necessary to know what to teach and have little concern over the why and how. They prefer to leave it to the central administration to state the objectives of education. This is more so in secondary education as curricular are largely structured by external examinations.

However on the positive side, Colombotos (1962) found 44% of his sample of 545 secondary teachers to be highly professional when measured against the criteria of technical competence, autonomy and service ideal.

The idea of priorities in the criteria of professionalism has already been mentioned and these priorities may well be relevant when studying professional role perceptions as well as the objective structure of an occupation.

The findings so far mentioned would seem to indicate that the majority of teachers are not highly professional but again this is not to say that the situation should remain unchanged. Obviously if there is a need for the occupation to be more professional then also must the practitioners.

Should teachers be more Professional?

If teaching is to become more professional then the first step is for teachers themselves to adopt a more positive role perception in this direction.

As teaching is a client-centred occupation operating within a bureaucratic institution, professionally orientated teachers

are much more likely to consider and protect the interests of pupils as against the interests of the institution (Corwin (1964)).

Teachers must establish themselves as experts in their field and exercise the office of educational statesmen. They must lead the community in educational matters (Stanley, Smith, Benne and Anderson 1956).

This is the first step in creating a public image of a professional body, as the folk concept must have developed from what the layman saw of individual practitioners rather than the occupational group.

Teachers as individuals must strive for a professional outlook as it is the individuals not the group who must act professionally in the teaching situation.

"But after all it is the professional spirit that matters" (Flexner 1916).

Professional Role Perceptions and this Study

The aim of this study is two-fold.

- (i) To examine the concept of professionalism as applied to teachers to find out, if possible, some of the antecedents of a professional role perception.
- (ii) To examine the consequences on certain performance and attitude variables of a professional role perception which so far has only been justified on general theoretical grounds.

Footnotes

(1) In a bureaucracy there is a division of labour, a hierarchy of authority with carefully prescribed responsibilities, a system of rules or policy, impersonality in the interaction of its members. Employment is based on technical qualifications and efficiency from a technical standpoint (P.M. Blau - Bureaucracy in Modern Society - N.Y. Random House 1956).

(2) For a comparison, see Congalton and Havighurst (1954). Their ranking places secondary teaching in the third of seven categories. The accepted professions of medicine and law etc. being in the first category (Comparisons of income are also given).

(3) In schools there is a functional division of labour, a hierarchical ordering of offices and they operate according to rules of procedure - (Bidwell 1965).

(4) The behaviour matrix is the total of persons influencing the total of behaviours of an individual. In particular behaviours only a segment of the matrix is operative.

(5) A status, as distinct from the individual who may occupy it, is simply a collection of rights and duties.

(6) This discussion of ways of minimising role conflict is based on that of Merton (1957).

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Professionalism, the major variable in this investigation may refer to two different attributes; (i) the structure of an occupation; (ii) the role orientation of practitioners, although it is the latter which is the main subject of this investigation.

As a description of occupational structure it may be construed as an ideal type (cf Becker's symbol) against which the empirical referents of a given occupation may be compared. The second usage refers to the attitudes and performance of practitioners within an occupational group.

Because of the importance secondary teachers attach to the attainment of professional status, this study is concerned with the extent to which they are in fact professional in their role perceptions. While recognising that the structure of teaching as an occupation may well have a great influence on teachers' role perceptions it is unlikely that it will become a profession unless the teachers are prepared to act in a professional manner.

The first section of the investigation is concerned with the origins of professionalism among teachers; later sections examine the consequence of a professional role perception for selected performance and attitude variables relevant to the teaching situation. Due to the large number of variables likely to be pertinent to this field of investigation a selection had to be made of those which seemed to be most significant from the results of other studies.

Although professionalism is only one of several dimensions which could be used to examine secondary school teachers in their occupational roles, this and any other

relevant research should contribute to a more empirically based analysis of this field in this country.

Where the hypotheses are concerned with the analysis of professionalism, professionalism itself may be designated a dependent variable.

The first section of the investigation examines the relationship between professional role perception and the following antecedent variables.

Social Origins

- (i) Sex Role.
- (ii) Socio-economic background.

Teaching situation

- (iii) Advanced training.
- (iv) Occupational position.

Examination of the above relationships should reveal some of the correlates of professionalism among secondary teachers.

However of more consequence from a practical point of view will be the findings from the next sections of the investigation, where professionalism is conceptualised as an independent variable. Here the hypotheses are concerned with the relationships between professional role perception and the following elements of teaching.

Performances in the Teaching Situation

- (v) Teaching Style.
- (vi) Extra-curricular activities.

Perceptions of the Teacher Situation

- (vii) Aims of Education.
- (viii) External Examinations.
- (ix) Emphasis in Education and Teacher Satisfaction with the System.

Professional Activities External to the School Situation

- (x) Participation in Professional Associations.

The Major Variables Elaborated

Professionalism. Much has already been said about professionalism (Chapter 2) and here it suffices to say that the following operational definition will be used in this investigation.

A professional role perception is seen as comprising three elements.

- (i) Technical competence.
- (ii) Autonomy.
- (iii) Service Ideal.

The most important of these elements is the last, as the central ingredient of a professional orientation is concern for the client above all other considerations. The index used to measure a professional role perception is fully explained in Chapter IV.

Sex Role

The major parameters of this variable are patterns of early socialisation and value systems associated with differences in sex role.

Socio-Economic Background

In this investigation, fathers' occupation was taken as an indication of socio-economic background. The ranking of occupations follows that of Congalton and Havighurst (1953).

Advanced Training

This includes any tertiary education whether it be university and/or specifically teacher training at a training college. Also included are trade training and other qualifications, such as L.T.C.L., L.R.S.M., where they are pertinent to the teaching situation¹.

Occupational Position

Reference here is to the authority structure of schools and the positions held by respondents within this authority structure.

Teaching Style

The performance of teaching is highly individualistic but nevertheless some common elements can be defined. In this study a number of dimensions have been utilised to examine patterns of teaching style. These include such elements as progressive versus traditional; pupil planning versus teacher planning etc. (See Question 35 Appendix).

Extra-Curricular Activities (E.C.A.)

These include any activities outside of classroom teaching and not directly involved with the day to day running of the school. They will be mainly to do with sport's coaching and cultural activities such as drama and musical productions. Some teachers share their personal interests with pupils by forming clubs and engaging in a wide variety of other activities. (Tramping, Chess, Judo, etc.). This investigation does not differentiate between kinds of E.C.A., but simply records teachers' estimates of their time involved.

Aims of Education

A two-fold classification of aims of education has been used in this study; namely subject-centredness and child-centredness. On the one hand a teacher who perceives the aims of education from a subject-centred viewpoint will tend to see as his responsibility only the intellectual training of the pupil, leaving other socialisation to agencies such as family and Church. On the other hand teachers, whose aims of education include a concept of the whole child, will be concerned with his part in the total socialisation of his pupils.

The above represents only one dimension along which educational aims can be mapped.

External Examinations

The examinations referred to are School Certificate, University Entrance, Bursary and to lesser extent Scholarship. Reference is also made to teachers' own estimates of pupil achievement and to school testimonials.

Emphases in Education and Teacher Satisfaction

Teachers were asked to give their opinion as to whether certain components of educational practice in secondary schools, (homework, preparation for jobs, cultural activities etc.) should be given more or less emphasis than at the present. (See Question 36 Appendix).

Related to this is the question of satisfaction. Less satisfied teachers will probably want more change, therefore from respondents replies to items in question 34B an index of satisfaction was derived (the next chapter provides a more detailed account of this index).

Participation in Professional Associations

The association mainly referred to is the Post Primary Teachers' Association (P.P.T.A.) and although many secondary teachers are members of the National Union of Teachers (N.U.T.) this organisation did not exist when the questionnaires were completed. Other societies related to a teachers subject specialisation are also pertinent.

As well as participation and interest in professional associations teachers were asked to give their opinions as to the effectiveness of the main secondary teacher body; P.P.T.A.

Chart 3 is a summary of the major variables and their inter-relationships.

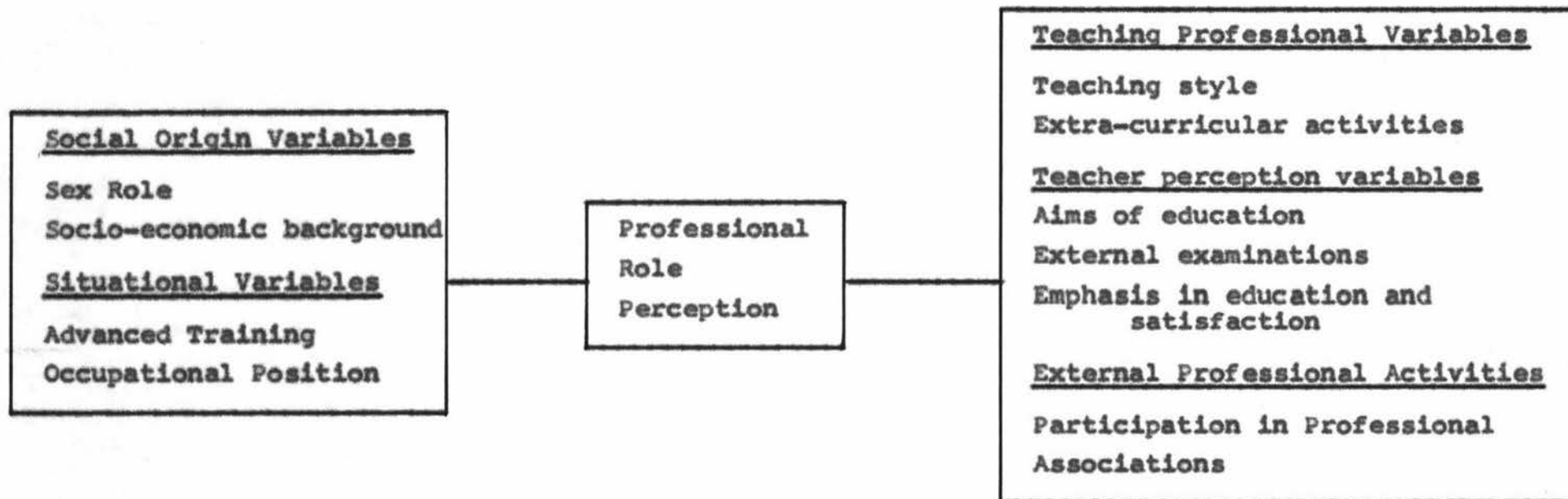
Social Origins

Sex Role and Professionalism

Bureaucratic and professional behaviours are antithetical (Corwin 1965) and because of the bureaucratic structure of schools (Clark 1964) professionally orientated teachers are likely to have more conflict in their teaching situation (Corwin 1961).

The pursuit of a career within the bureaucratic structure of the school system is likely to make the adoption of a

CHART 3
THE MAJOR VARIABLES IN THIS STUDY



professional role perception by careerist teachers more difficult, because bureaucratic behaviours rather than professional behaviours are more likely to meet with success. "Career" teachers will tend to pay greater heed to those elements of teaching which will enhance career prospects. They will be less willing to act autonomously in the best interests of the pupils where such actions may be antithetical to career aspirations; the school and the system will claim their loyalties rather than the pupils because it is the system which promotes.

As a result of the economic and status structure of our society there is greater pressure on men to 'make good', to succeed in their career. Success brings not only status but also financial reward which is important to men as 'providers'.

Hence men teachers are more likely to be career orientated and upwardly mobile than women teachers (Clark 1964). Relatively few of the latter intend making teaching a career when they enter the service; marriage and child bearing being more dominant aspirations. Not being so concerned with career prospects they are more free to adopt a professional role perception.

H.1. Women perceive their teaching roles more professionally than men.

Watson (1966 (1)) found men entering the primary service to be more concerned with making a career. They concentrated more on going for a qualification than being interested in issues of status and working conditions, as are women.

"Career" was seen by Parsons (1942) to be the main motivation of men, this being induced not only by early role training but also by the fact that they will have to act as provider for wife and family. Success fulfils the role expectations of society and also provides an adequate remuneration.

The main role orientation of women in society on the other hand is as wife and mother with early role training emphasising kindness and nurturance (Parsons 1942). These elements of the female sex role are very much akin to the client-centredness of a professional role perception. Colombotos (1962) found that a role perception which values kindness and nurturance (the mother and housewife role) appeared to support a professional role perception in teaching. However the demands in terms of time and energy of a mother and housewife role seemed to conflict with the demands of professionalism.

Most women enter the occupational world only as a "short adventure" between school and marriage or to supplement the family income. For them teaching is a contingent career; if they do not marry, until they have children. (Watson 1966 (2)). As a result they are less likely to be committed to a career. This, coupled with the nurturant aspects of their early socialisation, could well predispose them towards perceiving their teaching roles more professionally. Support for this reasoning is found in the Colombotos study (1962) where older single women, those making teaching a career, were less professional than younger single, or married, women. In the case of older single women, an initial predisposition (arising from early socialisation) towards professionalism is counteracted by a career orientation.

To conclude, because of the antithesis of career and professionalism men are less likely to be professional as a result of their probable career orientation. Women, subjected to the ideals of nurturance and kindness are more likely to adopt a professional role perception.

Socio-Economic Background and Professionalism

Davis and Havighurst (1946), Davis (1952) and Hyman (1953), have examined the differences in values and socialisation patterns between middle and working class families. They found that the middle class emphasises independence, achievement and responsibility in child-rearing practices. These values when

translated into adult motivations are similar to the dimensions of a professional role perception: technical competence, autonomy and service.

Colombotos (1962) found that teachers from middle class backgrounds were more professional and gave as one explanation for this the above reasoning.

Further support for the relationship between social class background and professionalism comes from findings with regard to the social mobility of teachers. The National Opinion Research Centre (1953) considered teaching a middle class occupation and therefore an avenue of upward social mobility for entrants from lower class backgrounds. Entrants from middle class backgrounds will have less concern for social mobility as if they were upwardly mobile they would not have entered teaching. Recruits to teaching who are upwardly mobile will be more concerned with career aspirations which are antithetical to professionalism. (Teachers from middle class backgrounds, free from concern over improved mobility, and predisposed by early socialisation towards adopting a professional orientation, should perceive their teaching roles more professionally).

However the findings from the research mentioned above may well not be applicable to New Zealand conditions. Firstly, because of inappropriateness of the classification of social class and secondly, because the equivalent social classes in New Zealand, if they do exist, may not have the same socialisation patterns and values.

In New Zealand, Watson (1966 (1)) found that entrants to training college (especially men) came from humble backgrounds. Most men who remain in primary and secondary teaching are sons of manual workers, clerks and small town merchants. They have fathers who have usually not had more than ten years' formal schooling.

Among women entrants the pattern is a little different. One third of the women investigated in that study had at least

one parent with university training. Overall the women came from higher socio-economic backgrounds, although in the 1957 intake (which was the sample studied) there were no sons or daughters of doctors, lawyers, architects, scientists or city businessmen. Many men entrants were the first in their line to enter an occupation of supposedly professional status. In the Congalton and Havighurst (1953) ranking of occupations in New Zealand secondary teaching is given a rating of three. Therefore for entrants whose fathers' occupations rate lower than this secondary teaching would be a means of upward mobility.

On the basis of the findings of Watson (1966) (1)) it could be assumed that for a large proportion of men entrants, secondary teaching would mean a rise in socio-economic status, although such an assumption is inconclusive because of lack of detail given in the published report.

Although there is a lack of precise information from a New Zealand context it seems likely that where entrants to teaching have origins in lower socio-economic levels than secondary teaching itself then, because of their probable interest in upward social mobility, they will be less professional.

H.2. Teachers whose socio-economic origins are classified in levels II and III are less professional than teachers whose socio-economic origins are classified in level I.

Situational Factors

Training and Professionalism

Most writers would agree that the existence of highly qualified practitioners is one of the criteria of a profession. In the case of the older more established professions (i.e. medicine, law) it is to be expected that the training for that profession would in some way foster a professional role perception. The hippocratic oath of the medical profession is possibly an example of this.

Training for the professions cited above is organised as an integrated whole but this is not the case with secondary teaching. The amount and kind of training for secondary teaching in New Zealand varies a great deal from no tertiary education at all (there being no minimum qualifications for entry into secondary teaching), to Masters' degrees (and even some Doctorates) in a wide range of subjects. Teachers may or may not have had training specifically designed to prepare them for their occupational tasks.

Basically two kinds of training can be identified.

- (i) Training in subject matter; the 'what' of teaching.
- (ii) Teacher training as such at training college; the 'how' of teaching.

Secondary teachers may have had neither, one or both.

Common among secondary teachers is the idea that training in subject matter is all that is required; the means of 'putting it across' can be gathered on the job. Educational theory is not to be taken seriously, the main thing being to 'get on with the job'. (Bassett 1957). However, increasing numbers of teachers, especially in locations near Universities, are becoming more interested in educational theory.

In terms of quantity of training it is very difficult to prognosticate as to the probable relationship between such training and professionalism.

On the one hand advanced training may well tend to make teachers more professional but, by the same token, career orientated teachers will also pursue qualifications to enhance their career prospects. From the above it would seem just as likely for highly qualified teachers to be career orientated as professionally orientated.

High qualification, however, in the case of teachers otherwise professionally orientated should be accompanied by claims to expertise and, as a result of this, demands for autonomy. Where such attitudes exist respondents should score

high on the criteria of technical competence and autonomy, but not necessarily service.

In the case of career orientated teachers, autonomy, especially within the bureaucratic structure of the school system, will not be such an important factor. Conformity to rules rather than autonomy is the bureaucratic mode (Corwin 1964).

Although both career and professional teachers will seek higher qualifications, because of other factors mentioned above it was hypothesised that:-

H.3 Teachers with a Bachelor's degree or higher qualification are more professional than teachers with less than a Bachelor's degree.

Not only autonomy but service is likely to be a more pertinent differentiating factor between the 'careerist'² and the 'professional'. The loyalty of the careerist will tend to be to the organisation, whereas professional loyalty is centred on the client.

If a teacher has studied in subject matter fields only, then it is unlikely that these studies will have any great influence on his personal orientation (whether it be professional or non-professional) to his work. However, if a teacher's studies have included some of the more humanity-centred disciplines³ then there is likely to be a positive relationship between these studies and professionalism (especially the service element) for one or both of two reasons.

(1) It can be fairly assumed that at a university level personal interest plays a large part in the selection of subjects for study, especially those that are advanced. Students who undergo courses of study in such people-centred disciplines as education, psychology etc. probably do so because of a predominate interest in people. If they enter an appropriate occupation such an interest will tend to predispose them toward a client-centred orientation which is seen in this study as the central element of professionalism.

(ii) The studies mentioned above should enhance an initial interest in people and intensify the feeling for, and loyalty to, clients rather than to the inanimate structure of the employing organisation.

H.4. Teachers who have undergone courses of study in people-centred disciplines are more professional than those who have not.

Teacher training at a training college is likely to be even more pupil centred (in fact wholly so) than studies at an university where much of the material is only peripheral and bears no relationship to the classroom situation.

Because of this teachers who have been to training college (and there are a great number of secondary teachers who have not) and therefore have a trained teachers certificate should be more professional.

H.5. Certificated teachers are more professional than uncertificated teachers.

Occupational Position and Professionalism

Under this heading there is again a complete lack of evidence which might suggest what relationship, if any, might exist between these two variables. The question however is an important one, as undoubtedly teachers in positions of responsibility have a great deal of influence on both pupils and more junior staff members.

Speculation in terms of career within a bureaucracy would lead to the postulation of a negative relationship between success in progressing through the hierarchy of authority and professionalism. Success in a bureaucratic organisation would probably result from a display of approved bureaucratic performance and this is antithetical to professionalism (Corwin 1965). (The differences between bureaucratic and professional modes of behaviour are given in Chart I, Page 9).

The foregoing discussion suggests that the higher the position of authority a respondent holds the more bureaucratic and therefore the less professional will be his orientation to his occupational status. This would be especially the case with regard to loyalty to organisation (bureaucratic) versus loyalty to client (professional).

However there are two factors which may well result in evidence contradictory to what might be expected from the above speculation.

(i) The judgement of merit as a teacher, and therefore the means to promotion through the authority structure of the secondary school system, lies outside of the authority structure of schools as such. Inspectors are departmental officers and not board employees as are most teachers. Although the appointment to positions of responsibility lies in the hands of the board, such appointments are made on the basis of grading which is in the hands of the inspectorate (Undoubtedly headmasters do have a great deal of influence both on grading and on appointments).

Therefore, although schools are bureaucratic organisations (Clark 1964) approved teaching performances need not necessarily be bureaucratic. If inspectors consider themselves to be members of a profession then it is more likely that they will reward professional behaviours rather than bureaucratic behaviours. As a result it is likely that it is the most professional teachers who have a greater opportunity, through higher grading, to reach positions of responsibility.

(ii) If, as Corwin (1961) postulates, professional teachers have more conflict in their teaching status than non-professional teachers, then it would seem logical that they would take some measures to reduce this conflict. They could either leave teaching altogether (as undoubtedly many of them do) or they could repress, to a certain extent, those professional attitudes which give rise to conflict. Such repression need not necessarily mean a complete change from a

professional to a bureaucratic orientation, but rather these professional aspirations would lie dormant until such time as the teacher concerned is in such a position of authority as to be able to exercise them more fully. A Position of Responsibility may in fact engender more professional modes. Such could be the case of a dedicated, far sighted teacher, the revolutionary missionary who one day hopes to see the fulfilment of his educational ideals.

Although the above conjecturing is contradictory, the writer speculates that the reasoning which concludes with a positive relationship between the holding of a Position of Responsibility and professionalism is more realistic than that which concludes with no relationship.

H.6. Teachers occupying Positions of Responsibility are more professional than assistant teachers.

The foregoing hypotheses complete the section of the investigation where professionalism is perceived as a dependent variable. The rest of the study examines some of the consequences of a professional role perception on situational and attitude variables. Hence professionalism is conceptualised as an independent variable.

Because of the need for teachers to be professional (see Chapter II, Page 14) it is important to see what patterns of teaching performance and attitudes to other pertinent elements of the teaching situation are likely to emerge if in fact teachers do become more professional.

Performance in the Teaching Situation

Professionalism and Teaching Style

Obviously the way in which a teacher perceives his occupational role will have an influence on his teaching style, but there is no evidence to suggest what effect this influence will have. Because of the need for teachers to adopt a professional orientation it is important to find out what pattern (if any) of teaching style is likely to emerge as a result of such

a role perception. It must be recognised that teaching performance is a very personal thing and that a teacher's bias in many of the teaching styles used in this study will be a product of personality factors other than role perception. However, from the client-centred nature and the ideal of service of a professional role perception, the following predictions can be made with some reasonableness.

H.7. There is a significant difference between the teaching style of high and low professionals. High professional teachers will place greater emphasis than low professional teachers on the following aspects.

- a. Child-centredness
- b. Guidance
- c. Discussion
- d. Pupil planning
- e. Insight learning
- f. Pupil growth
- g. Indirect control of children
- h. Progressive education
- i. Subjectivity
- j. Personal freedom and independence
- k. Obligation to society

Professionalism and Extra-Curricular Activities (ECA)

Participation in ECA is very controversial among secondary teachers themselves, especially when it involves time on Saturdays. Many consider that taking part in ECA is part of a teachers job, others consider such activities to be non-professional. Often there is considerable feeling against the undoubted coercion that occurs in many instances. For many, teaching is their life and ECA gives an opportunity for the extension of their private interests and interest in young people at the same time. Probably many resent the intrusion of school activities into their own time but participate because of the possible influence of such participation on grading.

How will the professional stand in regard to this question? Gerstl (1967) saw a high degree of commitment to an area of specialisation as a general characteristic of all professions. But are ECA part of a teachers area of specialisation? This would seem to be the crucial issue.

Again the client-centredness and service aspect of a professional role perception is likely to outweigh more personal considerations with the professional teacher. He is more likely to consider the education of the whole child as his responsibility (see hypothesis 9) and therefore consider ECA to be part of a teachers area of specialisation because of their relevance for social and physical education.

H.8. High professional teachers are more active in ECA than low professional teachers.

Perceptions of the Teaching Situation

Professionalism and Aims of Education

One of several dimensions along which aims of education may be classified is that of child-centred versus subject-centred (page 31) or the life adjustment school of thought as compared with the intellectual training school of thought. Proponents of the life adjustment school will tend to be more concerned with the whole child, whereas the teachers who follow the intellectual training school will tend to be more subject specialists.

Colombotos (1962) found that teachers classified in these categories were not differentially distributed among high medium and low professionals.

Two factors may, however, operate in this investigation which could result in somewhat different findings than those of Colombotos.

(1) In one approach the 'whole child' is considered to be the responsibility of the teacher with greater emphasis on child-centredness, than the intellectual training approach which tends to place greater emphasis on subject material. The professional

index of this study was weighted by 'client-centredness', whereas that of Colombotos (1962) was weighted by technical competence. Because of this difference in weightings professionalism is much more likely to be related to the life adjustment approach in this investigation than in that of Colombotos.

(ii) Because of the differences in teacher training procedures in the U.S. and N.Z., commitment to these schools of thought may have different meanings for teachers in the two countries.

In the U.S. most teacher training, or training for the occupation of teaching, involves some form of educational studies which are pupil-centred rather than subject-centred. In N.Z. this is not the case. Here many teachers have had formal training in subject matter only, teacher training coming on the job.

Because of the pupil orientation of educational courses such studies will tend to reinforce the adoption of a philosophy of education centred on the whole child. If after such studies a teacher still decided that his responsibility extends only as far as intellectual training such a decision is made from a somewhat different standpoint from the same decision made on the basis of formal training in subject matter only. Therefore the adoption of aims of education emphasising intellectual training could have a different meaning for some N.Z. teachers, from those in the U.S. (Undoubtedly training is only one of several factors which would influence a teacher in what aims of education he adopted).

For the above reasons the working hypothesis is stated as follows:

H.9. High professional teachers as compared to low professionals will be more likely to see the education of the whole child as their responsibility rather than just training the intellect.

At first glance this hypothesis may appear to be self evident and circular. If child-centred teachers are professional then professionals are child-centred (whole child etc.) in terms of aims of education.

Bearing in mind however that child-centredness is only one of the elements of a professional role perception and the fact that other factors may operate to influence the adoption of a standpoint with regard to aims of education, the hypothesis is worth investigating because of the effect a particular philosophy of aims of education may have on a teacher's performance and attitudes.

Professionalism and External Examinations

There is no denying that the greater part of N.Z. secondary education is geared towards outside examinations; namely School Certificate, University Entrance and Bursary. These exams, although they come from the third year of secondary schooling onwards, structure the syllabi of most subjects from the third form.

One of the results of such structuring is that much of the material is inappropriate for many pupils. Teachers are not free to adopt material to cater for individual needs which, if they are professional, will likely to be a more important consideration than preparing pupils for examinations.

To be fair it must be recognised that teachers' representatives do share in the writing of syllabi. For example the School Certificate Revision Committee, a standing body, does have equal representation of teachers and departmental officers. However not only does such a body seem remote from the individual classroom teacher, but the system expects all pupils to reach a common standard with failure as the reward for nearly two thirds of secondary school entrants under the old School Certificate structure. Certainly the new single subject pass will allow greater numbers to gain something, but it does not alter the fact that many are pushed through an inappropriate course of instruction.

Professional teachers will also tend to resent both the assessment of their ability as teachers and the assessment of pupil achievement by an outside agency through the medium of examinations. As professionals they are the experts. They will want the autonomy to select and modify material to cater for individual needs (their primary consideration being the education of the pupils they teach) and will consider themselves and their colleagues to be the best judges of how successful they have been in fulfilling their occupational responsibilities.

It may be, however, that professional teachers consider that, as examiners in public examinations (especially School Certificate) are selected from among the teaching body, this constitutes assessment by colleagues. Therefore they will consider that pupils' marks in outside examinations are adequate and fair measures of their teaching ability. Especially, also, if they see as their major responsibility towards their pupils getting them through these examinations.

But bearing in mind the fact that teachers recognise the importance to pupils of the systems assessment of their ability, professional teachers will want the most direct influence possible in such assessment. Therefore they are likely to consider that a school testimonial (teachers usually co-operate directly in the wording of these) is a more important and meaningful assessment than marks in a public examination.

Unfortunately the public at large and especially the occupational world, while giving some weight to a school's assessment, still attach the greatest importance to examination results.

Because of this the professional teacher is faced with two conflicting demands. As a result of his loyalty to his pupils he must try and compromise between catering for individual needs and the preparation of students for public examinations. The more contiguous the latter, the more bound by them will be the teacher. Perhaps the professional more so than the non-professional.

In this investigation it is expected that there will be a difference between teachers' assessment of the system as it is and what it should be. In other words teachers, especially high professionals may be examination-orientated at the present but would prefer not to be if the system were different.

H.10. Compared to low-professional teachers, high-professional teachers will be less likely to consider:

- (i) examinations to be adequate measures of either pupil achievement or their own ability as teachers;
- (ii) school testimonials should be less important than outside examinations as assessments of a pupil's achievement.

Professionalism and Emphases in Education and Teacher Satisfaction

The second part of this investigation examines the consequence of a professional role perception on specific elements of the teaching situation. Under the present heading the study aims to round off, somewhat, the picture of the professional teacher in his occupational status by examining the relationship between professionalism and the emphases he considers should be placed on elements of secondary education not already dealt with. These elements are given in Question 36 (Appendix) and can be summarised as follows:- basic subjects, cultural activities, discipline, pupils' work habits, and education for leisure and occupation.

Although the basic question is one worthy of investigation, the present emphases in schools on the elements mentioned above is likely to be more pertinent than the role perceptions of teachers. The response of more or less will be in terms of what a particular teacher conceives to be the present emphases.

It is possible, however, to give some direction to the hypothesis on the grounds of the client-centred nature of a professional role perception.

H.11. As compared with low-professional teachers, high-professionals will want emphases as follows:-

- (a) the same as at present on basic subjects
- (b) more on cultural activities
- (c) more on reasoning as a means of discipline
- (d) more pupil participation in pupil activities
- (e) more education for leisure
- (f) the same as at present on occupational education.

Associated with the question of changing emphasis is the question of teacher satisfaction with the present system. The bureaucratic structure of the school system is likely to engender more conflict in high professional teachers (Corwin 1965) than low professionals. This conflict will probably manifest itself in high professionals dissatisfaction with the system.

H.12. High professional teachers will be less satisfied with their present teaching situation than low professional teachers.

This question is answered by means of an index of satisfaction based on answers to question 34B (see Appendix). This index will be more fully explained in Chapter IV.

Professional Activities External but Relevant to the School Situation

The third part of this investigation consists of the examination of a sphere of teacher activity which is external but pertinent to occupational position.

Participation in professional associations will influence teachers in their occupational roles even though such participation occurs outside of school time.

Professionalism and Participation in Professional Associations

Speaking generally a professional association has four main functions : it

- (i) acts as a mutual aid society for its members;
- (ii) fosters and advances the welfare of that occupational group in a societal context;
- (iii) acts as the organ through which the experts may have a voice in community affairs; and
- (iv) acts as a means of internal control over its members by fostering a professional orientation.

For professional teachers these will, or should be, important aspects of their occupational status. Certain of these functions will also be of interest to non-professional teachers as well, especially the advancement of the welfare of practitioners and to a lesser extent the occupational security arising from interaction with others in similar status. However they are unlikely to feel the same obligation with regard to a voice in community affairs and the fostering of a professional orientation.

The associations relevant to secondary teachers are the Post Primary Teachers' Association (P.P.T.A.) and to a lesser extent the National Union of Teachers (N.U.T.). Unfortunately at the time the data of this study was collected the latter did not exist. Because of the differences between the two associations (e.g. N.U.T. has registered as a trade union) comparisons of membership would have been very informative.

One salient factor in teachers' attitudes towards their associations is the type of bodies they perceive them to be. Professional teachers will be more active in the association if in fact it acts as a professional body and not a disguised trade union.

Nevertheless, as most teachers aspire to professional status, it is logical to assume they will have created a

professional body as their official association.

H.13. High Professional teachers will be more interested and active in their professional association than low professional teachers.

Footnotes

1. Nursing qualifications were also included (there being four respondents in this category) because of the client-centred nature of the training.
2. In this study the careerist is seen as that person who attempts to rise as high as possible in teaching. This would presumably imply observance of bureaucratic modes of behaviour as schools are basically bureaucratically structured. (For a comparison of bureaucratic and professional expectations, see Chart I, p.9).
3. By humanity-centred disciplines is meant such subjects as education, psychology, sociology, etc.

CHAPTER IVMETHODOLOGY.

This chapter describes the sample, the method of data collection, the operationalisation of variables requiring the use of indices, and the statistical procedures used.

The Sample

The sample of one hundred and eighty-eight secondary teachers was drawn from schools situated in or surrounding a light industrial and servicing centre in the lower part of the North Island. Altogether ten schools were involved; four city schools and the rest situated in small provincial towns. The selection of schools was not random but dictated by their proximity to the centre in which the research was undertaken. Two of the schools were single sex (one of each sex) and the rest co-educational.

Individuals volunteered and this may make for a possible bias in the sample (Borg 1963).

TABLE IRESPONDENTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION *

<u>School</u>	<u>Total No.of Teachers</u>	<u>No.of Respondents</u>	<u>Percentage of Total</u>
A	49	12	24
B	43	5	11.5
C	25	17	63
D	45	29	64.5
E	50	28	56
F	25	15	60
G	19	16	80
H	37	19	53
I	42	33	82
J	36	14	39.9
<u>TOTALS</u>	317	188	50.67

* Six respondents had to be eliminated in the analysis because they did not complete one of more items in the professional index.

Although the response rate was only just over 50% this is better than is usually obtained from studies which have made use of a mailed questionnaire¹.

Table 2 compares the sample with the national total of teachers with regard to sex and qualifications. No national figures for age were available.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF SAMPLE WITH NATIONAL TOTAL

		<u>% National*</u>	<u>% Sample</u>
<u>Sex</u>	Male	60.91	61.13
	Female	39.09	38.87
	M.A. or better	27.8	28.72
	B.A.	33.7	35.10
<u>Qualifications</u>	Diploma or Equivalent	9.2	30.84
	Less	29.3	5.34

* Source of National Figures - New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association - Lost Opportunities-Secondary School Staffing 1967.

Since both sex role and qualifications are important variables in this study it is fortunate that the distribution of these variables in the sample so closely resembles the national distribution; the only exception being the distribution of qualifications at the Diploma or equivalent level. The higher proportion in this category in the sample is probably due to the proximity of a university. The implication of this resemblance is that although the response rate was not as high as one might have hoped this need not necessarily deter the generalisability of the results obtained in the present research.

The median age of the sample lies within the 35 to 44.9 years group but, as has been previously stated, there is no way of comparing this with National figures as the latter were not available.

Data Collection

Data for this study was collected by means of a questionnaire (see Appendix).

As a result of a pilot study carried out in one particular school certain questions were modified before the questionnaire was sent to other schools in the sample. A copy was also sent to the executive of the Post Primary Teachers' Association; the President of which wrote a letter recommending to all concerned support of the study.

Where possible the principals of schools were approached personally and this occurred in four instances. Otherwise the questionnaires were sent out under a covering letter describing the nature and purpose of the investigation.

Teachers were given the questionnaire to complete in their own time and most were returned by the school rather than by individual teachers.

The questionnaire itself took a half to three-quarters of an hour to complete and answers were completely anonymous.

Responses were coded on to I.B.M. cards and data analysis done by computer.

The questions themselves came from three sources. Many questions were modelled on two previous questionnaires in this field. (i) That given in the report by Colombotos (1962); (ii) International Study of Teachers. The remaining questions were based on the writer's eight years' experience as a secondary teacher.

The questions may be divided into several major categories.

(i) Present Teaching Position.

Questions 1 - 4 and 21 - 22 were concerned with details of a respondents present teaching position.

- (ii) **Background Material.**
 Questions 5 - 12 relate to the general background of respondents, physical, social and academic.
- (iii) **Teaching Career.**
 Questions 13 - 17 and 23 are concerned with the course of the respondents teaching career.
- (iv) **Attitudes to, and social effects of, teaching as a career.**
 Questions 18 - 20, 25-28 are relevant to this category.
- (v) **Attitude to Aspects of Teaching.**
 (a) Paper work; Question 24
 (b) Examinations; Questions 30-32
 (c) Teaching Style; Question 35
 (d) Emphasis in education; Question 36
 (e) Extra curricular activities; Question 29
- (vi) **Professional Organisations.**
 Questions 38 - 41 asked about the respondents membership and attitudes to relevant professional organisations.
- (vii) **Satisfaction with Teaching.**
 Question 34 provides material for the calculation of an index of satisfaction as described later in this chapter.
- (viii) **Professionalism.**
 Responses to Question 33 are the basis for calculation of the professional indices also described later in this chapter.

The Calculation of Indices used in this Study and Other Measures

The Indices of Professionalism

The principal variable in this study, professionalism, is measured by two indices based on answers to items which are part of a sixteen item question (see Question 33, Appendix). The items concerned correspond to each of the three major properties of a professional role perception; namely, competence,

autonomy and service.

Question 33 reads:-

In the table below please check off each item according to how important it is to you in your job now. (The scoring was as follows:- "Essential" - 1 point; "Very Important" - 2 points; "Fairly Important" - 3 points; "Not Very Important" - 4 points; "Indifferent" - 5 points).

- (i) A chance to help pupils get on in life. (Service)²
- (ii) Be your own boss in the classroom with sufficient freedom to do the job the way you think it ought to be done (Autonomy).
- (iii) A chance to influence young people and therefore have some small part in creating a better world (Service).
- (iv) A chance to use new ideas in teaching techniques (Competence).
- (v) A chance to become recognised and respected as a good teacher by other teachers (Competence).

The two professional indices were computed by "adding" the importance assigned to each item in the index. One index was weighted in favour of competence (after Colombotos (1962)) by using two items corresponding to this property. The other index was weighted in favour of service in the same way.

Colombotos felt that competence was the central element of a professional role perception but it is the contention of this study that, although competence and autonomy are essential elements of professionalism, it is client-centredness (service) that is central to a professional role perception.

Although the original intention was to trichotomise the scores into high professional (4-8 points); medium professional (8-12 points); and low professional (12-20 points); the low, or in many instances nil cell frequencies in the last category necessitated the collapsing of the medium and low categories.

TABLE 3
INDICES OF PROFESSIONALISM

Professional Index 1 (Weighted by Technical Competence)

<u>Grade</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
High	94	51
Low	88	49
	182	100

Professional Index 2 (Weighted by Service Ideal)

<u>Grade</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
High	114	62
Low	68	38
	182	100

As can be seen the weighting by service makes the sample look more professional, although the intercorrelation between the two was quite high (.78) indicating a positive relationship which was to be expected because of the common elements.

The overall picture indicates that the respondents may not be representative of a national sample. It is suggested that were the response rate 100%, the percentage of high professionals would be much lower as it is likely that there is a positive relationship between professionalism and sufficient interest to answer the questionnaire. Most of the non-responding section of the sample would probably fall into the category of low professional. The figures show a higher degree of professionalism than in the Colombotos study (1962) where the response rate was 88% (Even taking into account the difference in weighting).

The correlation coefficients between the items in the professional indices indicate that the items are tapping a set of (to some extent) functionally interrelated dimensions of professionalism (see Table 4). However coefficients nearer zero could indicate that certain items are quite distinct and hence yield a more valid index of professionalism.

TABLE 4
INTER-CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ITEMS IN THE PROFESSIONAL INDEX

<u>Item</u>	<u>Autonomy</u>	<u>Service</u>	<u>Professional</u> <u>Index 1</u>	<u>Professional</u> <u>Index 2</u>
Competence	.25	.56	.72	.77
Autonomy		.18	.46	.43
Service			.58	.63

(Kendalls Rank Correlation
was used)

The correlations are somewhat the reverse of those found by Colombotos (1962) where there was a greater relationship between competence and autonomy than between these two and service. He interpreted his finding to suggest the existence of a distinct professional subtype, the service orientated missionary. In this study there is also obviously a subtype but it is the labelling of such that proves difficult at this stage.

The very low correlations between autonomy and the other two items could indicate that independence among secondary teachers is a characteristic which may or may not be associated with other criteria of professionalism. Freedom from direct supervision in the work situation would appear to be an important element of the working conditions for other than otherwise professional teachers. If it was generated by feelings of expertise (competence) one would expect the correlation between competence and autonomy would be higher.

At this stage it is sufficient to note that the differences in the above correlations make worthwhile the computation of the individual elements of professionalism, as well as a blanket index, with other variables in this study.

The other interesting finding in Table 4 is that the highest correlations were between competence and the two indices. This would suggest that in some ways Colombotos (1962)

was correct in designating competence as the most important element of a professional role perception.

The implication of the above correlations for the configuration of a professional role perception and possible professional subtypes will become clearer when other variables are considered. It would seem likely that for the study of secondary teachers a blanket index of professionalism would obscure much interesting and informative data.

The Index of Socio-Economic Background

The socio-economic background of respondents was coded according to his or her father's occupation "... occupational level is the best single prediction of social status" (Havighurst 1954).

Initially in this study a sevenfold classification was used. 1. Labourer, 2. Tradesman, 3. Technician, 4. Administrator, 5. Professional, 6. Farmer, 7. Clerical, shop assistant etc. However this is only a very rough measure at best as no information was available as to father's income which is an important factor in the Congalton-Havighurst scale (1954) upon which the ratings in this study are based.

As the categories in the above scale were too fine for the purpose and numbers of this study, three broad categories are designated as follows :-

Level I (High) was derived by combining categories 1, 2 and 3.³
Level II (Medium) was derived by combining categories 4 and 5.
Level III (Low) was derived by combining categories 6 and 7.

The Index of Teacher Satisfaction

An index of teacher satisfaction was derived from numerical values given to answers to Question 34 (Appendix). The items in this question were exactly the same as those in Question 33 on which the professional indices were based. However in Question 34 teachers were asked to respond according to how satisfied they were with these elements of their job. The four categories were : Very Satisfied (1 point); Fairly

Satisfied (2 points); Not Too Satisfied (3 points); Most Unsatisfied (4 points).

By adding the points for each item respondents were classified in one of three levels of satisfaction. High (0-20); Medium (21-32); Low (32-64).

Statistical Methods Used

All statistical analysis in this investigation (except for the correlation of the elements of the professional index) was done by the application of chi-square. This statistic provides a measure of the discrepancy between observed cell frequencies in a contingency table and those expected on the basis of independence (Ferguson 1959). The null hypothesis is that no difference exists between the observed and expected frequencies (i.e. the two variables are independent). If this can be rejected at a particular significance level (.05 in this study) then the alternative hypothesis that the two variables are associated may be accepted. Where the expected frequencies were less than 5, either cells were collapsed or Yates's correction for continuity was applied.

It must be remembered that chi-square, while establishing the existence or non-existence of a relationship between two variables, does not show that one causes the other or in which direction the difference may lie (J. Peatman 1936). Directionality was established by an examination of the contingency tables and theoretical inference is the basis for any explanation of a relationship.

Findings that are only incidentally relevant to the main analysis are not tested for statistical significance, although obvious trends may be used to help explain other phenomena.

Footnotes

1. For a discussion of the response rates to questionnaires see Kerlinger (1964).
2. The words in parenthesis identifies the property of professionalism to which the item corresponds.
3. The categories 1-7 mentioned are those of Congalton and Havighurst (1954).

PART IIBACKGROUND CORRELATES OF PROFESSIONALISM

This section examines some of the possible background correlates of a professional role perception to see to what extent they promote a professional orientation towards the job. The variables selected are of course not the only ones relevant but they are likely to be the most influential.

Chapter V looks at the relationships between two background variables (sex role and socio-economic background) and professionalism.

Chapter VI examines such work context variables as advanced training and occupational position.

CHAPTER V

SOCIAL BACKGROUND AND PROFESSIONALISM

The social origin of people recruited into teaching is of undoubted importance to the understanding of teachers as people within their occupational setting. This chapter comprises therefore an investigation of the relationship between two background variables (sex role and socio-economic background) and professionalism.

Limiting a choice of background variables to these two is not to say that other variables have no influence on an individual's perception of his role. Nevertheless, the pervasive influence of sex-related roles and experiences emanating from a person's social-class background suggest that the salience of these two variables cannot be ignored.

This section of the investigation is, then, concerned with analysing the extent to which sex and socio-economic origins are related to teachers' perceptions of their occupational role.

Sex of Respondents and Professionalism

In Chapter III it was postulated that women would perceive their teaching roles more professionally than men. The following reasons were given.

- (i) Men are more likely than women to be career orientated; an orientation which is antithetical to professionalism. (Corwin 1965).
- (ii) The early socialisation experiences of women emphasising kindness and nurturance, would predispose them towards the adoption of a professional role perception (especially the service element) if they entered an appropriate occupation (Parsons 1942).

The Colombotos study (1962) supports the hypothesis that women are more professional than men, and he found that older single women, those more committed to a career, were less professional than younger or married women.

Table 5 shows that the observed differences are in the hypothesised direction but are not statistically significant.

TABLE 5

SEX OF RESPONDENTS BY PROFESSIONALISM¹

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Professionalism</u>		<u>N</u>
	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	
Men	61 (69)	39 (44)	(113)
Women	65 (45)	35 (24)	(69)
Totals	(114)	(68)	(182)

$$x^2 = .163 \text{ df1 ns}$$

Further, when the individual items of the professional index are examined with regard to sex differences there are again no significant findings.

TABLE 6

SEX OF RESPONDENTS BY TECHNICAL COMPETENCE AUTONOMY AND SERVICE IDEAL

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Technical Competence</u>		<u>Autonomy</u>		<u>Service Ideal</u>	
	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>
Men	65(73)	35(40)	78(88)	22(25)	79(89)	21(24)
Women	55(39)	45(30)	85(59)	15(10)	77(53)	23(16)
Totals	(112)	(70)	(147)	(35)	(142)	(40)
	$x^2 = .86 \text{ df1}$	ns	$x^2 = 1.5 \text{ df1}$	ns	$x^2 = .015 \text{ df1}$	ns

The lack of significance in the results, though unexpected, can largely be explained in terms of the relationship between professionalism and 'career' in New Zealand secondary teaching.

Analysis of the career plans of respondents suggest that men are more committed to careers in teaching than women (see Table 7). But as well as being more career orientated a greater proportion were also committed to teaching as such (without concern for promotion).

TABLE 7

CAREER PLANS BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

<u>Career Plans</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Teach without concern for promotion	33(36)	24(16)	(52)
Make a career of teaching	51(57)	27(17)	(74)
Leave for family then return	0	20(15)	(15)
Leave teaching but stay in education	7(8)	9(6)	(14)
Leave teaching altogether	9(10)	20(14)	(24)
	100%(112)	100%(67)	(279)
	$\chi^2=32.26$ df4 p=.01		

For many of the women in the sample, teaching was not going to be a permanent occupation (c.f. Watson 1966).

These results (significant at the .01 level), coupled with an observed tendency in the relationship between career plans and professionalism, (Table 8) help to explain the lack of significance in sex differences with regard to professionalism. Although men would seem to be much more concerned with upward mobility than women, this does not appear to conflict with the adoption of a professional role perception. (In fact, almost significantly $p = .09$, quite the reverse).

TABLE 8
CAREER PLANS BY PROFESSIONALISM

<u>Career Plans</u>	<u>Professionalism</u>		
	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>N</u>
Teach without concern for promotion	54(28)	46(24)	(52)
Make a career of teaching	72(53)	28(21)	(74)
Leave for family then return	40(6)	60(9)	(15)
Leave teaching but stay in education	71(10)	29(4)	(14)
Leave teaching altogether	62(15)	38(9)	(24)
	$x^2=8.01$ df4	ns	(179)

The reason for the above findings probably lies in the fact that a career in teaching, in New Zealand at least, does not, necessarily, take a person out of the classroom. Only headmasters of large schools have purely administrative positions and, more often than not, even they have regular teaching assignments. Thus it may be possible to reconcile plans for promotion within teaching with a professional role perception of teaching because such plans need not preclude continued and direct classroom participation.

These results fail to support the findings of Colombotos (1962)²; nevertheless, this disparity may be explained by the fact that in the United States promotion within teaching usually involves movement into purely administrative positions.

The factor making for inter-sex differences in the Colombotos study is most likely to have been the antithesis of professionalism and career. So few women in that study opted for a career in teaching that the computation of significance was not attempted. As a consequence of both the lack of career motives on the part of women, and the career orientation of men, women were more professional.

In New Zealand there is no conflict between career and professionalism and no inter-sex differences in the adoption of professional role perceptions are apparent.

When intra-sex differences are examined (Table 9) some interesting findings are disclosed. Single men are significantly less professional than both married men and single women (at the .01 level).

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Single	23(15) $x^2=8.48$ df1 p / .01	71(34)	(49)
	$x^2=8.88$ df1 p / .01	$x^2=.257$ df1 ns	
Married	66(98)	62(34)	(132)
<u>N</u>	(113)	(68)	(181)

The significance of the above findings with regard to intra-sex differences could mean that socialisation patterns, or rather the associated values of kindness and nurturance may have some relevance in explaining such differences. The early socialisation patterns of women and the later socialisation patterns of married men (as husbands and fathers) may engender the personal values of kindness and nurturance. These values are emphasised in the early socialisation patterns of women (Parsons 1942). Thus women and married men are more professional than single men, possibly as a result of the internalisation of the values by the former and the lack of opportunity of the latter to assimilate them. Although the early socialisation experience of males de-emphasise the values of kindness and nurturance, it is likely that married men will have greater feelings for these values than single men because of former's experiences associated with the husband and father role.

It is necessary to emphasise that the findings discussed above are restricted to role perceptions, since it is possible

that in terms of other aspects of professionalism (e.g. advanced training, participation in professional associations etc.) male teachers may be more professional than female teachers. With regard to attendance and interest in the P.P.T.A. (Post Primary Teachers' Association) the present data suggests that this is indeed the case (Table 27 p. 106). For this reason it is probably wise to distinguish between professional role perceptions and professional behaviour. Such a distinction may conceivably resolve the apparent contradiction between the present findings and accounts which argue that a preponderance of female practitioners may constitute a barrier to the full professionalisation of an occupation (Caplow, 1954; Lieberman, 1956).

Socio-Economic Background and Professionalism

The hypothesis in this section states that teachers from a level I socio-economic background are more professional than those from levels II and III³.

Although most of the information concerning the socio-economic origins of teachers comes from foreign sources and may therefore be of limited relevance in a New Zealand context, it is worth reviewing as a starting point for the investigation of the hypothesis in this chapter.

Several studies (viz. Davies and Havighurst 1946; Davies 1952; and Hyman 1953) have examined the socialisation patterns of the middle class in the United States. Their findings point to an emphasis on achievement and responsibility in child rearing practices. These attributes when translated into adult motivation may well predispose members of this class towards the adoption of a professional role perception (if they enter an appropriate occupation) because of the similarity between these values and the dimensions of a professional outlook.

From another point of view, secondary teaching in this investigation is classified in level I and is therefore a means of upward mobility for teachers with level II and III

origins. Such upward mobility and pre-occupation with economic rewards and prestige based on occupational position is incompatible with professional norms (Colombotos 1962). For teachers with level I origins entry into secondary teaching does not mean a step upward and therefore they are not likely to be upwardly mobile. People from this background who are upwardly mobile are not likely to enter teaching⁴.

The middle class of the studies reviewed above could be translated into the level I of this investigation. Therefore teachers from level I backgrounds are more likely to be free from concern over upward mobility and thus are more free to adopt professional norms for which class socialisation patterns have prepared them. The weakness in the above reasoning is that the socialisation patterns of the U.S. middle class may not (in fact probably do not) have relevance to New Zealand.

But first, a brief look at the overall distribution of the socio-economic background of respondents.

TABLE 10
SOCIO-ECONOMIC ORIGINS OF RESPONDENTS

<u>Socio-economic level</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Total</u>
Level I	38	65	48
Level II	55	35	48
Level III	7	0	4
	100%	100%	100%

Table 10 shows that while the majority of men have level II backgrounds the greater proportion of women have origins in level I. This inter-sex difference is consistent with the findings from both Colombotos (1962) in the United States and Watson (1962) in this country.

However, although the above data may be consistent with other findings, Table 11 shows that the hypothesis is not supported.

TABLE 11

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC ORIGINS

<u>Socio-economic level</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Level I	61(31)	63(30)	(61)
Level II	65(45)	62(16)	(61)
Level III	83(6)	0(0)	(6)

$$x^2=1.03 \text{ df}2 \text{ ns} \quad x^2=.006 \text{ df}2 \text{ ns}$$

Bearing in mind that, while fifty-two respondents either did not complete this section or their socio-economic origins were not ascertained, the very high probabilities in the above table exclude the possibility of any relationship between socio-economic background and professionalism in this study.

The probable reasons for the lack of significance in the above table are not difficult to deduce.

In the previous chapter, upward mobility (career motives) was found not to conflict with professionalism. Therefore teachers with level II and III backgrounds, while they may well be upwardly mobile, are not precluded from adopting a professional role perception for this reason.

Further, it is likely that early socialisation patterns in the United States are not those of New Zealand.

When the academic careers of parents of respondents were examined there were again no significant relationships with professionalism.

Summary of Chapter V

Neither of the hypotheses in this chapter were supported but it is worth noting other statistically significant findings.

(i) Men were more committed to teaching than women and a greater proportion of them were concerned with making a career.

(ii) Career plans do not necessarily conflict with the adoption of a professional role perception.

(iii) Single men were much less professional than either women or married men.

The research results listed above suggest the reason for the lack of significance in the findings with regard to the major hypotheses.

(i) Because there is no conflict between career and professionalism, men, who are more career orientated than women, need not be less professional for this reason.

(ii) The values of kindness and nurturance internalised by women when young through socialisation patterns, and assumed by men in their roles as husbands and fathers; could well predispose all these towards the adoption of professional role perceptions. Single men are less professional probably because these values have relatively less personal meaning for them.

(iii) Teachers with level II and III origins are not significantly less professional as although they may be more upwardly mobile this does not conflict with the adoption of a professional role perception.

Footnotes

1. In all tables, unless otherwise indicated, the first figure is a percentage and the figure in parenthesis the total of respondents in that category e.g. of 113 men, 69 are high professional and this is 61%.
2. Although the professional index of this investigation had a different weighting from that of Colombotos, computation using the latter's weighting also failed to reveal any significant relationship between sex and professionalism.
3. The socio-economic levels used in this investigation were adapted from Congalton and Havighurst (1954) (see Chapter III).

4. Although secondary teaching in this study is classified in level I, in fact Congalton and Havighurst (1954) recognised seven categories, and in their classification secondary teaching fell in level III; therefore it is still possible for people who would be classified as having level I origins in this study, to be upwardly mobile.

CHAPTER VI

THE WORK SITUATION

This chapter is concerned with two other possible origins of professionalism; advanced training and occupational position.

Friedson (1964) found that there was some very persuasive evidence to suggest that the organisation of the work environment explained elements of practitioners' behaviour better than do other factors, such as socialisation in a professional school. In another study (Seaman and Evans-1961) individuals in a hospital were found to behave differently when the quality of supervision varied. However, Moeller and Charters (1966) and Colombotos (1962) could find nothing of significance when examining the length of service within differently organised school environments.

Although Friedson (1964) considered the work environment a very important influence in forming role orientations most writers would agree that the existence of highly qualified practitioners is also one of the criteria of a profession.

Probably both socialisation in a professional school and/or the acquisition of relevant qualifications, and the organisation of the occupational situation, are influential in forming professional role perceptions. This chapter reports the examination of these antecedent factors.

Advanced Training and Professionalism

Although it was hypothesised that teachers with higher qualifications (at least a degree) would be more professional than teachers with less than a degree, it must be born in mind that socialisation in a professional school is not the same thing as advanced training per se. The above hypothesis cites only quantity of training with no differentiation with regard to type. In New Zealand there is a wide variety of training among secondary teachers, ranging from no secondary education at all to Ph.D.level.

Table 12 shows that there is no significant relationship between quantity of advanced training and professionalism.

TABLE 12

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY ADVANCED TRAINING

<u>Advanced Training</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Up to Diploma or Equivalent	71(34)	73(33)	(67)
B.A.	55(38)	57(28)	(66)
M.A.	47(19)	62(8)*	(48)
Higher	72(21)		

$$x^2=4.507 \text{ df}3 \text{ ns } x^2=1.651 \text{ df}2 \text{ ns}(181)$$

* The last two categories were combined in the case of women because of low cell frequencies.

The probable explanation for the lack of significance in these findings lies in the fact of the difference between advanced training as a quantitative measure and a process of socialisation in a professional school. Although a teacher may hold a first class honours degree in a particular subject (e.g.French),the study involved in the acquiring of this qualification would bear no relation to the adoption of a particular role perception in a teaching context. Therefore it was hypothesised that teachers who have undergone courses of study in people centred disciplines are more professional than those who have not undergone such study.

However, Table 13 shows that even when qualifications are differentiated with regard to kind of study there is still no significant relationship. In this instance qualifications were differentiated according to whether they were of the humanities or of the arts and sciences. Grouped under the humanities were such disciplines as education, psychology and sociology with the intention that, because of the humanitarian bias of these subjects, they were more likely to re-enforce a predisposition towards the adoption of a professional role perception (especially the element of client-centredness).

TABLE 13

KIND OF ADVANCED TRAINING BY PROFESSIONALISM

<u>Advanced Training</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>N</u>
Humanities	59% (10)	41% (7)	(100%) (17)
Arts and Sciences	64% (105)	36% (60)	(100%) (165)
	$\chi^2=1.546$ df1	ns	(182)

Men and women were not computed separately because of some low cell frequencies. Even so, such studies as those designated under the heading of the humanities do not constitute socialisation in a professional school. The closest to such a school in this country is of course a training college.

It was further hypothesised that certificated teachers (those who have attended training college) would be more professional than uncertificated teachers.

This hypothesis is not supported either by the findings of this study. Table 14 shows that while there is possibly a stronger relationship for men than women neither is significant.

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY CERTIFICATION

<u>Certification</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Certificated	66(70)	69(49)	(119)
Uncertificated	53(43)	55(20)	(63)
	$\chi^2=1.199$ df1	ns	$\chi^2=1.739$ df1 ns (182)

Why then does advanced training not appear to foster a feeling of expertise among teachers and as a result of this demands for autonomy to do the job the way they feel it ought to be done? Or why do humanity centred studies not appear to enforce a client-centred orientation even when these

studies are specifically teacher training as in a training college. The answer probably lies in a combination of two factors. First, although a career orientation does not appear to conflict with professionalism, both professional and non-professional teachers will pursue higher qualifications in order to advance within the educational hierarchy as well as equipping themselves with the "tools of the trade". Therefore advanced training as such will not differentiate high and low professionals. Second, probably more pertinent is the likely lack of any design in the above mentioned courses of study to foster a professional role perception. Unfortunately an analysis of the context of teacher training courses (especially at training college) is outside the scope of this investigation.

Occupational Position and Professionalism

Qualifications, at least in New Zealand, do not appear to be a significant factor in the formation of a professional role perception in secondary teachers. Friedson's (1964) surmise would seem to have some pertinence for the training of teachers in N.Z. The question then remains as to what relationship exists between occupational situation and professionalism?

Although this investigation was not specially designed to test this question in detail certain relevant factors emerge.

(i) Length of teaching service is not a significant factor in the formation of a professional role perception ($p \geq .70$).

(ii) No measure was taken of either the orientation (bureaucratic or professional) of the particular school systems examined or the relationship between length of service within particular schools and professionalism. But what was examined was the relationship between success in teaching and professionalism. Though not significant, the evidence with regard to the holding of a Position of Responsibility is in the hypothesised direction.

It was hypothesised that teachers occupying Positions of Responsibility are more professional than assistants.

Table 15 shows that there is a strong tendency for this to be the case.

TABLE 15

THE HOLDING OF A POSITION OF RESPONSIBILITY BY PROFESSIONALISM

<u>Level of Responsibility</u>	<u>Professionalism</u>		<u>N</u>
	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	
Assistant	59(80)	41(56)	(136)
P.R.	74(34)	26(12)	(46)
	$x^2=2.73$ df1 p = .09		(182)

Although only a non significant trend is discernable the probability is low enough to warrant further speculation.

There are two reasons why the above finding could be so.

(i) The responsibility, authority and autonomy of a Position of Responsibility (especially, first assistant or headship) engenders a professional role perception.

And/or

(ii) the grading system promotes the most professional teachers.

The question arises as to whether age is a factor in the above relationship because holders of Positions of Responsibility are likely to be teachers with longer service and therefore older.

Table 16 shows that while a trend may be observed for men the probability for women is very high.

TABLE 16PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY AGE

<u>Age in Years</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Under 25	45(9)	62(21)	(30)
25 - 35	50(34)	61(23)	(57)
36 - 45	76(41)	73(15)	(56)
46 and over	57(28)	75(8)	(36)
	$x^2=6.19$ df3 p = .07	$x^2=1.06$ df3 ns	(179)

Although men in the 36-45 year age group are the most professional, when the sexes are combined the 46 years and over age group contains the highest proportion of Positions of Responsibility.

It seems likely then, that, there is probably a relationship between professionalism and both age (for men) and the holding of a Position of Responsibility.

While bearing in mind that these results do not reach the required .05 level of confidence the probabilities being less than .10, both trends are worth noting.

The apparent contradiction in the above findings may not be so strange in the light of the findings which suggest that there is no antithesis between a career orientation and professionalism in New Zealand secondary teaching.

Possibly teachers tend to become more professional with career success. Up to the age of 45 years, for men at least, career success is either being attained or is still a possibility. But beyond this age, if a teacher has not advanced career-wise, the possibility of doing so decreases and possibly the disillusioned become less professional.

Summary of Chapter VI

No significant results were found in this chapter but the lack of significance is in itself illuminating.

(i) No advanced training for secondary teaching, whether it be at university or at training college, bears any relationship to the adoption of a professional role perception.

(ii) Neither does service, as such, within the system appear to enforce professionalism.

But:-

(iii) there is a tendency, in the case of men, for age to be a factor in the adoption of a professional role perception although the relationship is not monotonic. This may have some bearing on

(iv) the fact that success either (a) reinforces a professional orientation or (b) engenders it because of the responsibility involved or (c) comes only to teachers with professional role perceptions.

Background Correlates of Professionalism

Summary Part II

None of the variables examined in this section appear to have any great influence on the adoption of a professional role perception.

In New Zealand secondary teaching professionalism does not appear to originate to any great extent in sex-related factors, socio-economic background, advanced training or situational determinants.

However some significant findings may be observed.

(i) The possible internalisation of the values of kindness and nurturance by women and married men could explain the relative lack of professionalism among single men (see page 66).

(ii) Career success may engender a professional orientation by the assumption of responsibility, although it is just as likely that professional teachers are rewarded with success.

The relative lack of significant relationships in this section, apart from those mentioned above, is not surprising considering role perceptions are dimensions of personality and as such their origins are likely to be legion.

To conclude this section it would seem reasonable to suggest that while training and occupational environment (if professionally structured) may well reinforce a professional mode of conduct, the initial and crucial predisposition comes prior to these. Unless an intending practitioner has an appropriate predisposition (the antecedents of which are many and varied) then no amount of training and appropriate occupational atmosphere will result in the adoption of a professional role perception.

PART III

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A PROFESSIONAL ROLE
PERCEPTION AND ELEMENTS OF THE TEACHING SITUATION.

A great deal of evaluative work has been done on teacher performance, and this investigation, though also an evaluation of teacher performance, starts not with the performance itself, but rather the teacher.

Earlier, an attempt was made to justify the premise that teachers should be professional in their outlook. The following analyses examine the consequence of such an orientation on selected performance and attitudes within the occupational situation.

The section is divided up into four chapters.

Chapter VII - Professionalism and Selected Performance Variables.

Chapter VIII - Professionalism and Teacher Attitudes to Selected Situational Factors.

Chapter IX - Professionalism and Emphases in Secondary Education.

Chapter X - Professionalism and Interest and Participation in Professional Associations.

An important factor to bear in mind when considering the variables in this section is that most of the responses are subjective self reports and therefore must be evaluated accordingly.

CHAPTER VII

PROFESSIONALISM AND SELECTED PERFORMANCE VARIABLES

This part of the study examines the consequence of a professional role perception on teaching style and extra curricular activities.

Teaching Style

There is a complete absence of evidence bearing upon any possible relationship between professionalism and teaching style. However, the direction of this hypothesis can be traced to the service element in that high professionals will be more conscious of the best interests of their pupils than low professionals. Concern for pupils is likely to lead to a greater awareness of pupil - teacher interaction and a more informal atmosphere as the basis for a greater understanding of pupil needs. Thus children in a classroom become active participants in the learning situation for the high professional teacher, rather than passive recipients of knowledge. The emphases in this hypothesis see the pupils, rather than the knowledge or method, as the crucial elements in the classroom situation. Therefore, because of the elements of a professional role perception (especially client-centredness) it was hypothesised that high professional teachers, as compared with low professional teachers, would place greater emphasis on the following elements.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| a. Child-centredness | g. Indirect control of children |
| b. Guidance | |
| c. Discussion | h. Progressive education |
| d. Pupil planning | i. Subjectivity |
| e. Insight learning | j. Personal freedom and independence |
| f. Pupil growth | k. Obligation to society |

Teachers were asked to assess their teaching style according to the emphasis they would place on the elements given (see Question 35 Appendix).

Table 17 shows that several parts of the hypothesis are supported.

Summarised, the following table reveals a significant relationship between high professionalism and an emphasis on child-centredness ($p < .01$), guidance ($p < .01$), use of discussion ($p < .01$), pupil growth ($p < .05$), progressiveness in education ($p < .01$) and subjectivity ($p = .05$).

Also tendencies may be noted with regard to pupil planning ($p = .07$) and emphasis on insight learning ($p = .19$).

Before discussing the foregoing significant results, it is observed that where no significance was found there is little evidence to suggest that there should have been any relationship between professionalism and the element of teaching style concerned. The question asked was largely exploratory and the lack of significance is not the least surprising.

The significant results can be largely accounted for in terms of the client-centred nature of a professional role perception.

The picture that emerges is that of high professionals who structure their teaching style around the pupils as the central element in the teaching situation; the pupil rather than the subject; guidance rather than instruction; discussion rather than lectures; growth rather than achievement; progressive rather than traditional; subjectivity rather than objectivity; all these emphases stem from an orientation which holds that the pupil is the primary consideration in the educative process.

An examination of Table 18, however, indicates that professionalism is probably only one of many factors related to emphases in teaching style. Table 17 shows possible relationships between high professionalism and elements of teaching style, but Table 18 gives a somewhat different picture when the responses of high professionals only are analysed.

TABLE 17

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONAL BY TEACHING EMPHASES

<u>Element of Teaching Style</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Element of Teaching Style</u>	<u>N</u>
Child-centred $x^2=11.506$ df2 p $\angle .01$	76(72)	69(16)	51(87)	Subject-centred	(175)
Emphasises guidance $x^2=11.139$ df2 p $\angle .01$	76(82)	54(26)	50(64)	Emphasises instruction	(172)
Uses discussion $x^2= 8.382$ df2 p $\angle .01$	76(82)	60(37)	49(47)	Uses lecture type teaching	(171)
Pupil planning $x^2= 5.174$ df2 p $\angle .07$	82(28)	69(16)	60(124)	Teacher planning	(168)
Emphasises insight learning $x^2= 3.305$ df2 p $\angle .19$	67(126)	48(23)	57(21)	Emphasises rote learning	(170)
Emphasises pupil growth $x^2= 5.889$ df2 p $\angle .05$	74(66)	61(28)	55(75)	Emphasises pupil achievement	(169)
Controls children indirectly $x^2= 2.676$ df2 ns	70(60)	70(28)	57(82)	Controls children directly	(170)
Progressive $x^2= 14.88$ dfs p $\angle .01$	75(93)	39(23)	51(53)	Traditional	(169)
Emphasises subjectivity $x^2= 6.408$ df2 p $\angle .05$	70(71)	70(30)	51(72)	Emphasises objectivity	(173)
Puts stress on personal freedom and independence $x^2= .144$ df2 ns	65(52)	61(39)	63(82)	Puts stress on group loyalty	(173)
Emphasises individual rights $x^2= 1.371$ df2 ns	64(28)	72(29)	61(112)	Emphasises obligation to society	(169)

TABLE 18

HIGH PROFESSIONALS ONLY BY TEACHING STYLE

<u>Element of Teaching Style</u>	<u>High</u> %	<u>Neutral</u> %	<u>High</u> %	<u>Element of Teaching Style</u>	<u>N</u>
Child-centred $x^2 = 28.59$ df2 p $\angle .01$	51	10	39	Subject-centred	(110)
Emphasises guidance $x^2 = 32.66$ df2 p $\angle .01$	57	13	30	Emphasises instruction	(103)
Uses discussion $x^2 = 31.61$ df2 p $\angle .01$	59	20	21	Uses lecture type teaching	(109)
Teacher planning $x^2 = 62.16$ df2 p $\angle .01$	69	10	21	Pupil planning	(108)
Emphasises insight learning $x^2 = 98.26$ df2 p $\angle .01$	77	10	13	Emphasises rote learning	(107)
Emphasises pupil growth $x^2 = 15.55$ df2 p $\angle .01$	47	15	38	Emphasises pupil achievement	(107)
Controls children indirectly $x^2 = 12.38$ df2 p $\angle .01$	44	17	39	Controls children directly	(108)
Progressive $x^2 = 55.60$ df2 p $\angle .01$	66	8	26	Traditional	(106)
Emphasises subjectivity $x^2 = 11.72$ df2 p $\angle .01$	47	19	34	Emphasises objectivity	(108)
Puts stress on group loyalty $x^2 = 10.98$ df2 p $\angle .01$	48	21	31	Puts stress on personal freedom and independence	(110)
Emphasises obligation to society $x^2 = 44.09$ df2 p $\angle .01$	63	19	18	Emphasises individual rights	(107)

For example, of the teachers who see themselves as child-centred rather than subject-centred, 76% are high professionals, but 49% of high professional teachers see themselves as not being particularly child-centred. This and other apparent contradictions are brought to light by Table 19.

TABLE 19

A COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS AND HIGH PROFESSIONALS ONLY WITH REGARD TO TEACHING STYLE*

<u>Element of Teaching Style</u>	<u>High Professionals as % of Total Respondents</u>	<u>% of High Professionals</u>
Child-centred	76	51
Emphasises guidance	76	57
Uses discussion	76	59
Emphasises pupil growth	74	47
Progressive	75	66
Emphasises subjectivity	70	47

* Only significant results from Table 17 are included in Table 19.

The most likely explanation of these apparent contradictions lies in the distinction which must be made between a professional role perception and professional behaviour. This distinction was pointed out in Chapter V (p.67). They are two quite distinct concepts. Obviously a role perception will influence the behaviour of a status occupant, but a person's role perception will not be the only influence as there will also be the role expectations of the other occupants in his role set. Such is the case with teaching style. A professional role perception is only one of several factors likely to influence the teaching style of high professionals.

Summary

Although a significant relationship was found between professionalism and certain elements of teaching style viz: child-centredness, guidance, use of discussion, pupil growth, progressiveness in education and subjectivity, no really distinct pattern of teaching style is evident among high professionals. Certainly all the results in Table 18 were significant but percentages were insufficient to allow a pattern of teaching style to be established for high-professional teachers.

Extra Curricular Activities (E.C.A.) and Professionalism

Although it was hypothesised that high-professional teachers are more active in ECA than low-professional teachers, it is recognised that many factors, other than a professional role perception, may influence the extent to which teachers will participate in ECA. Such factors as personal interest, home circumstances, school pressures etc. may all condition a teacher's involvement in ECA.

However the client-centredness of a professional role perception is likely to outweigh more personal considerations with high professionals, although this is not to say that low professionals will not be just as active in ECA for similar and different reasons (e.g. personal interest, grading etc.)

Table 20 shows that the hypothesis is not supported with regard to time spent in ECA.

TABLE 20

PROFESSIONALISM BY TIME SPENT IN EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES²

<u>Degree of Professionalism</u>	<u>Hours per Week</u>			<u>N</u>
	<u>0 - 3</u>	<u>4 - 9</u>	<u>10 and over</u>	
	%	%	%	
High	38	45	17	(112)
Low	46	45	9	(66)
	$\chi^2=3.641$ df2 ns			(178)

Examining the question further it was found that while there was no difference between high and low professionals, the majority of the respondents agree with the following statements.

- (i) ECA are part of a teachers job.
- (ii) Teachers should not be required to take part.
- (iii) Teacher participation in ECA should influence grading.
- (iv) Teacher participation in ECA does influence grading.

TABLE 21

PROFESSIONALISM AND TEACHER ATTITUDES TO E.C.A.

(a)	<u>ECA are part of a teachers job</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>N</u>
	High Professionals	66%	4%	30%	(111)
	Low Professionals	65%	4%	31%	(68)
	N	(115)	(9)	(55)	(179)
	$x^2 = .087$ df2 ns				
(b)	<u>Teachers should be required to take ECA</u>				
	High Professionals	23%	4%	73%	(113)
	Low Professionals	32%	5%	63%	(68)
	N	(48)	(8)	(125)	(181)
	$x^2 = 1.932$ df2 ns				
(c)	<u>Participation in ECA should influence grading</u>				
	High Professionals	61%	3%	36%	(108)
	Low Professionals	54%	0%	46%	(64)
	N	(101)	(4)	(67)	(172)
	$x^2 = 1.139$ df2 ns				
(d)	<u>Participation in ECA does influence grading</u>				
	High Professionals	75%	8%	17%	(104)
	Low Professionals	83%	7%	10%	(60)
	N	(128)	(12)	(24)	(164)
	$x^2 = 1.781$ df2 ns				

From the above table it would seem that more likely influences on teachers' participation in ECA than professionalism are :-

- (i) they consider ECA to be part of their occupational responsibilities;
- (ii) the effect of such participation on grading.

In the writer's experience personal interest is also a determining factor. Many teachers extend their personal interests (especially sporting and cultural), where appropriate, into school activities and in fact welcome pupil contact outside of the classroom because of the beneficial influence this has on teacher/pupil relationships in the classroom.

Summary

No significant relationships were found between professionalism and a participation in, or attitude to, extra curricular activities and this was probably due to the many other influences on such participation and attitudes.

Summary of Chapter VII

Professionalism appears to be related to certain ^e emphasis in teaching style, namely :-

- (i) child-centredness rather than subject-centredness;
- (ii) guidance rather than instruction;
- (iii) discussion rather than lectures;
- (iv) pupil growth rather than pupil achievement;
- (v) progressiveness rather than traditionalism;
- (vi) subjectivity rather than objectivity.

However because of the relatively high proportion of high professionals who do not profess such emphases, a professional role perception is obviously only one of many factors in the determination of emphases in teaching style. Other factors could be :-

- (i) the control of external examinations over curricular and teaching time is likely to lead to teacher planning rather than pupil planning (especially in the upper school);
- (ii) larger classes coupled with imposed curricular are likely to reinforce any tendency towards direct control over pupils;

(iii) any change in social ideals would have its influence on whether stress is laid on group loyalty or personal freedom and independence; obligation to society or individual rights.

No significant relationships exist between professionalism and participation in and attitudes to extra curricular activities. Again there are likely to be many factors underlying teachers' activity in this direction. Such factors as personal interest, influence on grading and the fact that ECA are considered part of a teacher's occupational duties are all likely to be relevant influences in this direction.

Footnotes

1. In this and most of the following tables the original crossbreaks have been condensed for the sake of presentation. Thus the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of respondents in the cell and the figure outside of the parenthesis, the percentage of the total in that cell who were high professionals e.g. in the first continuum of child-centred versus subject-centred a total of 175 teachers gave a response; of these 72 emphasised child-centredness, 16 were neutral and 87 emphasised subject-centredness. Of the 72 respondents who emphasised child-centredness 76% were high professionals, 69% of the 16 neutrals also, and only 51% of the 87 who emphasised subject centredness.
2. In tables where high and low professionals are shown in different cells only percentages are given as these are sufficient to allow comparisons to be made.

CHAPTER VIII

PROFESSIONALISM AND TEACHER ATTITUDES TO SELECTED SITUATIONAL VARIABLES

The first part of this section of the study examined the consequences of professionalism on certain performance variables, but to fully map the configuration of a professional teacher it is necessary to examine teacher attitudes to other selected aspects of the teaching situation. These attitudes are likely to influence not only teacher performance but also directly the pupils.

Therefore this part of the investigation is designed to investigate the possible relationship which may exist between professionalism and

- (i) teachers' perceptions of the aims of education;
- (ii) teachers' attitudes to external examinations;
- (iii) teachers' conception of required changes in emphases in education.

Professionalism and Aims of Education

Obviously the way in which a person conceives the end product of a particular endeavour influences the means he used to that end.

In secondary teaching, even though much of the curriculum is imposed, a teacher's perception of the aims of education will have a great bearing on the way in which he administers that curriculum.

There are several dimensions along which educational aims could be classified but the one used in this study is 'life adjustment' versus 'intellectual training' or 'whole child' versus 'intellectual development only'.

Although Colombotos (1962) found these not to be differentially distributed among high and low professionals, it was suggested in Chapter III of this study that, because of the differences in training procedures in New Zealand and the United States, this may well not be the case in this country.

Therefore it was hypothesised that high professionals, more so than low professionals, will see the education of the whole child as their responsibility rather than just the training of the intellect.

The relationship above was postulated on the basis of the client-centred nature of a professional role perception, although such an orientation is recognised as being only one factor, among many, which could influence the adoption of a particular point of view with regard to aims of education.

Table 22 shows that there is no significant difference between high and low professionals with regard to perceptions of aims of education.

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY PERCEPTION OF AIMS
OF EDUCATION

<u>Aims</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Intellectual training only	56(34)	77(17)	(51)
Whole child	60(65)	68(40)	(105)
	<u>N</u> (99)	(57)	(156)

$$x^2 = .005 \text{ df} 1 \text{ ns}^1$$

Professionalism does not therefore appear to be related in any distinguishable way to teachers' perception of the aims of education where these aims are classified according to the dimensions used in this study. This does not mean to say that teachers' perceptions in this direction are not important but further investigation of this particular teacher dimension is outside the scope of this investigation. It is interesting to note that 67% of the respondents favour the whole child approach.

Professionalism and Teacher Attitudes to External Examinations

Because of the pervading influence of external examinations in the secondary education system of New Zealand, teachers' attitudes (especially those of high professionals) to these examinations are an important variable within the context of this investigation.

The essence of the three elements of a professional role perception is contrary to the limitations of an imposed syllabus leading to a public examination. As the experts, high professionals especially, are likely to want sufficient autonomy to structure and select appropriate material for the pupils they are currently teaching.

Under the old system of grading School Certificate candidates, only about 38% of secondary school entrants eventually obtained their School Certificate, yet most of the instruction all pupils received was geared towards their sitting S.C. at the end of three or four years secondary education. Allowing for the small percentage who left school at the end of the fourth form, this meant that the majority of pupils were being educated by a system which was going to fail them according to the only nationally recognised criteria of success at secondary school. The new system of single subject passes will allow greater numbers to gain some measure of success but it does not allow for the fact that many pupils are probably still pushed through an inappropriate course of instruction.

Further, high professional teachers are also likely to resent both the assessment of their ability as teachers and the assessment of pupil achievement by an outside agency (the Education Department and Universities) through the medium of examinations.

Therefore it was hypothesised that

(1) high professionals (more so than low professionals) will not consider external examinations to be adequate measures of either pupil achievement or their own ability as teachers.

At the same time, recognising the importance to the pupils of some form of assessment, high professionals are also likely to want as direct an influence on that assessment as possible. The medium for this is the school testimonial. Therefore it was further hypothesised that

(ii) high professionals (more so than low professionals) will consider a school testimonial should be more important than an outside examination as an assessment of pupil achievement.

In the light of the above rationale Table 23 shows one surprising result.

TABLE 23

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TO EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS

<u>Question</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Response Undecided</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>N</u>
(a) Marks in outside examinations are adequate measures of pupil achievement? $x^2=2.958$ df2 ns	59(56)	60(8)	69(114)	(178)
(b) Marks in outside examinations are adequate measures of teaching ability? $x^2=9.962$ df2 $\sqrt{.01}$	72(104)	36(11)	52(54)	(169)
(c) Overall educational standards would suffer if there were no external examinations? $x^2= .572$ df1 ns	59(125)		66(53)	(178)
(d) Teachers can assess pupils educational merit more reliably than outside examinations? $x^2= .040$ df1 ns	61(122)		64(48)	(170)

The only significant difference between high and low professionals is in a most unexpected direction. A large proportion of high professionals consider pupils' marks in outside examinations to be adequate measures of their teaching ability. Although this result is contrary to the rationale underlying the first hypothesis in this section there are two possible logical explanations for it.

(i) High professionals may not consider external examinations (especially S.C.) as a form of assessment by an outside agency. The setting and marking of S.C. is done, on the whole, by secondary teachers. The majority of successful candidates for University Entrance are assessed by secondary teachers via the medium of the accrediting system. Therefore in the light of the above, the major external examinations (S.C. and U.E.) may in one sense constitute assessment by colleagues. This is one of the criteria of a professional outlook.

However the results in Table 24 (a) are somewhat contradictory to this as the majority of teachers do not consider marks in an outside examination as adequate measures of pupils achievement. There was no significant difference between high and low professionals, although in Table 26 there was a tendency for high professionals to want less significance given to external examinations ($p=.07$).

This points to the fact that while teachers see examination results as important they do recognise limitations in the system.

(ii) In the light of this, possibly a more likely explanation of the only significant finding in this section (Table 23 (b)) is that high professionals being more pupil-centred, recognise the tremendous importance to pupils of success in external examinations and therefore assess their own ability as teachers in terms of how well they serve their pupils in preparing them for these examinations. Their major purpose, as teachers, they probably conceive to be, enabling and helping their pupils to gain recognised qualifications.

The overall distribution of teachers' responses to the

questions in this part of the investigation are very interesting but lie outside the scope of the present report which is primarily concerned with the differentials of high and low professionals.

If teachers do not appear to consider examinations to be adequate measures of pupil achievement, what are their opinions concerning another form of assessment; the school testimonial?

Table 24 shows that while the majority of teachers consider a testimonial should be more important than an examination result, hypothesis 10b is not supported as there is no significant difference between high and low professionals.

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY TEACHERS' OPINIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF EXAMINATIONS AND TESTIMONIALS

<u>Means of Assessment</u>	<u>From the Pupils Point of View</u>	
	<u>is important</u>	<u>should be important</u>
Examinations	61(130)	59(44)
Testimonials	68(22)	65(80)
Both	71(14)	63(19)
<u>N</u>	(166)	(143)
	$x^2=2.577$ df2 ns	$x^2=1.788$ df2 ns

Summary Chapter VIII

Particular aims of education (i.e. whole child versus intellectual training) were found not to be differentially distributed between high and low professionals. The many other factors involved in the adoption of particular aims probably being responsible for the lack of significant findings.

Attitudes to external examinations do not differentiate high and low professionals, except that a high proportion of high professionals appear to be conscious of their responsibilities towards their pupils in a system dominated by examinations to the extent that they tend to judge their own

ability as teachers according to the success of their pupils in outside examinations, probably considering such success to be not so much a criteria of a good education as probably the way they can best serve their pupils under the present structure of secondary education.

Footnote

1. Although only a combined χ^2 was calculated it is obvious from the data that any inter-sex differences are most unlikely to be significant. Neither was significance found when intra-sex differences were examined.

CHAPTER IXPROFESSIONALISM AND EMPHASES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Although there is no evidence to suggest what relationships may exist between professionalism and teacher emphases in secondary education, it was hypothesised, mainly again on the grounds of the client-centred nature of a professional role perception, that high professionals would give emphasis as follows on the elements given in the question.

- (i) The same as at present on basic subjects;
- (ii) More on cultural activities;
- (iii) more on reasoning as a means of discipline;
- (iv) More education for leisure;
- (vi) The same as at present on occupational education.

Table 25 shows that there is a significant relationship between professionalism and emphases on some of the elements mentioned.

From Table 25 the significant results ($p \leq .05$) may be summarised as follows.

There is a significant relationship between professionalism and

- (a) more use of reason as a means of discipline;
- (b) less corporal punishment;
- (c) more adult organising of children's leisure time.

There is also a tendency ($p \leq .20$) for a relationship to exist between professionalism and

- (d) more active classroom participation in work;
- (e) more preparation of children for future jobs;
- (f) less emphasis on outside examinations.

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY EMPHASES IN EDUCATION

<u>Elements of Education</u>	<u>Emphasis</u>			<u>N</u>
	<u>More</u>	<u>Same</u>	<u>Less</u>	
Basic subjects $x^2 = .136$ df2 ns	65(68)	62(103)	60(5)	(176)
Cultural subjects $x^2 = 2.59$ df2 ns	66(91)	62(74)	38(8)	(173)
Regular homework $x^2 = .535$ df2 ns	67(36)	65(125)	69(16)	(177)
Active classroom participation in work $x^2 = 3.467$ df2 p=.17	69(108)	57(63)	40(5)	(176)
Using reasoning with pupils as a means of obtaining desirable conduct $x^2 = 11.766$ df2 p < .01	73(102)	53(60)	37(16)	(178)
Use of corporal punishment $x^2 = 6.527$ df2 p=.03	47(15)	57(94)	74(66)	(175)
Preparation of children for future jobs $x^2 = 5.415$ df2 p=.06	71(85)	52(52)	56(39)	(176)
Adults organising children's leisure time $x^2 = 7.245$ df2 p=.02	81(37)	60(72)	55(62)	(171)
Outside examinations $x^2 = 5.263$ df2 p=.07	63(11)	55(94)	73(73)	(178)

These results, all but one, are in the hypothesised direction and are consistent with both the concept of a professional role perception and the significant results in Chapter VII (Teaching Style) and Chapter VIII (Attitude to Outside Examinations).

Before discussing the above results one very important factor must be realised. A teacher's responses to this question would have been, to a considerable extent, influenced by the existing emphases given to the elements mentioned within the school wherein that respondent teaches. In this regard, schools may be conceived of as lying at points along a continuum with the older, more traditional, more formal, single-sex schools at one end and the newer, more liberal, co-educational schools at the other end. This is not so say, however, that all older single-sex schools are more formal and traditional. As the atmosphere of schools differ, so will the attitude to, and practice of, many of the elements of this question. For example, in a traditional boys' school corporal punishment is likely to be, not only accepted, but considered to be the most sensible means of discipline. In a more liberal school it may well have been abolished.

Therefore it must be recognised that, in this study, as this factor was not controlled and as the schools surveyed included all types, at least one unmeasured bias may have confounded the results. The responses of more or less may be in terms of either the current practice in a particular school or what teachers conceive to be the current practice in secondary education throughout the country.

With regard to the results themselves, the client-centred nature of a professional role perception is likely to bias a high professional teacher towards reasoning rather than punishment as a means of discipline. The majority of high professionals like to think of themselves as progressive rather than traditional (p.83), and current opinion both in education and society as a whole is swinging away from the traditional use of the cane. Also from the point of view of

the welfare of the child, reasoning rather than corporal punishment is desirable, although be it remembered that the question only stated less corporal punishment, not its complete abolition¹.

The other significant relationship (more adult direction of children's leisure time) is harder to explain unless again, because of their concern for pupils, high professionals have a greater desire to protect and direct their charges in an age when the morality of young people appears to be undergoing change.

Although not significant at the .05 level of confidence certain other tendencies lend support to explanations given elsewhere. The tendency for a relationship to exist between professionalism and active classroom participation in work points to a teacher orientation which sees pupils as active rather than passive recipients of knowledge. This is consistent with reasoning as a means of discipline, progressiveness, emphasis on subjectivity, use of discussion, emphasis on guidance and emphasis on pupil growth, all of which are significant findings and stem from a pupil-centred orientation.

The tendency for professionalism to be related to more preparation of pupils for future jobs and at the same time less emphasis on outside examinations, reinforces an explanation given in the previous chapter. In Chapter VIII it was found that high professionals considered pupils' marks in an outside examination to be adequate measures of their teaching ability ($p < .01$). A possible explanation was that these teachers, realising the importance of these examinations for pupils' future occupational welfare, judged their ability in terms of how successful they were in preparing their pupils for these examinations. The findings in this chapter tend to support this interpretation as high professionals appear to consider that secondary schools should become more orientated towards occupational training. The tendency for less emphasis on outside examinations points to the fact that what is of concern to the high professionals are the pupils, not the examinations.

Coupled with the question of changing emphasis in secondary education is the question of teacher satisfaction. The greater the change thought necessary the less satisfied teachers will be with the present situation.

Further, because of the bureaucratic structure of the school system, high professionals are likely to experience more conflict and be less satisfied (Corwin 1965).

Therefore it was hypothesised that high professionals would be less satisfied with their present teaching situation than low professionals.

Table 26 shows that there is a significant difference but in the opposite direction to that hypothesised.

TABLE 26

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY SATISFACTION

<u>Professional rating</u>	<u>Satisfaction</u>			<u>N</u>
	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	
High	68(33)	63(64)	46(15)	(112)
Low	32(11)	37(37)	54(18)	(66)
<u>N</u>	(44)	(101)	(33)	(178)

$$x^2=7.075 \text{ df}2 \text{ p } < .02$$

This monotonic relationship between high professionalism and high satisfaction is rather surprising. Two questions immediately come to mind.

- (i) Are New Zealand secondary schools not basically bureaucratically structured?
- (ii) Do high professionals not experience the same conflict as their counterparts in the United States?

As there was no conflict between professionalism and ambition in teaching, it seems likely that the second question is more pertinent.

High professionalism teachers in New Zealand may simply not feel the impact of a bureaucratic structure, or if they do, are largely able to ignore it. The majority of high professionals (51%) considered service as the most important aspect of teaching (among low professionals service was the most important element for only 39%). High professionals therefore may feel that they are able to give adequate service to their pupils within the present structure of secondary education.

Further there was also a tendency for professionalism to be related to the holding of a Position of Responsibility ($p=.09$, Chapter VI) and this may point to a proclivity for high professionals to be more successful in career aspirations and therefore in this respect more satisfied.

Summary of Chapter IX

A significant relationship was found between professionalism and

- (i) more use of reason with pupils as a means of obtaining desirable conduct;
- (ii) less use of corporal punishment.

These two results are consistent with each other and point to a role perception in teaching which is client-centred and views corporal punishment as an outmoded means of maintaining discipline.

There is also a significant correspondence between high professionalism and

- (iii) a desire for more organisation of children's leisure time by adults;
- (iv) high satisfaction in teaching.

The third relationship is most likely due to the service aspect of a professional role perception in that high professionals want to serve their pupils even outside the classroom. The high satisfaction is probably due to the fact that high professionals have plenty of opportunity for service which is, to the majority, the most important aspect of teaching. High professionals tend also to be more successful careerwise.

Footnotes

1. For a further discussion of corporal punishment, see Redl and Wattenberg 1959.

CHAPTER XINTEREST AND PARTICIPATION IN PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION

To conclude this investigation, one other possible relationship is examined; that of professionalism and interest and activity in professional associations. In Chapter II it was seen that professional associations play a major part in the formation, and continued functioning of all professions and, within the context of this research, it is of interest to look at the function of a teacher organisation.

The relevant association is the Post Primary Teachers' Association (P.P.T.A.) and as teachers consider themselves members of a profession it is logical to think of P.P.T.A. as serving the functions of a professional association. Such an association has four main functions.

- (i) To act as a mutual aid society for its members.
- (ii) To foster and advance the welfare of that group economically and socially.
- (iii) To act as the organ through which its members may have a voice in community affairs.
- (iv) To act as a means of internal control over its members directly and indirectly by fostering a professional orientation.

Such associations must have evolved out of members needs and their functions must fulfil those needs if they are to function effectively.

Although all teachers will be interested in the first two functions, high professionals, rather than low professionals, are more likely to want a voice in community affairs and to foster a professional orientation. Therefore it was hypothesised that high professional teachers will be more interested and active in their professional association than low professionals.

Table 27 shows that the hypothesis is only very partially supported. High-professional men are significantly more interested in P.P.T.A. than low-professional men. However when Table 28 is examined (high professionals only) a rather contradictory pattern emerges. Of the men who are very interested in P.P.T.A., 81% are high professionals but only 38% of high-professional men are very interested. The majority of high-professional men are only moderately interested. Again a distinction must be made between a professional role perception and professional behaviour. Other results in Table 28 also point to this distinction.

Although some of the results are not significant a definite trend is discernable. All respondents are moderately to very interested; however, participation is another matter, especially at regional level.

The reason for the drop in activity at regional level is not hard to deduce. All branch meetings would be held at a member's school during, or shortly after, the school day. Regional meetings, however, are generally held in the evening and often require considerable trouble on the part of many members to attend.

It is important to note at this stage, that all the respondents of this study were drawn from the same R.P.T.A. region and that the level of activity and interest in R.P.T.A. varies from region to region and even from branch to branch.

The question still remains as to why the hypothesis is not, on the whole, supported.

One explanation lies in the way in which R.P.T.A. members view their association. Is the R.P.T.A. in fact a professional body or just a disguised trade union? That many teachers supported the registration of the National Union of Teachers as a union suggests that these people found R.P.T.A. not radical enough in this direction. Table 29 allows for a closer examination of this question.

TABLE 27

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY INTEREST AND ACTIVITY¹
IN P.P.T.A.

(a) <u>Interest in P.P.T.A.</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>N</u>
Only when proceedings are of direct concern	44(9)	55(9)	(18)
Moderately	57(66)	69(42)	(108)
Very	81(32)	70(10)	(42) (168)
	$x^2=7.671$ df2 p/.02	$x^2=.654$ df2 ns	
(b) <u>Attendance at P.P.T.A.Branch Meetings</u>			
Never	42(12)	71(17)	(29)
Irregular	56(66)	62(34)	(100)
Regular	67(21)	75(16)	(37) (166)
	$x^2=1.963$ df2 ns	$x^2=.985$ df2 ns	
(c) <u>Attendance at P.P.T.A.Regional Meetings</u>			
Never	48(25)	70(27)	(52)
Irregular	76(21)	83(6)	(27)
Regular	64(33)	53(17)	(50) (129)
	$x^2=3.913$ df2 p=.13	$x^2=2.325$ df2 ns	

TABLE 28

INTEREST AND ACTIVITY IN P.P.T.A. BY HIGH PROFESSIONALS ONLY²

(a)	<u>Interest in P.P.T.A.</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
		%	%
	Only when proceedings are of direct concern	5	12
	Moderately	56	71
	Very	39	17
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		100%	100%
		(68)	(41)
		$x^2=26.23$	$x^2=25.95$
		df2 p/.01	df2 p/.01
	N		
(b)	<u>Attendance at P.P.T.A.Branch Meetings</u>		
	Never	12	27
	Irregular	20	46
	Regular	68	27
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		100%	100%
		(66)	(45)
		$x^2=44.45$	$x^2=3.600$
		df2 p/.01	df2 ns
	N		
(c)	<u>Attendance at P.P.T.A.Regional Meetings</u>		
	Never	47	69
	Irregular	30	20
	Regular	23	11
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		100%	100%
		(49)	(33)
		$x^2=2.489$	$x^2=9.454$
		df2 ns	df2 p/.01
	N		

TABLE 29

PERCENTAGE HIGH PROFESSIONALS BY PERCEPTIONS OF P.P.T.A.

	<u>Men</u>			<u>Women</u>			<u>N</u>
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>No</u>	
(a) Should be more concerned with conditions of work and salary (trade union activities)	61(75)	30(10) $x^2=5.790$ df2 p=.05	79(14)	57(32)	71(7) $x^2=2.295$ df2 ns	78(14)	(151)
(b) Should be more concerned with professional issues	63(87)	50(40) $x^2=.555$ df2 ns	55(11)	69(48)	0 $x^2=.003$ df2 ns	63(8)	(158)
(c) Does a good job etc.	66(77)	58(12) $x^2=2.834$ df2 ns	43(14)	73(40)	0 $x^2=.940$ df2 ns	57(18)	(161)
(d) Should act more directly in important issues	58(67)	57(14) $x^2=1.681$ df2 ns	77(13)	76(21)	76(17) $x^2=4.860$ df2 p=.08	40(10)	(142)

Before discussing the above results it is worth noting that no inter-sex differences were significant.

Although there is a significant relationship between professionalism and not wanting PPTA to be more concerned with conditions of work and salary (men only), the numbers in this category are so small as to make the significance not a very important one.

Table 30 shows that by far the greater proportion of professional men think PPTA should be more concerned with conditions of work and salary.

The results would seem to indicate that high professional women, while being less concerned with conditions of work and salary, are more militant than men.

However none of these results give any clue to why the hypothesis is not supported and again it would seem that a distinction must be made between a professional role perception and professional behaviour.

Summary Chapter X

Teacher associations in general do not measure up very well against the ideal type of professional association which "acts as guardian of esoteric knowledge and techniques, administers professional training, controls entry into the profession, sets up standards of work performance, disciplines the members, fosters the growth of technique and information sharing, promotes the professional ideology of service and idealises its social responsibilities" (Wilensky 1956, p.107). They reflect the low standard of teaching as a profession, but the history of professions reveals the fact that the established professions have had to strive and militate for their professional status. The remedy as far as teaching is concerned lies in the hands of teachers themselves.

Often stated as one great barrier to the professionalisation of teaching is the fact that teachers are not private

TABLE 30

PERCEPTION OF P.P.T.A. BY HIGH PROFESSIONALS ONLY

	<u>Men</u>		<u>N</u>	<u>Women</u>		<u>N</u>
	<u>Yes</u> %	<u>No</u> %		<u>Yes</u> %	<u>No</u> %	
(a) Should be more concerned with conditions of work and salary	76	24	(59)	53	47	(34)
	x ² =50.52 df2 p<.01			x ² =7.47 df2 p<.02		
(b) Should be more concerned with professional issues	81	13	(63)	87	13	(38)
	x ² =82.95 df2 p<.01			x ² =49 df2 p<.01		
(c) Does a good job	80	20	(64)	74	26	(39)
	x ² =82.95 df2 p<.01			x ² =24.69 df2 p<.01		
(d) Should act more directly in important issues	68	32	(57)	88	12	(33)
	x ² =31.68 df2 p<.01			x ² =44.36 df2 p<.01		

practitioners, but are supported wholly by public funds. This however is the case to a considerable extent with the medical profession in this country.

The majority of high professionals of both sexes want P.P.T.A. to be more concerned with professional issues, but they also think it does a good job at the moment. High-professional women, especially, tend to want P.P.T.A. to be more militant, but all these results are somewhat in conflict with the low level of activity at regional level. It would seem that really active participation in the affairs of P.P.T.A. is left in the hands of a comparative few.

In conclusion it could be noted that these results were collected late in 1967 and there has been a great deal of evidence in 1969 of increasing militancy on the part of teachers and P.P.T.A. This does not necessarily mean that professionalism has much to do with such militancy but it does indicate a greater interest and activity in P.P.T.A. among teachers. Many remits passed at the last annual conference of P.P.T.A. (1969) were concerned with professional issues as compared with trade union-like activities (e.g. these remits covered such issues as the abolition of grading and School Certificate, buildings, classroom material etc. as well as issues concerned with condition of work and salary).

Footnotes

1. The low response rates especially in C can be fairly taken as lack of activity.
2. As with Table 27 low response rates can reasonably be taken as lack of activity.

CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSIONS AND GENERALISABILITY OF FINDINGS

The main purpose of this investigation was to study a sample of N.Z. secondary school teachers in their occupational roles. There are many such studies (few of New Zealand conditions however) but most have been concerned with classroom practice and schools etc. rather than with teachers themselves. These studies have aimed at examining teaching operations as their raw data. This investigation takes a somewhat different approach, that of the role orientations of teachers.

As it is necessary to structure any piece of research this study uses for this purpose the concept of professionalism.

The basic premise of this investigation is that teachers should have a professional role perception of their occupational status. This premise was rationalised on both ethical and empirical grounds and then the study itself proceeded to investigate three basic issues.

- (i) The extent to which teachers are professionally orientated.
- (ii) Some of the initial correlates of professional role perception.
- (iii) The relationship between professional role perception and certain variables connected with the teaching situation.

A professional role perception in this study was defined in terms of three basic elements.

- (i) Technical competence
- (ii) Autonomy
- (iii) Service

Teachers were ranked on a scale of professionalism according to how they scored items corresponding to the three elements above in a multi-item question (see Question 33, Appendix).

Having calculated an index of professionalism for each teacher some of the possible background correlates of a professional role perception were examined. The background variables selected were:-

- (a) sex differences;
- (b) socio-economic background;
- (c) advanced training;
- (d) occupational position.

Then, because of the importance to teaching operations of a teacher's role perception, relationships between such a role perception and the following were examined.

- (e) Teaching style;
- (f) Teachers' perceptions of the aims of education;
- (g) External examinations;
- (h) Emphases in education and teacher satisfaction;
- (i) Participation in professional associations.

Table 31 summarises the significant findings.

TABLE 31SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS IN THIS INVESTIGATION(p \leq .05)

A significant positive relationship existed between professionalism and

Background variables

- (a) Married men (as compared with single men) $x^2=8.880$
df1 p \leq .01
- (b) Single women (as compared with single men) $x^2=8.48$
df1 p \leq .01

Teaching Style

- (c) Child centredness $x^2=11.506$
df2 p \leq .01
- (d) Emphasis on guidance $x^2=11.139$
df2 p \leq .01
- (e) Use of discussion $x^2=8.382$
df2 p \leq .01
- (f) Emphasis on pupil growth $x^2=5.889$
df2 p \leq .05
- (g) Progressiveness in education $x^2=14.88$
df2 p \leq .01
- (h) Emphasis on subjectivity $x^2=6.408$
df2 p \leq .05

External Examinations

- (i) Marks in outside examinations are adequate measures of teaching ability $x^2=9.962$
df2 p \leq .01

Emphases in Education

- (j) More use of reasoning with pupils as a means of obtaining desirable conduct $x^2=11.766$
df2 p \leq .01

(k) Less use of corporal punishment $\chi^2=6.527$
df2 p=.03

(l) More organisation of children's
leisure time by adults $\chi^2=7.245$
df2 p=.02

Satisfaction with Teaching

(m) High satisfaction $\chi^2=7.075$
df2 p=.02

Interest and activity in P.P.T.A.

(n) High interest (men only) $\chi^2=7.671$
df2 p=.02

Attitude to P.P.T.A.

(o) P.P.T.A. should be more concerned
with conditions of work and salary
(men only) $\chi^2=5.790$
df2 p/.05

Although the above results were significant, because of the drawbacks of the mailed questionnaire research technique, caution is required when attempts are made to draw conclusions from the findings.¹

In this investigation only 53% of the total sample responded. This however is considered quite a reasonable return (Kerlinger 1964). Further the study relied to a great extent on self report, especially of attitudes, and results therefore are open to a serious response bias. No follow up was possible and the non-response of 47% of the total sample makes for a large gap in the results².

While it was recognised that the research technique chosen was subject to such short comings, it was the only feasible method and the investigation was thought worthwhile because it began research in an area of New Zealand education so far little investigated.

Other Methodological Problems

The Concept of Professionalism

Becker (1962) did not see the symbol of professionalism as an appropriate model for teaching. This study has to a large extent supported this contention. Not so much perhaps because it is not appropriate for teachers to be professional, but because either the concept as defined in this investigation is too narrow to provide a working hypothesis of teacher behaviour or the measures used were too restrictive. Too many factors in the teaching situation were not encompassed by the concept as it was used in this study. This could well be due to the difficulty of operationalising the theoretical construct of professionalism. The distinction made several times between a professional role perception and professional behaviour points to this difficulty.

Certainly the configuration of a professional role perception is likely to be much more complex than the construct which was operationalised in this investigation. However this does raise a very important issue. Whether it is the model itself which is inappropriate or the operationalisation of that model as in this study.

An Appropriate Model for Teaching

Most of both Becker's (1962) and Wilensky's (1956) criteria are appropriate for teaching. However, because of the complex nature and importance of education in a modern society (Phillips 1964) some modifications to the model are necessary.

The large numbers of personnel involved make some form of central direction and control necessary to ensure equality of standards and opportunity. The length and requisite continuity of the educative process make some form of bureaucratic structure at the management level inevitable.

Perhaps ideally educational systems should have a bipartite structure, with management and teaching separate, but in very close liaison. Were there such a dichotomy, teaching, as divorced from administration, could and should be professionally structured, enabling and encouraging teachers to adopt professional role orientations.

The Value of this Study

The real value of this investigation is twofold.

(1) Very few studies have been conducted of secondary teachers in New Zealand and any reasonably structured research in this field will contribute something in an almost unknown field, even if this knowledge is largely in terms of what isn't rather than what is.

(ii) The many questions pointed to and not answered. Among such questions are puzzling sex differences in many variables and inconsistencies between a professional role perception and professional behaviour.

Many factors can contribute to negative results and one or all of the following could have been operative in this research. Incorrect theory and hypothesis, inappropriate or incorrect methodology, inadequate or poor measurement and faulty analysis. "If we can be fairly sure that the methodology, the measurement and the analysis are adequate then negative results can be definite contributions to scientific advance" (Kerlinger 1964).

In this investigation it is more likely that inappropriateness rather than incorrectness is a major factor and in the light of the current striving by New Zealand secondary teachers for professional status the negative results of this study have a real and practical implication.

Probably one or both of the following factors must be recognised as pertinent in a teaching situation.

(i) Professionalism is to a certain extent an inappropriate model for teachers (Becker 1961).

(ii) Teachers have too narrow a conception of the model and are in fact striving for mainly social and economic status without fully realising the responsibilities involved in becoming more professional. Hence the distinction found in this study between a professional role perception and professional behaviour. Be it noted, however, that there appears to be a very strong element of service among teachers, especially with regard to pupils in schools, but such an orientation, with many teachers, does not seem to extend to the broader issues of education in society.

Footnotes

1. "Thus as a result of the low returns in mailed questionnaires, valid generalisations cannot be made" (Kerlinger 1964).
2. For a further discussion of mailed questionnaires see Porter 1950.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire

MASSEY UNIVERSITY

Department of Education

A Study of Secondary - Teacher Characteristics

Many statements, usually without benefit of actual data, have been made about secondary teachers in New Zealand and many people outside the profession have an idea of a teacher stereotype which could well be inaccurate.

In this study a sample of secondary teachers is being asked to co-operate and complete a questionnaire so that some attempt can be made to give a more factual account of the characteristics of secondary teachers.

Your replies will be completely confidential and the results will be reported in summary form only; no individual teachers or schools will be identified.

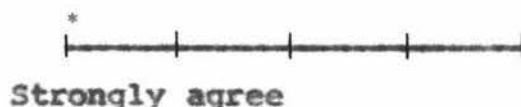
The value of this research study depends upon the frankness and care with which you answer the questions.

Thank you for your co-operation.

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please do not write your name anywhere on this questionnaire.
2. Please answer all questions that apply to you.
3. Many questions can be answered with one or more check marks. Please feel free to add any explanation or comment.
4. Please answer frankly, according to your own opinion.
5. Where questions allow for a range of responses along a continuum then where you place your check mark will indicate the strength of your response.

e.g. agree disagree

ABOUT YOUR PRESENT POSITION :-

1. In your present position : what subjects do you specialise in?

(a) English _____	(f) Sciences _____
(b) Languages _____	(g) Physical education _____
(c) Social Studies, Geography, History etc. _____	(h) Music _____
(d) Commercial _____	(i) Art _____
(e) Mathematics _____	(j) General _____
	(k) None _____

2. The majority of your classes are:

(a) Thirds and Fourths _____
(b) Fifths and Sixths _____
(c) Evenly distributed _____

3. Your present level of responsibility is:-

(a) Assistant _____
(b) P.R. _____
(c) P.R. (Head of Department) _____
(d) First Assistant _____
(e) Headmaster/Head-mistress _____

4.A. Your extra-curricular activities are:-

- (a) Sports in sports period. _____
- (b) Sports outside of school hours. _____
- (c) Cultural activities in school time. _____
- (d) Cultural activities outside of school hours. _____
- (e) Teacher in charge of extra-curricular activity. _____
- (f) Other (Please explain)
-

B. Extra-curricular activities outside of school hours take up how much time per week? (Rough average for the year)

- No time _____
- (a) 0 - 3 hours _____
- (b) 3 - 6 hours _____
- (c) 6 - 9 hours _____
- (d) 9 - 12 hours _____
- (e) over 12 hours _____

SOMETHING ABOUT YOUR BACKGROUND:-

5. Age?

- (a) Under 24.9 years _____
- (b) 25.0 -34.9 years _____
- (c) 35.0 -44.9 years _____
- (d) 45.0-54.9 years _____
- (e) 55.0-64.9 years _____
- (f) 65.0 and over _____

6. Sex? Male _____ Female _____

7. Marital Status?

- (a) Single _____
- (b) Married _____
- (c) Separated, divorced or widowed _____

8. If Married
- (a) How Long _____
- (b) Number of children _____
9. Your Academic Qualifications? (Tick all appropriate ones)
- (a) U.E. _____
- (b) Bursary or Scholarship _____
- (c) Teachers Certificate _____
- (d) University Diploma _____
- (e) Partial pass in your
First Degree _____
- (f) Bachelor's degree _____
- (g) Master's degree _____
- (h) Other (please specify) _____
10. Your Father's Academic career? (Tick all appropriate levels)
- (a) Primary education _____
- (b) Secondary education _____
- (c) Matriculation _____
- (d) Teachers' College _____
- (e) Some university _____
- (f) Bachelor's degree _____
- (g) Master's degree _____
- (h) Other (please specify) _____
11. Your Mother's Academic career? (Tick all appropriate levels)
- (a) Primary education _____
- (b) Secondary education _____
- (c) Matriculation _____
- (d) Teachers' College _____
- (e) Some university _____
- (f) Bachelor's degree _____
- (g) Masters' degree _____
- (h) Other (please specify) _____

12. Please describe, in a sentence, your father's occupation and position (for most of the time) when you were under 21.

THINKING BACK:-

13. When did you decide to become a secondary teacher?

- (a) At school as a pupil. _____
- (b) After having been away from school for some time in outside employment _____
- (c) At university _____
- (d) When university studies completed _____
- (e) After returning from the war _____
- (f) When teaching at the primary level _____
- (g) Other (Please specify) _____
-

14. Method of entering into secondary teaching?

- (a) Teaching Bursary at University, then Training College, then college. _____
- (b) Training College to Primary teaching to Secondary teaching _____
- (c) University then teaching (No training college) _____
- (d) "Pressure cooker" course _____
- (e) University to outside employment to teaching _____
- (f) Straight from outside employment to teaching (studies subsequent to entering into teaching) _____
- (g) Straight from outside employment to teaching (NO university studies before or after) _____
- (h) Other (please specify) _____
-

15. Please rank the following 1st, 2nd and 3rd according to how important they were to you when you first took up teaching.

- (a) My marriage and family life _____
- (b) My work _____
- (c) Engagement in Social Welfare activities _____
- (d) My leisure time activities _____
- (e) Other (Please specify) _____
-

16. When you first began to teach what main problems did you meet?

- (a) Pupil discipline _____
- (b) Teaching method and subject material _____
- (c) Staff relations _____
- (d) Authority structure of the school _____
- (e) Other (please specify) _____
-

17. When you started your teaching career what were your plans for the future?

- (a) To teach until retirement without too much concern over promotion _____
- (b) To make a career of teaching and rise as high as possible _____
- (c) To leave teaching for reasons of family then return _____
- (d) To leave teaching but stay in the field of education _____
- (e) To leave teaching for reasons of family and not return _____
- (f) To leave the teaching field altogether at some future time _____
- (g) Other (please specify) _____
-

18. Have you ever thought of leaving teaching? Yes ___ No ___

If Yes, then:--

- (a) Just thought _____
 (b) Looked for other jobs _____
 (c) Applied for other jobs _____
 (d) Did leave, and came back _____

19. (a) What kind of work would you like to go in
 for if you left teaching?
 (b) Would you leave teaching if this job came up?
 Yes ___ No ___

20. If you could begin your career all over again,
 what would be your first choice of a career? _____

BACK TO TEACHING

21. 1. Income other than salary \$ _____

2. From whence is your income, other than salary
 derived?

- (a) From other work related to teaching (e.g. S.C.
 marking) _____
 (b) Holiday employment _____
 (c) Employment during the school year, not related
 to your job as a teacher _____
 (d) Other (please specify) _____
-

3. Reasons for 'outside' employment?

- (a) Of necessity to supplement teaching salary _____
 (b) Interest _____
 (c) Occupy long holidays _____
 (d) Other (please specify) _____
-

YOUR QUALIFICATIONS AGAIN:-

- 22.A. Please list the teaching subjects in your degree(s) or partial degree, and indicate the university stage and hours spent in teaching that subject per week.

Subject	Stage	Time in teaching				
		Under 5 hours	5 to 10 hours	10 to 15 hours	15 to 20 hours	Over 20 hours

- B. Please list the non-teaching subjects in your degree(s) or partial degree and the university stage completed.

Subject	Stage

- C. Please list any other qualifications relevant to teaching.

23. (a) How many years have you been teaching? _____
- (b) How many teaching appointments (including internal promotions) have you held? _____
- (c) i. What was the duration of your longest appointment? _____
- ii. After how many years teaching experience did you hold this position? (e.g. after 10 years' service) _____
- (d) At what stage of your teaching career did you shift around most? (e.g. between 5 to 10 years' service) _____

24. (a) Do you think that 'paper work' and school duties (e.g. lunch hour supervision, etc.) make you less effective as a teacher because they take time which could be spent in marking and preparation. Yes _____ No _____
- (b) Do you think that an increase in ancillary staffing to cover the above duties would increase the efficiency of a school because of the above reasons. Yes _____ No _____
- or
- (c) Do you think that some paper work and school duties are a part of a teacher's job even if ancillary staffing were increased. Yes _____ No _____

AWAY FROM SCHOOL

25. (a) Do you feel marriage (with or without a family) has an effect on your career as a teacher? Yes _____ No _____
- (b) If, Yes, then Helped _____ Hindered _____
- (c) Briefly, how? _____

26. (a) Do you feel that being a teacher places a burden on your family? Yes _____ No _____
- (b) If, Yes, how?
1. With regard to time taken in school activities _____
 2. No energy left for your own children after teaching all day _____
 3. Taking work home _____
 4. Can't stop being a teacher at home _____
 5. Lack of finance _____
 6. Time taken to improve qualifications _____
 7. The isolation of country service _____
 8. Other (please specify) _____

(c) Do you feel that being a teacher places a burden on yourself?

Yes _____ No _____

If yes, how?

1. Can't think or talk of anything else but school _____
 2. Makes you socially dull _____
 3. Lack of time for reading and keeping up-to-date with material both relevant to teaching and relevant to personal interests _____
 4. Lack of time for personal interests _____
 5. Other (please specify) _____
-

27. (a) Did you, or would you, recommend teaching as a career to your

own daughter/s Yes _____ No _____

own son/s Yes _____ No _____

(b) What are your reasons _____

(c) If No - what would you recommend? _____

28.A. Your social contacts, are they -

(a) Mainly with other teachers? _____

(b) Mainly with people outside of teaching? _____

(c) About half and half? _____

(d) What is/are the occupation(s) of your social contacts other than teachers:- _____

B. Your closest friends, are they -

(a) Mainly teachers? _____

(b) Mainly people outside of teaching? _____

(c) About half and half? _____

(d) What is/are the occupation(s) of your
closest friends other than teachers:- _____

29. (a) Do you think sports coaching and supervision, and other extra-curricular activities outside of school time are part of a teacher's job?

Yes No



- (b) Do you think teachers should be required to take extra-curricular activities when they do not want to?

Yes No



- (c) Do you feel that a teacher's extra-curricular activities should have an influence on his grading?

Yes No



- (d) Do you think that a teacher's extra-curricular activities do, in fact, influence his grading.

Yes No



THINKING ABOUT EXAMINATIONS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

30.A.

- (a) Do you consider that marks in School Certificate or University Entrance are adequate measures of a pupil's school career?

Yes No



- (b) Do you consider that the marks your own pupils attain in School Certificate or University Entrance are a reflection on your ability as a teacher (accepting the fact of the range of abilities and attitudes of your pupils)?

Yes No
 ───────────┬──────────┬──────────┬──────────┬──────────

- B. 1. Which do you consider is more important from the pupil's point of view?

- (a) A pass in an external examination _____
 (b) A good testimonial from the school _____
 (c) Other (please specify) _____

2. Which do you consider should be the most important?

- (a) A pass in an external examination _____
 (b) A good testimonial from the school _____
 (c) Other (please specify) _____

31. Do you think overall educational standards would suffer if there were no external examinations?

Yes _____ No _____

32. Do you feel you could assess pupil's educational merit more reliably than an outside examination?

Yes _____ No _____

THINKING ABOUT YOURSELF AS A TEACHER¹

33.A. In the table below please check off each item according to how important it is to you in your job now:-

	Essential	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Very Important	Indifferent
(a) A chance to teach sixth forms or the best academic classes					
(b) A chance to rise to a P.R. and eventually to first assistant					
(c) A chance to work in a school with a good academic reputation					
(d) A chance to help pupils get on in life					
(e) Have a secure job outside of the business "rat-race"					
(f) Have a job with social prestige					
(g) Have plenty of time for personal pursuits					
(h) Receive favourable recognition as a teacher from supervisors within the school					

33.A. (continued)

	Essential	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Very Important	Indifferent
(i) Get good grading.					
(j) Make enough money to live comfortably.					
(k) Be your own boss in the classroom with sufficient freedom to do the job the way you think it ought to be done.					
(l) A chance to influence young people and therefore have some small part in creating a better world.					
(m) A chance to use new ideas in teaching techniques.					
(n) A chance to become recognised and respected as a good teacher by other teachers.					
(o) A chance to rise to the position of principal.					
(p) Other (essential or very important).					

Please go back to those items that you have checked "Necessary" or "Very Important" and Circle that item which is most necessary or important to you now.

Question 34.B. (see over)

34.B. How satisfied are you with these things?

Please check each of the same items below according to how satisfied you are with these things in your present job as a teacher.

	Very Satisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Not too Satisfied	Most Satisfied
(a) A chance to teach sixth forms or the best academic classes.				
(b) A chance to rise to a P.R. and eventually to first assistant.				
(c) A chance to work in a school with a good academic reputation.				
(d) A chance to help the pupils get on in life.				
(e) Have a secure job outside of the business "rat-race".				
(f) Have a job with social prestige.				
(g) Have plenty of time for personal pursuits.				
(h) Receive favourable "recognition as a teacher from supervisors within the school.				

34.B. (continued)

	Very Satisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Not too Satisfied	Most Satisfied
(i) Get good grading.				
(j) Made enough money to live comfortably.				
(k) Be your own boss in the class-room with sufficient freedom to do the job the way you think it ought to be done.				
(l) A chance to influence young people and therefore have some small part in creating a better world.				
(m) A chance to use new ideas in teaching techniques.				
(n) A chance to become recognised and respected as a good teacher by other teachers.				
(o) A chance to rise to the position of principal.				
(p) Other (essential or very important).				

35. A number of descriptions have been given to the ways in which a teacher approaches the job of teaching. Taking your own teaching style into account, where do you think an independent observer would place you on each scale.

The closer your check mark is to either end the more the phrase at that end of the scale would tend to describe your teaching style.

- | | | |
|---|-------|---|
| (a) Child-centred | ————— | Subject Centred |
| (b) Emphasises instruction | ————— | Emphasises guidance |
| (c) Uses lecture-type teaching | ————— | Uses discussion |
| (d) Pupil planning | ————— | Teacher planning |
| (e) Emphasises 'insight' learning | ————— | Emphasises role learning |
| (f) Emphasises pupil growth | ————— | Emphasises pupil achievement |
| (g) Controls children indirectly | ————— | Controls children directly |
| (h) Traditional | ————— | Progressive |
| (i) Emphasises subjectively (feelings, opinions, attitudes) | ————— | Emphasises objectivity (facts, information knowledge) |
| (j) Puts stress on group (class & school) loyalty | ————— | Puts stress on personal freedom and independence |
| (k) Emphasises obligation to society | ————— | Emphasises individual right |

EMPHASIS IN EDUCATION

36. In your judgement should these be given more or less emphasis these days?

	More	About the same	Less	Don't know
(a) Basic subjects				
(b) Cultural subjects				
(c) Giving homework regularly				
(d) Active classroom participation in work				
(e) Using reasoning with pupils as a method for obtaining desirable conduct				
(f) Use of corporal punishment				
(g) Preparation of children for future jobs				
(h) Outside examinations				
(i) Adults organising children's leisure time				
(j) Stressing the importance of hard work				

37. Briefly - what do you consider to be the aim or aims of secondary education.

38. Please indicate whether you agree with the following :-

	Agree	Disagree
(a) Teachers are born not made	----- ----- ----- -----	
(b) Some can be made, others never	----- ----- ----- -----	
(c) Teaching is a profession involving two disciplines, subject matter and teaching techniques	----- ----- ----- -----	
(d) Knowledge of subject matter is more important for a secondary teacher	----- ----- ----- -----	
(e) Knowledge of teaching techniques is more important for a secondary teacher	----- ----- ----- -----	
(f) They are both equally important	----- ----- ----- -----	

39. Are you a member of any organisation other than the P.P.T.A. connected with the academic side of your teaching? (e.g. N.Z. Geographical Society)

Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, then:-

What Organisation?

How often do you attend meetings?

- (a) Every meeting _____
- (b) Most meetings _____
- (c) Some meetings _____
- (d) Very seldom _____
- (e) Never _____

40.A. Are you a member of the P.P.T.A. Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, then:

How often do you attend meetings?

	<u>Branch</u>	<u>Regional</u>
(a) Every meeting	_____	_____
(b) Most meetings	_____	_____
(c) Some meetings	_____	_____
(d) Very seldom	_____	_____
(e) Never	_____	_____

40.B. How interested are you in the activities of the P.P.T.A.?

(a) Very	_____
(b) Moderately	_____
(c) Only when the proceedings concern me directly	_____

C. Have you held any office in the P.P.T.A. Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, then:-

(a) At branch level	_____
(b) At regional level	_____
(c) At conference level	_____
(d) At executive level	_____

41. Do you think that the P.P.T.A.

(a) Should be more concerned with conditions of work and salary?

Yes	No
----- ----- ----- -----	

(b) Should be more concerned with professional issues such as training of teachers and greater control of standards within the service.

----- ----- ----- -----	
-------------------------	--

(c) Does a good job?

----- ----- ----- -----	
-------------------------	--

- (d) Is not worth bothering about? Yes No
- (e) Should act more directly in important issues?
- (f) Are there any other issues to which P.P.T.A. should give emphasis (please specify) _____

Footnotes

1. The original questionnaire was on foolscap and the layout here is not exactly the same because of the difficulty of putting it on smaller paper. No content has been changed.

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