THE SOCIALIZATION OF TEACHERS: EFFECTS OF

GRADUATE SCHOOL AND WORKPLACE UPON

PROFESSIONAL ROLE ORIENTATION

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by

Edwin G.J. Buettner

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of
certain aspects of graduate study and the workplace upon teachers'
professional role orientation. An analysis of the literature on
occupational socialization led to the determination of some elements
peculiar to the socialization of professionals which were applied to
the graduate study and the workplace of teachers. In this way, a
research model was generated which included three sets of variables
dealing with teachers' perceptions of their graduate study, workplace,
and professional role orientation. Five aspects of graduate study
were selected: amount of graduate training, whether a student had
completed a thesis, whether the individual was a full or part-time
student, whether the student had completed a graduate practicum, and
his perceived autonomy in graduate study. Concomitantly, three
aspects of the workplace were chosen: the individual's perceived
workplace autonomy, the degree of collegiality in the workplace, and
the nature of supervision. The dependent variable consisted of five
dimensions of professional role orientation: responsibility to
students--learning, responsibility to students--formation of values
and attitudes, autonomy--professional vs. layman, employee and
professional autonomy, and active intellectual orientation (Palmatier,
1969).

A questionnaire, incorporating measures of the variables was
developed and distributed to a sample of 211 teachers who had
completed some graduate study. Multiple regression was utilized to

determine the direct effects of the graduate study and workplace variables upon professional role orientation. As well, indirect effects of the graduate study variables through the workplace variables were examined.

It was found that the graduate study and workplace variables accounted for 14 to 19 percent of the variance in professional role orientation, with the exception of one dimension. The pattern of effects for the graduate study and workplace variables differed for each particular dimension of professional role orientation, and included both positive and negative effects, though the research model hypothesized only positive relationships. For example, two of the workplace variables, autonomy and collegiality, were consistently positive in their relationship to professional role orientation, while the workplace variables dealing with supervision were, with one exception, negative. The strongest positive relationship was between full-time graduate study and the dimension of "Responsibility to Students--Learning". On the other hand, a strong negative relationship was found for graduate study autonomy and "Employee and Professional Autonomy".

Since some negative relationships among the variables were found, the research model was only partially supported. Two major explanations were suggested to account for the dissonance between the model and the findings. First, it is possible that some of the directions of effects hypothesized within the research model are in fact, to be understood in reverse order. Second, it may be that when responding to items measuring professional role orientation, some teachers may be answering not for themselves, but for "others",

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i.e., teachers in general. Thus, the socializing effects of the
graduate school may be to actually reduce the strength of
identification with the occupation of public school teaching.

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Chapter 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

"Professionalism is a state of mind, not a reality."
(Seymour, 1966)

The relationship of professionalism to teaching has been,
and continues to be, controversial. Some authors (for example:
Brodbelt, 1969; Broudy, 1956; Corwin, 1970) regard the attainment
of professional status by teachers as essential to progress in education;
others (for example: Covert, 1974; Eisenstein, 1972; Wilson, 1962)
argue that teaching is an occupation that differs in an essential
way from the traditional professions such as medicine and law. The
issue is further complicated by a lack of consensus as to the meaning
of professionalism (Cogan, 1955; McPeck and Sanders, 1974) as well
as by the frame of reference that is used in seeking to understand
how the professions fit into a society's occupational structure.

One way of examining how teachers regard professionalism is
by seeking their opinions with respect to a set of work values that
are generally regarded as professional in nature. Thus, there has
emerged the concept of a professional role orientation, which is
premised on the assumptions that certain kinds of attitudes towards
work are unique in that they are indicative of professional roles,
and that there are variations in the degree to which such orien-
tations are held by individuals within a profession. Thus,
professional role orientation is analytically useful in that it

allows one to discern differences in the character and strength of individuals' work values. The examination of such variability both within and between occupations raises questions as to its sources. That is, why is it that some persons hold professional attitudes more strongly than others? The question becomes all the more interesting when members of the same occupational category differ in professional role orientation.

The concept of professional socialization allows one to explore some answers to the question of differing professional role orientations. While the socialization of professionals involves more than simply the socialization of adults (Sherlock and Morris, 1967), there is evidence (Hoy, 1967; Perucci, 1977) that variations in both the formal training and subsequent work context are related to differences in professional role orientation. In view of the fact that teachers exhibit a range of training backgrounds and work within different organizational settings, it seems particularly relevant to consider the socializing influences of training and the workplace when investigating the professional role orientation of teachers.

The Problem

This study is an empirical investigation of the relationship between certain aspects of graduate study, the workplace, and teachers' professional role orientation. Five aspects of graduate study were selected for study. These included: amount of graduate training, whether a student had completed a thesis, whether the individual was a full or part-time student, whether the student had

completed a graduate practicum, and his or her perceived autonomy in graduate study. Concommitantly three aspects of the workplace were selected: the individual's perceived workplace autonomy, the degree of collegiality in the workplace, and the nature of supervision. An extended discussion of the rationale for the selection of these variables is presented in Chapter 2; what follows is a brief exposition of their hypothesized relevance to professional role orientation.

The selection of amount of graduate training as a variable in this study is based upon previous research which has indicated that amount of overall training is positively associated with professional role orientation among teachers (Hrynyk, 1966). Also, studies of scientists and engineers have shown that longer graduate training is associated with heightened professional attitudes (Perucci, 1977).

Thesis completion was selected as a variable because of its hypothesized association with theory and research. The relationship of these elements to professionalism has been asserted by authors such as Broudy (1956) and Frymier (1966).

Full-time study is regarded as a proxy for heightened interaction with significant others, particularly professors and other graduate students. It was thought that in so far as full-time study makes possible interaciton of a primary group type (Hurley, 1978), professors and other graduate students would more likely be considered as a reference group. This process has been identified as central to professional socialization (Sherlock and Morris, 1967; Gottlieb, 1962).

Moreover, graduate study which allows for the development of specialized skills through practica is hypothesized as being positively related to professional role orientation. The practicum experience is regarded as encompassing the close articulation of theory and practice (Pavalko and Holley, 1974), the opportunity for role enactment (Roaden and Larimore, 1973; Kadushin, 1969) and the formation of a renewed conception of professional skills (Lortie, 1969).

The final graduate study variable to be incorporated was perceived level of autonomy in graduate study. Because autonomy is considered as central to the work of all professionals (Hall, 1968), it is hypothesized that the experience of autonomy in graduate study will be reflected in heightened aspirations in relation to professional autonomy that would be reflected in measures of professional role orientation. Research on some professions (Perucci, 1977; Pavalko and Holley, 1974; Becker, 1953) has supported this notion.

A fundamental assertion of this study is that both formal training and the workplace are two important, but separate, arenas of professional socialization. In this thesis, the elements of collegiality, autonomy, and supervision are seen as centrally related to the way in which professionals organize their workplace. Thus it is hypothesized that to the extent that these elements are present in a teacher's place of work, there will exist a heightened sense of professionalism, as reflected in his professional role orientation.

Collegiality refers to the degree to which teachers engage in integrative working relationships, each contributing specialized skill and knowledge to the effective working of the whole work group. In this way, competence becomes the basis of authority (Marcus, 1971) and colleagues become potent as a reference group for work (Thelan, 1973).

In this thesis, the degree to which teachers are able to exercise their professional skills autonomously in their place of work is hypothesized as being related to their level of aspiration to professional autonomy, which is an important component of professionalism. Indeed, teachers have been regarded as semi-professionals (Lortie, 1969; Ritzer, 1977) because of the low level of autonomy they have in their place of work. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that organizational autonomy is important for the adequate exercise of professional discretion (Engel, 1970). That is, an organization that does not allow for sufficient discretion by its professionals places the latter in conflict with the organization.

Two aspects of supervision in the workplace are considered in this study: the perceived competence of the individual's supervisor (Peabody, 1962; Badawy, 1973) and the emphasis by the supervisor upon the individual's development of professional competencies (Thornton, 1970). Thus, teachers whose supervisors are relatively more qualified and who are encouraged to develop professional competencies and foster such development among colleagues are regarded as experiencing supervision that is professional in nature. It

is hypothesized that such supervision will ultimately be reflected in stronger professional role orientations.

In this thesis, the graduate study and workplace variables described above are examined as to their relation to professional role orientation. As will be discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, this dependent variable consists of five dimensions: responsibility to students—formation of values and attitudes, responsibility to students—learning, autonomy—professional versus laymen, employee and professional autonomy, and active intellectual orientation (Palmatier, 1969). The multi-dimensional character of this construct allows for separate analyses of the relationship of the graduate study and workplace variables to each of the five dimensions of professional role orientation.

In summary, the main research question considered in this study can be stated as follows: is variation in both graduate study and the workplace associated with variation in the professional role orientation of teachers? This question will be examined by determining the independent effects of the graduate study and workplace variables upon professional role orientation as well as by postulating the workplace variables as intervening between the graduate study and professional role orientation variables.

Significance of the Study

Before outlining the specific significance of this study, it is important to discuss the overall importance of research into professionalism in general. Watson (1976:605) argues that under-standing the issues in this area is one of the important tasks of

sociological inquiry into occupations:

> One reason why sociologists have shown so much interest in professions and professionalization is that issues are raised which involve relationships between work and its societal context.

For educators, Watson's statement seems particularly relevant, as schooling is very much a part of what goes on in society at large. For example, the matter of control and power in relation to the educational enterprise is closely related to the meaning that some ascribe to professionalism. As Lortie (1973:317) has observed:

> It is interesting that teachers have not challenged their formal subordination; unlike most who claim professional status, teachers have not contested the rights of persons outside the occupation to govern their technical affairs.

In this study, the focus is not upon the structural relationship of the teaching occupation to society, rather it concerns the related question of how individuals relate to their work. Krause (1971) argues that posing this question is essential to a dynamic understanding of the world of work. As there exists a variety of meanings for "professionalism", and in view of the lack of clarity as to the professional status of teaching in particular, understanding teachers' orientations towards professional work values seems particularly important.

This thesis represents an empirical investigation of hypothesized relationships that emerge from the literature of the sociology of occupations. In a sense, it seeks to test the applicability to teaching of concepts and theories used to investigate professional occupations. As will be shown in Chapter 2, the selection of variables for this study is based largely upon

theoretical and empirical work concerning occupational groups other than teachers.

This study is of practical significance as well. While graduate study is not quite common among teachers, this writer has found no investigations that specifically examine the impact of graduate study upon teachers' professional role orientation. If such an outcome is deemed desirable, it becomes important to ascertain what impact, if any, differences in graduate programs have upon professional role orientation. Similarly, if school systems seek to foster attitudes of heightened professionalism among their teachers, it is important to understand further the relationship of the school as a workplace to professional role orientation. To date, the relationship of the specific workplace variables examined in this study to professional role orientations of teachers has not been empirically investigated.

Studies have been conducted on what might be called the correlates of professional role orientation among teachers (Palmatier, 1969; Robinson, 1966; Hyrnyk, 1966). Such studies have shown that length of formal training and type of position, such as pedagogical or administrative, are both related to professional role orientation. This thesis seeks to extend this work by examining specific features of graduate training as well as some characteristics of the work setting as they relate to professional role orientation. That is, rather than utilizing such broad indicators as length of formal training and position, this study examines more particular dimensions of training and the workplace.

Furthermore, most studies of teacher socialization focus upon early training and initial work experiences; this study investigates a later phase of teacher socialization, namely, graduate study in conjunction with the workplace.

That questions related to the professionalism of teachers are of importance to educational administration is indicated by the inclusion of extended discussions of the topic in recent texts by, for example, Hansen (1979); Hoy and Miskel (1978); and Sergiovanni and Carver (1973). Questions of educational administration are fundamentally questions of authority; indeed it is difficult to confront issues of authority in education without attempting to understand teacher professionalism. Furthermore, the character of the process of education is contingent, _inter alia_ upon teachers' work values, the latter frequently being understood in terms related to professionalism. This thesis seeks to understand the nature of these work values and subsequent professional orientations—their origin and development.

Limitations and Delimitations

The argument presented in this document is delimited by the very nature of its conceptual scheme. Only selected socialization arenas and variables are examined; hence, this study cannot approximate a comprehensive understanding of professional role orientation and its determinants. Thus, such variables as social class and personality are not incorporated into the research design. Furthermore, the study is delimited by the conceptualization and subsequent

operationalization of the variables. Other choices in these
areas could lead to conclusions quite different from those
reported in this thesis. This is exemplified particularly in
the selection of the measures of professional role orientation;
reflecting differences in conceptualization, there exists a
substantial range of instrumentation in regard to this construct.

It should also be noted that persons undertaking graduate
training in education enter with a host of purposes and predis-
positions. Thus, a student may opt to complete a thesis, for
example, because of a high self-concept, an exemplary academic
record, or a desire for independence. It is quite beyond the scope
of this study to examine such psychological factors, which are, of
course, an important part of the socialization process.

The fundamental limitations of this study may center around
some of its methodological choices. Thus, the validity of the
findings may be limited by the degree to which respondents become
engaged in the completion of the questionnaires. Judgements in
regard to this may be more easily made and controlled in collection
of data through personal interview techniques. Limitations also
exist as to sample size; this affects the determination of levels
of statistical significance. The data collected in this study are
all individually perceptual in nature; no use is made of third
party observations. Hence, what is reflected in the findings is a
"once in time" response by participants about their graduate work
and place of employment. In effect, this means that there was no
opportunity for cross checking of the accuracy of perceptions. For
example, data on the actual qualifications of Supervisors were

not available.

Overview of the Report

This thesis is organized into five chapters. The purpose
of this chapter has been to present the problem guiding the study
as well as the basic rationale for its development. Moreover,
the chapter contains arguments for the theoretical and practical
significance of the study, and an outline of some important
limitations of the research.

Chapter 2 develops the theoretical background of the problem.
By reviewing the literature pertinent to professional socialization,
an attempt is made to justify the selection of the particular
variables and their relation to each other. The chapter concludes
with the research model that is developed from the research
literature.

In order to empirically investigate the hypothesized
relationships described in Chapter 2, it is necessary to operation-
alize the variables included in the research model. Chapter 3
describes the two main ways in which this task was carried out:
creation of the questionnaire items and the subsequent factor
analyses of these items. Thus, responses to a set of questions
initially designed to measure a particular variable are subjected
to factor analyses. This allows for a determination as to whether
the questions in the set are measuring the same construct. This
chapter also presents a description of the sample, specifying how
it was selected and the salient characteristics of the respondents.

Chapter 4 deals with the main analysis of the relationships

between the variables. The main statistical treatments used are correlation and multiple regression analysis. Correlational treatment presents an overview of the levels of association among the variables.

In multiple regression analysis, the graduate study and workplace variables are treated as predictors of professional role orientation. To allow for the exploration of indirect effects, the set of workplace variables were posited as intervening between the graduate study and professional role orientation variable sets.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the problem posed in Chapter 1. As well, a discussion of the implications of the findings for theory, research, and practice and some suggestions for further research are presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents a review of theory and research
related to the problem presented in Chapter 1. It begins with an
overview of some of the perspectives taken in the investigation of
the broad area of professionalism. Following this, the concept of
professional role orientation is examined. As this study is
concerned with professional socialization in education, some dis-
cussion of general issues relevant to adult socialization precedes
the analysis of graduate study and workplace variables as they
relate to the development of professional role orientation. Thus,
a rationale is provided for the selection of the independent and
intervening variables of this study.

The Study of Professionalism

Use of the term professionalism and its derivations is
varied in both scientific and everyday language. Furthermore, the
term is not value free;[1] specifically for educators, there exist
differences of opinion as to its applicability to the occupation of
teaching. Thus, Eisenstein (1972) argues that the professional
model, as it is currently understood by some theorists, is quite
inappropriate to the work of teachers in that it implies an
attitude of objectivity that alienates the teacher from his students.
On the other hand, such authors as Leles (1968) and Lieberman (1956)

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regard the attainment of professional status by teachers as
essential to their increased effectiveness.

Much of early sociological work in the area of occupations
focused precisely upon the definitional issues related to
"profession". This line of investigation led to the creation of
various sets of attributes that were applied to occupations as
"tests" of professional status. The criteria developed by
Greenwood (1957) are fairly representative of these efforts: the
existence of systematic theory as a basis for practice, the degree
of authority exercised by a practitioner, the community's sanctioning
of the occupational group, the existence of a code of ethics as
well as an identifiable occupational culture. Recent criticism,
however, has challenged the ultimate feasibility and efficacy of
such an orientation.[2] Thus, Dingwall (1976) states: "The logical
outcome of this approach (a search for professional attributes) is
that profession is nothing more or less than what some sociologist
says it is" (p. 332).

Consequently, there has emerged another approach that is
premised upon the assertion that the most important questions about
professionalism are those related to power.[3] As Corwin (1965)
states: "... militancy is a natural product of the drive for status
that professionalization represents" (p. 257). Thus, rather than
attempting to explain how professions contribute to the integration
of society, this latter orientation seeks to understand the relationship
of professional ideology to the acquisition of power by an occupation.
Accordingly, Fry and Miller (1977) assert that legitimacy derives
from power, not vice versa. Roth (1974) argues that professionalization

involves an occupation's "... avoidance of accountability to the public, manipulation of political power to promote monopoly control, and the restriction of services to create scarcities and increase costs " (p. 18). While there are some important differences between the fundamental assumptions of these approaches to the study of professionalism, they are not irreconcilable, as Ritzer (1977) has argued.[4]

Another important aspect of previous examinations of professionalism is related to Hall's distinction between structural and attitudinal demensions. Broadly, the structural dimension may be regarded as sociological in nature, while the attitudinal dimension is more closely allied to the psychological. However the two dimensions are labelled, it is important to note that they are analytically distinct. Colombotos (1963) explains:

> The term professionalism may refer to two different things. It may refer to certain objective characteristics of the work situation (for example physicians are in fact more autonomous than teachers) or to incumbents' orientations towards those same characteristics of the work situation (for example physicians value autonomy and take it for granted more than do teachers) (p. 30).

Ritzer (1977) has also recognized this distinction and states that sociologists have tended to ignore professionalism as a set of attitudes or psychological dispositions.

Hall (1968) has conducted empirical investigations of the relationship between structural and attitudinal dimensions of professionalism in a range of occupations. He found that the two do not necessarily covary; that is, they may be quite independent. For example, the attitudinal variables of "belief in service" and

"sense of calling" may not at all be related to the structural
element of "self-regulation".

The purpose of the foregoing discussion has been to place
the present study within the context of an analytical framework.
Thus, this investigation does not seek to determine whether or not
teaching as an occupation meets some structural criteria of
professional occupations; nor does it examine the degree of power
and control the professions exercise in society. The concern of
this study, on the other hand, is with the attitudinal dimension of
professionalism. As will be seen in the following section, it
is the concept of professional role orientation that allows one to
examine questions related to this dimension.

Professional Role Orientation

While there continues to be a lack of clarity and consensus
regarding the concept of role,[5] the term remains fairly central to
the social sciences: "The concept of role links Psychology, in its
study of individual behavior, with Sociology and Anthropology in
their emphasis on the social context as a determinant of behavior"
(McDavid and Harari, 1968, p. 267). Biddle (1979), in his survey of
role theory, notes the confusion that is related to the use of the
term, observing that the term may be used to denote various and
dissimilar conceptualizations. Although the conceptual issues related
to role cannot be resolved in the present discussion, the fundamental
distinctions outlined by Gross and McEachern (1958) are important
to this study. Their definition of role is based upon the Parsonian
notion of "mode of organization of the actor's orientation to the

situation." This emphasized individuals' attitudes or psychological

dispositions and is to be distinguished from approaches that

emphasize normative and cultural patterns (Linton, 1936) and role

enactment (Davis, 1951). This highlights the lack of direct

correspondence between how people perceive a role and how it is

actually carried out. Horton and Hunt's (1972) analysis also

makes a distinction between role enactment and attitudinal set. In

this thesis, the focus is upon attitudinal set; no attempt is made

to deal with role enactment.[6]

The term professional role orientation then refers to a

set of attitudes (i.e., orientation) regarding a person's occupational

role. As is the case with role, orientation is difficult to define:

> It would appear ... that the term 'orientation' should
> mean some reflection or representation of the total motivational
> state of an individual at a particular point in time, thus
> portraying the effects of needs, values, and attitudes,
> abilities and other behavioral aspects (Bennett, 1974, p.
> 151).

Bennett goes on to assert that work orientation is neither stable

nor uni-dimensional but that it is a "link between the individual

and his situation" (p. 151). Newcomb (1959) points out that

"orientation" has both cognitive and emotional dimensions, a

distinction that is important in this study, since respondents were

asked to indicate their understanding of occupational roles. Thus,

professional role orientation refers to a set of tendencies towards

action; behavior may be seen as the net result of the interaction of

a number of orientations (Hrynyk, 1966).

To measure professional role orientation, researchers have

used numerous scales, each premised upon a particular conceptualization

of professionalism and, more specifically, upon the attitudinal

aspect of professionalism. Typically, the term has been

operationalized as a set of factors or dimensions, rather than as a

uni-demensional construct. Figure 1 presents a comparison of the

dimensions of professionalism and their operational expression.

This figure reveals that some dimensions have received

fairly consistent emphasis, while this is not the case with other

dimensions.[7] One reason for this may be that the clusters are not

clearly distinct; for example, "orientation to profession and

colleagues" may easily be regarded as subsuming "code of ethics".

The same may apply to "service to public" and "sense of calling".

In addition to the differences in the conceptualizations used by the

researchers shown in Figure 1, there are other variations. Thus, for

example, Robinson's scale does not allow for separate measurement of

each dimension.[8] Also, the number of items contained in the various

professional role orientation scales shows a large range--Colombotos'

scale includes only four items, while that developed by Palmatier

contains thirty-six.

In this thesis, Palmatier's instrument was selected to

measure professional role orientation. The scale was developed as

part of a doctoral dissertation and drew heavily upon Lieberman's

(1956) work. It was developed through various stages to ensure

adequate reliability and validity. As a result, seven dimensions of

professional role orientation were determined from the thirty-six

items. It will be noted that both power and service are well

represented in Palmatier's operationalization of the construct of

professional role orientation. Also, this scale is comprehensive

Figure 1

Conceptualization of Professional Role
Orientation by Selected Researchers

	Decision-making Autonomy	Competence Based on Knowledge	Orientation to Profession and Colleagues	Orientation to Students	Service to Public	Self-government	Sense of Calling	Code of Ethics	Intrinsic Rewards
Corwin (1970)	x	x	x	x	x	x			x
Kuhlman (1974)	x	x	x	x	x				
Marjoribanks (1977)				x	x	x	x		x
Hrynyk (1966)	x	x	x						
Robinson (1966)	x	x	x	x					
Hall (1968)	x		x	x	x	x			
Colombotos (1963)	x	x			x				
Palmatier (1969)	x	x		x	x	x		x	

in comparison to other representative instruments, as can be seen
from Figure 1. This scale has been used for research in Canada
(Fris, 1975).

In summary, professional role orientation refers to the
character of the cognitive orientations of individuals in an
occupational group to a set of role attributes that are understood
as professional in nature. The concept attempts to describe the
relationships of actors to their occupational worlds; it does not
deal with structural concerns about the relationship of a particular
occupation to its societal context. Corwin (1965) argues for the
importance of the attitudinal aspect of teachers' professionalism
that is measured by professional role orientation:

> Perhaps it is less important to decide whether teaching
> is a mature profession on the basis of some objective standards
> than to decide whether teachers think of themselves as
> professionals (p. 262).

Professional Role Orientation and Socialization

In this thesis, professional role orientation is posited as
one outcome of the occupational socialization process of teachers.
In its broadest sense, socialization implies both internal and
external changes, or as Gottlieb (1962) states: "... any development
which entails the modification of the self ... through contact with
significant others" (p. 125) can be regarded as socialization.[9]

As Hurley (1978) points out, there does not exist a single
theoretical framework for the study of socialization that is able to
adequately address all questions. However, many of the theoretical
issues may be understood in terms of man's passivity or activity

vis-a-vis social forces.[10]   Accordingly, Wrong (1961) argues that

there has been a somewhat facile acceptance among social scientists

of a view of man as a passive entity upon which normative

influences act (the sum of which represents the fully socialized

individual human being). Wrong's position is that there exists a

dialectic between the autonomous elements of man and those aspects

that are normatively governed.[11]   Therefore, in attempting to

understand socialization, it becomes important to deal with the less-

than-perfect correspondence between the agents and contexts of

socialization and the final outcomes in the "socialized" individual.

As Reitman (1973) observes:

> The fact that roles are functions of the social collective,
> insofar as they imply the expectations of this collective,
> does not in any way, ipso facto, reduce the importance of
> the individual actor's part in determining how to and to what extent
> he will accept the definitions provided by the social
> collective (p. 61).

In this regard, Sherlock and Morris (1967) regard the "selective

receptivity" of individuals as an important consideration in

developing theories of socialization. In other words, objective

variations in socialization settings will never fully explain

differences in socialization outcomes.[12]   This limitation does not,

however, detract from the significance of investigations of

structural variables, such as is undertaken in the present study.

As Brim and Wheeler (1966) explain, that variability in the sociali-

zation arena can be shown to be associated with corresponding changes

in the outcomes of socialization.

While the theoretical bases of both childhood and adult

socialization may be identical, it is important to note some

differences between them. Brim (cited by Hurley, 1978) argues
that adult socialization differs from early socialization in three
ways: adult socialization is limited by the earlier childhood
socialization, the content of the socialization experience is
different, and the relationships between and among the socialization
agents are different. Roscow (1965) conceptualizes adult
socialization as "... the process of initiating new values and
behaviors appropriate to adult positions and group memberships"
(p. 35). Thus, adult socialization can be regarded as more specific
in focus than the values and attitudes that are the goals of child-
hood socialization (Brim and Wheeler, 1966). This implies a need
to postulate what Roscow (1965) calls a target system for the
socialization of adults. In many studies, including this one, that
target system is the set of attitudes that comprises professional
role orientation.

Occupational socialization is one type of adult socialization
which includes the socialization of professionals:

> Socialization ... refers to the learning of social
> roles ... (it) ... refers to the processes through which
> he (the professional) develops his professional self, with
> its characteristic values, attitudes, knowledge and skills"
> (Pease, 1967, p. 63).

Gottlieb (1962) regards the "professional self" as an important
component of the total adult self. "The professional school and
the personnel directly and indirectly associated with it are
significant influences in the formation of the professional self"
(p. 125), he says.

Sherlock and Morris (1967) have developed a model of
professional socialization that encompasses three sequential stages:

recruitment, socialization, and professional outcomes. This

conceptualization places training and apprenticeship experiences

within the context of background factors (recruitment) as they

relate to various skills and values pertinent to the professional

role. This thesis does not deal with recruitment, and investigates

only one kind of socialization outcome, i.e., professional role

orientation.

The present study, however, goes beyond the model described

by Sherlock and Morris by examining formal training in conjunction

with the work setting. This is in line with Lum's (1978) assertion

that professional socialization is a life-long process:

> The fact of the matter is that the initial work experiences
> must be viewed as a continuation of professional socialization
> because it is in this situation ... that role-specific
> behaviors are learned (p. 155).

Both Perucci (1977) and Miller and Wager (1971) have designed

studies that incorporate training as well as workplace variables as

they relate to professional outcomes. These researchers studied

the relationship of graduate training and variations in the work

setting to the professional role orientations of scientists and engineers.

Their results indicated that both graduate study and the workplace

are influential in the fostering of professional role orientation.

The results of Lortie's (1966) study of lawyers also supports the

importance of considering both training and the workplace in

understanding professional socialization:

> It appears very much as if laymen become lawmen only
> partially in law school and that the important transformation
> takes place in the hurly-burly of work after graduation
> (p. 101).

In the area of education, studies have not been located that specifically examine the combined effects of graduate training and workplace variables upon teachers' professional role orientation. However, some research findings support the premise that both formal training as well as work organization variables are important in the development of teacher's work values.[13]

One line of research, that concerning "professional-bureacratic conflict", had investigated professional role orientation as it relates to the workplace.[14] Such studies seem generally to be premised upon two assumptions: there are some aspects of the bureaucratic work setting that are of necessity inimical to the exercise of a professional role and, secondly, that the resolution of the tension between professional and bureaucratic loyalties consists of the adoption by a role incumbent of either a professional or a bureaucratic orientation. It must be emphasized that these assumptions are not made in this study. Certainly the results of investigations in this tradition are at best inconclusive. A few are now reviewed.

Kuhlman and Hoy's (1974) investigation of both secondary and elementary teachers showed that for the latter there was virtually no shifting in the professional and bureaucratic role orientations after one year's experience in the classroom; however, this was not the case for high school teachers. They reasoned that this was a result of a stronger pre-teaching bureaucratic orientation among elementary teachers, as compared to high school teachers. The work of Helsel and Krchniak (1972) showed that a group of experienced teachers demonstrated levels of professional role orientation

similar to those of university students studying education. This
suggests that post-training experiences do not fundamentally alter
the contribution of pre-work experiences to occupational sociali-
zation.

Other authors, however, have strongly asserted that there
exists a fundamental conflict between professionalism and the demands
of the school work setting. Anderson (1968) writes:

> ... un-professional attitudes, though decried by school
> administrators, school boards, and the public are the result of
> bureaucratically structured school systems (p. 170).

Morrison and McIntyre (1967), in their investigation of attitude
change as education students moved from the University to the
classroom concluded:

> ... it is clear that changes during training in the
> direction of increased naturalism, radicalism and tender-
> mindedness are to varying degrees reversed after a single
> year of teaching (p. 162).

Finally, Cohen's (1970) review of many studies in the area lead him
to conclude that "highly bureaucratized schools are inimical to the
development of professionalism" (p. 51).

In summary, there exists research evidence to support the
inclusion of both formal training and post training variables in
studies of professional role orientation. However, the relative
impact of these two arenas of socialization cannot be clearly
discerned from the existing literature. This limitation may be
attributed to differences among professions, as well as to variations
in the selection and conceptualization of the variables measured.
It is to the latter issue that the following two sections are
addressed.

Socialization in Graduate School

At present, there exist only a few studies of the influence
of graduate study upon professional role orientation (Roscow, 1965;
Perucci, 1977; Miller and Wager, 1971). This research, though not
concerned with teachers, has in general demonstrated that graduate
study is related to professional role orientation. Miller and Wager
(1971) concluded that for scientists and engineers "... the type of
role orientation ... was largely the result of differences in the
length and type of educational training they had received" (p. 157).
Similarly, Perucci (1977) found that, graduate study, in comparison
to the workplace, had a stronger impact upon professional role
orientation.

In order to select variables for this study, it was necessary
to abstract some elements of graduate study in general as well as
those peculiar to graduate study in education that may be relevent
to the fostering of professional role orientation. Thus, those
aspects of graduate education that were seen as corresponding to
critical features of the training of professionals were selected
from the literature on the sociology of occupations. Because the
target system for this study is professional role orientation,[15]
the graduate study variables were derived on the basis of their
hypothesized connection to the following aspects of professional
preparation: theory as a basis for practice, collegiality,
opportunity for role enactment, and autonomy. These elements have
been identified in the literature as central to professional
preparation, as the following discussion will show.

According to Rosen and Bates (1967), graduate study is by

no means a standardized, uniform experience. Also, Darley (1962)
notes that while there may be similar formal components among all
types of graduate programs, there is much diversity: "... the hetero-
geneity of participants, of consumers, and of students all converge
to produce a degree of confusion in graduate work not characteris-
tic of other higher education" (p. 206). Graduate programs are
individualized to varying degrees, depending upon the area of study
as well as the disposition of student advisors. Consequently, in
Education, graduate students are able to pursue studies in a number
of departments; they may engage in practica for the development of
specialized skills; they may or may not complete a thesis; and they
may elect part-time or full-time study. It is this set of variables
that will be examined in relation to professional role orientation.
It must be emphasized again that there is a multiplicity of actual
and potential outcomes of graduate education, ranging from the satis-
faction of refining one's analytic skills to sheer credentialism
(moving into a higher salary classification as a result of completing
a graduate degree). This thesis, however, deals with only one
outcome--professional role orientation.

Thesis Completion

Authors such as Broudy (1956), Cogan (1955), Furter (1975),
Weinstock (1970), and Wilensky (1964) have argued for the central
role of theory in the work of professionals. In Parsons' (1968)
terms, it is the element of "cognitive rationality" that exists as
the primary value system for those occupations that are regarded as
professions. In education, it is often the alleged absence of a

strong theoretical orientation that has led sociologists to conclude that teaching is either not a profession, or that, at best, it is a semi-profession (Etzioni, 1969). Broudy (1956) asserts that the teacher must develop a "new image" such that "... he has traversed a course of training that has intellectual substance and requires a higher order of intellectual competence ..." (p. 184). Similarly, Cox and Ellmore (1976) argue that teaching will progress from a semi-profession to a full profession only when "longer and more stringent" preparation programs are developed upon the basis of educational theory. Furter (1975) associates "intellectual identity" with the concept of "professional identity".

It is an assumption of this study that thesis completion calls for a degree of mastery of theory that is not required for other aspects of graduate study. Of course, this distinction is likely more one of degree than kind; such activities as the completion of papers and writing comprehensive examinations require the student to be conversant with theory as well. The distinctive-ness of thesis work, however, lies in its deliberate application of theory to systematic investigation of a significant problem. In view of the fact that thesis projects are often regarded as making some contribution to the "existing body of knowledge", it becomes all the more important for the writer of a thesis to have mastered the theoretical basis upon which he is making a contribution.

That the thesis represents an exercise in research is also important in relation to professionalism. Thus, Frymier (1966) regards the element of systematic investigation as essential to the designation of "professional": "... characteristic of every group

that is truly professional is that its members build their practice
and base their methods on the best that men know: research"
(p. 18). Ornstein (1977) states that one of the limitations of the
development of fuller teacher professionalism is related to his
assertion that teachers have "... limited contact hours in research
and statistics" (p. 139). Williams (1953) regards an ongoing
involvement with research as one feature of professional occupations.
In a similar vein, Lieberman (1956) argues that an understanding of
the methodology of research is central to the professions: "...
teacher education can be justly criticised for its failure to
produce teachers who read educational research after they have
completed formal academic requirements for teaching" (p. 195).

Full-time Study

The completion of a period of full-time graduate study
(beyond that of summer sessions) was selected as a variable relevant
to the fostering of professional role orientation because of the
opportunity it affords for heightened interaction with other
students and faculty. The graduate student who opts for a residency
experience is usually assigned a study space in or near the department
of study, in common with other graduate students and professors. The
part-time student, on the other hand, is less likely to experience
a sense of belonging to the group; enrolment in courses over an
extended period of time is likely less continuous (as least in terms
of class members). Furthermore, contact with professors, especially
of the informal type, is also less likely for the part-time student,
as geographical distance and full-time work provides restrictions
as to such interactions.

The importance of such contact for professional sociali-
zation is emphasized by a number of authors (Sherlock and Morris,
1967; Gottlieb, 1962; Roaden and Larimore, 1973; Lum, 1978; Krause,
1971; Pease, 1967). These authors argue how the degree of intensive
contact with "significant others" is related to the development of
a particular set of values and attitudes--what Pease (1967) calls
"ethics, ideals, norms and protocols" of the profession. As Hurley
(1978) has summarized, this perspective, with its emphasis on
primary group interaction, differs from such perspectives as those
of Linton(1936) who regards socialization as the enactment of
prescribed roles.

Thus, it is hypothesized that as a result of full-time study,
the students' colleagues--both faculty and students--become more
potent as a reference group (Lum, 1978). Shibutani's (1955)
discussion of reference groups is relevant here. His working
definition of a reference group is "... a group whose perspective is
used as a frame of reference ..." (p. 562). Such a conceptualization
seems particularly relevant to professional occupations--collegial
groups are seen as being important influences upon the professional's
work. Therefore, it is argued that for the part-time graduate
student, the impact of graduate school as a socialization experience
is reduced, when compared to the full-time student. There is less
likelihood for a new initiation to be perceived by the part-time
student as he completes the various requirements for his graduate
degree.

Practicum

The importance of opportunities for role enactment in the
course of professional training has been asserted by a number of
writers (Pavalko and Holley, 1974; Roaden and Larimore, 1973;
Yarmolinsky, 1978; Kadushin, 1969). For Yarmolinsky (1978),
professional training requires an articulation of theory and
practice; professionals owe allegiance to both their clients and
their intellectual tradition. Both Kadushin (1969) and Pavalko and
Holley (1974) found that an important element in the fostering of
a professional self-concept in their samples of non-educators was
the opportunity for students to "practice".

> Anticipatory socialization takes place only when the social
> structure of the school allows one actually to play the role
> that will eventually be one's full-time career. (Kadushin,
> 1969, p. 403).

The practice-teaching experience that typifies undergraduate
training in education is, of course, designed precisely for such
role enactment opportunities. For purposes of this study, however,
the graduate practicum is seen as differing from the latter in three
respects. First, there is likely to be a stronger articulation of
theory and practice in graduate courses than is the case for under-
graduate practice teaching (Pavalko and Holley, 1974). At the
graduate level, it may be speculated that professors are more likely
to assume students' facility with theory and hence there will be a
stronger emphasis upon its application to practice. A second
difference is related to the lower enrolments that characterize
graduate courses. The professor-student ratio is likely, in graduate
courses, to be at a level more in line with the intensive internship

experiences that are typical of such professions as medicine.[16]

In this regard, Lieberman (1956) emphasizes: "If practice teaching is to be a genuine professional internship, it should be taken under the supervision of those who give the theoretical training" (p. 20). The third distinction between undergraduate practice teaching and graduate practica lies in the potential for the graduate student's re-definition of his function as an Educator. This is especially the case if the practicum involves the fostering of specialized skills. Lortie (1973) emphasizes that much of teacher socialization takes place before actual formal training; prospective teachers develop their professional skills while being students in the public school system. What this means is that formal teacher training programs largely allow teachers to enact a role that they have been "learning" for over twelve years. It is argued here that completion of a graduate practicum in an area such as counselling or special education may lead to a re-definition of teaching and a consequent heightened sense of professionalism: the possession of "specialized knowledge" leads to autonomy vis-a-vis administrators who are generalists, observes Lortie (1969). A similar argument is presented by Katz (1964): "The greater degree of specialized knowledge required of the incumbent of a position, the less discipline is exercised over the position". (p. 436)[17]

Autonomy in Graduate Study

It has been argued that autonomy is the sine qua non of professionalism (Marjoribanks, 1977; Hall, 1968). Accordingly, the degree to which graduate study is experienced as involving

independent actions and choices is hypothesized as being related to

graduate students' values about autonomy—values that will be

reflected in their professional role orientation.

Both Perucci (1977) and Pavalko and Holley (1974) have

studied the relationship of autonomy in graduate study to

professional role orientation. Perucci's indicators of graduate

study autonomy centered upon the level of independence in the

selection of a major professor, as well as the degree of supervision

experienced in thesis work. For Pavalko and Holley's study,

autonomy was operationalized in terms of graduate students'

discretion in the graduate teaching assistant role. In both of

these studies, a positive relationship was demonstrated between

graduate study autonomy and professional attitudes. In fact, Perucci

found that, of all the graduate study variables, autonomy was most

strongly related to professional role orientation. Becker's (1964)

statement emphasizes the role of autonomy in professional training

for medical students:

> The reason for students' lack of interest and devotion
> becomes clear when we consider their frequent complaint that
> they are not allowed to exercise individual responsibility,
> to make critical decisions, or carry out important
> procedures (p. 51).

Length of Graduate Study

Studies of the teaching occupation (Nixon and Gue, 1975;

Hrynyk, 1966), and other occupations (Perucci, 1977; Miller and

Wager, 1971) indicate that length of time in formal preparation

programs is positively related to the fostering of professional role

orientation. Using time as a variable allows for an analysis of the

overall impact of graduate study upon the socialization outcome of professional role orientation, more or less regardless of the nature of the graduate studies.

Workplace Socialization

As has been argued previously, the understanding of professional orientation involves a consideration of the nature of the practitioner's work context. In this thesis, the following dimensions of the workplace are considered: collegiality, autonomy, and supervision. The relationships between each of these variables and professional role orientation are now discussed.

Collegiality

In this study, it is hypothesized that there is a link between the degree of collegiality experienced by a teacher and his professional role orientation. Thelan's (1973) argument is supportive of this assertion:

> The only way to generate the profession is through inter-
> action of the various parts. They must give each other
> information, share experience, plan together and take part in
> all that we usually mean by formal and informal communication
> (p. 301).

In other words, intensity of interaction with significant others (i.e., fellow professionals) is seen as influencing the degree to which the colleague group assumes significance as a point of reference. Knowledge of, and reliance upon, the competencies of fellow professionals is therefore related to the acceptance of competence as a cornerstone of authority in the workplace.

Hoyle's analysis of collaboration among teachers is

interesting in that he draws a distinction between collaboration and traditional conceptions of autonomy, especially as these relate to the classroom context. It is not that collaboration is antithetical to autonomy; what is involved is a re-definition of what professional autonomy means for teachers: "Collaborative teaching and collaborative decision-making both involve a loss of teacher autonomy but increased potentiality for teacher control" (Hoyle, 1975, p. 317). The case of team teaching likely exemplifies these notions of Hoyle. It implies a degree of specialization--each member of the team contributes his speciality to the whole. As Marcus (1971) notes: "Specialization is the initial locus around which coalitions form" (p. 201).[18] This is consistent with Wilensky's (1964) statement that there exist two norms related to professional colleague relationships: maintenance of professional standards with awareness of one's limitations as a practitioner (with the concomitant use of fellow professionals' particular skills). What is important regarding these forms of collaboration is that:

> Not all teachers work alone.... Analysis of schools where team teaching has been in effect for some years might reveal incipient professionalism as collegial ties replace isolation and team leaders occupy leadership roles within the teaching force (Lortie, 1969, p. 45).

However, there is a theme quite prevalent in the literature related to teaching as an occupation which Willower (1969), Hargreaves (1978), and Lortie (1975) have all identified. It is that teachers in general tend to approach their work as individuals and do not rely upon the competencies of their fellows in the solution of work-related problems:

> I do not mean that teachers lack friends. I refer
> rather to the non-supportive relationships among teachers,
> which leaves each one to solve his own problems. The
> informal rule among teachers is that every teacher is king
> in his own classroom. Any interference which threatens that
> autonomy is not to be tolerated (Hargreaves, 1978, p. 540).

Lortie (1975) observes that while teachers may engage in

co-operative relationships from time to time, there is little

in the way of the joint assumption of responsibility: "Control

by colleagues is blocked by norms of live and let live and help

upon invitation only" (p. 201). Lortie's choice of words is rather

significant--"control" in this context refers to the impact that

fellow professionals have upon each other's work, a control that

derives not from position, but from competence.[19] Lortie (1975)

concludes that there exists an acute lack of work-related solidarity

among teachers: "We did not encounter talk about system-wide

resources--about the importance of combining the contribution of

individuals into a more effective whole" (p. 201).

Workplace Autonomy

That autonomy is central to the concept of "profession" has

already been noted. In this study, it is important to distinguish

between the autonomy achieved by a particular occupation at large--

a structural feature--and the level of discretion accorded to, or

achieved by, an individual practitioner (Engle, 1970). Furthermore,

there is a distinction between personal autonomy and occupational

autonomy:

> Personal autonomy is freedom to conduct tangential work
> activities in a normative manner in accordance with one's
> own discretion. Work-related autonomy for the professional
> is freedom to practice his profession in accordance with his
> training (Engel, 1970, p. 12).

Thus, professional autonomy must not be construed as licence, a matter of highly individualistic and whimsical action; rather it denotes a basing of work decisions upon the norms and standards of the professional group: "Professional autonomy, _qua_ professional, is based upon decisions which require theoretical knowledge and skill in the area of the group's special expertise" (McPeck and Sanders, 1974, p. 64). It is significant to note that those who have characterized teaching as a semi-profession (Lortie, 1969; Ritzer, 1977; Etzioni, 1969) have tended to attribute this status to the limitations of teacher autonomy.

In the past, it has been a frequent claim that any bureaucratic structure serves to constrain the exercise of professional autonomy. Research evidence, however, has failed to support such a generalization. Engel (1970) found that "moderate" bureaucracies were perceived by physicians as supportive of their autonomy, while both "high" and "low" bureaucracies were seen as detrimental to it. Marjoribanks (1977) found that some bureaucratic aspects of school organization were supportive of professionalism among teachers, so long as there was not restriction upon their exercise of autonomy. As Packwood (1977:4) has observed: "It (the hierarchy) can accommodate professionals, and professional free-dom and it is capable of recognizing, nurturing, and responding to its members' needs..." Thus, while it is not impossible for professionals to be autonomous in organizations, the degree of auto-nomy they experience does indeed relate to organizational factors.

There has been a good deal of speculation as well as some

research focusing upon teacher autonomy. The simple question of "how much autonomy is a teacher able to exercise?" cannot be answered without reference to the arena in which it is to be exercised. Thus, Dreeben (1973) and Westwood (1967) have argued that teachers actually enjoy a high level of autonomy, so long as only the day to day routines of the classroom are considered. Yet when the focus shifts to decision-making outside of the classroom, there is lack of clarity as to who is in control. Dreeben (1973) writes:

> ... it (teaching) is not an autonomous profession nor is it a bureaucratized occupation; the prevailing conflicts frequently develop between the vaguely defined jurisdictional lines separating teachers and administrators (p. 453).

Hanson's (1979) "interacting spheres model" of authority relationships within the school is also based upon this conceptualization.[20]

Lieberman (1956) has provided an extensive analysis of the legitimate areas for the exercise of autonomy by a teaching occupation that would have achieved full professional status. His list includes a broad range of items; from the determination of classroom enrolment by the teacher to the granting of teaching credentials by the teaching profession. A comparison of this ideal list with present day realities is likely to lead one to conclude that teachers are experiencing a minumum of professional autonomy. Simpkins and Friesen's (1970) research is supportive of this conclusion: "... decisions relating to curriculum and organizational matters were made by others in the school or school system...." (p. 37).

In this study, it is hypothesized that the level of autonomy perceived by teachers in their day to day work will be related to their professional role orientation and particularly to those aspects that deal with the professional autonomy of the teaching profession. In other words, it is argued that to the extent that teachers are able to exercise professional discretion in their work, they will be more likely to perceive their occupation as professional in nature. It should be noted that while the operationalization of the variable of "workplace autonomy" centers about the day to day realities of teaching, both within and beyond the classroom, it is beyond the scope of this study to deal with other dimensions of autonomy, such as teacher certification.

Professional Supervision

In this thesis, the nature of supervision is examined in terms of the qualifications of the supervisor as well as the content of the supervision. In regard to the former, a key component of professionalism is that supervisory legitimacy derives from competence, rather than position:

> ... compatability between bureaucratic and professional authority is possible if the area of control is viewed as legitimate and the superordinates are respected for their professional expertise (Morrisey and Gillespie, 1975, p. 322).

In support of this principle, Badawy (1973) found that the greatest source of conflict for professionals within organizations was the locus of organizational authority.[21] There is evidence that teachers value authority based upon competence to a relatively high level; Peabody's (1962) study of social workers, law enforcement officers,

and teachers is one example. As early as 1953, a time when teacher

militancy was less common than today, Becker (1953) emphasized that

school principals must remain aware of teachers' norms regarding

their competence-based authority:

> The need for recognition of their independent professional
> authority informs teachers' conceptions of the principal's
> supervisory role. It is legitimate for him to give professionals
> criticism, but only in a way that preserves this professional
> authority (p. 137).

Later work by Corwin (1970), who characterized the pursuit of

teacher professionalism as a militant process, asserted that most

principals are not in a position to evaluate teachers.[22]

The second element of supervision dealt with in this study

is the content of the supervision, specifically the degree to which

development as a professional is emphasized by the supervisor.

Thornton (1970) found that among community college instructors there

was less incompatability between their commitment to the local

community college and to their profession when supervisory criteria

were characterized as professional in nature.[23] Other researchers

(Hewitson, 1976; Miller, 1967), while not specifically concerned

with professional role orientation, have incorporated this aspect of

supervision into their research design, suggesting it as an

important element in the supervision of professionals. Thus, it is

hypothesized that professional role orientation is related to the

degree to which supervision is seen as based upon competency-based

criteria: the supervisor's qualifications and the emphasis by the

supervisor upon the teacher's development as a professional.

Summary

The main purpose of this Chapter has been to outline the theoretical rationale for the selection of the problem and its variables. It was argued that two important aspects of professional socialization are the formal training and the work context. Furthermore, it was shown that professional socialization involves not only the development of skills and knowledge, but also a set of work attitudes, which, taken together, constitute professional role orientation. While some research on teacher socialization has examined under-graduate training and initial work experience, there exists virtually no research into the impact of graduate study upon the professional attitudes of teachers. As well, certain critical aspects of the professional workplace have not been examined in terms of professional role orientation.

The graduate study variables were selected for their hypothesized relationship to some important elements of professional socialization: theory as a basis for practice, opportunities for role enactment, opportunities for primary group type interaction with significant others, and autonomy. The following were determined as some unique aspects of the work organization of professionals: collegiality, autonomy, and competence-based supervision. These elements constituted the workplace variables.

The rationale for the selection of the graduate study and workplace variables can be summarized as follows. Thesis completion, because of its involvement with theoretical work, is seen as heightening a sensitivity to theory as a basis for practice.

The graduate practicum was selected because of its potential to allow for opportunities to acquire higher level professional skills and possibly re-define professional functions. Full-time graduate study serves as an operational proxy for interaction with significant others, thus strengthening bonds with fellow educators. The overall impact of graduate study is measured by using amount of graduate study as a variable. Two of the workplace variables, collegiality and autonomy, were selected because of their similarity to full-time graduate study and graduate study autonomy, respectively. Finally, the two supervision variables deal with some important elements of professional supervision: competency as a basis for authority and the supervisor's perceived emphasis upon the development of professional competencies on the part of the teacher.

Thus, the key question of this study deals with the relationship of a set of graduate study and workplace variables upon teachers' professional role orientation. In other words, to the extent that the graduate school and the workplace display certain features which are thought to be important to professional socialization, is there an impact upon professional attitudes? Figure 2 presents the research model relevant to the research question. It will be noted that professional role orientation, in its five dimensions, serves as the dependent or criterion variable, while the graduate study and workplace variables are viewed as independent or predictor variables. Furthermore, the model depicts the workplace variables as intervening between the graduate study and professional role orientation variables. This allows for a determination of the indirect effects of graduate study through the workplace, in

addition to the direct effects of both the graduate study

and workplace variables upon professional role orientation.

Figure 2

The Research Model

Graduate Study

Thesis

Autonomy

Full-time Study

Amount

Practicum

Workplace

Collegiality

Autonomy

Supervision

Professional Role Orientation

Autonomy--Professional vs. Layman

Employee and Professional Autonomy

Responsibility to Students--Learning

Responsibility to Students--Formation of Values and Attitudes

Active Intellectual Orientation
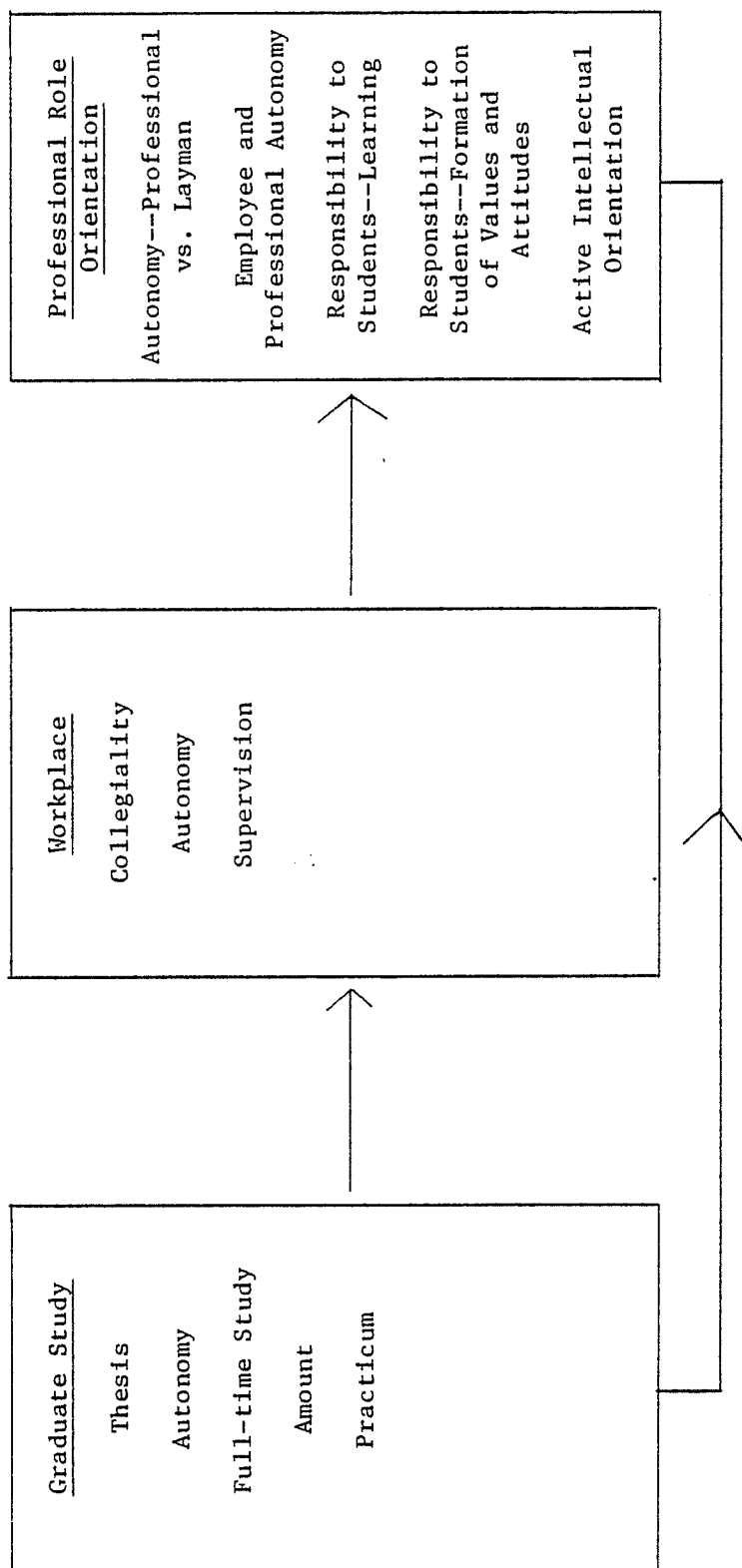
Endnotes

[1] Becker's (1962) analysis of the honorific and symbolic nature of professionalism emphasizes its' value dimensions.

[2] Two sources that develop this point of view are Jackson (1972) and Krause (1971).

[3] For an example of a case study utilizing the power perspective, see Watson's (1976) discussion of the professionalization of personnel managers. See also Freidson (1971) and Benson (1973) for commentary.

[4] In Working--Conflict and Change, Ritzer (1977) develops a third perspective, based upon the "process" of professionalization.

[5] As early as 1951 (Neiman and Hughes), the concept of role had engendered much confusion. These authors attest to the importance of "role" in relation to symbolic interactionism, however, they saw its use as "nebulous and non-definitive", concluding their discussion with a rhetorical question to the effect that the term had become an ad hoc explanation of human behavior.

[6] Roscow (1965) argues that "while conformity (in both values and behavior) may be highly correlated within a system ... people behave inconsistently with their values and hold beliefs which belie their actions" (p. 36).

[7] In constructing Figure 1, it was necessary to take some licence regarding the labeling of the factors; there is little consensus among the researchers as to the specific words which should be used to label the various dimensions of professional role orientation.

[8] This is an important consideration, especially in view of the earlier discussion regarding the range of meanings applied to professionalism (that may be incorporated into one scale). Robinson (1966) emphasizes this limitation of his own scale at the conclusion of his dissertation.

[9] Lacey's (1977) discussion of the functionalist and conflict perspectives in Sociology emphasizes that the functionalists' position can be traced to Durkheim who sought to determine "social facts". Other sociologists, (those of the Interpretive School), de-emphasize predictability and seek out the causes of un-predictability.

[10]Such a conceptualization is consistent with the symbolic interactionist paradigm of George Herbert Mead (Mead, 1934).

[11]See Hollis', _Models of Man_ for an extended discussion of this question.

[12]Sherlock and Morris (1967) emphasize how certain social and psychological processes such as imitation and introjection are subsumed within what they refer to as "molar institutional processes." In one sense, there exists a limitation in this thesis in that the independent and intervening variables are structural--they do not deal directly with socio-psychological processes.

[13]Flizak (1968) makes a particularly strong case for the influence of school factors upon teachers' work values, observing that there "... seems to be greater differences among teachers of different schools than among teachers of the same school" and concludes that "the organizational structure of schools is significantly related to certain Psychological, Sociological and Educational orientations of teachers" (p. 4). In this regard, it is of particular interest to note some of the discontinuity that has been found between the formal training and the work setting following formal training. Abrahamson (1967) refers to this as "shock". Hoy (1967) demonstrated a shift in the pupil control ideology of teachers as they accrued teaching experience. Lortie's (1973) investigations emphasized the importance of post-training socialization for teachers: "One of the striking features of teaching as an occupation is its inseparability from the organizational context of the school" (p. 482).

[14]Thornton (1971) provides a good background to this topic. He notes that while Weber regarded the modern bureaucracy as premised upon knowledge as a source of authority; Parsons, Gouldner, and Etzioni argue that there are tensions between expertise and hierarchy. Benson (1973) applies a dialectical perspective to professional-bureaucratic conflict, asserting that the latter is merely a mask for more fundamental contradicitons that exist in organizations. An excellent summary is provided by Ritzer in _Working--Conflict and Change_. A good example of a typical study in this vein is the work of Sorenson and Sorenson (1974) who concluded that, for accountants, higher bureaucratic positions were associated with decreased professionalism. See also Kramer's (1968) study of nurses, where it was shown that members of this occupation experienced tension in making the adjustment from student-nurse to nurse.

[15]This does not deny that there exist a number of other outcomes, for example, the "scientific self-concept", as developed by Clifton (1976) in a doctoral dissertation.

[16]A related concept is the "clinical component" referred to by Reitman (1973) as "playful, experimental involvement with youngsters and other significant persons in the real-life teaching situation itself" (p. 71).

[17]Lum (1978) argues that along with specialization there develops a technical language that serves to "confirm an occupational identity" (p. 149).

[18]For an extended discussion of professionalism as it relates to teamwork, see Marklund (1976) and Williams (1953).

[19]Corwin (1965) emphasizes this distinction in differentiating an employee from a professional orientation.

[20]Martin (1975) argues that if one wishes to understand teacher autonomy, one must look at specific arenas of decision-making and analyze the nature of power relationships: "The issue of teacher autonomy and control is an old and complex one which can be fruitfully analyzed by systematically studying how much power each actor has in a given interaction and why" (p. 3).

[21]This does not imply that authority of position is never associated with authority of competence; i.e., a person occupying a hierarchical position may, in fact, be exercising an authority of competence.

[22]Harkin (1970) goes so far as to suggest that the principal should not even attempt to be the pedagogical superior due to the heavy demands on the principal's time. Croft (1966) found that teachers tended to turn to each other for professional guidance rather than to their principals; the latter was seen as being more properly concerned with such areas as budget and co-ordination (as opposed to instructional leadership).

[23]Thornton's (1970) studies of community college instructors demonstrated the importance of well-qualified superiors in mitigating conflict between organizational demands and professional norms.

Chapter 3

MEASUREMENT OF THE VARIABLES AND THE SAMPLE

The purpose of this chapter is to describe how the
theoretical model developed in Chapter 2 was operationalized. In
order to empirically investigate the hypothesized relationships
identified in the model, it was necessary to establish empirical
measures for the variables, as well as to define the sample form the
which data were elicited.

In the first section of this chapter, the construction of the
independent and dependent variables is described: this includes the
development of the questionnaire items and the subsequent analyses
leading to regrouping and/or elimination items. The second part
of this chapter deals with the determination and characteristics of
the sample of this study.

Measurement of the Independent Variables

As outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, there are two categories of
independent variables; graduate study and workplace. The following
sections describe how they were operationalized in the study.

For each graduate study and workplace variable, the
discussion begins with a presentation of the items which were
initially designed to measure a particular variable and included in
the study questionnaire. Following this, some analysis of the
responses to the questionnaire items is presented. For a number of

variables, factor analytic procedures were utilized to determine, on the basis of intercorrelations among items, how a set of items may be grouped into factors or components. The factors thus extracted reflect the degree to which the items measure a particular construct. Also, it allows one to eliminate items that are not strongly related to a particular factor or factors, and hence, it leads to parsimonious item reduction; that is, those questionnaire items that were not strongly related to others measuring a variable were either eliminated or included in a different set of items measuring another variable.

For each variable in which factor analysis was utilized, a correlation matrix of the items retained for the measurement of the particular variable is presented. This is followed by the presentation of a factor matrix. The factor loadings shown in the tables indicate the degree to which the items relate to the measured variable. The final table for each variable presents the descriptive statistics relevant to the final item pool. Inspection of this data allows one to check specific assumptions about the nature of the particular distribution of data for each variable.

Graduate Study Variables

There are five variables in this category: thesis completion, amount of graduate study, full-time study, completion of a graduate practicum, and autonomy in graduate study.

Thesis completion. To ascertain whether or not the respondent's graduate study included thesis work, the following single question was posed:

Did your graduate program include a thesis requirement?

Yes _____   No _____

Of the respondents, 63 percent had completed a thesis, while 37 percent had not.

Amount of graduate study. Measurement of this variable is somewhat problematic in that it is difficult to establish a criterion that allows for comparison across a wide diversity of graduate programs. It was decided that the term, "credit hours" would be relevant to most graduate study programs. Therefore, respondents were asked to estimate the number of graduate credit hours completed; guidelines were provided to establish a common interpretation of "credit hours":

> Please estimate the total number of credit hours of graduate study you have completed: (1 credit hour = 10-12 contact hours; 6 credit hours = full course; 3 credit hours = half course)

Table 1 presents the regrouped responses to this item. As the initial range of credit hours was quite large, it was necessary to regroup on a five point scale that would approximate a normal distribution. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics pertinent to the recoded data; an inspection of the values of kurtosis and skewness indicates that the data are normally distributed.

Table 1

Regrouped Data of the Amount
of Graduate Training Variable

	Raw data	Recoding	Percentage
17	credit hours or less	1	10.6
18-24	credit hours	2	17.1
25-50	credit hours	3	48.8
51-90	credit hours	4	14.6
91	credit hours or more	5	8.9

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Amount of
Graduate Training Variable

Mean	2.94	Standard error	.09
Mode	3.00	Standard deviation	1.05
Kurtosis	-.09	Skewness	.03
Missing cases	42	Maximum	5.00
		Minimum	1.00

Full-time study. The following two questions were included
to ascertain whether or not the respondent had been involved in full-
time graduate study as well as to guage the length of this period:

In your graduate work, did you complete a period of full-
time study in which your main occupation was graduate
study?

Yes _____   No_____

If yes, what was the length of this period of full-time
study?

_____ 4 months

_____ 8 months

_____ more than 8 months of consecutive full-time
study

Responses to this question indicated that nearly 53 percent

respondents had completed full-time study.

Graduate practicum. Whether or not the respondent had

completed a practicum at the graduate level was determined by one

question:

> Did you complete a practicum (practica) at the graduate
> level?

> Yes ____   No____

In the questionnaire, this question was preceded by the following

definition of "practicum": "a unit of work done by an advanced

university student that involves the practical application of theory".

As Table 19 shows, nearly 40% of the sample had completed a practicum.

Graduate study autonomy. The conceptual background for the

development of these questionnaire items derives from the work of

Perucci (1977) and Pavalko and Holley (1974). In the following list

of questions, the first set refers to graduate study in general,

while the second relates specifically to thesis work.

General Aspects:

How was your graduate advisor determined?

> 1   2   3   4   5
> my own   negotiated   appointed
> choice

To what extent did graduate studies allow you to pursue your
own academic interests?

> 1   2   3   4   5
> minimally   somewhat   to a great extent

What degree of flexibility did you experience in establishing
your graduate program?

> 1   2   3   4   5
> mimimal   some   a great deal
> flexibility   flexibility   of flexibility

<u>Thesis Work</u>:

How much freedom did you experience in selecting your thesis topic?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal freedom		some freedom		a great deal of freedom

How much supervision did you experience in your thesis work:

1	2	3	4	5
minimal supervision		some supervision		a great deal of supervision

This pool of items was factor analyzed using a principal components analysis. It was found that the two items dealing with advisor selection and individual interests formed one factor; however, subsequent principal component analyses failed to support the creation of a separate independent factor comprised of the other three items. It may be that respondents tended to regard questions concerning "advisor" as specifically related to thesis work, thus explaining why "selection of advisor" does not load on the same factor as the other items designed to measure general aspects of autonomy in graduate study. It may also be argued that the items dealing with selection of a thesis topic, freedom in thesis work, and selection of an advisor focus upon quite specific and discrete dimensions of graduate study, as opposed to the overall perspective of the two other items. Tables 3 and 4 present the statistics related to the factor analyses. The descriptive statistics of the variable thus constructed (i.e., the two items dealing with flexibility of program and individual interests) are presented in Table 5. Although somewhat negatively skewed, the data approximate a normal distribution.

Table 3

Intercorrelation Between the Two Items Comprising
the Graduate Study Autonomy Scale

Items	1	2
1. Pursuing Individual Interests		.70
2. Flexibility in Program		

Table 4

Factor Matrix of the Two Items
Comprising Graduate Study Autonomy Scale

Items	Factor Loadings
1. Pursuing Individual Interests	.88
2. Flexibility in Program	.88

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Graduate
Study Autonomy Scale

Mean	6.94	Standard error	.20
Mode	8.00	Standard deviation	2.38
Kurtosis	-.41	Skewness	-.61
Minimum	2.00	Maximum	10.00
Missing Cases	18		

Workplace Variables

There are three kinds of variables in this section: collegiality, professional supervision, and workplace autonomy. As in the preceding section, each variable is discussed as to initial item development and subsequent analysis for purposes of item reduction.

Collegiality. Three questionnaire items were created to measure the degree to which collegiality characterized the respondent's present work assignment:

> To what extent do you rely upon the competencies of your immediate colleagues in the course of your day-to-day work?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | minimally | | somewhat | | to a great extent |
>
> To what extent do you contribute your skills and competencies to your colleagues' day-do-day work?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | minimally | | somewhat | | to a great extent |
>
> To what extent do you agree with this statement: "A person who cannot work co-operatively within a team would not remain on staff at my present place of employment"?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | minimally | | somewhat | | to a great extent |

The first two items were designed to focus upon the reciprocal exchange of skills and competencies among staff members, while the third attempts to measure the respondent's perception of the overall work context in relation to collegiality.

As a result of the factor analytic procedures, it was determined that the third question listed above (i.e., dealing with the statement regarding co-operative work) be eliminated from the

set. It may be that respondents do not necessarily equate "contributing competencies" with "working within a team". Indeed, it is possible to conceive of co-workers drawing upon one another's skills in the absence of the kind of contact that may be understood as "teamwork". Furthermore, the format of the third item (the one eliminated) varies significantly from that of the other two; that is, the third item is worded in such a way as to imply some administrative intervention. Table 6 presents the correlations between the items, and Table 7 shows the factor loadings supporting the construction of this variable. Table 8 shows statistics that are supportive of the assumption that the data for this variable are normally distributed.

Table 6

Intercorrelation Between the Two Items
Comprising the Collegiality Scale

Items	1	2
1. Rely on Colleagues		.54
2. Contribute to Colleagues		

Table 7

Factor Matrix of the Two Items Comprising
the Collegiality Scale

Items	Factor Loadings
1. Rely on Colleagues	.81
2. Contribute to Colleagues	.87

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for the Collegiality Scale

Mean	5.59	Standard Error	.17
Mode	6.00	Standard Deviation	2.12
Kurtosis	-.44	Skewness	.08
Minimum	2.00	Maximum	10.00
Missing Cases	1		

Professional supervision. As used in this study, this
variable was measured by the respondents' judgement of the qualifi-
cations of the supervisor relative to those of the respondent as
well as the degree to which professional growth is emphasized by
the supervisor. The work of Thornton (1970) with community college
instructors provided the basis for the questions related to the
first element--respondents were asked to compare their supervisor's
amount of formal education, area of specialization, and area of
experience to their own. The two items relevant to the content of
supervision are adaptations of Hewitson's (1976) measure of "pro-
motion of professional development" as one component of his measures
of supervisory practices in schools. The items are as follows:

Supervisor's Qualifications:

Preamble: Think for a moment about the person who as
a supervisor or administrator, is most influential in
determining the way you carry out your present work. In
your estimation, how does this person's amount of education,
area of specialization, and work experience compare to
your own?

Amount of formal education:

```
    1              2           3            4           5
considerably                about the              considerably
less than mine              same as mine           more than mine
```

Area of specialization in formal education:

```
    1              2           3            4           5
  entirely                  somewhat               identical
  different                 similar to             to my own
from my own                 my own
```

Work experience:

```
    1              2           3            4           5
  entirely                  somewhat               identical
  different                 similar to             to my own
from my own                 my own
```

Content of Supervision:

Preamble: When you are supervised, to what extent are the
following elements emphasized by your supervisor:

Development of your professional competencies:

```
    1              2           3            4           5
minimally                   somewhat               to a great extent
```

Your participation in activities which serve the profession
at large:

```
    1              2           3            4           5
minimally                   somewhat               to a great extent
```

The computation of a correlation matrix and the subsequent
factor analyses led to the conclusion that there exist two independent
factors within this item pool: two questions dealing with qualifi-
cations (area of specialization and experience) form one cluster;
the two items dealing with the content of supervision form another
cluster. Thus, two scales were created from the original item pool—
"Qualifications of Supervisor" and "Content of Supervision". It
will be noted that this grouping is quite consistent with the

conceptualization of this variable. It is interesting that the
first item, dealing with amount of education is un-related to the
other measures. This may be as a result of a diminished emphasis
among those in the sample in the sheer amount of education;
perhaps for these "specialists" (all those in the sample had some
graduate training), specialization of the supervisor is a more
salient feature. Tables 9 and 10 present the statistics relevant
to the factor analyses leading to the creation of the two scales.
In Tables 11 and 12 the statistics for the data pertinent to the
scales are presented.

Table 9

Intercorrelations Among the Four Items Retained from
Professional Supervision Item Pool

Items	1	2	3	4
Supervisor's Qualifications				
1. Area of Specialization		.48	.08	-.06
2. Experience			-.03	-.12
Content of Supervision				
3. Development of Competencies				.30
4. Participation in Professional Activities				

Table 10

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for the Four Items Retained
from the Professional Supervision Scale

| | Factor Loadings | |
Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
Supervisor's Qualifications		
1. Area of Specialization	.81	.07
2. Experience	.60	-.11
Content of Supervision		
3. Development of Competencies	.05	.63
4. Participation in Professional Activities	-.18	.48

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for the
"Supervisor's Qualifications" Scale

Mean	4.38	Standard error	.12
Mode	6.00	Standard deviation	1.47
Kurtosis	-1.23	Skewness	-.34
Minimum	2.00	Maximum	10.00
Missing Cases	5		

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for the
"Content of Supervision" Scale

Mean	5.29	Standard error	.18
Mode	6.00	Standard deviation	2.26
Kurtosis	-.26	Skewness	-.07
Minimum	2.00	Maximum	10.00
Missing Cases	0		

Workplace autonomy. The operationalization of this variable
draws upon the work of Samuels (1970) and Bishop and Carlton (1971).
The latter's definition of professional autonomy as the "ability ...
to schedule and manage time in relation to ... responsibilities ...
and professional judgement" is the basis for the first question.
The remaining three items are a condensation of those developed by
Samuels in her study of teacher autonomy.

> To what extent are you free to adjust your schedule as you
> deem fit?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | minimally | | somewhat | | to a great extent |
>
> How much freedom do you have in selecting materials or
> resources for your work?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | very little | | some | | a great deal |
>
> How much flexibility do you have in the application of
> curriculum guidelines (or other such policy statements) in
> your work?
>
> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | very little | | some | | a great deal |

To what extent do you agree with this statement: "I am accountable for the outcomes of my work; however, I am free to utilize my professional judgement regarding the means to achieve those goals."?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

As a result of factor analyses, the workplace autonomy scale was revised to include only two items—those dealing with flexibility of curriculum and professional judgement. It can be seen from Table 13, that the question dealing with selection of resources correlates fairly highly with these two items; however, Table 14 shows that this item loads nearly equally on two factors. Therefore, using only the two questions concerned with flexibility in curriculum and professional discretion emphasizes the notion of free, flexible application of autonomous professional judgement. While the other items may measure aspects of this, the focus may be too specific, hence not strongly related to the overall sense of professional autonomy. Table 15 presents the statistics for the revised workplace autonomy scale, i.e., the two items dealing with flexibility in the application of curriculum guidelines and professional judgement.

Measurement of the Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is professional role orientation. As described in Chapter 2, this construct may be understood as unitary or it may be construed as a set of inter-correlated factors. The argument has been made that past research supports a multidimensional approach to the measurement of professional role orientation. This section describes the process

Table 13

Intercorrelations Among the Three Items Comprising the
Original Workplace Autonomy Scale

Items	1	2	3
1. Selection of Resources		.36	.32
2. Flexibility--Curriculum			.36
3. Professional Judgement			

Table 14

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for the Three Items
Comprising the Original Workplace Autonomy Scale

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Selection of Resources	.50	.43
2. Flexibility--Curriculum	.74	-.01
3. Professional Judgement	.49	.18

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for the
"Workplace Autonomy" Scale

Mean	8.42	Standard error	.11
Mode	10.00	Standard deviation	1.46
Kurtosis	-.68	Skewness	-.54
Minimum	2.00	Maximum	10.00
Missing Cases	2		

by which the five dimensions of professional role orientation were derived.

Following is a listing of the thirty-six items used to measure professional role orientation in the study questionnaire. The items are presented according to the categories developed by Palmatier (1969). Respondents were asked to register their view on each item according to a five point scale: strongly disagree, disagree, "?", agree, strongly agree.

Professional Autonomy:

Teachers should be the majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.*

Teachers should have a primary voice in designing credential programs in teacher education programs.*

Teachers should develop their own code of ethics.

Teachers should be the people primarily responsible for the selection of textbooks.

Control over entry to teaching should rest with a board composed of a majority of practicing teachers.

Teachers should have a part in hiring school administrators.

Teachers should have the means to protect one another from arbitrary practices.

Teachers should develop a professional licenture system for teaching that would replace existing provincial systems.

Self Government:

Teachers should have the power to expel or suspend colleagues in accordance with a written code of ethics.*

Teachers should look to their local school boards for approval in their work as teachers.

Teachers should enforce their professional standards.*

Active Intellectual Orientation:

Teachers should keep themselves informed on current trends and practices in their fields of teaching.

Teachers should participate in conferences, workshops, and other programs dealing with professional problems.

Teachers should continuously evaluate their code of ethics for clarity and practical utility.*

Teachers should take an active part in the formulation of the policies of their professional organization.*

Teachers should possess extensive knowledge about the principles of learning.

Teachers should become active members in teachers' organizations.*

Teachers should develop and test more effective classroom procedures.

Autonomy--Professional vs. Layman:

Teachers should look to their local boards for guidance in their work as teachers.

Teachers should accept responsibility for disciplining colleagues who are incompetent or immoral.*

Local school boards should accept responsibility for planning programs for teachers' in-service growth.

Local School boards should have the sole legal responsibility for initiating dismissal hearings.*

The Legislature should determine the requirements for obtaining a teaching certificate.

Responsibliity to Students and the Teaching Act:

Teachers should accept responsibility for their students' formation of important values and attitudes.

Teachers should hold themselves accountable for the learning experiences they provide their students.*

Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning environments in which students function.*

Teachers should engage in study activities to enhance teaching skills.*

Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they make about their students as learners.

Teachers should accept responsibility for helping their students learn to deal with their feelings.

Teachers should accept responsibility for the grading system they use with students.*

Employee Autonomy:

Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.*

Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms for class size.*

Teachers should be the foremost group directly influencing decisions concdrning class scheduling.*

Code of Standards:

Teachers should look upon their code of ethics as binding upon them.*

Teachers should support a written code of ethical standards to guide their conduct.*

Teachers should voluntarily adhere to their written code of ethics.*

The first step in the development of the final set of professional role orientation dimensions used in the analysis of relationships consisted of a principal components analysis of each theoretical group of items as given by Palmatier (1969). This stage of the factor analysis was confirmatory in nature; that is, it was undertaken to determine the applicability of the item clusters given by Palmatier to the present data. Detailed examination of the factor matrices for each of the seven original categories showed that a number of items could be eliminated from each cluster. At

this initial stage, no attempt was made to modify the groupings

presented by Palmatier, although for five of the seven dimensions,

nearly half of the items were not related. Those items indicated

with an asterisk (*) in the above listing are those that were

shown to load on the various factors.

Following this first factor analysis, a series of subsequent

analyses were undertaken of the entire pool of 36 items in the

professional role orientation scale. Five, six, seven, and eight

rotated oblique factor solutions were examined. Appendix A, Table

1, presents the outcomes of the six and seven factor solutions.

On the basis of this, these later analyses, the total

item pool of 36 items was reduced. Two sets of items were determined

--one set consisting of 22 items suggested by the seven factor

solution, and another set comprising 27 items retained on the basis

of the six factor solution. These reduced item pools were factor

analyzed again. The clusters suggested by an examination of the

factor matrices resulting from this series of analyses (6, 7, and

8 factor solutions) can be found in Appendix A, Table 2. It is

clear that there is some degree of concurrence between the groupings

suggested by Palmatier and those derived from the analyses performed

in this study.

The final stage in determining the dimensions of the

dependent variable, which the data of this study displayed, involved

a synthesis of the findings depicted in the tables of Appendix A.

Thus, seventeen items were selected on the basis of their consistency

in the factor loadings in the various stages of analysis described

in this section. Four, five and six factor solutions were sought

for this set using both varimax and oblique rotations. Inspection

of the matrices emerging from these analyses led to the selection

of a five-factor oblique solution which represented the most

parsimonious combination of items; a combination that essentially

retained the conceptual basis of the original professional role

orientation instrument. Table 16 presents the factor loadings

of these items onto five factors; Table 17 presents the intercorrela-

tions among the items finally retained.

Of the five factors derived, two ("active intellectual

orientation" and "autonomy--professional vs. layman") retain Pal-

matier's original factor names. Factor 2, "employee and professional

autonomy" is a combination of two dimensions that originally were

discrete in Palmatier's scheme. Factors 3 and 5 represent a split

in the original "responsibility to students and the teaching act"

given by Palmatier. As a result of the factor analysis, there

appears to exist a distinction as to "responsibility to students-

learning", factor 5 and "responsibility to students-formation of

values and attitudes", factor 3.

Table 16

Oblique Factor Loadings of the Final Five-Factor
Solution for the Dependent Variable

Factor Labels and Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Active Intellectual Orientation (Factor 1)					
Teachers should continuously evaluate their code of ethics for clarity and practical utility.	.48				
Teachers should take an active part in the formulation of policies of their professional organization.	.40				
Teachers should keep themselves informed on current trends and practices in their fields of teaching.	.56				
Teachers should participate in conferences, workshops and other programs dealing with professional problems.	.63				
Teachers should possess extensive knowledge about the principles of learning.	.62				
Employee and Professional Autonomy (Factor 2)					
Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.		.56			
Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms for class size.		.46			

70.

Table 16 (continued)

Factor Labels and Items		Factor Loadings			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Teachers should be the foremost group directly influencing decisions concerning class scheduling.		.56			
Teachers should be a majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.		.72			
Teachers should have a primary voice in designing credential programs in teacher education programs.		.55			
Responsibility to Students—Formation of Values and Attitudes (Factor 3)					
Teachers should accept responsibility for their students' formation of important values and attitudes.			.64		
Teachers should accept responsibility for helping their students learn to deal with their feelings.			.50		
Autonomy—Professional vs. Layman (Factor 4)					
Teachers should look to their local school boards for guidance in their work as teachers.				.61	
Local school boards should accept responsibility for planning programs for teachers' in-service growth.				.44	

Table 16 (continued)

Factor Labels and Items	Factor Loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Responsibility to Students--Learning (Factor 5)					
Teachers should hold themselves accountable for the learning experiences they provide their students.					.43
Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning environments in which students function.					.65
Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they make about their students as learners.					.53

Table 17

Intercorrelations Among the Seventeen Items in the
Final Professional Role Orientation Scale

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Evaluate--code of ethics		.472	.152	.240	.344	.049	.059	.384	.195	.329	.102	.201	-.030	.105	.191	.041	.245
2. Policy--professional organization			.203	.247	.342	.224	.079	.204	.227	.236	.008	.126	.010	.016	.212	.089	.261
3. Current trends and practices				.440	.405	.038	.028	.187	.213	.165	-.085	.122	-.056	.069	.124	.007	.155
4. Participate--Conferences					.381	-.026	-.045	.041	.107	.270	.008	.240	-.098	.033	.279	.084	.243
5. Knowledge--Principles of learning						.128	-.007	.204	.183	.297	-.047	.299	-.042	.061	.383	.145	.293
6. Control over working conditions							.344	.335	.326	.327	.122	.158	.061	-.073	.146	.191	.116
7. Final voice--class size								.332	.242	.170	.076	.111	-.010	-.115	.047	.040	-.063
8. Decisions--class schedule									.400	.342	.217	.204	.085	.064	.042	.081	.088
9. Accrediting Teacher Education										.598	-.063	.052	-.049	-.002	.027	.064	.108
10. Primary voice--credentials											.103	.180	-.071	.001	.209	.174	.184
11. Responsibility--values and attitudes												.405	-.090	-.049	.164	.183	.152
12. Responsibility--students--feelings													-.078	.006	.396	.267	.283
13. Local boards--guidance														.286	-.083	-.031	-.043
14. Local boards--in-service															.065	-.076	-.033
15. Responsibility--learning experiences																.302	.346
16. Responsibility--learning environments																	.420
17. Responsibility--decision--learners																	

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for the Five Dimensions of Professional
Role Orientation

Statistics	Dimensions of Professional Role Orientation				
	Responsibility to Students-- Values and Attitudes	Responsibility to Students-- Learning	Employee and Professional Autonomy	Active Intellectual Orientation	Autonomy-- Professional vs. Layman
Mean	7.42	12.70	19.88	22.30	7.40
Mode	8.00	12.00	20.00	22.00	7.00
Standard Error	.12	.11	.23	.16	.15
Standard Deviation	1.51	1.42	2.89	2.04	1.88
Kurtosis	-.48	-.80	.05	-.11	-.71
Skewness	-.30	.16	-.52	-.52	-.25
Maximum	10.00	15.00	25.00	25.00	10.00
Minimum	4.00	9.00	12.00	15.00	3.00
Missing Cases	4	6	4	3	.4

The Sample

The focus of this study is upon the professional role orientation of teachers and, more broadly, of issues related to the study of teaching as work. Therefore, it was necessary to obtain a sample of persons who were actively engaged in teaching or teaching-related work. Furthermore, it was necessary that those in the sample had completed some graduate work. The Manitoba Department of Education maintains a current record of teacher qualifications. Thus, it was determined that utilization of this data source would provide an efficient means of obtaining a sample for this study. A twenty percent random sample of the population of teachers with a class six or seven grant rating was drawn from the Department of Education's record of teachers and their qualifications. The grant rating is a broad reflection of the amount of training completed by a teacher; roughly, the grant rating number corresponds to the years of training. In order to ensure that only those persons engaged in teaching were included, the following categories were excluded: principals, vice-principals, superintendents, assistant superintendents, therapists, psychologists, specialists, social workers, and audiologists. With these exclusions, the population size was 1057; the sample selected was 211.

A ten page questionnaire was mailed to this sample on February 2, 1981. A cover letter, requesting participation in the study, included information as to the nature and significance of the study, a guarantee of confidentiality, and an indication to the respondents that they would receive an abstract of the findings. To

facilitate the follow-up contact, self addressed envelopes were coded to permit an exact follow-up contact of non-respondents. Copies of the questionnaire and related letters can be found in Appendices B and C.

On February 18, a letter was sent to those persons who had not yet returned their questionnaires. After another week, an attempt was made to contact the non-respondents by telephone. In general, most of those contacted indicated that they had simply put off completing the questionnaire or that they had misplaced it; sixteen of those contacted requested a second copy of the question- naire.

Ten days after this last contact, a total of 168 question- naires had been received. Of these, 165 were completed--two persons had attached notes stating that they were not in class six or seven, and one person had moved out of the country. Thus, the overall return rate was 79.3 percent.

Table 19 presents a summary of some features of the sample. It can be seen that the ratio of males to females is almost three to one, and that the majority of the sample are classroom teachers; only twenty percent are involved in direct teaching 50 percent of the time or less. The most common graduate credential in the sample is the Master of Education degree, although there does exist a diversity of degrees at the post-baccalaureate level. Since only a small percentage of the sample had held teaching or research assistantships during their graduate work, these aspects of graduate study were not examined further.

Table 19

Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Sex		
Male	121	73.3
Female	44	26.7
Present Position		
Classroom Teacher	98	59.4
Non-classroom Teacher	67	40.6
Direct Teaching		
50% of the time or less	32	20.0
75% of the time	61	38.1
Virtually 100% of the time	67	41.9
Degrees Held		
B.A./B.Sc.	129	78.2
B.Ed./B.Paed.	144	87.3
B.A./B.Sc. (Hons.)	24	14.5
Other Bachelors'	23	13.9
M.A./M.Sc.	34	20.6
M.Ed.	73	44.2
Other Masters'	12	7.3
Doctorate	3	1.8
Other	40	24.2
Full-time Graduate Study		
Yes	79	52.7
No	71	47.3
Graduate Practicum		
Yes	55	39.3
No	85	60.7
Thesis Requirement		
Yes	95	63.3
No	55	36.7
Teaching Assistant		
Yes	28	19.0
No	119	81.0
Research Assistant		
Yes	15	11.5
No	116	88.5

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

Chapter 4 analyses the relationships between the independent
and dependent variables. The research model, presented in Chapter 2,
includes three sets of variables: graduate study (independent),
workplace (intervening), and professional role orientation (dependent).
The analyses presented in this chapter examine the basic research
question: to what extent are graduate study and workplace variables
related to teachers' professional role orientation? It should be
noted that this chapter focuses upon the nature of the findings while
the relationship of the findings to the research model is developed
in Chapter 5.

The first section of this chapter presents the bivariate
relationships, Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients among
all the variables. The second section presents the results of
regression analyses, which examine the linear dependence of professional
role orientation upon the independent and intervening variables.
These analyses allows the researcher to determine the predictive power
of one set of variables in relation to others. In other words, it
allows us to determine what proportion of the variance in professional
role orientation can be attributed to variations in graduate study
and workplace.

77.

The Correlation Coefficients

The first step in the analyses of the data is the calculation of a Pearson-Product-Moment correlation matrix among the fourteen variables. The correlations are presented in Table 20. An examination of this Table indicates that the coefficients are all relatively low; the strongest relationships are between variables within the same category. Thus, for example, the professional role orientation dimensions correlate more highly with each other than with the independent and intervening variables.

The correlation coefficients between the graduate study variables and the five measures of professional role orientation are especially low; however, three coefficients are significant at the .05 level of probability. Both full-time study and practicum completion are positively related to the professional role orientation measure, "responsibility to students--learning". It is noted, however, that there is a significant positive relationship between full-time study and practicum completion--those graduate students who complete a practicum are more likely to be full-time students.

In examining the bivariate relationships between the workplace variables and professional role orientation, it is observed that five coefficients are significant at the .05 level and one is significant at the .01 level of probability. "Responsibility to students--learning" is positively correlated with workplace autonomy and negatively correlated with supervisor's qualifications; collegiality is positively correlated with active intellectual orientation, while supervisor's qualifications is negatively correlated with this dimension of professional role orientation.

Table 20

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Matrix for
the Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Thesis Completion	1.000													
2. Amount of Graduate Study	.033	1.000												
3. Full-time Study	.046	.248**	1.000											
4. Practicum Completion	.139	.150	.313**	1.000										
5. Graduate Study Autonomy	-.054	.023	-.230**	-.097	1.000									
6. Collegiality	-.007	-.040	-.117	-.090	-.046	1.000								
7. Supervisor's Qualifications	-.118	-.035	.003	-.069	.097	.145*	1.000							
8. Content of Supervision	.010	.051	-.114	-.056	-.001	.111	-.063	1.000						
9. Workplace Autonomy	.109	-.099	-.104	-.065	.252**	-.053	.032	-.006	1.000					
10. Responsibility to Students--Values/Attitudes	.132	.037	-.003	.092	-.037	.036	-.078	.014	.006	1.000				
11. Responsibility to Students--Learning	.090	.049	.183*	.168*	-.056	-.059	-.150*	-.042	.132*	.341**	1.000			
12. Employee-Professional Autonomy	.030	.033	.023	-.011	-.158*	.109	.047	-.113	.046	.190**	.167*	1.000		
13. Active Intellectual Orientation	.007	.045	.025	.036	.019	.149*	-.167*	.067	.102	.113	.349**	.313**	1.000	
14. Autonomy--Professional vs. Layman	.064	-.069	.008	.005	.002	-.092	-.076	-.203**	.160*	-.060	-.067	-.024	-.023	1.000

*p < .05

**p < .01

Finally, there is a positive correlation between workplace autonomy and "autonomy--professional vs. layman."

One of the reasons that the correlation coefficients may be low is because of non-linear relationships among the variables. To test for this possibility, a series of scattergrams were produced. In all cases, the assumption of linearity was supported.

Effects of Sex, Present Employment, Direct Teaching and Years of Experience

In order to determine whether or not the demographic variables of sex, present employment position, involvement in direct teaching activities, and years of experience in education affected the relationships examined in this study, a series of T-tests were conducted. These analyses show that for each of the variables of sex, involvement in direct teaching, and experience, only one or at most two differences between the means for the fourteen comparisons were significant. However, comparing the variable means for classroom teachers and non-classroom teachers (i.e., the variable of "present position"), four mean differences were significant. Nevertheless, only a small proportion of the mean differences for these demographic variables showed some probability of being significant. Consequently, it was determined that the demographic variables considered here do not appreciably affect the relationships explored in this study; hence they are not given further consideration. The discussion now turns to the main analysis, namely, the effects of independent and intervening variables upon professional role orientation.

Multiple Regression Analysis

The research model presented in Chapter 2 postulates the existence of direct effects upon professional role orientation of the graduate study and workplace variables, as well as an indirect effect of the graduate study variables mediated through the workplace variables, upon professional role orientation. This section, therefore, is organized into three sections which discuss the relationships of (1) graduate study and workplace variables (2) graduate study and professional role orientation and (3) graduate study, workplace, and professional role orientation.

The data presented include the unstandardized (B) and the standardized (Beta) regression coefficients along with the standard error of B. Beta coefficient allow for accurate comparison of predictive weights for variables measured on different scales, and as such, these coefficients will be the major focus in the interpretation of the strength of relationship between variables. The following rules of thumb are utilized throughout this chapter: Beta coefficients of less that .05 are considered of no significance (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973); coefficients between .05 and .10 are considered to indicate weak relationships; coefficients ranging from .10 to .25 are considered as suggestive of moderately strong relationships; and Beta coefficients above .25 are considered as indicating a strong relationship. It should be noted that if a Beta weight of .25 is obtained, the implication is that a one standard deviation change in the independent variable will result in a one quarter of a standard deviation change in the dependent variable. We now turn to the first set of relationships examined by multiple regression.

Graduate Study and Workplace
Variables

Table 21 presents data concerning the effects of the graduate study variables upon the workplace variables. For purposes of this analysis, the workplace variables are the dependent variables and the graduate study variables are the independent variables; that is, the graduate study variables are considered as predictive of the workplace variables. Determining these relationships is important for two reasons: they are part of the research model specified in Chapter 2, and they form the basis for the determination of the indirect effects of the graduate study variables through the workplace variables upon professional role orientation.

The relationships of greatest magnitude exist between workplace autonomy and two graduate study variables--amount of graduate study (-.244) and graduate study autonomy (.268). The strong positive relationship between graduate study autonomy and workplace autonomy suggests that there is a tendency for persons perceiving autonomy in one arena, graduate study, to perceive autonomy in the workplace. These results may also support the notion that those persons who value autonomy will seek out situations for study and work that are characterized by autonomy. Indeed, it may well be that the experience of autonomy in graduate study leads to the pursuing of work positions offering a great deal of autonomy. On the other hand, the moderately strong negative relationship between amount of graduate study and workplace autonomy suggests that completing more graduate work leads to a perception of dininished autonomy in the workplace.

Table 21

Effects of the Graduate Study Variables on the
Workplace Variables

Graduate Study Variables	Workplace Autonomy			Collegiality			Supervisor's Qualifications			Content of Supervision		
	B	Beta	Standard Error of B	B	Beta	Standard Error of B	B	Beta	Standard Error of B	B	Beta	Standard Error of B
Thesis Completion	.424	.141	.298	.168	.040	.434	-.569	-.185	.313	.314	.066	.493
Amount of Graduate Study	-.355	-.244	.149	.047	.024	.217	-.090	-.060	.156	.165	.072	.246
Full-time Study	.138	.048	.308	-.475	-.120	.449	-.061	-.021	.324	-.508	-.112	.511
Practicum Completion	.066	.022	.310	-.319	-.077	.449	-.171	-.056	.324	-.453	-.096	.511
Graduate Study Autonomy	.174	.268	.066	-.055	-.062	.097	.096	.144	.070	-.003	-.003	.110

Thesis completion shows moderate effects upon workplace autonomy and supervisor's qualifications. The relationship is positive for workplace autonomy--those who complete a thesis regard their workplace as more autonomous. It may be that thesis completion generates a need for autonomy in the workplace in the same way as does experience of autonomy in graduate study. This experience of autonomy leads to the seeking out of positions offering even greater autonomy. It should be recalled from Table 20 that the correlation coefficient between thesis completion and graduate study autonomy is very low ($r = -.05$), suggesting that thesis writing is not related to overall perceived autonomy in graduate study. Thus, another aspect of thesis writing may be implicated in this relationship; for example, thesis writing may lead to an enhanced self-concept which is manifested in the seeking out of positions offering a high level of autonomy.

The moderate relationship of thesis completion to supervisor's qualifications (Beta = -.185) is negative--it would appear that those who complete a thesis tend to regard their supervisors as less well qualified that themselves. Interestingly, this finding may help explain the relationship between thesis completion and workplace autonomy in terms of self-concept. If thesis writing is related to a heightened self-concept, then positions characterized by autonomy may be sought out, or autonomy may be demanded from extant positions. The qualifications of the supervisor, on the other hand, will remain unchanged, hence the inferior qualifications rating.

Full-time graduate study has a moderate negative relationship with both collegiality (Beta = -.120) and content of supervision

(Beta = -.112). At first glance, this finding may be regarded as contradictory to the theoretical rationale presented in Chapter 2; that is, the enhanced collegiality developed as a result of full-time study should develop a broader professional collegiality. It may well be that teachers who have the experience of collegiality in full-time graduate study are less disposed to engage in collegial relationships with school colleagues who are not seen as peers. Teachers are perhaps more sensitive to a lack of collegiality in the workplace after having experienced it in full-time graduate study. The same kind of argument may be applied to the negative relationship of full-time study to content of supervision. If the full-time study experience was perceived as an experience in strong professional growth, supervision in the workplace, by contrast, may be regarded as not emphasizing this aspect sufficiently. However, graduate study autonomy shows a moderately strong relationship to supervisor's qualifications. What is interesting is that the direction of this effect is positive, while the effect of thesis completion on this workplace variable is negative. It will be recalled that both thesis completion and graduate study autonomy are positive in the direction of their effects upon workplace autonomy. Again, this may be supportive of the argument that the self-concept is enhanced by completing a thesis. It seems that experiencing autonomy in graduate school is associated with a positive perception of the workplace, at least in terms of autonomy and supervisor's qualifications while this is not consistently so for thesis completion. Of course, as was mentioned earlier, there may exist a generalized tendency for those who perceive autonomy in graduate study to perceive this same dimension elsewhere, in their professional lives, regardless of the

actual level of autonomy present.

Finally, alone among the graduate study variables, practicum completion appears to show the weakest effects upon the workplace variables, with all Beta values less than .10. Nevertheless, practicam completion has the largest effect upon content of supervision (Beta = -.096).

Having discussed the relationships between the graduate study and workplace variables, we now turn to an examination of the relationships between the graduate study variables and professional role orientation.

Graduate Study and Professional Role Orientation

Table 22 presents the direct effects and R^2 values of the graduate study variables in relation to the five dimensions of professional role orientation. In examining the R^2 values, which represent the proportion of variance in the professional role orientation dimensions that are accounted for by the set of graduate study variables, it can be seen that "responsibility to students-- learning" and "employee and professional autonomy" are most strongly related to the graduate study variables.

For "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes", it can be seen that only one graduate study effect is moderately strong, that of graduate study autonomy (Beta = -.111). The negative direction of this effect may be attributable to the possibility of a heightened sensitivity to freedom as a result of autonomy in graduate study. Consequently, teachers having experienced autonomy in graduate study may become more sensitive to issues of

Table 22

Effects of the Graduate Study Variables on
Professional Role Orientation

Graduate Study Variables	Responsibility to Students Formation of Values and Attitudes			Responsibility to Students-Learning			Employee and Professional Autonomy			Autonomy-- Professional vs. Layman			Active Intellectual Orientation		
	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B
Graduate Study Autonomy	-.074	-.111	.068	.002	.004	.067	-.420	-.321	.128	.117	.152	.079	.039	.045	.090
Thesis Completion	.196	.064	.307	.081	.027	.297	.365	.061	.573	.224	.064	.348	.171	.043	.400
Amount of Graduate Study	.421	.029	.152	-.046	-.031	.150	-.147	-.051	.285	-.217	-.125	.177	-.187	-.096	.199
Full-time Graduate Study	-.081	-.028	.317	.637	.218	.307	-.022	-.004	.598	.205	.061	.359	.579	.151	.415
Practicum Completion	.224	.075	.310	.527	.175	.305	.301	.051	.585	-.338	-.097	.358	.333	.084	.407
Total Variance (R^2)	.02			.10			.12			.03			.05		

control or lack of autonomy. If this is the case, then questions

such as those posed in the questionnaire may be perceived as advocating

control of values. Such a perception may lead to a tendency to

respond negatively to items dealing with values in schools. Thesis

and practicum completion show values only slightly above .05 for

this aspect of professional role orientation, although in both instances

the direction of effect is positive.

Both full-time graduate study (Beta = .218) and practicum

completion (Beta = .175) show moderately strong predictive relation-

ships to "responsibility to students--learning", a dimension that is

related to the degree to which teachers regard themselves as accountable

for their student's development as learners. It will be noted that

the practicum experience affects both responsibility to students for

learning as well as formation of values and attitudes, although the

magnitude of effect is larger for learning. It may be speculated that

a practicum leads to a stronger sensitivity to the needs of students

and places greater focus upon the student in relation to the education

enterprise. It is interesting that full-time graduate study is not

related to "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes"

while it shows a moderately strong relationship to "responsibility to

students--learning." It may be that those teachers who make a commit-

ment to full-time graduate study place a relatively higher value upon

learning and reflect this value in their attitudes towards their atti-

tudes towards their work as teachers. Of course, it may be that some

elements of full-time study foster a heightened sense of responsibility

for students' learning; however, the decision to pursue full-time study is

likely to be made prior to study. This suggests that this measure of

professional role orientation and the completion of full-time study may

both reflect an underlying value system related to learning.

A third dimension of professional role orientation shown

in Table 22 is "employee and professional autonomy", which concerns

teachers' control over working conditions and teacher certification.

It can be seen that only in the case of graduate study autonomy is

the Beta value of sufficient magnitude (-.321) to indicate a relation-

ship worth mentioning. For the other graduate study variables, the

relationships to professional role orientation are weak or insignifi-

cant. It is unexpected that the direction of the relationship of

autonomy in graduate study to this aspect of professional role orien-

tation is negative; it is noted in the discussion of the theoretical

bases of this study that previous research into other occupations

shows that autonomy in training has tended to foster attitudes related

to professionalism. One explanation of this finding may be that teachers

who are not accustomed to the experience of autonomy, in either their

own work or their study, tend to develop a rather strong negative

response to the experience of autonomy in graduate study. It may also

be that teachers who do not hold attitudes favorable to professional

autonomy may, upon entry to graduate studies, be highly sensitive to the

increased autonomy that is characteristic of graduate studies as com-

pared to undergraduate work. Thus, any experience of graduate study

is given a high rating in terms of autonomy.

The other dimension of professional role orientation related

to autonomy is "autonomy--professional vs. layman". This aspect of

professional role orientation deals with the relationship of teachers

to lay boards. Autonomy in graduate study is not supportive of

attitudes related to autonomy in the workplace (i.e., "employee and

professional autonomy"); however, it is supportive of a disposition

to not accord school boards responsibility for the guidance of

teachers; i.e., "autonomy--professional vs. layman" (Beta = .152).

Amount of graduate study and practicum completion are both negatively

related to this dimension of professional role orientation, showing

Beta values of similar magnitudes (-.125 and -.097 respectively).

One implication of this finding is that teachers do not regard more

graduate training or the completion of a practicum as giving them, as

teachers, more authority vis-a-vis school boards.

Finally, for "active intellectual orientation", which deals

with teachers' involvement in their own professional growth, only

one variable--full-time study--shows a moderately strong effect.

This positive relationship is opposite in direction to amount of

graduate study, a finding that is surprising if one postulates that

those teachers who pursue full-time study and complete more graduate

credit hours do so because they value intellectual pursuits. However,

it must be remembered that full-time graduate study involves greater

expenditure of time, energy, and financial resources: those who complete

full-time graduate study are likely to do so as a result of stronger

commitments to academic work. Thus, it may be argued, in accordance

with the socialization model developed in this work, that the actual

experience of full-time graduate study leads to a stronger active

intellectual orientation towards one's profession. What is clear

from the data is that full-time study and amount of graduate study

have differing effects at least in terms of this dimension of

professional role orientation. What is surprising, if not ironic, is that there exists a tendency for sheer amount of graduate study to be associated with a diminished active intellectual orientation.

This section has dealt with the effects of graduate study upon the dimensions of professional role orientation. As the research model specifies a set of workplace variables as intervening between graduate study and professional role orientation, the following discussion examines both graduate study and workplace variables, as a set, in their relationship to professional role orientation.

Graduate Study, Workplace and Professional Role Orientation

This section is presented in two parts. The first part deals with the direct effects of the graduate study and workplace variables in relation to professional role orientation. The second part deals with the indirect effects of graduate study variables through the workplace variables.

Table 23 presents the data derived from a regression analysis utilizing graduate study and workplace variables, as a set, as predictors of professional role orientation. Comparing the R^2 values shown in this table with those presented in Table 22, it can be seen that the inclusion of the workplace variables increases the proportion of variance explained for all of the dimensions of professional role orientation. The largest differences in these values occur in the cases of "autonomy--professional vs. layman" and "active intellectual orientation". Thus, for example, when the graduate study variables alone are considered, the R^2 value for "autonomy--professional vs. layman" was .03; and with the inclusion of the workplace variables, the

Table 23

Effects of the Graduate Study and Workplace
Variables on Professional Role Orientation

Variables	Responsibility to Students-Formation of Values and Attitudes			Responsibility to Students--Learning			Employee and Professional Autonomy			Autonomy-- Professional vs. Layman			Active Intellectual Orientation		
	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B	B	Beta	Standard Error B
Graduate Study:															
Graduate Study Autonomy	-.049	-.072	.077	.000	.001	.074	-.468	-.356	.142	.093	.124	.080	.071	.083	.093
Thesis Completion	.065	.021	.337	.030	.010	.323	.463	.076	.623	.065	.019	.349	.156	.039	.410
Amount of Graduate Study	-.015	-.010	.169	-.023	-.015	.162	-.168	-.057	.312	-.183	-.109	.175	-.207	-.108	.206
Full-time Graduate Study	-.006	-.002	.342	.726	.243	.328	-.102	-.017	.632	.187	.056	.354	.811	.213	.416
Practicum Completion	.378	.122	.341	.571	.185	.326	.425	.070	.629	-.353	-.103	.352	.384	.098	.414
Workplace															
Workplace Autonomy	.051	.049	.116	.105	.102	.111	.149	.074	.214	.215	.187	.120	.113	.086	.141
Collegiality	.046	.061	.082	.005	.007	.079	.003	.002	.152	.024	.028	.085	.222	.233	.100
Supervisor's Qualifications	-.117	-.115	.113	-.075	-.074	.109	.329	.166	.209	-.080	-.071	.117	.249	-.194	.138
Content of Supervision	.104	.157	.070	-.026	-.039	.067	-.141	-.109	.128	-.221	-.301	.072	.013	-.015	.085
Total Variance (R^2)	.06			.14			.16			.19			.14		

R^2 value rises to .19. The suggestion is that workplace variables are more strongly related to this dimension of professional role orientation than are the graduate study variables. On the other hand, "responsibility to students--learning" and "employee and professional autonomy" are more strongly predicted by the graduate study variables. In the case of "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes", the inclusion of the workplace variables in the regression analysis does not substantially increase the total variance in pro-fessional role orientation explained by the graduate study and/or workplace variables. This dimension of professional role orientation seems least affected by the independent and intervening veriables of this study.

With the inclusion of the workplace variables, the Beta value for practicum completion is raised to the point of showing a moderately strong relationship to "responsibility to students--forma-tion of values and attitudes" (Beta = .122). With the exception of the weak relationship of graduate study autonomy (Beta = -.072), all other graduate study variables are not significantly related to this dimension of professional role orientation. On the other hand, three of the workplace variables show some predictive relationship to this aspect of professional role orientation. While collegiality shows a Beta value of .061 indicating a very weak relationship, supervisor's qualifications and content of supervision are more strongly related (Beta = -.115, .157 respectively). The Beta value for supervisor's qualifications is negative, suggesting that if a teacher is supervised by someone whose qualifications exceed his own, that teacher will not be supportive of teachers' being held responsible for the formation

of values and attitudes among students. It may be speculated that
the effect of a well qualified supervisor is that of diminishing the
teacher's sense of responsibility, expecially if the supervisor is regar-
ded as an administrator, and not a member of the teaching profession.
The variable showing the strongest predictive relationship to "respon-
sibility to students--formation of values and attitudes" is content of
supervision. This positive Beta value suggests that if the development
of personal professional growth and contribution to the profession is
emphasized in supervision, teachers will tend to regard themselves as
having increased responsibility for the formation of students' values
and attitudes. Such supervisory emphasis may have the effect of broaden-
ing a teacher's perspective as to areas of responsibility through
contact with a wider range of ideas and colleagues.

Comparing the Beta values shown in Tables 22 and 23 for "respon-
sibility to students--learning" reveals that the graduate study variables
maintain the same relationship to this dimension of professional role
orientation when the workplace variables are included in the analysis.
None of the workplace variables are strongly related to this dimension
of professional role orientation, although workplace autonomy shows a
Beta value of .102. It is interesting that the direction of effect
for supervisor's qualifications is negative, as was the case for
"responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes". This
finding may support the notion that teachers tend to assume less respon-
sibility in the context of a supervisor whom they perceive as more
qualified than themselves. The finding that workplace autonomy is
moderately related to teachers' sense of responsibility for student
learning is not surprising, as the items measuring this independent

variable all deal with students' learning. Therefore, to the degree
that teachers are accorded freedom to make decisions about their students'
learning, they are likely to regard teachers in general as having
increased responsibilities in this area.

The professional role orientation dimension of "employee and
professional autonomy" maintains its strong relation to graduate study
autonomy when the workplace and graduate study variables are examined
jointly. Considering the direct effects of the workplace variables
shown in Table 23, it can be seen that collegiality is not related to
this aspect of professional role orientation. It is interesting that
autonomy in the workplace is positively associated with "employee and
professional autonomy," (Beta = .074), while the relationship of graduate
study autonomy to this dimension of professional role orientation is
strongly negative. It is likely that autonomy in the workplace is
understood differently than autonomy in graduate study. Of the workplace
variables, the two concerned with supervision are most strongly related
to this aspect of professional role orientation. The positive Beta
value for supervisor's qualifications (.166) indicates that to the extent
that a teacher's supervisor is perceived as competent, that teacher will
hold attitudes supportive of freedom in the workplace and for the
profession at large. Placing this finding in the light of the foregoing
discussion regarding responsibilities towards students leads one to
speculate that when the issue is control, competent supervision is
supportive of professionalism, but for student outcomes (learning,
values and attitudes), the effect is reversed. It may be that when
professional growth is stressed in supervision, a teacher tends to
feel somewhat intimidated and consequently is less supportive of higher

levels of autonomy for teachers; a possible explanation for the finding that content of supervision is negatively related to "employee and professional autonomy".

The dimensions of "autonomy—professional vs. layman" and "employee and professional autonomy" deal with a central feature of professionalism''the legitimate exercise of occupational freedom. While "employee and professional autonomy" deals with specific workplace issues and self-accreditation, "autonomy—professional vs. layman" is concerned with the extent to which locally elected officials, school board members, are regarded as having responsibility for the guidance of teachers as well as for their in-service development. In Table 23 it can be seen that the inclusion of the workplace variables has a tendency to diminish the Beta values for graduate study—in the case of thesis completion, the value is reduced to a level of non-significance. Considering the direct effects of the workplace variables, it will be noted that collegiality is not significantly related to either "autonomy—professional vs. layman" or "employee and professional autonomy". Workplace autonomy shows a moderate positive relationship to "autonomy—professional vs. layman", suggesting that when teachers experience a higher level of discretion in their work, they are more likely to assume greater responsibility for their own work and professional growth.

The variable supervisor's qualifications is negatively related to "autonomy—professional vs. layman"; however, the magnitude of this effect is only a weak relationship (Beta = -.071). It will be recalled from previous discussion that for "employee and professional autonomy", this workplace variable showed a fairly strong positive effect upon

this dimension of professional role orientation. Thus, it appears that perceived competence of supervisors is related to attitudes favorable to autonomy in the workplace and to attitudes towards the profession at large. However, when the issues are related to the involvement of local school boards (i.e., "autonomy-professional vs. layman"), this is not the case.

In Table 23, a high Beta value (-.301) is shown for the relationship of content of supervision to "autonomy--professional vs. layman." This strong negative relationship is somewhat puzzling--the fostering of professional skills in supervision may be expected to have a positive effect upon this dimension of professional role orientation. As was the case for "employee and professional autonomy", there may be a defensive reaction by teachers in response to the encouragement of professional growth by supervisors encouraging a tendency to hold attitudes unfavorable to teachers' control of working conditions and accreditation. What is particularly interesting is that one of the items measuring "autonomy--professional vs. layman" deals specifically with school boards' involvement in teachers' in-service growth.

The final professional role orientation dimension deals with attitudes regarding the degree to which teachers should take an active part in the formulation of policies of their professional organizations as well as their own professional growth. The questions related to this measure focus upon codes of ethics, general policies (in reference to professional organizations), current trends, conferences, and knowledge of principles of learning.

Table 23 presents the direct effects of the graduate study variables on this aspect of professional role orientation. Comparing

Table 22 and Table 23, it can be seen that inclusion of the intervening workplace variables in the analyses largely serves to increase the magnitude of effects, particularly for full-time graduate study. For the workplace variables, it can be seen that three of the workplace variables show Beta values above .05--only content of supervision is not at all significantly related to "active intellectual orientation". Compared to the effects of supervisor's qualifications and collegiality, workplace autonomy has a relatively weak predictive relationship to active intellectual orientation (Beta = .086). What is interesting is that for the other four dimensions of professional role orientation, collegiality is either non-significant or weak in its relationship. This suggests that when teachers share their skills and competencies, there exists a stronger tendency for them to attach importance to an active intellectual orientation, but that other professional attitudes, such as those related to autonomy, are not affected.

Up to now, the discussion has focused upon the direct effects of the graduate study and workplace variables upon professional role orientation. The indirect effects of the graduate study variables through the workplace variables in relation to the five dimensions of professional role orientation will be examined next. Table 24 presents the data relevant to this analysis. The Beta values for each of the graduate study variables in relation to the workplace variables were determined by multiplying two regression coefficients: those describing the relationship between a particular workplace variable and the graduate study variable, and a specific dimension of professional role orientation. Adding the values thus obtained for each graduate study variable gives

the value of the total indirect effects for each particular graduate study variable. For example, to determine the Beta value for the indirect effects of thesis completion through workplace autonomy upon "active intellectual orientation", the Beta value for the relationship of thesis completion and workplace autonomy (Beta = .41, Table 21) is multiplied by the Beta value for the relationship of workplace autonomy and "active intellectual orientation" (Beta = .086, Table 23). This gives an indirect effect of .027 (Table 24).

It can be seen from Table 24 that in most instances the values of the total indirect effects are quite low--only two are slightly above the .05 level. Table 24 also presents the total direct effects as well as the total effects for each graduate study variable upon professional role orientation. The total effects values is determined by the addition of the total indirect and total direct values.

In the case of "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes", the highest indirect effect value exists for thesis completion through supervisor's qualifications. This leads to a total effects value of .063 for this graduate study variable. While the magnitude of effect for this graduate study variable remains low, there is a positive impact of thesis completion upon teachers' sense of responsibility for students' values and attitudes, and having a supervisor who in the teacher's eyes is well qualified, contributes to this sense of responsibility.

For "responsibility to students--learning", collegiality and content of supervision show virtually no indirect effects; for the other two intervening variables there are a few instances of slight indirect effects. It must be emphasized that these indirect effects do not substantially alter the values obtained for the direct effects

Table 24

Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of the Graduate
Study Variables via the Workplace Variables on
Professional Role Orientation

Professional Role Orientation Dimension	Graduate Study Variables	Indirect Effects via the Workplace Variables				Total Indirect Effects	Total Direct Effects	Total Effects
		Workplace Autonomy	Collegiality	Supervisor's Qualifications	Content of Supervision			
Responsibility to Students-- Formation of Values and Attitudes	Thesis Completion	.007	.002	.022	.011	.042	.02?	.063
	Amount of Graduate Study	-.012	.001	.007	.011	.008	-.010	-.002
	Full-time Study	.003	-.007	.002	.018	.015	-.002	.013
	Practicum Completion	.001	-.005	.007	.016	.019	.122	.141
	Graduate Study Autonomy	.014	-.004	-.017	.000	.000	-.072	-.072
Responsibility to Students-- Learning	Thesis Completion	.014	.000	.013	-.013	.024	.010	.034
	Amount of Graduate Study	-.024	.000	.004	-.003	-.022	-.015	-.037
	Full-time Study	.005	-.001	.004	.004	.010	.243	.253
	Practicum Completion	.002	-.001	.004	.000	.005	.185	.190
	Graduate Study Autonomy	.027	-.001	.010	.000	.036	.001	.037
Employee and Professional Autonomy	Thesis Completion	.003	.000	-.031	-.008	-.036	.076	.040
	Amount of Graduate Study	-.017	.000	-.010	-.008	-.035	-.057	-.092
	Full-time Study	.004	.000	-.003	.012	.012	-.017	-.005
	Practicum Completion	.001	.000	-.010	.011	.002	.070	.072
	Graduate Study Autonomy	.019	.000	.024	.000	.043	-.356	-.313

Table 24 (continued)

Professional Role Orientation Dimension	Graduate Study Variables	Indirect Effects via the Workplace Variables				Total Indirect Effects	Total Direct Effects	Total Effects
		Workplace Autonomy	Collegiality	Supervisor's Qualifications	Content of Supervision			
Autonomy-- Professional vs. Layman	Thesis Completion	.027	.001	.013	-.021	.019	.019	.038
	Amount of Graduate Study	-.046	.001	.004	-.021	-.062	-.109	-.171
	Full-time Study	.010	-.004	.001	.033	.042	.056	.098
	Practicum Completion	.004	-.002	.004	.030	.036	-.103	-.067
	Graduate Study Autonomy	.051	-.002	-.003	.000	.047	.124	.171
Active Intellectual Orientation	Thesis Completion	.012	.009	.034	.001	.057	.039	.096
	Amount of Graduate Study	-.022	.005	.011	.001	-.004	-.108	-.112
	Full-time Graduate Study	.005	-.028	.004	-.002	-.022	.213	.191
	Practicum Completion	.002	-.018	.011	-.002	-.007	.098	.091
	Graduate Study Autonomy	.024	-.014	-.027	.000	-.016	.083	.067

of the graduate study variables upon this dimension of professional role orientation.

Inspection of the Beta values for the indirect effects of the graduate study variables upon "employee and professional autonomy" reveals that workplace autonomy and supervisor's qualifications are strongest. Content of supervision contributes only slightly to the indirect effects; collegiality, due to its lack of relationship to this dimension of professional role orientation (Beta = .002), does not provide any indirect effects. The relatively large negative value for the indirect effects for thesis completion (-.036) leads to a total effects value for this graduate study variable of less than .05. Therefore, having a well-qualified supervisor tends to diminish the weak positive effect of thesis completion upon this aspect of professional role orientation.

The next dimension of professional role orientation shown in Table 24 is "autonomy--professional vs. layman". The Beta values for these indirect effects indicate that the variables of workplace autonomy and content of supervision show the strongest indirect effects but that collegiality makes virtually no indirect contribution to the graduate study effects--supervisor's qualifications has a value greater than zero for only one graduate study variable, thesis completion. The strongest indirect effect exists for amount of graduate study. For full-time study, the indirect effects are almost equal in magnitude to the direct effects for this graduate study variable.

Finally, only in the case of thesis completion is there a substantial increase in the effect of the graduate study variables upon professional role orientation. This is in the case of "active

intellectual orientation", where the total indirect effect is .057, which is over one half of the total effects. It appears that thesis completion is supportive of an active intellectual orientation and higher levels of workplace autonomy and a relatively less well-qualified supervisor serve to contribute to this effect.

Summary

A series of regression equations which allowed one to examine the direct and indirect relationships between both the independent and intervening variables and the dependent variables were conducted. The analysis revealed that, with the exception of the professional role orientation dimension of "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes", the graduate study and workplace variables accounted for 14 to 19 percent of the variance in the professional role orientation dimensions. The relative contribution of the graduate study and workplace variables to the explained variance in the dependent variable differed for each dimension of professional role orientation.

Table 25 summarizes that total effects of the independent and intervening variables on the five dimensions of professional role orientation. It can be seen that the pattern of effects for the graduate study and workplace variables is different for each dimension of professional role orientation. First we note that all of the graduate study variables show some relationship to the five dimensions of professional role orientation, although thesis completion is weakly related to only two dimensions. Also, the amount of graduate

study has a consistently negative relationship to three dimensions
of professional role orientation while the completion of full-time
study is positively associated with two of these dimensions--"active
intellectual orientation" and "autonomy--professional vs. layman".
Full-time study is also positively associated with "responsibility
to students--learning". With the exception of "autonomy--professional
vs. layman", practicum completion relates positively to all dimensions
of professional role orientation. Finally, for graduate study
autonomy, the effects are negative in relation to "responsibility to
students--formation of values and attitudes" and "employee and
professional autonomy". On the other hand, graduate study autonomy
is positively related to "active intellectual orientation" and
"autonomy--professional vs. layman".

The addition of the workplace variables in the analysis was
effective in increasing the total amount of explained variance in the
professional role orientation dimensions, the largest increases being
observed for "active intellectual orientation" and "autonomy--
professional vs. layman". Workplace autonomy is positive in its
relationship to all five dimensions of professional role orientation.
Collegiality is also positive in its relationship to professional role
orientation, but only for two dimension: "responsibility to students--
formation of values and attitudes" and "active intellectual orientation".
The two workplace variables dealing with supervision are, with one
exception, negative in their relationship to professional role orien-
tation. Thus, having a more highly qualified supervisor is associated
with a diminished level of professional role orientation for all dimensions.
An emphasis upon professional growth in supervision is positive in its

Table 25

Magnitudes* and Directions of Total Effects of
the Graduate Study and Workplace Variables on
the Professional Role Orientation Measures

Independent and Intervening Variables	Dimensions of Professional Role Orientation				
	Responsibility to Students-- Values and Attitudes	Responsibility to Students-- Learning	Employee and Professional Autonomy	Active Intellectual Orientation	Autonomy-- Professional vs. Layman
Graduate Study:					
Thesis Completion	Weak (+)			Weak (+)	
Amount of Graduate Study			Weak (−)	Moderate (−)	Moderate (−)
Full-time Graduate Study		Strong (+)		Moderate (+)	Weak (+)
Practicum Completion	Moderate (+)	Moderate (+)	Weak (+)	Weak (+)	Weak (−)
Graduate Study Autonomy	Weak (−)		Strong (−)	Weak (+)	Moderate (+)
Workplace:					
Workplace Autonomy	Weak (+)	Moderate (+)	Weak (+)	Weak (+)	Moderate (+)
Collegiality	Weak (+)			Moderate (+)	
Supervisor's Qualifications	Moderate (−)	Weak (−)	Moderate (−)	Moderate (−)	Weak (−)
Content of Supervision	Moderate (+)		Moderate (−)		Strong (−)

*Beta Values: .05-.10 = weak; .10-.25 = moderate; > .25 = strong.

effect upon "responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes"; a negative effect exists for this variable in the cases of "employee and professional autonomy" and "autonomy--professional vs. layman".

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

"A profession is composed of people who think they are
professionals." (Thelan, 1973)

This study is about teachers' dispositions towards a set of

work values that are defined as professional in nature. Because

differences exist among teachers as to professional role orientation,

it is significant to seek to understand the sources of these variations.

Previous theory and research has emphasized the importance of formal

training as well as the work context in understanding the socialization

of professionals; therefore, this thesis investigated the impact of

graduate study, as one aspect of the formal training of teachers, and

certain workplace veriables upon teachers' professional role orientation.

Thus, it was hypothesized that certain aspects of graduate study and

certain aspects of the workplace would be related to differences in

teachers' professional role orientations.

Based upon the research literature, three sets of variables

were created. These variable sets were identified as graduate study

variables, workplace variables, and professional role orientation.

The graduate study variables included thesis completion, full-time

study, practicum completion, amount of graduate work, and autonomy.

The workplace variables consisted of collegiality, autonomy, and nature

of supervision. The dependent variable consisted of a set of five

dimensions of professional role orientation: responsibility to

student--learning, responsibility to students--formation of values

and attitudes, active intellectual orientation, autonomy--
professional versus layman, and employee and professional autonomy.

Discussion

The results of this study, as presented in Chapter 4, are
now discussed in the context of the research model presented in
Chapter 2. It is clear that, at best, the research model has
received only partial support, expecially in view of the negative
effects of some of the graduate study and workplace variables upon
professional role orientation. The reader may recall that the con-
ceptual framework for this study was derived from the literature relevant
to the sociology of occupations, particularly that literature which
relates to the socialization of professionals. The argument was made
that in seeking to understand the development of a system of professional
work values, it is fruitful to study both the formal training and the
workplace as arenas of professional socialization. Thus, this thesis
addresses a single major question: Do certain aspects of graduate study
and the workplace affect the development of professional role orien-
tation for teachers?

When considering the effects of the graduate study and work-
place variables upon professional role orientation, it is striking
that these variables vary in their relationship to the five dimensions
of professional role orientation. In fact, for four of the graduate
study and workplace variables, the directions of effect upon the various
dimensions of professional role orientation are not consistent. Thus,
any discussion of the relationships explored in this thesis is
meaningful only in terms of particular dimensions of professional role

orientation rather than professional role orientation in general.

It must be emphasized that in constructing the research
model, variables were selected as to their hypothesized _positive_
relationships to professional role orientation. Thus, it was predicted
that increases in the graduate study and workplace variables would
be accompanied by increases in professional role orientation. In
a sense, then, all negative relationships of the independent variables
to the dependent variables are unexpected. Therefore, much of this dis-
cussion is an attempt to understand the meaning of the negative relation-
ships. Why is it that certain elements of professional socialization
regarded as supportive of professional role orientation are, in this
study, found to have an opposite effect?

Among the graduate study variables considered in this study,
thesis completion shows the weakest relationship to professional
role orientation. Only two aspects of professional role orientation,
"responsibility to students--formation of values and attitudes" and
"active intellectual orientation" show a weak, but positive relation-
ship to this graduate study variable. Thus, mastery of theory and
research, regarded in this study as a critical component of thesis work,
does seem to have a slight impact upon teachers' perceptions of their
need to actively pursue intellectual development and to have a broader
conception of their role in student development of values and attitudes.
However, the lack of effect upon the two autonomy dimensions of pro-
fessional role orientation suggests that the thesis experience does not
foster a "new image" (Broudy, 1956) in relation to control and power
in the workplace or in relation to elected school boards.

The finding that amount of graduate study is negatively

associated with three dimensions of professional role orientation
and not positively associated with any dimensions tends to suggest that
merely completing more graduate training does not foster the develop-
ment of professional attitudes held by teachers. In fact, more
graduate training is associated with diminished professional attitudes.
Of course, this finding does not detract from the significance that may
be attached to the positive effects of some of the other graduate
study variables upon professional role orientation. However, the
findings of this study are not consistent with those of other resear-
chers (Robinson, 1966; Nixon and Gue, 1975) who found that amount of
education was positively associated with professional role orientation
among teachers. As will be elaborated upon later, this finding may
support the argument that as teachers complete more graduate training
they perhaps identify less with teachers whose workplace is the school.

The effects of full-time graduate study are positive for
three professional role orientation dimensions. Conceptually, it
may be argued that two of these dimensions, "active intellectual
orientation" and "responsibility to students--learning" are indeed
reflective of the value system likely to be emphasized in full-time
graduate study. Of course, as was discussed in Chapter 4, it may well
be that the particular value system reflected in high scores on these
dimensions of professional role orientation leads to the engagement of
full-time graduate studies in the first place.

The findings show that practicum completion at the graduate
level is related to all five dimensions of professional role orienta-
tion. With the exception of "autonomy--professional vs. layman", the
effects are positive in direction. The professional role orientation

dimensions most strongly related to this graduate study variable are those dealing with responsibilities to students. As a practicum is likely to involve direct work with students, such as is the case in the areas of counselling or special education, such relationships are not surprising. It should be noted, however, that there exists a negative, though weak, relationship between practicum completion and "autonomy--professional vs. layman". This is in contrast to the arguments presented by Lortie (1965) and Katz (1964) as to the effects of expertise upon power relationships in the workplace. If the completion of a graduate practicum does generate the perception of increased expertise, this perception does not appear to strengthen teachers' demands for power in relation to school boards.

In contrast to Perucci (1977) and Pavalko and Holley (1974), a positive relationship between autonomy in graduate study and professional attitudes was not found in this study. In fact, the magnitude of the negative relationship between graduate study autonomy and "employee and professional autonomy" is among the highest found in this thesis. It may be that persons entering graduate studies with a lack of belief in the importance of teacher autonomy (i.e., a low rating of "employee and professional autonomy") will experience graduate studies as being in contrast to their own belief system in regard to freedom in education. Thus, persons with low "employee and professional autonomy" scores may tend to regard graduate study as highly autonomous.

The workplace variable of collegiality was selected upon a theoretical basis similar to that related to the selection of full-time graduate study. It is argued in Chapter 2 that both variables were likely to be related to intensive interaction with significant

others and the formation of an occupational reference group. The
findings show that the effects of both collegiality and full-time
study are positive in relation to professional role orientation.
Both collegiality and full-time study show a moderate relationship
to "active intellectual orientation." However, full-time study is
positively associated with "responsibliity to students--learning"
while this is not the case for collegiality. The suggestion is that
when teachers work together at a school level, there is no concomi-
tant increase in concern for learning outcomes.

The finding that workplace autonomy, as opposed to graduate
study autonomy, is consistently supportive of all five dimensions of
professional role orientation is interesting. Thus, when teachers
are accorded heightened responsibility in their work, the effects
upon professional attitudes are positive. On the other hand, greater
autonomy in graduate study is associated with diminished professional
attitudes, particularly for "employee and professional autonomy".
One may infer that the experience of graduate study is quite remote
from the work and that the arenas of school and graduate study may
be contrasting in their contribution to the development of profes-
sional role orientation.

The two variables concerned with supervision in the workplace
tend to be negatively related to the five dimensions of professional
role orientation. The finding suggests that to the extent that a
teachers's work supervisor is more qualified than himself, that
teacher's level of professional role orientation will be reduced.
This is quite contrary to what would be expected from the theoretical
work regarding the importance of competency as a basis for supervisory

legitimacy; professionals are supervised only by fellow professionals
who have superior expertise, and not just bureaucratic positions of
authority (Morrissey and Gillespie, 1975; Blau and Scott, 1962). In
contrast, the findings of this study indicate that when superiors are
perceived as more qualified than the teachers they supervise, those
teachers will tend to assume a diminished responsibility for their
students' development as well as their own intellectual development.
Furthermore, such teachers will be less inclined to accord teachers
in general a need for work autonomy. It may be that teachers do not
regard their superiors as fellow professionals, but as members of an
administrative cadre, who are presumed to be ultimately responsible for
the attitudinal and intellectual development of students. Thus, there
appears to exist a difference between teachers and their supervisors
that is not typical of other professions. Further, perhaps, more
administrative or supervisory responsibility is thought to make an en-
larged teacher autonomy in the workplace unnecessary. In another sense,
the findings may reflect a belief by teachers in the superior wisdom
of supervisors and administrators who, by experience, credentials, and
perhaps position, are better qualified to exercise discretion
regarding the social and intellectual development of students. In a
more limited sense, it may be that competent supervision is more
inhibitive than it is supportive of enlarged teacher responsibility
for student development.

Content of Supervision measured the degree to which pro-
fessional growth was emphasized in the supervision of a teacher.
While this workplace variable was positively related to "responsibility
to students--formation of values and attitudes", the effects for

two other dimensions of professional role orientation were negative.

In view of the difficulty of explaining how an emphasis upon pro-

fessional development in supervision leads to diminished levels of

professional role orientation, it is perhaps more fruitful to

consider the reverse of the causal order assumed in the research model.

That is, it may be that existing professional role orientations may

affect the nature of supervision. Accordingly, teachers with

reduced levels of professional role orientation are likely to have

professional development emphasized in supervision. In other words,

teachers who, for example, do not consider themselves capable of

exercising autonomy may be steered in the direction of professional

development activities on order to foster a stronger professional

identity.

Thus far, two basic arguments are being offered as possible

explanations of the negative relationships of some of the graduate

study and workplace variables to professional role orientation. One

is that the subjects, when responding to items measuring professional

role orientation, are answering not for themselves, but for others,

that is, they are responding for teachers in general. Thus, certain

aspects of graduate study, such as amount of credit hours, may be

effective in socializing teachers to a competing reference group--

graduate students and professors--and to developing a greater appre-

ciation of a scholarly orientation but these same aspects also lead to

a degree of disdain for school teaching. Thus, the socializing effect

of the graduate school may be that it provides an alternative set of

intellectual dispositions which finds the teacher "scorning the base

degrees by which he did ascend", so to speak.

The second argument is that the direction of effects hypothe-

sized within the research model are, in fact, to be understood
in reverse order. In effect it may be that for some combinations
of graduate study, workplace, and professional role orientation
variables, diminished levels of professional role orientation
affected the ratings given for the graduate study and workplace
variables rather than the workplace and graduate study variables
affecting professional role orientation. As the data are a set of
perceptions gathered at a single point in time, the research design
utilized in this thesis did not allow the researcher to test this
possibility.

The preceding discussion had focused upon the pattern of
relationships indicated by the analyses and has attempted to explain
the presence of unanticipated negative relationships. At this point,
it may be worthwhile to identify some limitations related to the
methodology of this thesis, since possible measurement errors may
have implications for the nature and validity of the findings.

The first of these considerations is sample size. As was
stated in Chapter 4, the small size of the sample affects the size
of the F-ratio which may be used as a test for the generalizability
of the findings to the population. Thus, particularly for the weak
to moderately strong relationships, some of the negative relationships
may be negligible or even positive; that is, the standard errors are
high, suggesting caution in the interpretation of the magnitudes
of the effects. However, it is important to note that some of the
strongest relationships found are negative in direction. Hence, a lar-
ger sample would likely show similar relationships.

Second, the measurement of some of the graduate study and

workplace variables may lack the refinement necessary to measure those elements that may affect the dimensions of professional role orientation. Thus, for example, it may well be that the theoretical work involved in some thesis writing will affect professional role orientation, as hypothesized in the research model, however, a strong theoretical orientation may <u>not</u> be typical of all theses. Merely determining whether or not a thesis has been completed is con- sequently not a reliable measure of a professional's facility with theoretical work.

Third, there may be particular problems associated with the operationalization of some variables. Thus, for many items in the professional role orientation scale, for example, the variance was minimal as the majority of respondents indicated either "agree" or "strongly agree". This may be a function of the population from which the sample was drawn; that is, the population of teachers who have completed graduate studies has a generally high professional role orientation.

To this point, the discussion has attempted to understand the meaning of the findings in the light of the research model developed in Chapter 2. That model assumes that persons engaging in graduate studies do so for purposes of developing themselves as effec- tive members of their occupational group. In other words, graduate studies was considered as having intrinsic value and relevance to the practice of education. Indeed, it was hypothesized that the experience of graduate study will serve to heighten teachers' sen- sitivities to their identities as professionals. Hurn(1978) specifies such an assumption as central to the functional paradigm

in sociology:

> Because school credentials are strongly related to
> occupational status, we tend to assume that credentials
> must signify the presence of qualities that are somehow
> functionally adaptive for the performance of adult roles
> (p. 209).

It may well be that the pattern of both positive and negative

relationships found in this study indicates that this particular

frame of reference is not at all relevent to graduate studies in

the context of the occupation of teaching. Accordingly, for many

teachers, graduate studies may involve largely the pursuit of cre-

dentials. Miles (1977) notes how the "technical function" theory

of education in relation to the professions may not be appropriate,

particularly for occupations that are attempting to utilize advanced

studies as a basis for professionalism. Rossanda, Cina, and Belinguer

(1977) provide an argument to the effect that the pursuit of competence

serves as a mask for more basic pursuit of power:

> The more one studies, the more competent one becomes;
> therefore one's competence will have a higher economic
> value ... this thesis posits a correspondence between the
> range of salaries and the range of diplomas and that
> such expenses incurred during a given number of years of
> study can be viewed as an investment that will be renu-
> merated accordingly (p. 649).

In a summary of the work of Randall Collins (1971), Murphy (1979)

articulates an alternative paradigm, often referred to as the conflict

perspective:

> Whereas Parsons distinguished education from ethnicity and
> class origin by labeling the former as achieved status and the
> latter ascribed status, Collins reminds us that they may have a
> great deal in common. Like ethnicity and social class origins,
> education is a status culture that often has little relationship
> to on-the-job performance and that to that extent it is a cultural
> rather than a job performance basis of exclusion from work
> position. However, the fact that it is thought to be related to
> work competence means that it can be used by powerful groups to

legitimize exclusion and to disguise other bases of rejection, such as ethnicity, race, and social class (Murphy, 1979, p. 103). (emphasis added)

Of course, the findings of this study offer no proof of the validity of one paradigm over either of the others. However, the pursuit of knowledge requires an awareness of one's basic assumptions and it is important to understand how one frame of reference, by definition, may exclude another. Thus, for example, using a model that is based upon functional integration may preclude an analysis of conflict. Thus, examination of alternative research perspectives may be necessary to explain findings that are difficult to reconcile within one set of assumptions.

Implications

The findings of this study indicate that the impact of graduate study and workplace upon teachers' professional role orientation is complex. It appears that some features of graduate study and the workplace are supportive of stronger professional attitudes, while others have a tendency to be associated with a diminished professional role orientation. The variables were selected on the basis of an analysis of the literature relevant to professional socialization and on the strength of that analysis; all workplace and graduate study variables were hypothesized as being supportive of professional role orientation. This study, in view of the negative relationships found, therefore raises a number of questions regarding the applicability of general models of professional socialization to the occupation of teaching. A few such questions will now be discussed.

First, the issue of occupational identification appears to

be important to understanding some of the relationships discovered in this thesis. It would be important to determine whether certain aspects of graduate study, such as autonomy, lead to an identification with a reference group other than public school teachers. An example may be the identification with scholars of a particular discipline. Another aspect of identification that requires exploration is related to the findings regarding supervision. It may well be that teachers do not regard their supervisors as members of the same occupational category, teachers, and perhaps supervisors regard themselves as an occupation apart from teaching. This may be different from other professions in which supervisors are regarded as fellow professionals.

Second, a more thorough understanding of the processes related to the variables utilized in this study is necessary for a more complete understanding of the findings. It will be recalled that the variables were chosen as broad operational proxies for some assumed processes and mechanisms, such as interaction with significant others. Further research is required as to the nature of the variables selected; this may allow for the determination of relationships between some components of the variables and professional role orientation. For example, by examining more closely the graduate praciticum experience, it may be possible to identify with greater precision some elements of that experience which may have an influence upon professional role orientation.

In Chapter 2, it was emphasized how structural variables such as those selected for this thesis by definition excluded highly individual sources of professional role orientation. In view of the complexity of the findings, an exploration of some psychological

variables may improve an understanding of the nature of the mechanisms related to the development of professional role orientation. Some variables like this which may be relevant are self-concept and motivation (Gregory and Allen 1978, Elsworth and Coulter, 1978). Thus, for example, questions may be asked in relation to the effects of how a credential-oriented motivation for graduate studies influences certain choices in graduate programs. Indeed, as has been intimated in the preceding section, professional role orientation may be considered a pre-disposing factor in relation to a teacher's perception of the workplace and graduate study variables.

Finally, questions can be raised in relation to the definition of professional role orientation. Perhaps professional role orientation as a hypothetical construct must be differentiated for various career stages. In a sense, it may be that there exists a point at which professional role orientation, as it is generally determined, does not increase with further education and/or experience. Thus, it may not be appropriate to use an instrument designed for teachers with basic undergraduate qualifications for a population that has completed graduate training.

A resolution of many of the issues just raised would involve a refinement of the research procedures utilized in this thesis. Including questions regarding occupational identification, modifying the professional role orientation scale, and utilizing self-concept scales would exemplify such refinements. However, some questions arising from this study can perhaps only be dealt with through the use of essentially different research methodologies. For example,

longitudinal data tracing the development of professional attitudes from pre-training to undergraduate and graduate studies would answer some concerns that arise in relation to the causal ordering of the variables in the research model. Also, the use of interview and participant observation techniques to probe the nature of the individual and social construction of reality among teachers in relation to graduate study, the workplace and professional attitudes and behavior would provide additional data and insights for the conceptualization of professional role orientation. In this way, the researcher will make fewer assumptions as to the meaning of social events and individual perceptions.

Finally, a few implications for practice in both public schools and graduate study seem to emerge from the findings of this study. There are indications form the data that both practicum completion and full-time study are supportive of heightened professional role orientation. Furthermore, there exists a tendency for sheer amount of graduate study to be associated with reduced levels of professional role orientation. Accordingly, it would seem that graduate study may be understood more in terms of qualitative characteristics, rather than quantitative measures of them; completion of an intensive integrated period of study should be distinguished from collecting graduate credit hours. Perhaps this is related to what Krause (1971) has observed:

> ... an attempt is made, sometimes successfully, to have academic graduate students socialize and educate each other, whereas the education programs have a rather mechanistic quality about them (p. 301).

In this study, a consistently positive relationship between autonomy and collegiality in the workplace and professional role orientation was found. Thus, if there exist opportunities for the exercise of professional autonomy, as well as occasions for the establishment of collegial working relationships, at least some aspects of professional role orientation are likely to be fostered. On the other hand, the relationship of supervision to professional role orientation is more complex. The findings indicate that supervision is a professionally sensitive area and that an increased emphasis upon professional growth in supervision can be associated with reduced levels of professional role orientation. One implication seems to be that teachers may be lowering their self-esteem as professionals in the face of authority figures. Perhaps, as Martin (1975) suggests, administrators may frustrate the exercise of professional autonomy by imposing a bureaucratic authority. Admininstrators and supervisors who are concerned about the professional role orientation of teachers may be encouraged to examine their supervisory practices in the face of findings such as those reported in this study. Alternatively, it may be that teachers are simply not assertive about their professionalism, as Lortie (1973) has contended: "It is interesting that teachers have not challenged their formal subordination, unlike most who claim professional status...." (p. 317).

Only further study can answer questions such as those raised by the findings of this study. Since teaching is one of the largest occupations, investigations of the work values of teachers is important.

Furthermore, the nature of educational administration is heavily contingent upon teachers' preceptions of their occupational role—whether that perception is "professional" or otherwise has implications for all aspects of the education enterprise.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1

Item Clusters Suggested by Oblique 6 and 7 Factor
Solutions of the Original 36 Items Comprising
the Professional Role Orientation Scale

6-Factor Solution:

Factor 1:

Teachers should develop their own code of ethics.

Teachers should continuously evaluate their own code of ethics
for clarity and practical utility.

Teachers should voluntarily adhere to their written code of
ethics.

Teachers should take an active part in the formulation of the
policies of their professional organization.

Control over entry to teaching should rest with a board composed
of a majority of practising teachers.

Teachers should become active members in teachers' organizations.

Teachers should have the means to protect one another from
arbitrary practices.

Teachers should accept responsibility for the grading system
they use with their students.

Factor 2:

Teachers should look to their local school boards for guidance
in their work as teachers.

Teachers should look to their local school boards for approval
in their work as teachers.

Local school boards should accept responsibility for planning
programs for teachers' in-service growth.

Factor 3:

Teachers should accept responsibility for their students'
formation of important values and attitudes.

Teachers should hold themselves accountable for the learning
experiences they provide their students.

Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning
environments in which students function.

Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they
make about their students as learners.

Table 1 (Continued)

Teachers should accept responsibility for helping their students learn to deal with their feelings.

Factor 4:

Teachers should have the power to expel or suspend colleagues in accordance with a written code of ethics.

Teachers should accept responsibility for disciplining colleagues who are incompetent or immoral.

Factor 5:

Teachers should keep themselves informed on current trends and practices in their fields of teaching.

Teachers should participate in conferences, workshops, and other programs dealing with professional problems.

Teachers should possess extensive knowledge about the principles of learning.

Teachers should engage in study activities to enhance teaching skills.

Factor 6:

Teachers should be a majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.

Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.

Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms in class size.

Teachers should be the foremost group directly influencing decisions concerning class scheduling.

Teachers should have a part in hiring school administrators.

7-Factor Solution:

Factor 1:

Teachers should develop their own code of ethics.

Teachers should continuously evaluate their code of ethics for clarity and practical utility.

Teachers should take an active part in the formulation of policies of their professional organization.

Teachers should have the means to protect one another from artibrary practices.

Table 1 (Continued)

Teachers should accept responsibility for the grading system they use with students.

Factor 2:

Teachers should look to their local school boards for guidance in their work as teachers.

Teachers should look to their local school boards for approval in their work as teachers.

Local school boards should accept responsibility for planning programs for teachers' in-service growth.

Factor 3:

Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning environments in which students function.

Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they make about their students as learners.

Factor 4:

The legislature should determine the requirements for obtaining a teaching certificate.

Factor 5:

Teachers should look upon their code of ethics as binding upon them.

Teachers should support a written code of ethical standards to guide their conduct.

Teachers should voluntarily adhere to their written code of ethics.

Factor 6:

Teachers should keep themselves informed on current trends and practices in their fields of teaching.

Teachers should participate in conferences, workshops and other programs dealing with professional problems.

Teachers should possess extensive knowledge about the principles of learning.

Teachers should engage in study activities to enhance teaching skills.

Table 1 (Continued)

Factor 7:

Teachers should be a majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.

Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.

Teachers should have a primary voice in designing credential programs in teacher education programs.

Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms for class size.

Table 2

Item Clusters Suggested by Factor Analysis
Following Initial Eliminations

Strongly Supported: Factor 1:

Teachers should develop their own code
of ethics.

Teachers should continuously evaluate
their code of ethics for clarity and
practical utility.

Teachers should take an active part in
the formulation of policies of their
professional organization.

Teachers should have the means to
protect one another from arbitrary
practices.

Teachers should accept responsibility
for the grading system they use with
students.

Factor 2:

Teachers should look to their local
school boards for guidance in their work
as teachers.

Teachers should look to their local
school boards for approval in their work
as teachers.

Local school boards should accept
responsibility for planning programs for
teachers' in-service growth.

Factor 3:

Teachers should keep themselves informed
on current trends and practices in their
fields of teaching.

Teachers should participate in
conferences, workshops and other
programs dealing with professional
problems.

Teachers should possess extensive
knowledge about the principles of
learning.

Table 2 (Continued)

	Teachers should engage in study activities to enhance teaching skills.
Less Strongly Supported:	Factor 4:
	Teachers should accept responsibility for their students' formation of important values and attitudes.
	Teachers should hold themselves accountable for the learning experiences they provide their students.
	Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning environments in which students function.
	Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they make about their students as learners.
	Teachers should accept responsibility for helping their students learn to deal with their feelings.
	Factor 5:
	Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.
	Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms for class size.
	Teachers should be the foremost group directly influencing decisions concerning class scheduling.
Non-Clustered Items:	Teachers should have the power to expel or suspend colleagues in accordance with a written code of ethics.
	Teachers should accept responsibility for disciplining colleagues who are incompetent or immoral.
	Teachers should have the means to protect one another from arbitrary practices.
	Teachers should be a majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.

Table 2 (Continued)

Teachers should have a primary voice in designing credential programs in teacher education programs.

The legislature should determine the requirements for a teaching certificate.

APPENDIX B

Department of Educational Administration
and Foundations

University of Manitoba

A Survey of Teachers' Perceptions
of Graduate Study, Job Circumstances,
and Professional Issues

Part I - Background Information

1. What is your sex?

    ___ male
    ___ female

2. Please state your present position (e.g. classroom teacher, resource teacher, librarian, consultant, etc.)_____

    _____

3. In your present position, at what grade level is the majority of your time spent?

    ___ K - 6
    ___ 7 - 9
    ___ 10 - 12
    ___ other (Please specify)_____

4. Estimate the percentage of time you spend in direct teaching, of individuals or groups, in your present position:

    ___ less than 25%
    ___ 25%
    ___ 50%
    ___ 75%
    ___ virtually 100%

5. For how many years have you been employed in your present position? _____

6. What is the total number of years of your experience in Education? _____

7. Please list the degrees/diplomas you hold and the faculty/academic department in which each degree/diploma was obtained:

    Degrees/Diplomas   Faculty/Academic Department

    _____   _____

    _____   _____

    _____   _____

    _____   _____

    _____   _____

    _____   _____

8. Please estimate the total number of credit hours of _graduate_ study you have completed (1 credit hour= 10-12 contact hours; 6 credit hours= 1 full course; 3 credit hours= 1 half course):_____

9. In your _graduate work_, did you complete a period of full-time study, in which your _main occupation_ was graduate study?

    ___ yes
    ___ no

    If "_yes_", what was the length of this period of full-time study?
    ___ 4 months (one semester or term)
    ___ 8 months (two semesters or terms)
    ___ more than 8 months of consecutive full-time study (Specify)_____

THE ITEMS IN THE REMAINDER OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE ARE
ORGANIZED INTO THREE SECTIONS. PART II DEALS WITH
GRADUATE STUDY AND PART III FOCUSES UPON THE WORK
YOU ARE NOW DOING. THE FINAL SECTION, PART IV, IS
CONCERNED WITH YOUR VIEWS ON SOME PROFESSIONAL ISSUES.

Instructions for Completing Parts II, III, and IV of the Questionnaire

For the majority of items, you will be able to indicate your response by circling
a number on a five point scale. If you have completed more than one graduate
degree or diploma, answer the questions in Part II in terms of your most recently
completed credential.

Part II - Graduate Study

THE FOLLOWING THREE QUESTIONS DEAL WITH THESIS
OR DISSERTATION WORK. RESPOND ONLY TO THOSE
ITEMS WHICH APPLY TO YOU.

1. Did your graduate program include a thesis requirement?

   Yes ___ No ___

   (If "no", please skip to question 4)

2. How much freedom did you experience in selecting your thesis topic?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal freedom		some freedom		a great deal of freedom

3. How much supervision did you experience in your thesis work?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal supervision		some supervision		a great deal of supervision

THE FOLLOWING SIX QUESTIONS DEAL WITH GRADUATE
PRACTICA. RESPOND ONLY TO THOSE ITEMS WHICH APPLY
TO YOU.

For purposes of this study, a practicum is defined
as a "unit of work done by an advanced university
student that involves the practical application of
theory.

4. Did you complete a practicum (or practica) at the graduate level?

   Yes ___ No ___

   (If "no", please skip to question 9)

5. How much supervision did you experience in your practicum (practica)?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal supervision		some supervision		a great deal of supervision

6. To what extent did the practicum (or practica) provide a <u>realistic</u> setting for the learning of practical skills?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

7. To what extent was it required that students·in this practicum (or practica) use or apply a theoretical perspective in the analysis and learning of ·practical skills?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

8. As a result of this practicum (practica), to what extent did you develop specialized skills?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

THE FOLLOWING SEVEN QUESTIONS DEAL WITH TEACHING/
RESEARCH ASSISTANTSHIPS. RESPOND ONLY TO THOSE
ITEMS WHICH <u>APPLY TO YOU</u>.

9. Did you work as a teaching assistant while doing graduate work?

Yes ___ No ___

(If "<u>no</u>", please skip to question 13)

10. As a teaching assistant, how much responsibility did you assume for the teaching of a university course?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal responsibility		some responsibility		a great deal of responsibility

11. In your work as a teaching assistant, how much discretion were you able to exercise in establishing course objectives?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal discretion		some discretion		a great deal of discretion

12. In your work as a teaching assistant, how much discretion were you able to exercise in assigning course grades?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal discretion		some discretion		a great deal of discretion

13. Did you work as a research assistant while doing graduate work?

Yes ___ No ___

(If "no", please skip to question 16)

14. As a research assistant, how much responsibility did you assume for the research project(s) with which you were involved?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal responsibility		some responsibility		a great deal of responsibility

15. In your work as a research assistant, how much discretion were you able to exercise in regards to carrying out and/or reporting upon the project(s)?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal discretion		some discretion		a great deal of discretion

THE FINAL THREE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION DEAL WITH
YOUR PERCEPTIONS OF SOME GENERAL ASPECTS OF YOUR
GRADUATE STUDY.

16. How was your graduate advisor determined?

1	2	3	4	5
my own choice		negotiated		appointed

17. To what extent did graduate studies allow you to pursue your own academic interests?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

18. What degree of flexibility did you experience in establishing your graduate program?

1	2	3	4	5
minimal flexibility		some flexibility		a great deal of flexibility

Part III - Job Circumstances

THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION DEAL WITH YOUR
PERCEPTIONS OF SOME ASPECTS OF THE WORK YOU ARE
NOW DOING.

1. To what extent do you rely upon the competencies of your immediate colleagues in the course of your day-to-day work?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

2. To what extent do you contribute your skills and competencies to your colleagues' day-to-day work?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

3. To what extent do you agree with this statement: "A person who cannot work co-operatively within a team would not remain on staff at my present place of employment"

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

4. To what extent are you free to adjust your daily schedule as you deem appropriate?

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat .		to a great extent

5. How much freedom do you have in selecting materials or resources for your work?

1	2	3	4	5
very little		some		a great deal

6. How much flexibility do you have in the application of curriculum guidelines (or other such policy statements) in your work?

1	2	3	4	5
very little		some		a great deal

7. To what extent do you agree with this statement: "I am accountable for the outcomes of my work; however, I am free to utilize my professional judgement regarding the means to achieve those goals."

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

8. Please estimate how many minutes of unscheduled work time you have available in a typical day: _____ minutes

9. Think for a moment about the person, who as a <u>supervisor</u> or an <u>administrator</u>, is most influential in determining the way you carry out your present work. In your estimation, how does this person's amount of education, area of specialization and work experience compare to your own?

(a) <u>Amount</u> of formal education:

1	2	3	4	5
considerably less than mine		about the same as mine		considerably more than mine

(b) <u>Area</u> of specialization in formal education:

1	2	3	4	5
entirely different from my own		somewhat similar to my own		identical to my own

(c) <u>Work experience</u>:

1	2	3	4	5
entirely different from my own		somewhat similar to my own		identical to my own

10. When you are supervised, to what extent are the following elements emphasized by your supervisor?

(a) development of your professional competencies:

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

(b) your participation in activities which serve the profession at large:

1	2	3	4	5
minimally		somewhat		to a great extent

Part IV - Professional Issues

THE ITEMS IN THIS SECTION DEAL WITH YOUR VIEWS ON
CERTAIN PROFESSIONAL ISSUES. AGAIN, FOR EACH ITEM,
CIRCLE THE NUMBER ON THE SCALE WHICH BEST REPRESENTS
YOUR VIEW.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	?	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Teachers should be a majority of any official body involved in accrediting teacher education programs.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Teachers should keep themselves informed on current trends and practices in their fields of teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Teachers should look to their local school boards for guidance in their work as teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Teachers should have the power to expel or suspend colleagues in accordance with a written code of ethics.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Teachers should accept responsibility for their students' formation of important values and attitudes.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Teachers should have major control over their working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Teachers should look upon their code of ethics as binding upon them.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Teachers should have a primary voice in designing credential programs in teacher education programs.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Teachers should participate in conferences, workshops, and other programs dealing with professional problems.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Teachers should accept responsibility for disciplining colleagues who are incompetent or immoral.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Teachers should look to their local school boards for approval in their work as teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Teachers should hold themselves accountable for the learning experiences they provide their students.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Teachers should have a final voice in setting norms for class size.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	?	Agree	Strongly agree

14. Teachers should support a written code of ethical standards to guide their conduct.   1   2   3   4   5

15. Teachers should develop their own code of ethics.   1   2   3   4   5

16. Teachers should continuously evaluate their code of ethics for clarity and practical utility.   1   2   3   4   5

17. Local school boards should accept responsibility for planning programs for teachers' in-service growth.   1   2   3   4   5

18. Teachers should enforce their professional standards.   1   2   3   4   5

19. Teachers should accept responsibility for the learning environments in which students function.   1   2   3   4   5

20. Teachers should be the foremost group directly influencing decisions concerning class scheduling.   1   2   3   4   5

21. Teachers should voluntarily adhere to their written code of ethics.   1   2   3   4   5

22. Teachers should be the people primarily responsible for the selection of textbooks.   1   2   3   4   5

23. Teachers should take an active part in the formulation of the policies of their professional organization.   1   2   3   4   5

24. Local school boards should have the sole legal responsibility for initiating dismissal hearings.   1   2   3   4   5

25. Teachers should accept responsibility for the decisions they make about their students as learners.   1   2   3   4   5

26. Control over entry to teaching should rest with a board composed of a majority of practicing teachers.   1   2   3   4   5

27. Teachers should possess extensive knowledge about the principles of learning.   1   2   3   4   5

28. The legislature should determine the requirements for obtaining a teaching certificate.   1   2   3   4   5

29. Teachers should engage in study activities to enhance teaching skills.   1   2   3   4   5

30. Teachers should have a part in hiring school administrators.   1   2   3   4   5

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	?	Agree	Strongly agree
31. Teachers should become active members in teachers' organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Teachers should develop and test more effective classroom procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Teachers should accept responsibility for helping their students learn to deal with their feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Teachers should have the means to protect one another from arbitrary practices.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Teachers should accept responsibility for the grading system they use with students.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Teachers should develop a professional licenture system for teaching that would replace the existing provincial systems.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. You will receive an abstract of the findings when it is available.

APPENDIX C

UM

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION AND FOUNDATIONS

WINNIPEG, CANADA
TELEPHONE: 474-9019

Dear Colleague: February 3rd, 1981.

You, as one of a group of Class Six and Seven teachers in Manitoba, are asked to participate in a study which explores some relationships among graduate study, present job circumstances, and some issues related to professionalism. Under the supervision of Dr. John C. Long, Associate Professor, the study is being undertaken by Edwin Buettner as part of his program of doctoral studies in the Department of Educational Administration and Foundations. The findings should be helpful in extending what is known about teachers' orientations to their occupation and may provide direction for the modification of graduate study and work settings.

Your effort in completing the enclosed questionnaire, which takes approximately twenty minutes to complete, will be greatly appreciated. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Strict confidentiality is guaranteed.

We understand how valuable your time is; however, your returning the completed questionnaire by February 18 is important to the progress of this project. If you have any questions, please contact Edwin Buettner at his home (269-3790) or contact the secretary in the Department of Educational Administration and Foundations (474-9010) who will take a message. Collect calls will, of course, be accepted.

Thank you for your time and attention to this request. When the study has been completed, you will receive a summary of the findings.

Sincerely

Dr. A. D. Gregor, Acting Head

Dr. John C. Long, Associate Professor

Mr. Edwin Buettner, Doctoral Student

ADG/JCL/EB/jes

encl:

UM

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION AND FOUNDATIONS

WINNIPEG, CANADA
TELEPHONE: 474-9019

February 18, 1981.

Dear Colleague:

On February 3, 1981, a questionnaire entitled "A Survey of Teachers' Perceptions of Graduate School, Job Circumstances and Professional Issues" was mailed to you.   As of today, we have not received your reply.

Again, we are quite aware of the demands that are made upon your time, however, your completing the questionnaire is essential to the success of this study.   If you have any concerns and/or questions about this project, please do not hesitate to contact Edwin Buettner at his home (269-3790) or leave a message with the Departmental Secretary (474-9010).   Long distance charges will be accepted.   If you did not receive a questionnaire or if your copy has been misplaced, we would be happy to forward another.

As indicated in our first letter, you will receive a summary of the findings of this study when it is ready.

Thank you for your consideration of this request.   Your participation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Dr. John C. Long
Associate Professor
Study Advisor.

Mr. Edwin Buettner
Doctoral Student.

JCL/EB/jes