

**Some pages of this thesis may have been removed for copyright restrictions.**

If you have discovered material in AURA which is unlawful e.g. breaches copyright, (either yours or that of a third party) or any other law, including but not limited to those relating to patent, trademark, confidentiality, data protection, obscenity, defamation, libel, then please read our [Takedown Policy](#) and [contact the service](#) immediately

TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF THEIR ROLE

by

George Bernard Thomas

Submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

to the

University of Aston in Birmingham

April, 1980



George Bernard Thomas: Teachers' Conceptions of their Role

To be offered for the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Aston, 1980.

Summary

An analysis is made of the conceptions which serving teachers have of their role, though no attempt is made to relate this to their practice of teaching.

A series of role items was collected to afford a description of the teacher's role in terms of school and society expectations as well as classroom behaviours. These were taken from the literature and from interviews with teachers, and confirmed in a preliminary survey. Presented as a questionnaire, replies to the main investigation were made by 881 teachers, working in a variety of schools from nurseries to comprehensives.

Two attempts have been made to construct a role model. The first, depending on the judgement of items fitting theoretically derived roles, failed, due to diffuseness in the role of teacher. The second used factor analysis; six factors were extracted which represent meaningful and distinct areas of role.

The analysis has depended largely on examination of scores taken from these factors. Teachers in all types of school have similar conceptions of discipline. Nursery-infant and junior staff generally agree on the other areas investigated, but the concepts of secondary teachers are distinct. They are more conservative and less child-centered.

When the class being taught is held constant, few differences in role conception are found to be related to sex, being a parent, graduate status, or personality, as measured in terms of the extrovert and neurotic dimensions. The first few years of teaching bring considerable changes in role conception, and further changes occur with prolonged experience. Deputy heads in junior schools and nursery nurses have quite distinct role conceptions; those of all other teachers, including those holding senior posts in secondary schools, are similar. The perception of school climate influences the role conception of primary teachers directly, but it does not influence that of secondary teachers. The greatest variation in role conception is related to scores on the radical scale of Oliver and Butcher.

Primary school teachers experience little constraint, but that reported by secondary school teachers is considerable, especially that coming from the head. Despite difficulties caused by the wide division between primary and secondary education, teachers have an accurate perception of the roles their colleagues adopt. A few misunderstandings may be due to a feeling of idealism amongst nursery and infant teachers. There is evidence in their conception of role that would enhance the professional standing of teachers, but this is not in a form which is likely to be recognised by the public.

Key words: Teachers' Role Concepts.

## Contents

	List of Tables	
	List of Text Figures	
	List of Tables in the Appendix	
	Acknowledgements	
Chapter 1:	<u>Introduction: the Origin and Outline of this Work</u>	1
Chapter 2:	<u>A Review of the Literature</u>	12
2 - 1:	The Underlying Assumptions in Role Theory	13
2 - 2:	Role-related Concepts	20
2 - 3:	The Present State of Role Theory	24
2 - 4:	Theoretical Studies of the Teacher's Role	34
2 - 5:	The Gross and Biddle Studies	45
2 - 6:	Empirically-based Studies of the Teacher's Role	52
2 - 7:	Role Conflict and Job-satisfaction	62
2 - 8:	Students' Perceptions of the Teacher's Role	69
Chapter 3:	<u>The Research Strategy</u>	72
Chapter 4:	<u>Preliminary Investigations</u>	87
4 - 1:	The Preliminary Questionnaire	88
	Design (88); The Sample (90); Treatment of the Replies (93); Results (94); Discussion (102); Implications (110)	
4 - 2:	A Preliminary Attempt to Structure Role Concepts	111
	Hoyle's Theoretical Model of Role Concepts (111); Results (115); Discussion (117)	
4 - 3:	Conclusions	121
Chapter 5:	<u>The Main Investigation</u>	123
5 - 1:	Selection of the items for further study	124
5 - 2:	Collection of Biographical Data	129
5 - 3:	The other Instruments Administered	132
	The Personality Inventory (133); The Oliver and Butcher 'Survey of Opinions about Education' (133); The 'Organisational Climate of Schools' (134)	
5 - 4:	The Investigation of Professional Cohesion and Role Conflict	137
5 - 5:	The Sample	139
5 - 6:	Treatment of the Replies and Initial Analysis	153
	The Personality Inventory (153); The Survey of Opinions about Education (157); School Climate (159); Validation of the scale School Climate (162)	



Chapter 6:	<u>Results of the Main Investigation</u>	175
6 - 1:	The 'Ineffective' answers	180
6 - 2:	The Factor Analysis	183
6 - 3:	Further Statistical Analysis	192
6 - 4:	The Effect of Independent Variables upon Role Conception	196
	The Sex of Teachers (196); Class taken (197); The relationship between Class taken and Gender (200); Graduate/non-graduate status (208); Length of Teaching Experience (215); Responsibility (219); Being a parent (224); Personality Factors (225); Educational Opinions (226); School Climate (230)	
Chapter 7:	<u>Discussion of the Results of the Main Investigation</u>	236
7 - 1:	The Role Model	237
7 - 2:	The age of children taught	241
7 - 3:	The Influence of Biographical Data	244
7 - 4:	The Influence of the other variables investigated	258
	Personality (258); Educational Opinions (259); School Climate (261)	
Chapter 8:	<u>Professional Cohesion</u>	265
	Discussion (275)	
Chapter 9:	<u>Role Constraint</u>	278
	Discussion (291)	
Chapter 10:	<u>Final Discussions and Conclusion</u>	296
	Appendix	312
	List of References	346

## List of Tables

1.	The response made to the preliminary questionnaire	92
2.	Items in the preliminary questionnaire with comparatively small standard deviations, signifying high consensus	95
3.	Items in the preliminary questionnaire with comparatively large standard deviations, signifying low consensus	97
4.	Items in the preliminary questionnaire which elicited large numbers of 'irrelevant' replies	100
5.	An analysis of 'irrelevant' responses made to certain items in the preliminary investigation	107
6.	The Theoretical Structure of the Teacher's Role used in this investigation	113
6a.	Assignment of items into the roles proposed theoretically by Hoyle	116
7.	The number of items, agreed by at least five judges, which represent the roles of the teacher	118
8.	The thirty-three items used in all the main questionnaires	126
9.	The composition of the seven versions of the questionnaire used in the main investigation	138
10.	Details of schools approached in the main investigation	141
11.	Details of teachers approached in the main investigation	144
12.	Numbers of questionnaires sent out in the main investigation	146
13.	Numbers of questionnaires returned in the main investigation	147
14.	The statistical significance of primary and secondary teachers' returns to the different forms of the questionnaire	148
15.	The intercorrelations between Neurotic and Extroversion scores on the full and shortened versions of the Eysenck Personality Inventory	154
16.	A comparison between Personality scores of the general population and a sample of teachers	155
17.	A comparison between Personality scores of teachers in the preliminary study and those in the main investigation	157
18.	School climate: the method of scoring and the number of respondents in each category	160



19.	Analysis of the variance in respondents' answers given to the 33 common role items in the four comparable versions of the questionnaire	176
20.	The mean score, standard deviation and number of usable responses made to the 33 items concerning teachers' role perception	177
21.	Analysis of the distribution of 'irrelevant' replies made according to the teachers' school	181
22.	Rotated Factor Matrix Scores for a six factor solution	185
23.	Scores given by male and female teachers to the factor scales of the role model	196
24.	Scores given by teachers of Nursery-infant, Junior and Secondary school children to the factor scales of the role model	198
25.	The significances of differences between scores shown in table 24.	199
26.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Discipline	200
27.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Extra-curricular activities	201
28.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Familiarity	201
29.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Child-centered	202
30.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Duties	203
31.	The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Instructor	204
32.	An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with reference to gender and the class taught	205
33.	Scores given by graduate and non-graduate teachers to the factor scales of the role model	208
34.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Discipline	209
35.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Extra-curricular activities	210
36.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Familiarity	211

37.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Child-centered	211
38.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Duties	212
39.	The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area Instructor	213
40.	An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with respect to graduate status	213
41.	Scores given by teachers with varying lengths of experience to the factor scales of the role model	216
42.	An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with respect to length of teaching experience and responsibility	218
43.	Scores given by teachers with varying responsibilities to the factor scales of the role model	221
44.	Scores given by teachers with and without children of their own to the factor scales of the role model	224
45.	Scores given by teachers with personalities assessed along the extrovert/introvert dimension to the factor scales of the role model	225
46.	Scores given by teachers with personalities assessed along the neurotic/stable dimension to the factor scales of the role model	225
47.	Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Natural dimension to the factor scales of the role model	228
48.	Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Tenderminded dimension to the factor scales of the role model	229
49.	Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Radical dimension to the factor scales of the role model	229
50.	Scores given by teachers separated by their scores on the Esprit scale to the factor scales of the role model	230
51.	Scores given by teachers separated according to the Intimate scale to the factor scales of the role model	231
52.	Scores given by teachers separated according to their perceptions of School climate to the factor scales of the role model	223
53.	Scores given by Nursery-infant, Junior and Secondary teachers, separated according to their perceptions of School climate, to the factor scales of the role model	234
54.	Differences between scores perceived on the role scales for colleagues compared to their actual score	267



55.	Role Cohesion: a Summary of findings from scores given to the role scales	268
56.	An analysis of replies to individual role items, made with reference to role cohesion	273
57.	Differences between scores on the role scales expected for the head teacher and teachers' actual scores	281
58.	Differences between scores on the role scales expected for parents and teachers' actual scores	281
59.	Differences between scores on the role scales expected for pupils and teachers' actual scores	282
60.	Nursery and infant teachers and Role Constraint	284
61.	Junior teachers and Role Constraint	285
62.	Secondary teachers and Role Constraint	286
63.	Role Constraint - a summary	287
64.	An analysis of replies made to individual role items made with reference to role constraint	290

List of Text Figures

1.	The relationship between theoretically-based and practically-based studies of the teacher's role	7
2.	Scores on the scale Extra-curricular activities, plotted against length of experience	247
3.	Scores on the scale Child-centered, plotted against length of experience	248
4.	Scores on the scale Duties, plotted against length of experience	250
5.	Scores on the scales Discipline, Familiarity and Instructor, plotted against length of experience	251

List of Tables in the Appendix

I.	Items used in the preliminary investigation and an analysis of the response	313
II.	Definitions of the role areas given to judges for placement of items in the preliminary investigation	326
III.	Nomination of items from the preliminary investigation to the roles based on Hoyle's model	331
IV.	Comparison of scores on the full Eysenck Personality Inventory and the shortened form used in this investigation	333
V.	Scores gained by respondents in the main investigation to the sub-scales Esprit and Intimacy	334
VI.	Mean Intimacy, Esprit and School climate scores for schools, together with the total number of staff and number of returns used for making these measures	335
VII.	Two Factor Analysis of Variance for the four comparable versions of the main questionnaire	337
VIII.	The effect of experience of teaching upon role conception	342
IX.	Vignettes of schools selected to illustrate the scale School climate	343



## Acknowledgements

It is a pleasure to recognize the help which has been received from all quarters during the preparation of this work.

Teachers from all over the country, and especially from the Metropolitan Borough of Walsall, have given their opinions freely, and many have given further help and encouragement. Dr. N.C.Graham and other staff of the Department of Educational Enquiry at the University of Aston have been generous with their criticism. Jenny Holden has worked hard to make the account presentable in a limited period of time. But the most sincere thanks are offered to my family, who have given up so much that I might pursue this study.

Despite all this help, the responsibility for the views and material set out in this account must remain with me.

March, 1980

Chapter: 1

Introduction: the Origin and Outline of this Work

Chapter 1: Introduction: the Origin and Outline of this Work

This work has its origins in attempts to assess teaching ability. It is necessary that such attempts should be made since assessment is needed in the certification of students after a period of training, and in recommending established teachers for new posts. There are considerable difficulties here. There is a lack of clear criteria and even where criteria are held to exist they may not be understood or interpreted by both parties to an assessment in the same way. Environmental factors such as the size of school, its location and even its morale are likely to affect if not determine any assessment of teaching ability. Personal factors such as age, sex, personality and experience have all to be considered. It is not surprising that, despite the large number of studies undertaken, no clear conclusions have yet emerged.

In his own mind, every teacher is likely to think that he is effective and competent but since teachers are usually mature and responsible people they do not lack objectivity. They are likely to appreciate that the quality of their work could improve but for the constraints of their situation. Students in training are likely to be open to advice offered by their tutors and by experienced staff during teaching practice. But, once established in a post, a teacher has to make his own way. Though expert advice is still available from advisers, inspectors, senior colleagues and head teachers, the teacher is not obliged to either seek or take advice. The teacher enters his own kingdom and must soon appreciate that colleagues will hesitate to interfere. The concepts of students concerning teaching can be ex-

pected to change rapidly during training and it is probable that they will undergo further change for some time after commencing full time teaching as the ideals to which they were exposed during training come to terms with the actuality of life in the classroom.

It is now the teachers turn to assess. Existing conceptions have to be evaluated against the opportunities offered by the teaching situation. To some extent success will be measured by the balance achieved between them. These constraints and opportunities may, of course, be perceived differently by the young teacher and the head. While they may well have the same goals in mind, they will assess progress towards those goals differently. There is likely to be considerable disagreement over the opportunities available. There may well be misconceptions over the very aims of teaching, for these are seldom laid down by employers and teachers are never invited or required to define their work. However, any attempt to delineate the job will tend to limit the opportunities; and any definition is likely to raise as many questions as it answers. Westwood (1969) considers the teacher's role to be 'uniquely difficult' because of the number of facets which can be recognised.

The traditional division of education into at least primary and secondary sectors does something to recognise this difficulty. The recent trend for teachers to live away from the community in which they work restricts, if not prevents, their participation in community life outside the school, and so limits the number of roles they may play. Nevertheless, the nature of the task still remains so diffuse that a very considerable number of aspects of the role remain.



An understanding of many of these will be common to all the staff in a school; and even more will be agreed by teachers of the same subject, or those working in adjacent classrooms; but for some there will be no general recognition. The position is so complex that every teacher can justifiably be expected to have a unique conception of his role.

A teacher may take on two or even more quite distinct aspects of the role at any one time, but it would not be possible to take on any significant number at once. Proficient teachers are able to move from one area of their role to another with facility, but they will enter some aspects very rarely. Indeed, individual teachers may not accept, or occasionally even recognise, areas which are frequently enacted by some of their colleagues. This will be most apparent if a comparison is made of the work of teachers of the youngest children and of those preparing to leave school for employment or higher education. Whilst they may not relish the prospect, it seems likely that most teachers will be aware of the role pattern most likely to be of use should they be transferred to work in another educational sector. The conception that teachers have of their role, defined in both the limited sense of applying to their own work, and the broader sense of education in general, forms the basis of this investigation.

Some existing theoretical studies have examined the role of teachers in general, and others have concentrated on that of a specific group of teachers. Practical studies have almost invariably been limited to the role of teacher in a particular educational sector, and have often gathered information at second hand - that is, by asking other groups, especially students, what they think of the teacher's

role. A feature of this study is the emphasis given to teachers' conceptions of their own role, and of that of colleagues in other types of schools.

Much of the analysis will be attempted at a level corresponding to the three educational sectors: nursery-infant, junior, and secondary, since it is felt that these will correspond to generally agreed patterns of the overall role. By making comparisons between these conceptions, some aspects of the role can be resolved which are held in common by all teachers; but many more will emerge which are specific to one, or at most two, sectors. On occasion, it may prove possible to relate a conception to a particular school. Analysis at this level should isolate a number of unique role areas and conceptions from groups of teachers without losing sight of a comprehensive picture of the role.

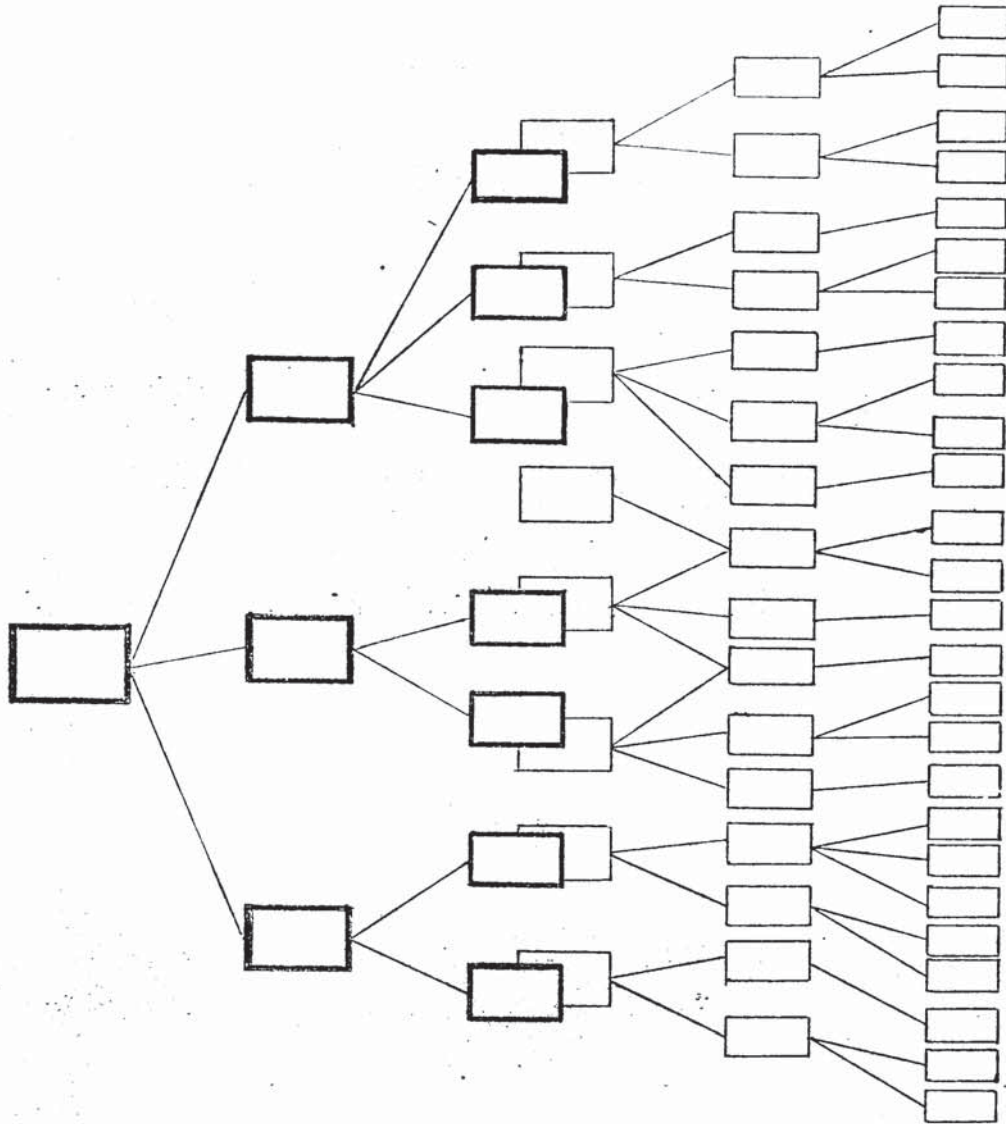
This proposal pays little regard to the feelings of individual teachers. It risks the chance that in attempting to describe the concepts of all teachers in general, it fails to represent those of any of them in particular. Recognition of each teacher's role concept is important for the head teacher and for the pupils being taught, but it is of less importance when general patterns of behaviour are being examined, and when the whole of the teaching profession is under review. This seems more appropriate for an initial, exploratory investigation into a relatively unknown area: the risk will have to be taken.



A common starting point for theoretical considerations has been to attempt a definition of teaching and to break this down into roles appropriate to a particular situation. In contrast, it is proposed to conduct this study by defining a considerable number of discrete behaviours which may seem to be suited to all teachers or to only some of them, and to examine the responses which teachers make to them. Judicious analysis will reveal common patterns of reaction, and hence help to establish larger role areas by compounding a number of the original behaviours. These in turn may be combined to give still more comprehensive roles. Ultimately, it might be possible to end up with something similar to a global definition of the teacher's role, the starting point for some theoretical studies. The relationship between these two approaches is set out in text figure 1.

Comparison between the pattern suggested by theoretical studies and the findings of this survey may reveal a number of possibilities. Some theoretically derived role areas will correspond closely with those derived practically, indicated on the figure by almost complete overlap. Other areas derived theoretically may correspond in a general way to those derived practically, but not closely. These are indicated as partial overlaps. Still other areas, derived by one approach or the other, will not match at all. It is hoped that this study will resolve teacher's role concepts at a level between the two extremes, and so offer some synthesis of the two approaches.

Perhaps the most obvious aspect of teaching for investigation in a practical manner would be the actual behaviour of teachers. This has not been considered here for at least two distinct reasons.



Text figure 1: The relationship between theoretically-based and practically-based studies of the teacher's role

The nature of many theoretical studies (Wilson, 1962; Havighurst and Neugarten, 1967; Hoyle, 1969) is indicated by the boxes on the left hand side. The first division of the teacher's role has often been into three role areas, representing the classroom, the school, and society. Many practical studies have started by defining a large number of discrete items, indicated by the small boxes on the left hand side, which may be combined in various ways to produce larger, less specific, aspects of the overall role (eg. Biddle et al., 1961; Kelly, 1970). Further breakdown or combination means that the two approaches should theoretically meet and overlap. Some of the divisions are likely to be dichotomies, representing primary and secondary school teacher's concepts of the common role area, or perhaps trichotomies, allowing for a distinct nursery-infant concept. Whilst much of the branching will be dendriform, some anastomosis will also occur, for role items are not all specific to a particular area.



First, actual behaviour is seen as being secondary to the conception of a role. A small amount of behaviour may be spontaneous, and so unsuitable for a systematic study; but much of it will be premeditated. This behaviour has to be appropriate to a position, and may not always represent what a teacher feels is really needed. The requirements of the pupils, other teachers, the head teacher, and of society in general, all have to be taken into account. There is a difference between the idea of what ought to be done, and what is actually done; between conception and behaviour; and the former is the more pervasive notion. Teachers' awareness of the distinction became clear in the early interviews in expressions such as 'I think I ought to teach more drama, but we don't have the facilities'; 'My head doesn't approve, but I think it's important, so I shall get on with it until he finds out'; and 'That child would have a thick ear if I had my way!' Furthermore, there is likely to be better agreement over the conception of a role than its enactment, since the latter represents the conception modified by circumstances, either situational or personal. It could be that the amount of agreement which exists between student and tutor, or teacher and head teacher, concerning the role conception, represents a method of assessment just as effective as any examination of actual behaviour.

Secondly, there seem to be more difficulties in recording and analysing behaviour than there are concepts. Practising teachers will resent the intrusion of another adult and the presence of an observer is likely to upset normal behaviour. Despite the developing techniques of participant observation and interaction analysis, behaviour remains a difficult activity to record objectively. Anyone who has seen

a film of himself teaching will appreciate how little one's actions match the intentions, let alone the records made by an observer. On the other hand, teachers are always willing to talk about their work. Interviews with a selected number of teachers, followed by a questionnaire to a larger sample, represent a convenient way of collecting a considerable amount of fairly objective data, relating to situations both within and outside of the classroom, in a short space of time. Such a method would be unsuitable for investigating behaviour, but very appropriate for recording concepts.

Despite some obvious short-comings of questionnaires as a method of investigation, the reliability of opinions gathered from check-lists in existing studies is quite high, indicating that whatever misconceptions may arise because of the wording or interpretation of an item, they are fairly consistent. Questionnaires offer some advantages. They can relate to situations outside the classroom and school where behaviour would be difficult to record, and they can approach contentious matters in a less personal way than is possible by interview. Practising teachers need to be approached with the utmost decorum, for they form a much less predictable population than students who are training to be teachers, or even qualified teachers who are attending in-service courses, both populations that have frequently been used for this sort of investigation previously.

Questionnaires also offer a good way of handling the many individual items which will form the basis of this study. However, unless it becomes too long for convenience, even a questionnaire can only examine a proportion of the many facets of the teacher's role.



Some rationalisation will have to take place: some specific role items may have to be subsumed - viz. 'Collect savings and dinner money' - and others may have to be omitted. Prime candidates for this in a study which will attempt to generalise as far as possible will be those of limited applicability, such as 'Tie shoe laces' or 'Set homework'. Care must be taken in the design of the questionnaire so that it covers some key concepts effectively without becoming too long. A balance needs to be achieved between detailed, specific role concepts, those likely to be surveyed effectively by a questionnaire, and more diffuse, general concepts which, whilst being more valuable in the long run, will not be surveyed so well.

The collection of any quantity of data invites the use of statistics to simplify its presentation and understanding. The whole field of statistical treatment has come in for some heavy criticism lately, much of it justified. Perhaps because of this, interview methods have become far more popular in current sociological research. There is no doubt that they can offer a very valuable insight into the conception of a role, but it is felt that the immediate response elicited by a questionnaire will be still more valuable for the generalisation which forms a major aim of this work. Accordingly, great care must be taken to ensure that the collection and interpretation of data is rigorous and fair.

The findings from this study should go some way towards a balance with theoretical analyses of the teacher's role, and even form a sharper focus for the investigations of heads', parents', and pupils' perceptions. The new technique of participant observation and inter-

action analysis should benefit from having a conceptual framework that is practically based. Justification may be found for the traditional division of education into primary and secondary sectors - one which has been accepted in many previous studies, but which is now being questioned by the establishment of middle schools. A clear understanding of how the teacher's role is perceived in different types of schools would encourage teachers to move from one educational sector to another, and help to off-set the impressions which students in training have kept from their own school days. Further reasons for pursuing this study will become apparent from a survey of the existing literature, and will be developed further in chapter 3.

Chapter: 2

A Review of the Literature

## Chapter 2: A Review of the Literature

Since this investigation will be largely exploratory, an examination of previous writings must fall into two parts. Initially, works relating to the concept in general need to be examined; and later, the findings will need comparison with other published work in specific areas.

### 2 - 1: The Underlying Assumptions in Role Theory

The first ideas of role saw it as a unitary or global concept (e.g. Linton, 1936). This simple idea rapidly became elaborated until by 1966, Newcomb could complain, 'of definitions of role there seems to be no end'. The ensuing difficulty was illustrated by Banton (1965, p. 28) as: 'What Linton and Newcomb define as role would, in Kingsley Davis' terminology, be a status. What Davis defined as a role, Newcomb calls role behaviour, and T.R. Sarbin, role enactment'. Perhaps as a reaction against this complexity, some authors have questioned the value of the concept (e.g. Hollis, 1972; Coulson, 1972). Biddle's analysis of the popularity and shortcomings of role theory (1961, pp. 2,3) is just as valid today: in short, it appears simple, effective and practical; but there is a great lack of agreement in its use.

It would not be appropriate to attempt a criticism of such a complex field here, but it is important that the guiding principles behind this investigation are set against those of established studies and techniques. It is fortunate in this respect that many of these have used the role of teacher to illustrate their definition.



Dahrendorf (1968, p. 26 et seq.) develops the first of the two aspects he gives to role - the idea of social position, meaning a place in a field of social relations - by pointing out that this must represent the consensus of the many individuals who make society. The expectations for incumbents of insignificant social positions, such as a sewage worker, will be general and relatively few; whilst those for socially exposed positions, such as doctor, teacher and policeman, will be specific and extremely varied. As members of society, teachers will contribute to such normative culture patterns; indeed, their expectations could form a very significant part of society's ascription of attitudes, values and behaviour for their role. But Dahrendorf also realises (p. 44) that such a reification is a misconception: 'But who defines social roles and watches over their acting out? Although many recent writers would answer 'society', just as we have so far, the term is hard to justify. Society is patently not a person, and any personification of it obscures its nature and weakens what is said about it'. Even if this were acceptable, the definition remains woolly and impractical: Banton (1965, p. 36) admits, 'For the time being it is necessary to assume in the examination of particular roles that there is agreement among all the parties affected as to the definition of the role in question . . . We start with the assumption of consensus but we do not wish to imply that consensus is necessarily found'.

Despite these inconsistencies, the concept of role as a social determinant is widely recognised and used. It is not, however, the one which will be followed in this study.

Attempts to simplify role theory have resulted in sometimes just two basic aspects (Dahrendorf, 1968); sometimes three (Levinson, 1959); and sometimes four (Banton, 1965). The definitive study of head teachers by Gross, Mason and McEachern (1966) resolves three areas which agree very closely with those of Levinson. They suggest that the confusions can be traced to the variety of disciplines (anthropology, psychology, sociology) which have contributed to role theory, and to the different applications to which it can be applied (p. 16). The three areas they distinguish are indicated in the expression: ' . . . individuals in social locations behave with reference to expectations' (p. 17).

Definitions relating role to 'social locations' tend to see it in terms of the expectations of others, usually identified as 'society'. Linton eventually developed his early unitary concepts into a full statement of this aspect: a role is 'the sum total of the culture patterns associated with the particular status (i.e. position). It thus includes the attitudes, values and behaviours ascribed by society to any and all persons occupying this status' (1945, p. 77). Parsons independently gave much the same definition, - 'Role is defined by the normative expectations of the members of the group as formulated by its social traditions' (1945, p. 230). Turner (1956) refers to patterns of behaviour 'deemed appropriate' and Getzels et al. (1968) see roles as structural and normative elements, - ' . . . it is what is supposed to be done in order to carry out the purposes of the system rather than what is actually done that defines the institutional role' (p. 60).



The second area contained in Gross, Mason and McEachern's definition is stated more completely by Davis (1949, p. 90): 'How an individual actually performs in a given position, as distinct from how he is supposed to perform, we call his role. The role, then, is the manner in which a person actually carries out the requirements of his position'. Newcomb (1951) distinguishes between society's expectations and the individual's performance as two sorts of behaviour: prescribed behaviour is 'what a person is supposed to do as the incumbent of a particular social position' (p. 281), and role behaviour is 'the actual behaviour of specific individuals as they take roles' (p. 330). For Sarbin (1954, p. 225), role is 'a patterned sequence of learned actions or deeds performed by a person in an interactive situation', and Parsons comes to much the same conclusion (1959, p. 26): 'a role is . . . what the actor does in his relations with others seen in the context of its functional significance for the social system'.

This conception of role is in contrast to that based upon society's expectations. The behaviour of an individual appears to be an objective concept, but descriptions of it tend to be subjective. It comes close to the recognition of teaching ability, in which the origins of this study lay. Assessment may well be in terms of the degree of congruence between a teacher's behaviour and that expected by society, as interpreted by the assessor. Much of the behaviour of teachers is deliberate, being based upon careful preparation and planning in the light of a syllabus or scheme of work - a social expectation; but a proportion of it remains spontaneous (such as dealing with misbehaviour) and this is predictable only up to a point, depending on the teacher's experience and temperament. It is in this area that much

controversy over teaching ability lies. No wonder that studies attempting to identify the correlates of good teaching with measures of intelligence, personality or even college grades have met with little success.

A weakness of this definition of role lies in the relationship which is assumed to exist between society and the individuals who compose it. Merton (1957, p. 383) ignores individual differences when he considers that any conflict of expectations will be more or less commonly experienced by all the occupants of a particular social position. Commenting on the work of Gross, Mason and McEachern, Dahrendorf (1968, p. 48) warns of the dangers which lie in considering only the distribution of responses: 'By attributing the force of social norms to the uncertain basis of majority opinions, he makes the fact of society subject to the arbitrariness of questionnaire responses'. Naegele (1960) similarly criticises these authors for failing to distinguish between superintendents and superintendency. Failure to recognise the opinions of individuals, he argues, 'produces a false and incomplete image, falsely completed in the imagination of us, the readers. Nor is this a humanistic or clinical plea against abstraction. Quite the contrary, it is a plea for appropriate abstraction'.

Behaviour is a topic which lends itself well to theory, but it is not easy to quantify. It is likely to play a major part in the assessment of teaching ability, already recognised as a difficult area in any practical sense. Since it is intended that this study should be empirically-based, this type of definition of role will have limited value.



However, the third area which can be found in Gross, Mason and McEachern's definition, ' . . . with reference to expectations' is more appropriate to this investigation. It represents an additional dimension to those proposed by Newcomb - prescribed behaviour, and role behaviour: but the idea may be traced back to the 'generalised self' as used by the philosopher Mead (1934). For Sargent (1951, p. 360) ' . . . a person's role is a pattern or type of social behaviour which seems situationally appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group', and for Parsons (1951, p. 23) role is 'that organised sector of an actor's orientation which constitutes and defines his participation in an interactive process. It involves a set of complementary expectations concerning his own actions and those of others with whom he interacts'. The tighter definition of Levinson (1959) as ' . . . the member's orientation or conception of the part he is to play in the organisation' is set against others which represent society's expectations, and the actual behaviour of individuals. Levinson argues that the original unitary conception of role assumed a high degree of congruence between these three areas, but that a relationship can no longer be considered likely.

If this study is to be empirically based, the choice of which of the three types of definition of role is most relevant almost decides itself. The expectation of society tends to be the area of theorists. Society in general is likely to have an unformed view of education, and even parents may have ideas that are limited to the needs of their own children. The opinions of teachers, whilst they may be well formed, cannot be equated to those of society. Practical determination of such a role will not be easy if it is to avoid these difficulties.

Investigation of actual behaviour is a very practical study, but it is also beset with problems. Adequate strategies for recording behaviour are now available, but as yet they are still susceptible to errors of interpretation and to those arising from the presence of the experimenter.

It is the third definition, limited to expectations of teachers themselves, that is most easily put into operation. It represents an intermediate to that based upon the theoretical work of philosophers and that based on the behaviour of classroom practitioners. The population is clearly defined and accessible, and is likely to hold a considered opinion which can be investigated readily. Whilst it would be wrong to consider teachers' conception of their role as being the same as what they do, a definition based on self-expectations will be much more operational than one based on educational theory. Nevertheless, the criticisms of Dahrendorf and Naegele quoted above are just as relevant, and must be borne continually in mind.

## 2 - 2: Role-related Concepts

Despite the limited definition of role which will govern most of the investigation to be reported here, the complex nature of role theory means that many of the related concepts that have been developed will be referred to, and must be examined in some detail. Whilst Levinson (1959, p. 173) considers the unitary conception of role to be 'so unrealistic . . . and theoretically restricting' it would be quite as wrong to consider just one aspect of role in isolation from others.

In the early days, Linton (1936, p. 114) used the term role synonymously with status: 'Role is the dynamic aspect of status'. It was left to Bates (1956) to point out the distinction between related subsets of expectations held for one social position, and sets of expectations all related to the same position. Gross et al. (1958) termed these 'role sectors' and 'role segments' respectively. For a teacher, examples of role sectors are classroom skills, attitudes towards the pupils, and behaviour with colleagues. Such areas are likely to form a fundamental framework for this study. Role segmentation allows a total picture of role to be drawn from the consensus between the definitions of a number of role-definers. Since Gross uses the term 'position' as 'the location of an actor or class of actors in a system of social relationships' (1958, p. 48), these role definers constitute a series of 'counter-positions'. In this study, the perceptions of teachers regarding expectations from three counter positions will be developed - those of the head, the parents, and the pupils. This system of position and counter-positions is just what is described by Merton (1957) as a 'role-set': 'the complement of role relationships in which persons are involved by virtue of occupying a particular social status'



(p. 368). This concept must be distinguished from his 'status-set' - the collection of positions held by one person (p. 374), an idea similar to, though not identical with, the role sectors of Gross.

'Expectation' is a particularly confused term in role theory. As originally used by Linton (1936) it was meant in a normative sense - 'I expect parents to send a note when something is wrong'. This meaning is generally accepted. Parsons (1951, p. 191) considers expectations as 'patterns of evaluation' and for Gross et al. (1958, p. 58) they become 'an evaluated standard applied to the incumbent of a position'. Where only one expectation is being considered, they refer to it as an 'anticipation', but Sarbin (1954, p. 225) calls all expectations 'acquired anticipatory reactions'. Biddle, however, uses the term predictively: 'Expectation - a cognition consisting of a belief . . . held by a person for an aspect of another'. An example of this would be 'I expect something is wrong when parents send a note'. Whatever the sense in which the term is used, expectations are generally agreed to have both a dimension - either may, or may not; and intensity - must, should, or may/may not.

Role expectations from counter-positions and the actual behaviour of the focal position may possibly agree, but it is much more likely that they are only related in a manner which is far from simple. This is especially likely to be the case in unmonitored behaviour. Goffman (1959) distinguished between 'on-stage' and 'off-stage' behaviour, and this is likely to be a very relevant principle governing teachers. Dreeben and Gross (1965) showed that actual behaviour was determined by

a number of factors in addition to expectations: personality, religious beliefs, and social setting. In any case, role expectations will vary from situation to situation, and so form a state of flux (see Kahn et al., 1964).

The recognition of expectations from counter positions may well lead to role conflict. Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman (1951) defined this as 'the situation in which there are differences between criterion groups with respect to social role', but Parsons, from the first, was to adopt a more extreme view, namely that conflict only arises when the demands are so different that 'complete fulfilment of both is realistically impossible' (1951, p. 280). An early study by Seeman of the school superintendent's role (1953) recognised conflict as 'situations in which the observer notes what appears to be conflicting sets of expectations'; but Gross et al. (1958, p. 258) regarded it as 'any situation in which the incumbent of a focal position perceives that he is confronted with incompatible expectations'. More recent studies have recognised both perceived and unrecognised role conflicts: Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) refer to 'psychological role conflict' and 'sociological role conflict'; Kahn et al. (1964) to 'experienced or psychological role conflict' and 'sent or objective conflict'; and popularly used terms are 'role strain' and 'role stress'. Perceptual studies have been criticised for being unrealistic: Charters (1963, p. 795) says 'The problem of role conflict is a different one from the problem of role agreement and disagreement'; and Westwood (1969, p. 33) comments on 'the naive assumption that all lack of consensus leads to conflict'. Getzels and Guba (1954) wrote of the need to go beyond simple perception of incompatibilities in order to recognise the extent



to which such situations actually trouble role occupants before commencing their study of teachers' role conflicts (1955). Accordingly, both Kahn et al. (1958) and Getzels et al. (1965) took a number of variables, such as personality, into account in their experiential studies of role. Whether experienced or merely perceived, some expectations are clearly unrealistic or incompatible. Seeman (1960) found that head teachers were expected by their staffs to spend more time helping them directly and in obtaining higher salaries. Such a phenomenon has been called 'role overload' by Kahn (1964).

Conflicts can arise because of the variety of roles held by one person: these 'occur when a person occupies two or more positions simultaneously and when the role expectations of one are incompatible with the role expectations of the other' (Sarbin, 1954, p. 228). The study of Getzels and Guba (1955) focussed on such inter-role conflicts in American teachers. More commonly, however, attention has been given to the conflict arising from the variety of sources within one specific role. The studies of Gross et al. (1958), Kahn et al. (1958), and Biddle et al. (1961) in America, and of Cohen (1965, 1970), and Hughes (1972) in this country all consider intra-role conflicts; and it is only this form which will be considered in this study.



## 2 - 3: The Present State of Role Theory

The preceding brief outline of some of the concepts of role has all been based upon writings made previous to 1970. Enough has been written to show that, despite the confusion in terminology and the imprecise methods available, some consensus of understanding was beginning to emerge: it may even have been apparent that there could be a promising future for role analysis.

This was undoubtedly the appearance to Biddle as he started organising the study of the American Public School Teacher. In an attempt to sort out the confusion, he analysed some seventy-six influential works, mostly published in the previous decade. The definitions they offered for the major concepts were compared, and recommendations made for a standard format (1961). Banton, in an influential book (1965) felt that a synthesis was being achieved: 'Yet there has been a growing tendency for divergent definitions . . . to be dropped, and a genuine consensus has been achieved which still permits a range of slight variations allowing scope to the interests of writers with different approaches' (p. 28). Writing in the same year, Corwin (1965) went so far as to call the sociology of education 'a scientific study'; and in the late 1960's a number of authors were confident for the future of role theory: Dahrendorf (1968); Preiss and Ehrlich (1966). Biddle and Thomas were very confident: 'The role analyst may now describe most complex real life phenomena using role terms and concepts, with an exactness which probably surpasses that which is provided by any other single conceptual vocabulary in the behavioural sciences' (1966, p. 9). The result was that ' . . . the concept of role occupied a central

position in sociological theorising and research. Graduate students were given a role to study just as anthropologists were given a tribe.' (Strong and Davis, 1977, p. 776).

But the grumbles about the difficult terminology continued. Charters (1963) told of 'reigning confusion', a sentiment accepted by Morris (1971). Both apparently overlooked Biddle's efforts. Westwood did not, but was unimpressed: ' . . . there has not yet been formulated a coherent and logically integrated set of propositions relevant to it. Role theory is still in its infancy . . . ' (1967, p. 124). This faint glimmer of optimism was also shown by Morris who concluded: ' . . . neither the conceptual and terminological confusion (evident in role theory), nor the imprecise nature of the concept as it is empirically understood (a point stressed by many philosophers) should deter us from attempting to formulate theories and working hypotheses in this 'strategic area' of social analysis' (1971, p. 408). In an editorial note, Eggleston (1974, p. 197) felt that little had been achieved between the works of Waller (1932) and Hoyle (1969), but rather than complain about the terminology, he cited two procedures as the cause of this: 'the imposition of arbitrary statistical aggregates which have no relationship with the realities of individual behaviour', and (even greater) 'the set of expectations that may be built into and around categories offered to a teacher and that may lead not only to an inaccurate set of observations but also to a research induced distortion of the situation'. Reid makes almost the same criticism, though with a hint of cynicism: 'Gross (1958) says "a critical examination of the sociological literature reveals that there have been few significant changes in our knowledge of the social and cultural structure of the



school and of the impact it exerts on the functioning of educational systems, since the publication of Waller's 'Sociology of Teaching' in 1932". Nor can one be confident that in the twenty years since that remark that much advance, in any real sense, has taken place' (1977, p. 30). The concept of role theory appears to have gone sour when Strong and Davis (1977, p. 776) feel they have to apologise for mentioning it: 'The study was not undertaken in search of roles, indeed it was initially assumed that these, like the unicorn, would never be seen again'. On the other hand, pressure seems to be growing to reduce the influence of role theory. Cicourel (1973, p. 39) considers the concept only as an actor's category: it is a shorthand device that will allow other methods to fill in the details; a practice which is fine for everyday use but will not do for sociologists. Coulson (1972) suggested that the concept should be dropped altogether, illustrating her argument especially with a consideration of education. The concept of role theory is clearly unpopular at the moment; but that does not mean that it is ineffective, or without any use.

It may be possible to lay the blame for this reaction entirely upon the division which has arisen between the disciplines of sociology and psychology. Investigations of conflict arising from the context in which a role is performed have appealed to sociologists, and they have tended to emphasise cultural and societal determinants of role: the inter-relationships between a role and organisational settings and the articulation of one role with others. Psychologists have tended to investigate the characteristics of a person occupying a role, and so they emphasise the expectations and perceptions of the individual, and the



importance of personality as a factor in role conflict. The two points of view have contributed much to the confused terminology, and have unfortunately as yet failed to produce any worthwhile constructs from their interaction.

Yet neither of these two parental disciplines has been considered entire. Bannister and Fransella (1971), concerned about splits in psychology, suggested a remedy: 'Indeed the integration of social and individual or general psychology (their original separation seems to have been a way of impoverishing both) might well centre on re-thinking in construct theory forms, the idea of role' (p. 50). Holland (1977) recognises a similar split within sociology: 'The split between the two main relevant disciplines, sociology and psychology, has been reproduced within sociology as two groups of theorists, one structural and one self-orientated, who both swing between structural determinism (the oversocialised man) and individualism (the undersocialised man). . . . Basically the contributory factors are professional anxiety, leading to overspecialisation, and a consequent neglect of essentially interdisciplinary concepts or phenomena' (p. 103).

The effect of the different points of view can be illustrated with a criticism of Goffman by Coser. Goffman had originally distinguished between socially-given role demands and self-defined role demands (1959) and then developed the idea of role-distance to explain at least the self-defined demands (1961). An adult merry-go-round rider who shows that he is not enjoying the ride, by pretending to be there only to collect the tickets, or to look after a small child, is expressing role-distance. He realises that this analysis can bring contradictory

conclusions: 'It is right here in manifestations of role distance, that the individual's personal style is to be found . . . role distance is almost as much subject to role analysis as are the core tasks of roles themselves' (1961, p. 152). This analysis by a psychologist left Coser, a sociologist, relatively unimpressed. She held that social distance is normatively prescribed; that role-prescriptions should not be followed so committedly that people become 'over-serious', 'stuffed shirts', or 'fanatics'. Rather, we must be ready to move on developmentally, or into other statuses as circumstances change due to the continuous 'process of transition between statuses' (1966, p. 326). Goffman is criticised for not confining the concept of role to social relationships: Coser's own view is that 'Role requirements . . . refer to a set of expected behaviours that are geared towards maintaining or strengthening one or more patterned relationships' (p. 328). Such a misunderstanding and limited alternative view were particularly unfortunate, for they were given as a contribution to an influential set of essays.

A similar collection of essays published eight years later was that edited by J.A. Jackson (1972). The schism is noted in the editorial preface (p. 2): 'Role theory' has tended to be concerned more with one side or other of the abstraction; it has emphasised personality in relation to social psychology or functional normative constraints in relation to deviance and conformity'. Although the editor declares himself against this kind of splitting - 'Two concepts have not fared better than one' - the controversy rages on in the essays. Noting that the International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (1968) had offered two articles on Role (one by a sociologist, Turner, the other by a



psychologist, Sarbin), Gordon a social psychologist, chooses to comment upon that of Turner, setting out an idea of role succession, but scarcely developing the concept of role, and ignores Sarbin's account. Urry and Runicman, both sociologists, each write a paper on reference group research, another important aspect of role theory, and then criticise each other over their respective understanding of sociology as a distinct discipline. And yet another sociologist, in attempting to defend his discipline, sets up boundaries: 'The sociologist may also be inspired by humanistic individualism but, in his professional role, he tries to describe and explain regularities in human behaviour' (Heading, 1972, p. 45); and then attempts to demolish them: ' . . . when we come to allocating human action between psychology, sociology and social psychology (an uncertain hybrid, usually examining the influence of small groups or small aggregates upon the individual or vice-versa), we must recognise that . . . the boundaries between them are artificial and increasingly seen as such' (ibid, p. 55). Coulson's paper, advocating that role theory should become redundant (1972) is set amongst this uncertainty, yet it fails to raise any protest whatsoever. (It does contain weaknesses - these have been left for Holland (1977, p. 118) to expose).

Strong and Davis (1977) examine the decline of role theory. The major reason, they conclude, is given as an analogy: 'Role, as a bridge, collapsed because its support on both sides shifted' (p. 777). The supports were norm and culture, clearly the provinces of psychology and sociology. In detail, they suggest at least six ways in which the understanding of interaction and structure became partly incompatible with the traditional concept of role, largely because sociologists rarely



combined interests in both interaction and structure. They conclude: 'Not all of these writers, if any, sought at the time to reject the use of the concept of role. Indeed for many their critique served merely to elaborate yet further features of role that had hitherto gone unexplored. They were contributions to role theory not attacks upon it. However, their cumulative effect has been largely to banish the use of the term from polite academic discourse' (ibid, p. 778).

The argument over recognition of the disciplines has continued despite warnings from philosophers: 'The boundaries between such disciplines are not in fact based on what has already been discovered, as they are in the natural sciences, but there is a certain arbitrariness about them, a certain ambiguity. It is partly for this reason that philosophical questions arise for the social scientist himself and not merely for the philosophical observer of the social sciences' (Emmet and MacIntyre, 1970, p. xii). Attempts to run social psychology courses at university level soon split into sociological and psychological versions (L. Taylor, 1967, p. 11), and the increased role strain of such courses has been officially recognised: 'All the professional academic pressures that work upon academics - publications, career prospects, the opinion of colleagues - will tend to divert commitment away from the hybrid course' (Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education, 1975). Such restrictions are in contrast to the emphasis put upon role-hybridisation by Ben-David and Collins (1966) and dual-role-occupation by Mulkay (1972) in their studies of scientific creativity.

If this discord and growing insularity represent the birth-pangs of two distinct disciplines, it is to be hoped that the delivery will be rapid and that the twins will soon live cordially with each other. Holland (1977, p. 103) suggests that if this is the case, then as the overlap between sociology and psychology, represented by role theory, becomes less acceptable, other areas within each discipline which are independent of the other - for example, the physiological aspects of psychology and the demographic aspects of sociology - should benefit. Alternatively, if role studies still survive, then they will not have been achieved by sociologists or psychologists. A glance at 'Sociological Abstracts' shows that studies of role are still very common - but that the majority are concerned with the role of women, and that most of these are written by women. The conclusion is that although role theory is currently spurned by academic sociologists and psychologists, the concept can still be valuable if used appropriately.

Despite the confused terminology and the growing uneasiness between sociology and psychology, there was still encouragement for those wishing to undertake work based upon roles. Quite early in his book, Banton (1965, p. 29) advises: 'Scientific progress in this sphere need not be held up by disagreement over the use of words: . . . To achieve progress in this field the essential is that the role concept should be utilized to formulate problems for investigation. The research will in due course suggest new definitions and then further problems. This is the way disputes over terminology get settled'. Morris (1971, p. 408) put his very similar exhortation at the end of his article: 'neither the conceptual and terminological confusion, . . .



nor the imprecise nature of the concept as it is empirically understood . . . should deter us from attempting to formulate theories and working hypotheses in this 'strategic area' of social analysis'.

Westwood clearly hoped that his theoretical analysis of the teacher's role would lead to more practical studies: 'Whatever the problems, however, the sort of research that role study involves - whether of the action variety or not - is considered to be well worth the attempt. If carried out in the right way, it should prove illuminating and educative to both teachers and research workers alike' (1969, p. 36).

The rash of theoretical studies of the teacher's role made in the 1960's did instigate some practical research. The study of role conflict made by Grace (1972) was derived entirely from Wilson's paper of 1962; and Gibson's comparison of primary and secondary school teachers' roles (1970) owed much to a paper by Hoyle (1965). But there remained a disproportionate number of calls for more of this sort of study. Westwood complained (1967, p. 123): 'There has been almost no research relating to teacher and pupil roles in England and most of that on teacher-pupil relations generally has been concerned predominantly with pupils'. Gammage was of the opinion that 'there have been several major enquiries into the social characteristics of the teaching profession in Europe and North America . . . Surprisingly, few analyses of the teacher's role are included in recent English official documents; both the Plowden and James reports being extremely deficient in this respect' (1973, p. 18).. Westwood had also mentioned the Newsom Report in the same light. The conclusion of Musgrove and Taylor (1969, p. 8) was: 'the role of the teacher in modern society has proved an inexhaustible subject for arm-chair theorising and inaugural lectures.'



There are virtually no empirical studies of the contemporary role of teachers'.

One very recent analysis of educational sociology which makes a plea for further research - that of Reid (1977) - sees the subject at an exciting phase of development. He feels that after a first phase of generalised studies (similar to those of Hoyle and Westwood), there has been a second phase of 'inside studies' (that of Lacey, 1970) and 'specific studies' (those of Barker-Lunn, 1970, and Goodacre, 1968); and that there is now a need for a third phase since 'the two routes have crossed'. This would effectively be a synthesis of the two earlier phases: 'The obvious has happened. In order to explain the general, the specific has had to be viewed, and explanations of the specific have gone beyond into the general' (p. 30). The works of Sharp and Green (1975) and Reynolds (1976) are given as examples of this third phase.

Strong and Davis (1977, p. 779) feel obliged to rescue Talcott Parsons from the image of 'straw man' and criticisms of 'armchair theorising' by recalling that his work was founded upon substantial fieldwork. And division of studies between theoretical and practical is hard to justify, yet it is an easy criterion to apply. Theoretical writings seem to be largely English; those of Americans often combine theory with practical research (relying on large teams of workers for the fieldwork!).

The works of Kob (1961) and Adams (1970) are non-English, but there the similarity ends. That of Kob develops a hypothesis, describes fieldwork to investigate it, and concludes that teachers, at least in secondary schools, see themselves as one of two distinct types. It is compact, complete (though it gives only two references) and jargon-free. Not surprisingly, it is widely quoted by later writers. Adams' work is inspired by threats of change in the teacher's role by the increasing number of teaching machines. After attempting to define a variety of terms, there follows a brief survey of existing studies, and the conclusion that these are limited. A model of role is given together with the hope that it will inspire further research. This short paper gives a large number of references, is full of jargon (though not unacceptably so) and has been quoted since relatively rarely.

Kob's work is based on the staff of four German secondary schools. He suggests that tension can be seen in three ways: the teacher has both a professional and an extra-professional life; he may see himself

as either a scholar or an educator (this tension does not arise in elementary schools); and he may have come from a working class background and be socially climbing, or from a 'failed academic' background, and on the way down. These tensions are likely to be resolved by adopting one or other of two strategies. Type A teachers are oriented towards education. They see themselves as colleagues of elementary school staff, and having a role similar to that of parents. Few of these teachers are graduates; they tend to take up youth work in their spare time. Type B teachers have an academic orientation and see themselves as subject specialists. They are less flexible than type A teachers, and tend to be older, and graduates. An active cultural life may make them more secure.

Fieldwork confirmed these two types; all but six of 82 teachers could be placed. The division seemed to be independent of subject taught, and Kob stresses that it is not equivalent to the traditional/progressive pattern. Because type B staff are in the public eye, they tend to mould the social standing of teachers; and since almost all elementary school staff are type A, this is likely to be a false impression of teachers as a whole.

Adams regrets that, because educational theory has traditionally been normative, the existing studies of the teacher's role are either expansive and classificatory (e.g. those of Wilson (1972); Havighurst and Neugarten (1967) or intensive and enumerative (e.g. Biddle et al. (1961)). The difference between role concept and actual behaviour is stressed, though he recognises that classifying behaviour will be



difficult because of the flexible nature of role: 'it is probably premature to expect that the various disjointed elements of the field of teacher's role will be brought together in one articulated model because there are a number of conditions that would have to be met first'. Of the conditions, studies investigating the classroom are well advanced; those concerning the school are relatively few; and those concerning society are almost non-existent. Alongside these, the expectations of other (including janitors and the teacher's wife) need consideration. A model is developed in which role is seen relating teacher behaviour (both in and out of school) with the expectations of society; and he hopes that research, stimulated by this, will allow educators to say which sort of behaviour is most important for teaching.

The work of Wilson (1962) has been by far the most influential of a series of papers relating to education contained in the same issue of the British Journal of Sociology. He starts by reasoning that teachers exist only in advanced societies, and their relationship with society is a constant theme in the paper. Teaching must inculcate attitudes of inquiry, a willingness to interchange ideas, accept critical standards, engage in challenging discussion, and even encourage doubt if it is to meet the needs of modern society. Against this, the traditional values of setting standards for personal behaviour and decorum, respect, and establishing a personal standard of discipline have to be maintained. The current demand for factual knowledge has widened the gap with traditional values, and teachers have to work to quite different ends from those once considered suitable for their pupils' parents: the child is expected to 'get on' and to 'move on' socially. Since parents are

increasingly unable to meet these demands for their children, teachers have to take over more and more of the parents' role, which needs a sustained relationship with the child.

A comparison of the teacher's role with those of doctors and lawyers shows the teacher's to be more diffuse, committing and demanding. Both doctors and lawyers are only consulted under abnormal circumstances, for a limited period of time, and are expected to give only a small part of their expertise. The opposite expectations from teachers have done much to keep their prestige below that of other professionals in the eyes of the public. Finally, Wilson suggests that six categories of role conflict for teachers can be recognised, and a number of illuminating instances are given of each.

A brief summary of Wilson's paper might be that teachers present a bridge to society for children. It is theoretical, inasmuch as it has no empirical basis, and is free of confusing terminology. No model is offered, but the comparisons drawn with other roles are enlightening, and many opportunities can be found for erecting testable hypotheses. Grace's work on role conflict (1972) arose directly from this.

Westwood's account of the Role of the Teacher (1967 and 1969) is a nice balance of theory, reviews of previous work, and suggestions for further studies. It is essentially a sociological view of secondary education. A majority of the references are to British work. A number of situations, illustrated by American work, have now materialised here (e.g. the increasing bureaucratization and size of schools, and



increased specialisation in appointments) though it is doubtful whether many of his pleas for on-going research in these areas have been taken up.

Westwood feels that the best way of monitoring the growing influence society is exerting on schools is through role analysis. An attempt is made to illustrate at least some of the terminology, though he confesses 'it is not possible, of course, to examine the many different ways of approaching analysis of the teacher's role' (p. 126). Although teachers recognise a distinct pecking order within their profession, those in one sector regarding teachers in the sector above as a reference group, the public sees almost all teachers as doing the same job. The diffuseness of their role also gives them low prestige when compared to lawyers and doctors.

General public prescriptions for teachers cover a much wider area of social interaction than do those for many other roles, and are held with much stronger feeling. Teachers are expected to be representatives of conventional middle class morality and conformity; despite their own attitudes, teachers may become this as a result of 'self-filling prophecy'. A result is that teachers tend to inhabit a kind of social 'no-man's-land' though the circumstances controlling this are changing. Many role concepts are picked up during training; his criticism of the alternative graduate and certificate entry is of diminished value now. Several hypotheses are offered here for investigation.

The second part of Westwood's paper similarly suggests testable hypotheses for each of half a dozen topics. Accepting that the function



of teachers is 'the transmission of knowledge and values' conflict arises due to the 'cultural gap' between pupils and adult society. He theorises that probably two resolutions are possible: becoming inflexible and authoritarian, and so alienating teaching further from the pupils; or surrendering their own values in order to accept those of the pupils, so acquiescing with social influences. English teachers may tend to take the first way, Americans the second; but the best resolution is through an open-minded, flexible approach. There is no suggestion as to how this may be achieved, though it is directly contrary to Waller's call for an 'inflexibility of personality far surpassing that expected or even allowed by most occupations'.

A limited understanding of educational objectives is likely to be dysfunctional; research on role conflict could resolve this. Hardly anything is known of leadership strategies (though this is being corrected now); the limited knowledge shows that the style does influence teachers' morale and classroom performance. The theory of the organisational context of teaching is incomplete, despite a number of studies of informal relationships. School organisation is sure to influence a teacher's conception of his role.

Westwood reviews a number of theoretical studies; in each case, their application to role theory is made plain. The outlines of Weber (1947) and Getzels (1952) on leadership behaviour are compared. A model of conflict and role behaviour is taken from Getzels (1963): it has both role and personality at the centre (c.f. that of Adams). Parsons' five polarised dimensions of behaviour are commended for illuminating the dilemmas and difficulties of the teacher's role. It is

suggested that these are common to all teachers, but will be most acute at the middle of the hierarchy - perhaps being worst for secondary modern or comprehensive school teachers teaching an academic curriculum to 'Newsom' children. This idea could be easily tested.

In summary, Westwood considers the existing empirical studies to be too general and based upon data which are too limited. Role norms and expectations are frequently left undistinguished. The different conceptions of groups of teachers would be more interesting than measures of overall agreement or disagreement; yet even limited studies of a general nature would be useful, for they would establish guidelines for further work.

Of these theoretical accounts of role, that of Hoyle (1969) is the most comprehensive and, available as a cheap paperback, must have been read by many students during their training. In an introductory historical survey, he points, like Wilson, to an industrial society which expects far more than transmission of values from its teachers.

At the start of the real analysis, the major social functions and corresponding roles of teachers are given as instructor; model (of society); and judge. The role of model is particularly important for primary education, the others gaining in importance at the secondary level. In the first of several comparisons with America, the British basic value system is seen as becoming more egalitarian and flexible whilst at the same time, seeking to maintain academic standards. The American system seems to be becoming more committed to the pursuit of excellence, whilst seeking to maintain its egalitarianism. This has



meant an increasing importance for the instructional and selective functions, whilst the socialising function has become more difficult as the teacher's role has become more specialised and technical. Furthermore, the heterogeneity of values and beliefs in an industrialised society make it difficult for teachers to act as a 'model' which is appropriate to all their pupils and has the support of parents.

Within the school, a teacher's actions are determined partly by his own personality and partly by the expectations which are held of him. But even within the profession itself, roles are differentiated according to authority, function, attributes such as age, sex, qualifications, and informal social status. Each of these generates different sets of expectations. Teachers also perform their roles differently according to the type of school in which they teach and the sort of district in which it is situated. The head's style of leadership and expectations of his staff are critical. Hoyle seems very concerned with the idea of discipline at this point.

At the classroom level, a variety of ways of considering 'sub-roles' are offered, without any comment. As with the head, the teacher's style of leadership for his class is critical; it must be appropriate for the occasion, and Hoyle even suggests that this typifies the 'successful' teacher (p. 63). Teaching style is an even wider concept than leadership, and three ways of looking at it are given; to be successful, this must also be flexible. The exact conception of the roles 'leader' will depend upon an individual's personality and the environment in which he works.



The public and teachers have been shown to have differing expectations of each other (Musgrove and Taylor, 1965 - one of the few references to British work which are given). Unlike American teachers, those in England are relatively protected from the public by the school organisation. Nevertheless, teachers occupy a difficult 'intermediate' place in society - and ideas similar to those developed by Wilson are set out. There must be close links with parents, though the flexibility inherent in a teacher's roles will hinder these, and they might cause a further lowering of teaching's professional status. The final chapter examines the teachers' profession; but its relevance to the concept of role is not made clear.

Hoyle's book reviews the current understanding of role theory rather uncritically. Outlines of a number of models are given without any comparison: the diagram from Getzels is given without explanation. There is no direct encouragement to follow-up any particular line of enquiry; indeed, in view of the relationship between sociology and psychology which obtained at that time, his own delimitation between the two disciplines (p. 57) is inhibiting. There are some good ideas: observation of, and practice in, appropriate role-play by students in training (p. 68) was worth rather more detail. Perhaps the most pertinent idea of all is that of role flexibility, stressed at a number of points. It may be that an accomplished teacher changes roles so frequently and with such ease that the individual roles cannot be teased out, a position which would lead to all sorts of difficulty for role analysis.

Gammage's paper (1973) is rather short, and effectively all the more so, since just half of it is used to define terms. He is appreciative of Biddle's work, but traces most enquiries back to Waller's view of education as 'a special form of uneasily maintained dictatorship'. His verdict on the work of social psychologists is that 'some general agreement may now be perceived amongst the plethora of definitions and related concepts' (p. 16).

The main part of his analysis is based upon a tripartite view of education as curriculum transactions, socialisation, and welfare. The rapid increases in knowledge, institutionalisation, and less satisfactory home and environmental conditions all mean further pressures in these areas, leading to stress for the teacher. Such rapid changes in the nature of education lead to conflict especially with parents, who may not have appreciated them. Teaching other than mere booklearning is likely to be most diverse in primary schools. The role adopted by teachers will depend upon the potentialities and needs of their pupils, and upon their own personality. Expectations of them will vary considerably: he instances those of politician and administrator.

A number of pertinent questions are posed to encourage research, and he commends two levels of enquiry (taken from Oeser, 1955) for their investigation: the teacher and adult relationships, and the teacher and pupil relationships. In his opinion, no inquiry to date has even begun to unravel the nature of teacher's roles, though the task is great: 'It may be that a theory which appears to be based upon concepts which involve structural requirement and ideation in such a complex interrelationship is doomed to failure' (p. 23). However, the teacher's role is seen as being central to society's well-being;

Gammage feels we need to know more about it.

A number of textbooks on educational sociology contain a chapter on roles, and some more specific studies are also based upon an understanding of role (e.g. Delamont, 1976); but the literature reviewed above effectively presents all the ideas they contain. There seems total agreement upon the importance of a study of role, and also of its complexity. Between them, these authors offer several models upon which research may be based. Most of them offer hypotheses for investigation though only one (that by Kob) actually carries out any empirical test to support theory. Whilst most of them admit a bias towards either secondary or primary education, all are agreed that the concept is a global one.



## 2 - 5: The Gross and Biddle Studies

Two American studies based on role theory stand out from all the others: those of Gross, Mason and McEachern (1958), who used the position of school executive for their *Explorations in Role Analysis*; and of Biddle, Rosencranz and Rankin (1961) on the *Role of the Public School Teacher*. They are unique in the scale on which they are conceived, and in balancing their empirical studies with a theoretical background.

At the very outset, Gross et al. recognise that for all its value, the concept of role consensus has generated little real knowledge. They suggest (p. 4) that concern with consensus has meant that the variability between individuals has been overlooked. Recognition of the individual's conception of his role allows a better understanding of role conflict; of the ways in which roles are learnt; and of how their conception depends upon personality and environment. Their theoretical introduction is an even balance of sociology and psychology and sets a firm basis for the empirical work which follows.

Whilst their sample of school superintendents is quite small - 105 - the data collected is considerable. Each respondent was interviewed for some eight hours. The long interview took place in the superintendent's own office - to put him at ease, and to allow 'delicate' matters to be approached. In all, six research instruments were used, and motivation was kept high by varying the rate of interview and type of question (p. 87). Expectations of the superintendent were obtained from his own school board members in shorter

interviews at a later date. Analysis of the results was made at two levels: one of macroscopic role consensus, in which a generalised superintendent concept was matched with a generalised school board member's concept; and the other, a microscopic role consensus, when concepts of individual superintendents and their board members were matched.

Some hypotheses seem to have been generated as a result of the initial findings, and then tested. Differences between superintendents and their board members could be explained that each would take more responsibility than he would allow the other, especially where some technical expertise was called for; and that whilst superintendents were more 'educationally' minded, board members more 'society' minded in matters like expenditure. Hypotheses examining conceptions with respect to size of school and the superintendent's position within it were all confirmed.

Microscopic role analysis showed that superintendents are likely to be satisfied and effective by their own standards, but to think that their board sees them as dissatisfied and less effective; whilst the reverse is true for the board member. Gross attempts to explain this contradiction in terms of the time they spend together: for the superintendent, the school board occupies very little of his time, but for the board as a whole, its relationship with the superintendent is everything.

The last third of this study develops the idea of role conflict. The finding is that exposure to role conflict influences to some

extent the way in which a superintendent sees his job; but that also the presence of anxiety in some situations will lead to more pronounced consequences than its absence. A theory of role conflict resolution is developed, based upon the superintendent's perception of the conflict being legitimate, or not; and this proved very reliable when tested.

The development of the whole study is described very clearly. The derivation of hypotheses, their testing and subsequent discussion is distinctive. Although interviews are frequently mentioned, very little use is made of dialogue to illustrate points. Gross and his associates feel that their success has been largely due to their disregard for consensus of role, an idea which they commend to others.

Biddle's work is reported in ten volumes: four of theory (two are bibliographies, one sets out the experimental design and analysis, whilst the fourth derives terms) and six which are based on empirical research. There were three broad objectives: to pursue role theory and aid in its development as a sophisticated system of analysis in social psychology; to study extensively and empirically the role of the public school teacher; and to explore the relationships between teacher role and the problems of teacher recruitment.

Much of the work revolves around the ideas of norms (a value-orientated cognition: 'I feel that . . .') and expectations (a belief concerning the likely character or behaviour: 'I believe that . . .').



A pilot instrument containing 100 behaviours-in-context to be rated on a seven-point scale was used with 104 university students. They were asked to indicate their own expectations and norms for teacher behaviour for each item, and then again for each of the sentient positions - other people; other college students; parents of pupils; and teachers.

As a result of this experience, the main Role Study contained only 50 items - not necessarily from the 100 used previously - chosen to exhibit 'a wide variety of content and context and which . . . were likely to be fruitful for generating disparities between groups of respondents in their own norms and expectations' (volume 5, p. 11). These were divided into five groups, so that no respondent had to reply to more than ten items. The number of responses in a scale was reduced to five; and the sentient positions changed to one's own; people in general; teachers; and school officials. Together with a request for some biographical information, this instrument was given to 683 members of the public - admittedly with an educational bias - and to 244 undergraduates. Administration included an interview, and lasted in all for  $2\frac{1}{2}$  hours.

Findings from the pilot survey are not comparable with those from the main role study because the items and their scoring are not quite the same; but also, in the days before computers were easily available, analysis of the former findings was made as crude median scores. The results fill many tables, and are not always easy to follow. The authors do, however, offer very frank and open criticism of their methods. Not only are the populations seen to be biased; the questions,

too, are limited: 'the instruments utilized have depended upon a series of assumptions such as that role cognitions are conscious, that respondents are willing to give them honestly, and that cognitions held for different types of behaviour or teacher characteristics may be tapped independently with a single, scaled question. Finally, these instruments are limited in content and coverage' (vol. 5, p. 17).

As with the Gross study, it is only possible to give an idea of the findings of the Biddle study here. 'Distinct, gross and patterned differences' exist between teachers' own role concepts and those perceived for them by other sentient groups' (vol. 5, p. 79), and the caution is given: 'in future investigations an assumption of equality between own and attributed roles should be avoided'. Biddle was often able to predict the interactive effect between expectations and norms held by, and expected of, teachers. Teachers were well aware of their 'public image' as conformers, expected especially by school officials, but were not willing to see it as part of their own role (vol. 5, p. 79). Teachers, parents and pupils all over-estimated the expectations of principals for controlling pupil behaviour (vol. 3, p. 110). Principals were the most accurate group in attributing cognitions (vol. 3, p. 114). Parents and pupils both held many inaccurate expectations of teachers and principals, which was considered to be due to 'restrictions of communication and behavioural observation' (vol. 3, p. 148). Some stereotypes of teachers were discovered, as was an 'indefinite extension of teacher role into matters which do not pertain to education' (vol. 2, p. 145).



The development of hypotheses is logical and clear, and sound conclusions are drawn from the analysis. In view of their own criticism of the population samples, the number of teachers used for the focal position was quite small (189); no detail of their sex or type of school they represent is given. Compared to the Gross study, hardly any notice is taken by Biddle of individual respondents' conceptions; despite the interviewing, no quotations are used to illustrate findings.

Neither Biddle or Gross give many references to other work when discussing their findings, despite the remarkable bibliography of Biddle. Neither study takes biographical data into consideration; the fact that Ryans' study (1960) was published at the same time does nothing to resolve differing role concepts held by individuals. Both the studies, however, produced a number of subsequent reports. The overview of Role Theory by Biddle (1961) is in addition to the main series of volumes. A similar survey of teachers in English-speaking countries (1968) has shown that it is English teachers who report the most role conflict, and American, the least. Gross and Trask (1964) compared the careers and expectations of male and female elementary school heads. Whilst female heads were more concerned about individual pupil differences, delinquency and social deprivation, male heads exercised more control over their teachers' professional activities and mingled more freely with them out of school; there was no difference when staff morale, parental involvement supervision of teaching and routine administration were concerned. Dreeben and Gross (1965) showed that role performance of teachers is influenced by closeness of supervision; educational innovations, and parental involvement. Dodd (1965) found that principals



in situations of severe role conflict were less job-satisfied and more worried than others.

The contribution of these two studies has been remarkable, not just to the study of educational roles, but to role analysis in general. Even if the supplementary studies are overlooked, there are no investigations based in this country that are comparable.

The choice of literature to be reviewed here has been made selectively. Some mention of role is made in a great deal of educational research, though seldom in a definitive way; at times its use can be misleading. Discussion of any further American work, or of that where the teacher's role is not central, has been omitted.

The work closest in spirit to the present one is that of Kelly (1970). This was based on a postal ballot of 11% of the teachers in Dublin: the Irish 'National' schools take pupils from 6 to 14 years of age. The 151 returns represented a 94% response - quite exceptional! In the section of the work relating to role, teachers were asked to respond on a 5-point scale to seventeen items representing four role areas: religious, moral and social development (7 items); academic development (5); contact with parents and the wider community (4); and extra-curricular activities (1 item). Analysis of the replies by sex showed significant differences on only four, unrelated, items. Men gave significantly more variable replies to five items. No other breakdowns were attempted: he suggests analysis by age of the teacher and by social background of school, but not by age of pupil.

Conflict was assessed from a single question: 'How much influence does . . . have on your work?' By far the most influence was felt from the pupils, women feeling even more than men. Inspectors, principals, colleagues and parents all had similar influence, whilst managers had the least. It is debateable whether conflict can be adequately assessed from perception of 'influence'. Parent/teacher relationships

proved to be poor, for there were few contacts. Teachers said they would welcome more informal visits by parents to the school, but doubted whether parents would. Relations were worst in the inner city, a deprived area.

Job-satisfaction was gauged from direct responses to eighteen items. Women teachers, especially older ones, were most satisfied; men tended to complain about salaries, promotion, and lack of respect and recognition from the public. This part of Kelly's work is illustrated effectively by a number of comments from respondents.

A most significant work is that of Musgrove and Taylor (1969). Their book is based upon two papers published by each author previously, and one joint paper; they report a further study for the first time. Whilst the burden is society's conception of the teacher's role, teachers' own conceptions are used frequently. They start from a survey of changing social circumstances which affect education, yet conclude 'The teacher-role is not simply the product of external pressures and expectations, . . . their own role-conception, derived from a variety of sources, is surprisingly resilient' (p. 14/15).

Taylor's first study (1962) asked a variety of pupils to write essays on 'A good teacher' and 'A poor teacher'. The key words in their answers were reduced to five groups and twenty checklists of qualities. These were then rank ordered for importance by secondary school pupils and fourth year junior school children: younger children are not considered. All children considered 'teaching' the most important



quality of teachers, though teachers rated 'personality' higher. There were few differences amongst teachers' perceptions: sex, age, and the type of children taught made no difference. Graduates, however, tended to consider 'teaching' highest, whilst students in training rated 'personality' exceptionally highly. From a separate semantic differential-type instrument, children's conception of their ideal teacher emerged as a young married man with children, who gives little homework and does not use corporal punishment; they rejected women, elderly teachers, and those who behave as their parents might.

Parents' expectations of teachers were obtained by Musgrove (1961) through a series of interviews. Mothers and fathers had similar expectations, whether their children were boys or girls; but considerable differences came from their social class. Working class parents were concerned that the school should be responsible for behaviour training, and counselled their children more than middle class parents did. Working class parents were less prescriptive about secondary education. Musgrove concludes that the differences are not due to any less concern amongst working class parents; they are rather due to the lower social awareness of these parents.

Both authors used the same technique for investigating role conflict. Four of the scales developed from children's perceptions of good teachers had to be rated for importance by teachers, according to their own role conception, their role expectation, and their perceived role performance. Conflict was assessed as the concordance within these rank orders. Musgrove reported (1967) on a survey of 263 secondary school teachers, and Taylor (1968) on 185 primary school teachers.

Some difficulty was experienced by teachers in making all the ratings required: some were unwilling to rate their colleagues' perceptions; others felt they knew too little about parents' requirements.

More conflict was experienced in secondary modern schools than in grammar schools (the difference just reaching significance), and the male teachers in secondary modern schools appeared better adjusted than women teachers. The amount of conflict felt was independent of sex, age, and teaching experience, but may have been higher in teachers of domestic science, lower in teachers of mathematics.

The role areas discipline and personality caused the greatest conflict amongst all teachers, the head in particular being thought to expect higher standards of discipline. Staff tended to see themselves as a bridge between the head and the pupils: parents were not seen as having marked expectations (is this because teachers are unaware of them?).

Because of their neighbourhood basis, primary schools could be designated 'middle' or 'working' class: conflict was greater in junior schools in working class districts, though infant school teachers did not notice this. Once again, age, sex and length of experience had little relationship to the degree of conflict felt.

Their joint paper concerned parental expectations (1965). The six educational aims developed by Musgrove (1961) were ranked for importance by 281 secondary and 189 primary school teachers. Since respondents could indicate when they felt an aim was 'none of their business', a



measure of 'role-diffuseness' was obtained. Grammar school staff saw their role in the most restricted way; secondary modern teachers had the most diffuse concept of their role; and primary staff had an intermediate opinion. The views of married women junior teachers was almost as restricted as that of grammar school teachers: teachers in schools in middle class areas also held restricted views. The expectations of parents for role diffuseness, given by 108 parents of primary-age children and 129 of secondary-age children, were distinct and contradictory. Working class parents expected a wide conception of role from primary teachers, a much more restricted one from secondary school teachers; whilst those from middle class areas expected a limited perception from primary school staff, a much broader one from secondary school staff. Though odd, this result confirmed Musgrove's earlier finding (1961).

As to expectations themselves, parents and teachers, whatever their circumstances, were agreed upon the extreme importance of 'moral training' and 'instruction', and relative lack of importance of 'social advancement'. Teachers however perceived parents to rate social advancement second in importance only to instruction, and to give very little weight to moral training. Musgrove and Taylor rate the discrepancy as 'very large' and reason that it could be reduced by better communication between the two parties.

The research reported for the first time (Musgrove and Taylor, 1969, p. 68) concerns status. The educational changes in the 60's - increasing size of schools, wide-ability classes, comprehensives - changed the status of many teachers, even bringing at times a feeling



of 'status-incongruence'. Teachers were asked to rank for prestige a number of positions, distinguished both by institution and subject. There was a response of only 53% - indicating that this was a sensitive area. University teachers were ranked highest, followed by grammar, secondary modern, junior and infant school teachers in that order. Differences caused by subject taught are not so clear, since 'mathematics' teachers was specified as both 'grammar school' and 'sixth form', the 'modern languages' teacher was specified as 'grammar school', whilst the other subject teachers (religious education, commercial subjects, wood-work/domestic science and physical education) were offered only as generalised secondary positions. Despite this muddle, there is some evidence of a status-order. The roles of teachers of physical education and domestic science are examined specifically by Cannan (1964).

In their conclusion, the authors point out that teachers determine their own ends - uniquely so amongst professionals; yet as a part of society, they have responsibilities to society. Parents also have rights, but can only get them at the moment by opting to pay for their children's education. Is society likely to tolerate this for much longer? 'Perhaps it is tolerated only because it is, in general, such a thoroughly unadventurous despotism, shaping nothing more outrageous than a standardised utility product' (p. 85).

The outstanding feature of Musgrove and Taylor's work is its dependence upon serving teachers. The views of pupils and parents are used for what they are, and never as a substitute for teachers' own concepts. The derivation of the six aims for education, used in the joint paper, is not made clear; neither is the assemblage of adjectives into

thirty statements describing a good teacher explained. Yet these omissions do little to detract from a most valuable contribution to the study of teachers' roles. Their work is peculiarly free from confusing terminology, and they offer a searching analysis of educational practice.

There are no other works which make anything like such a complete study of the role of teachers in this country. A few others are restricted, either to a particular sector of the educational system, or to an aspect of role: role conflict and job satisfaction have both been investigated closely. A disquieting number of studies appear to deal with the teacher's role, but are actually only students' perceptions. A common strategy seems to be that of the Kelsalls (1969). Their book is a comparative survey of what seems to distinguish school teachers in England and Wales and America. It contains nothing new, and references to American works outnumber English works by nearly four to one.

Chapter 5 begins (p. 67):

Up to this point, the empirical data we have been discussing have related to the view of teacher role taken by different sections of the community. Although the views of groups of teachers and of those training to be teachers were included in some of these studies, the main focus of interest was on the stereotypes of teachers and teaching held by representatives of the community with no necessary connection with the profession except as parents of past or present pupils. In the chapters that now follow, our whole concern will be with the views of the particular sections of the population representing the kind of people from whom the mature teachers of the future will have to be drawn; that is, those who have reached a certain level of formal education and who fall within certain age limits.



In short, the first part has dealt with the views of society in general (which just happened to include a few teachers and students), and the rest will deal with students' views. They continue: 'We want to examine, in the present chapter, what are the features of the stereotype of teachers and teaching held by such people themselves and by those who influence their choice of career'. The chapter contains reviews of seven studies all using students' perceptions of teachers; the nearest they get to 'such people themselves' is in one study, where students recalled what they had been told by a variety of adults - parents, career advisers, as well as teachers - often more than two years previously. This is an extreme example of what can be offered as teachers' own concepts: but less serious distortions are commonplace.

A limited, but more satisfactory, study is that of Baird (1967). Using a schedule of four lists of behaviour, taken from Gardner and Cass (1965), and representing control and discipline, intellectual development, emotional security, and social attitudes, she rated the actual behaviour of twenty teachers of young children during five half-hour periods. Most of their behaviour went in providing intellectual development, and least in maintaining control and discipline. There was little difference between any of the teachers: the ten infant-junior staff showed more variation between themselves than they did as a whole with the infant teachers. Age, length of experience and type of timetable (progressive or traditional) made no difference.



Similar work is now being pursued by Delamont. In her account of classroom interaction (1976) the observations on the teacher and the pupils are both fitted to a framework of role theory.

The work of Ginsberg et al (1977) was set in middle schools. Because they felt there was much existing research on the classroom, they focussed on a wider view - pupils, parents, colleagues, officials and administrators. They used participant observation, supplemented by informal interviews with teachers, parents, pupils and governors, and the work is profusely illustrated by quotations. They consider that 'although couched in the language of a role analysis, our research is not exclusively derived from 'role theory'' (p. 3).

They found that teachers were highly constrained in their behaviour by the social context in which they operated. The middle school teacher's role mirrored that of other teachers, but contained ambiguities because of its intermediate nature. Middle school teachers tended to believe in their schools, but were apprehensive of what others might think.

The work of Dodd (1974) concerns secondary school teachers, and illustrates yet another method of approach. Using a series of open-ended questions, he investigated the changes in role experienced by staff following conversion of their schools into comprehensives. The stereo-type images of grammar and secondary modern teachers were confirmed. Both types of teacher saw that comprehensive staff were something different, but, at two years after re-organisation, the new

stereotype was still blurred. They saw it as a compromise, closer to the old secondary modern image than to the grammar. Accordingly, former grammar school teachers felt more aware of the change, though both types reported similar feelings about the greater diffuseness and exacting character of their new role.

Although simple in design, this study throws a lot of light on an important but under-researched topic. The design of the questions was effective: some drew 'rude' answers, but many of the comments have been used to illustrate the thesis effectively.

## 2 - 7: Role Conflict and Job-satisfaction

These areas are alike in that they both depend to some extent upon an understanding of the teacher's role, and that they are intimately related to teachers' own perceptions.

Both Floud (1962) and Wilson (1962) claimed that roles having moral and ethical orientations, which are concerned with the transmission of values, will be exposed to conflict in advanced industrialised societies. The teacher's role was seen as a 'confrontation position' with the changing attitudes to authority due to the growth of hedonistic and other-directed philosophies of life.

The characteristics of an organisation will induce role-conflict. Attention has been given to the conflict of professional workers in bureaucratic organisations, where the professional orientation stressing autonomy, quality of service and application of universal criteria may clash with bureaucratic requirements stressing supervision and uniformity, routine and particular criteria. This has been recognised as a major source of role conflict for American teachers (Corwin, 1965) and growing size and bureaucratisation of schools is thought likely to create similar problems here (Westwood, 1969).

In the work of Musgrove and Taylor already cited (1969) a distinction was drawn (p. 45) between intra-role and inter-role conflict. The idea of inter-role conflict, that developing when an individual attempts to fill two roles at once, e.g. teacher and parent, will not be pursued; Gross found (1958, p. 274 et seq.) that such conflicts had no



bearing on job conception. Some studies of intra-role conflict have attempted to cover all aspects of the teachers' role - those on job-satisfaction or stress being amongst them - but many studies of the conflict arising between teachers and specific counter-positions have also been made. In this survey, preference will be given to the former.

Grace based his investigation (1972) upon the analysis of Wilson (1962) and a model proposed by Getzels and Guba (1955). Two items were devised to illustrate each of four areas of known role conflict: role diffuseness; role vulnerability; role commitment (as opposed to career orientation); and value conflicts. Teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceived each conflict, and also the extent to which they had actually experienced it. Replies were received from 150 secondary school teachers.

Considerable conflict was perceived: two-thirds of teachers appreciated this with respect to commitment and value orientations. Conflict had actually been experienced by fewer teachers; 36% experienced high conflict over values, and 26% over both role diffuseness and commitment. Analysis showed that experienced teachers, non-graduates, and men working in secondary modern schools were especially aware of conflict, both perceived and experienced; and that male teachers in general, and all teachers in working class schools, tended to experience conflict more.

There follow chapters based on each of the four conflict areas, built upon comments made in a series of one-hour interviews with 80 of

the teachers sampled earlier. Despite the concern shown by Wilson, role diffuseness clearly caused no real role conflict. There was some evidence that certificated teachers, and those of 'practical and creative arts' experienced conflict through role vulnerability, though this was never due to administration - 'a sense of autonomy emerged as the most prized possession of the British school teacher' (p. 71). Commitment to their job caused much conflict - it was generally felt that a teacher was obliged to serve four or five years in a post before looking for promotion. Teachers who moved quickly caused bitterness, especially amongst secondary modern men. The majority of conflict over values lay with society, and was again felt most keenly by secondary modern men. A few young teachers found this conflict rather within their school. It is a form of conflict that is likely to increase.

Whilst limited to secondary schools, and a consideration of pre-determined areas for conflict, this is a valuable study. The strategy for the questionnaire was simple, and it was well-supported by the in-depth interviews.

By taking as their major hypothesis 'Job satisfaction is a function of role consensus' Koopman-Boyden and Adams (1974) acknowledged the close relationship between these two concepts. Their measure of consensus was given from ratings on 7-point scales of six conflict situations. One hundred and forty-seven teachers in New Zealand intermediate schools were asked to answer with their own opinion, and that perceived from their head teacher. The vexed question of salary was omitted, perhaps because 'good teachers are dedicated teachers, and



dedicated teachers are above worldly things'. High role consensus was found for most teachers, whichever of two ways of measuring it was used. Since their reports of job satisfaction were also high, no clear connection between the two was discovered.

A more conclusive result was found by Leese (1977), studying role conflict, decisional participation and job satisfaction in a group of 169 teachers in primary and middle schools. Much of the work was based on responses made to eleven role items, though no explanation of how these were derived is given. Role conflict was measured by the question 'Do you feel you need to spend more/less/the same amount of time on . . .?' and satisfaction by 'To what extent do you find satisfaction in . . .?' as applied to the eleven items.

Very little role conflict was revealed: two-thirds of the respondents reported none at all. When conflict occurred, it was usually because insufficient time was available for the behaviours mentioned. The one exception related to supervisory duties. Again, other than in this one area, considerable satisfaction was reported. The relationship between role conflict and satisfaction was found by rank ordering the total scores for each item - a method which loses the feelings of each individual. There proved to be no simple relationship: the roles giving the greatest satisfaction are not necessarily those causing the least role-conflict. He concluded that whilst some jobs are disliked (supervision), they are seen as a necessary part of school organisation, and so tolerated to a greater or lesser degree. An odd discovery was also made: whilst half of the teachers surveyed were unaware of all



their opportunities to share in decision-making, there was a considerable group who deliberately chose not to become involved in decision-making - and these teachers were the group reporting greatest job-satisfaction!

It has usually been considered that job satisfaction is inversely related to role conflict (see, for instance, Kahn (1964, p. 72 ) and Gross (1958, p. 275 et seq.). When this principle was tested, both Belasco and Alutto (1972), and Hamner and Tosi (1974) reported no clear relationship; and Sergiovanni (1967, p. 79) concluded that satisfaction comes from the job itself, whilst dissatisfaction comes from conditions and the environment. This conclusion was also supported by Worsley (1973) who found that, in urban junior schools, the attitude of the head teacher and inter-staff relationships were more influential for satisfaction than the working environment. Getzels recognized that 'certain types of conflict, like certain types of necessity, give rise to productive transformations' (1963, p. 318) and there has been a call to deliberately include role-conflict in the training of student teachers (Chambers, 1972).

Stress is clearly a far-worse manifestation of conflict than that just considered. In a review, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) defined stress as 'a response by a teacher of negative effect (such as anger, anxiety or depression) accompanied by potentially pathogenic physiological changes . . . as a result of the demands made upon the teacher in his role as a teacher' (p. 299). They reported several studies of stress in student and probationary teachers, and some where stress

was related to a particular circumstance: difficult pupils or school reorganisation, but admitted that 'research on teacher stress is still in an early stage of development' (p. 305).

Rudd and Wiseman (1962), using a postal questionnaire on 590 teachers, found the main sources of dissatisfaction were salaries, poor relationships amongst staff, inadequacies of buildings and equipment, teaching load, initial training, large classes, and so on. Further analysis showed that sex of the teacher and type of school were important factors: poor salaries caused most stress to male teachers in junior and secondary modern schools; large classes caused most dissatisfaction amongst female teachers in infant and junior schools.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe's own work (1978), measuring stress from four scales representing pupil misbehaviour, poor working conditions, time pressures, and poor school ethos, also found significant sex differences. Women found pupil misbehaviour items more stressful than men, whilst men were more concerned about administration and paper work. Younger teachers found punishment, difficult classes, discipline and the head's attitude all stressful. Features of this study are the omission of salary as a potential source of stress, and the recognition of indiscipline as a powerful source of stress - it was hypothesised that teachers would be reluctant to admit to this for a variety of reasons. Taylor and Dale (1971) using a postal questionnaire with 3,588 probationary teachers, found that teaching wide-ability groups caused the most stress, but that their headmasters thought they would find classroom discipline the major teaching problem.





From a factor analysis of stress found in student teachers in California, Halpert (1966) resolved two specific factors: one relating to physical manifestations of stress, the other caused by uncertainty about the teacher role, giving ambiguity about how to function. Dunham's more recent report (1976), based on reports and interviews with some 658 primary and secondary teachers in the United Kingdom, found both stress, and severe stress, becoming increasingly common. Stress was caused especially by school reorganisation, role conflict and ambiguity, and poor working conditions. That due to role conflict and ambiguity was especially linked with poor communications between teachers in the same school between other teachers, and adults outside the school. The stress was enhanced because teachers felt that role was something which concerned them personally, over which they had some control, whereas that caused by school reorganisation and poor working conditions was beyond their immediate control.

A number of reports have found (e.g. Musgrove and Taylor, 1965) that parents' expectations are similar to teachers' own concepts, so that much role conflict in this direction is unfounded. Working in primary schools, Cohen and Cohen (1970) found more agreement between these two positions at infant level than at junior, and hypothesised that difficulties could be experienced as the children changed schools. They used a semantic rating procedure, but teachers were not asked whether they actually felt conflict. Moore (1971) found that primary school heads (she uses this term as synonymous with teacher - which may be possible in an area of small rural schools) saw school progress and future education opportunities as the greatest concerns of parents. Those heads who saw parents on a regular basis gave similar responses to those who did not - indicating a good degree of awareness even where formal relationships did not exist.



## 2 - 8: Students' Perceptions of the Teacher's Role

Several studies have centered on this: but while they may have some value in a training situation, they are no substitute for teachers' own concepts. Some are reviewed here because the methods employed are similar to those of this study.

Gibson (1970) asked 345 college of education students for their perception of the roles of primary and secondary teachers. His instrument contained thirty-four items, to be assessed on a 5-point scale. They formed two groups: one relating to instrumental order (curriculum, teaching methods, teaching groups and staff relationships); the other to expressive order (the limits of authority, internal organisation, school ritual, belief and moral systems).

Students saw a significant difference between primary and secondary teachers on three-quarters of the items. With increasing training, the primary teacher's role appeared to become more 'open', that of the secondary teacher, more closed. The changes were most marked for items in the instrumental order group. The primary teacher 'is thus seen as more of an 'all-rounder', albeit at a shallower level, than his secondary colleagues, with more freedom to experiment in curriculum and method' (p. 23).

A year later, Gibson (1971) used the same data to examine the changes in student-perception during training. The overall perception of the teacher's role was that it became more open. The change was greater in primary than in secondary-intending students, and the biggest changes

came early in the students' course. However, at the level of individual items, the changes recorded were irregular.

In an exploratory study of the teacher's role, Cohen (1965) found an anonymous essay was less precise than a role definition instrument. This contained thirty-seven items in three sectors: director of learning and therapist (23 items), liaison between school and neighbourhood (6), and professional (8). It was answered by 268 students, 183 head teachers and 90 college tutors. He found there was good agreement within each group, but considerable differences between them. Second-year students proved to be the most radical - it was thought because they were half-way through the transition between school and work.

With Finlayson, Cohen also monitored the changes in students' perceptions during their training, and compared these to those of head teachers. Their instrument (1967) now contained twenty-two items in four areas taken from Fleming (1958). These related to organisation (3 items), general aims (5), motivation (2), and classroom behaviour (12). It was given to 268 female college of education students. The few differences found between infant and junior-and-secondary intending students related to classroom management - the latter group showing the more authoritarian attitudes. During training, student perception of classroom behaviour changed remarkably, reaching a peak of permissiveness in the second year. Very considerable differences between student and head teacher perceptions existed: the heads had a 'relatively organisationally-orientated, child-dominating and conformity-desiring point of view' (p. 28).

There are a number of inconsistencies in this work. Perhaps the students were obliged to reply, for there was a 100% return. No reason is given for the unusual division by intention: it may have been to absorb a few secondary-orientated students, but it was an illogical move. A new area 'classroom management' is erected when the original ones were found insufficient to explain results. Close inspection shows that the scores reported here are the same as some of those from the 1965 thesis, when they formed only three, quite different, areas. Finlayson and Cohen appear surprised at some of their results: they attempt to explain a difference found with Musgrove and Taylor's work with actual teachers (1965), and eventually suggest that head teachers have one frame of reference, and 'tutors in colleges of education' (sic!) have another, from which to view the teacher's position. This should have been obvious from the outset.



Chapter: 3

The Research Strategy

### Chapter 3: The Research Strategy

The review has shown that, despite the confusion which still exists over terminology, many valuable studies have been made which depend upon the concept of role. A considerable number of these have related to the position of teacher, though most of them only in a theoretical way. Despite this limitation, the idea has been used in a number of current debates: the relationship between educational aims and the needs of society (Turner and Rushton, 1974); the growing attention being given to the views of pupils, (Meighan, 1979); and above all, in recognition of the diffuse nature and increasing scope of the teacher's task (Hargreaves, 1978).

The argument between sociologists and psychologists only clouds the issue. Psychological recognition of individual differences is most important to the individual teacher and to those in direct contact with him; but it is of limited concern to society and to education in general. Initial recognition of such differences in such a difficult area is only likely to make things more complicated, and add little to an overall conception of the teacher's role. Once this has been established, the standing of individuals can be made more effectively.

A number of far more important considerations have emerged. Theoretical studies have often examined the matter from the point of view of one educational sector, presumably that with which the author was most familiar: thus Kob (1961) and Westwood (1967) confine their treatment to secondary schools, Cook and Mack (1971) to primary ones. Practical studies have usually been limited in a similar fashion.

Yet it has only gradually become realised that the group defining a role is also important. There is a difference between teachers' own conception of their role, and that of other parties, no matter how close they may be to the focal position. Even students during their training to become teachers have been found (by, amongst others, Adams-Webber and Mirc, 1976) to hold opinions which are distinct and may fluctuate considerably. A balanced definition of the teacher's role can only come from a large body of serving teachers, chosen to be representative of all of them. Not one of the studies reviewed can be said to have attempted to gather information in this way.

Some of the studies examined have developed a model of role (Kob, 1961; Adams, 1970; and Startup, 1972). There is little agreement as to the most appropriate form, though Hoyle (1969) and Westwood (1969) both refer to that of Getzels (1963). Often the model seems to have been made specially for a particular investigation, a technique that must do much to decide the outcome before an inquiry has actually taken place. For instance, studies of role conflict (Koopman-Boyden and Adams, 1974) or of job satisfaction (Leese, 1977) may be limited to areas where conflict or dissatisfaction can be expected to arise, and so give no idea of what contribution these areas make to the overall role of teacher. No comprehensive model of the teacher's role exists. Such a model would be valuable for a number of purposes: as a background against which to set other, more detailed, studies; for comparative purposes, both between sectors of education within this country and between those of different countries; and for an understanding of the professional status of teachers.



Several studies have stressed the variety of responsibilities carried by the teacher, and hence the diffuseness of the role. Hoyle, Adams and Westwood have all examined the idea of role flexibility: the ease with which an accomplished teacher will slip from one role to another. This will be a difficult process for an observer to detect. Several theoretical studies have recognised that a job which involves inter-personal relationships may be defined in personal terms, any of which may be effective. Because of these reasons, a model which attempts to be comprehensive is likely to be unsatisfactory.

The difficulty of erecting an adequate model for role concepts has not prevented a considerable number of studies being undertaken on similar positions. The role of head teacher has attracted two whole volumes of papers: those of Allen (1968) and Peters (1976); and many other studies - Stones (1963), Caspari (1965), Westwood (1966), Bernbaum (1970 and 1973), Cohen (1970 a and b), Donaldson (1970), Hughes (1972) and Gray (1973). The deputy head's role has attracted a surprising number of investigations: Burnham (1964), Coulson (1974 and 1976), Smith (1976), Williams (1976), Payne (1977), Todd and Dennison (1978). College of education staff have been studied by Shipman (1969), West (1973), and Nias (1976); and university staff by Startup (1972) and Pashley (1977). Few of these studies offer any procedures which are distinct from those already considered, and they are not reviewed because they are not directly relevant to the role of teacher. Their very number, however, is quite out of proportion to the limited number made of the teacher's role, and shows that difficulty in forming an adequate model need be no obstacle. They underline the need for, and offer help to, further investigations.

The main aim of this study will be to offer an account of teachers' conceptions of their role. Since comparatively little similar work has been done, it will have to be in the form of an initial exploration: it should, however, facilitate comparison of existing studies and act as a base upon which to build further investigations. Such an aim can only be developed on a broadly-based understanding of teaching. Though the general public sees all teachers as being very similar, teachers themselves are often very definite about the sort of teacher they are. It is the intention to survey teachers of children of all ages, from nursery to sixth-form. This in turn will mean that the account must take into consideration many aspects of teaching in addition to that of direct instruction. The means of obtaining discipline, of establishing standards of behaviour and conduct, and the nature of relationships, both within the school and outside it, are all appropriate for study.

A level of intensity for the investigation needs to be defined. Adams (1970) has pointed out the disjunction between expansive, classificatory studies on the one hand and intensive and enumerative ones on the other. Some studies, especially theoretical ones, have divided the teacher's role into two or three areas for consideration (e.g. Gammage, 1973). Such an analysis will be too general to allow for easy translation into comprehensive and practical terms. Other studies, especially some of the practically-based ones, have defined a limited number of narrow, specific areas for investigation (e.g. Kelly, 1970; Baird, 1967). Their very specificity may render many of these unsuitable for use in all teaching situations. Moreover, a considerable number of such areas would be needed to achieve anything like an over-



all coverage of the role. The relationship between these two positions can be seen in text figure 1 on page seven. An appropriate level for this investigation will be intermediate to these, developing a handful of role areas. Each area ought to be big enough to be generally applicable, yet small enough to allow an acceptable definition in practical terms. They need to be recognizable and operational, yet not so numerous that they become unmanageable. Ideally, between them, these role areas would account for most, if not all, of the many facets of the teacher's role.

This definition goes some way towards resolving the dilemma of an adequate model of role; that is, one which is both comprehensive and yet suitable for empirical investigation. Initially, a considerable number of items will be needed, each representing a specific aspect of the teacher's role, and between them, accounting for as much of its diffuseness as possible. It should be possible to define these items in a manner which causes little semantic confusion because of their unique nature. It has already been argued that such discrete items may be combined to give more general, yet still substantial, role areas. These would be the intermediate intensity role areas proposed in the previous paragraph.

Some thought must be given to this process of combination. A common technique has been to derive a role area theoretically, and then to define it with a number of items. This method seems to do little more than 'snipe' at the global concept, picking off the more obvious aspects of the teacher's role, and even removing the foundation for other, less obvious, areas. It also introduces an unnecessary amount of subjectivity, which in at least one study has led to inconsistency. Still



worse, determining differences between areas defined in this way may be easy, since it is likely that the experimenter, perhaps subconsciously, has presupposed that such a difference exists. In the terms of Carver (1978), it amounts to testing a 'null' hypothesis before a 'research' one, and is considered by him to be 'a corrupt scientific method' (p.389).

A more satisfactory combination of items will come from asking a number of judges to place them into the framework of some detailed role model, derived independently and probably from theory. Osgood et al. (1957) used such a method with great success during the development of their semantic differential. The method has low subjectivity and the agreement amongst judges can be assessed mathematically. Some items which cannot be agreed to fit any defined role area can be taken as fitting some other, unrepresented in the initial model.

Alternatively, a still more objective way of combining items will be mathematical analysis. By bringing into groups the items which have elicited similar responses, such an analysis would generate combinations independent of preconceived ideas of role areas, yet hopefully sufficiently homogeneous to permit ready identification. An element of subjectivity remains in such an analysis: the number of groups extracted can be varied in order to utilise as many items as possible whilst still retaining some sense in each group. Startup (1972) used factor analysis in this way as part of his investigations into an analogous role - that of the university lecturer.

The response to these role items must come from teachers themselves: sufficient is known about the perceptions of role from even closely related positions to appreciate that they are no substitute for an actual conception. The currently-fashionable techniques of participant-observations and interaction analysis have both been used effectively in accounts of teachers' behaviour - participant observation by Lacey (1970 and 1977), Sharp and Green (1975), Reynolds (1976), and Woods (1979); and interaction analysis by Walker and Adelman (1975) and Delamont (1976). Both are good for registering apparently trivial behaviour which may be used for illustrating a pre-conceived framework, but not so satisfactory for recording aspects of global behaviour suitable for a comprehensive study. Being limited to recording behaviour as it occurs, they are unsuitable for examining some aspects of the teacher's role. They would be inconvenient for following extra-curricular activities, and quite incapable of assessing the manner in which a practising teacher had initially established rapport with the class. Moreover, without any clearly agreed theoretical basis, findings from these methods could be subjective and limited.

More appropriate methods are those which operate 'at one remove' (Banks, 1979). Such methods are interviews and questionnaires, where the teacher tells the researcher about what is done. If interviews are structured, they can be very objective, and also give a good idea of the feelings of individual teachers. The chief merit of questionnaires is the ease with which they survey a large population quickly. It is possible that the absence of a direct contact with an interviewer may allow some delicate matters to be probed which would not



otherwise be possible. In a comparison of interview and questionnaire methods, Bill (1973) found that both offered good reliability and very good comparability with each other for the recording of pupils' perceptions of their teachers. There is clearly much to be said for a method which utilizes something of both techniques. In this investigation, the difficulty of semantics or the variety of meanings a particular question may have for different individuals, will have been faced in the initial selection of items. Interviews with serving teachers at an early stage will help to select suitable role items and to ensure that they are meaningful and relatively unambiguous.

Surveys using large numbers of items bring their own peculiar difficulties. Interviews similar in scale to those of Gross are quite impractical in this country. A careful balance has to be worked out between the amount of information expected of a respondent, and the growing impatience and distress occasioned by lengthy questionnaires. The reporting of large amounts of information can also cause problems. The paper of Coulson and Cox (1977) loses much of its effect because the 40 items examined are analysed individually; no attempt is made to generalize, and the account becomes repetitious.

A still more serious difficulty is that of significance testing. The chances of a null hypothesis being rejected incorrectly rise when large numbers of tests are performed. This can be off-set to some extent by using appropriate sample sizes (Carver, 1978). There is no reason why the actual level of probability needed to give significance should not depend on circumstances. Hardie (1977), develops the idea of 'betting odds' probability as a deliberately subjective



estimate to measure degrees of belief. Using it, judgements can vary from person to person, and even from day to day. Accordingly, the actual value of probability will generally be given when presenting the results of this survey.

Once some satisfactory model of role is achieved, the review has revealed a number of variables likely to influence role perception which are worthy of investigation. Many studies have plotted the changes in students' perception of the teacher's role during training (McIntyre and Morrison, 1967; Hussell and Smithers, 1974; Gibson, 1971, 1976); and a few have been able to follow this into the probationary year (Finlayson and Cohen, 1967). The findings have been dramatic and distinct, but nothing is known of how role concepts are influenced by longer experience.

The study of Musgrove (1961) and the later one with Taylor (1965) have shown that the social environment of a school has a definite effect upon the role conceptions of its staff (as well as upon the perceptions of the parents). It is likely that the more intimate environment of the school itself will also influence role conception, though this has not yet been investigated. Classrooms offer a still more intimate order of environment, but apart from the work of Gibson (1970) and Cortis (1972), who both used the perceptions of students, there appear to be no practical investigations of how the age of children taught influences role perception, despite the predictions from theory.

Both Hoyle (1969) and Gammage (1973) have suggested that a teacher's personality is likely to influence his conception of role, and in view of the growing understanding of how personality effects learning behaviour, this deserves to be examined.

It was with such thinking in mind that the further aims have been developed. These are, in short, to investigate the determinants of role conception amongst teachers. They can be conveniently set out as a number of research hypotheses, each of which is likely to offer a number of opportunities for further research. Eventually, null hypotheses will be used; but first, the research hypotheses are:

1. That the age of pupils taught - the class taken - is related to profound differences in role conception. Few authors seem to have attempted a detailed examination of this, even theoretically. Most seem to take the idea for granted before developing the areas of either primary or secondary education; or else to discuss education in such general terms as to overlook these differences. In Hoyle's opinion (1969, p. 29), teachers of older children have roles which in general build upon, or are additional to, those of younger children.
2. That personal or biographic differences between teachers such as sex, length of teaching experience, being a parent, having graduate status will have a limited effect upon role

conception. Interference by these qualities is not expected in a professional relationship, and teachers have many reasons to be considered professionals. Despite the suggestion by Hoyle (1969, p. 54) that personal qualities would influence role concepts, Coulson and Cox (1977) found that this was not generally true of deputy head teachers.

3. That differences in the role conception of teachers can be related to a number of less tangible measures:

(a) perception of the school's morale. This hypothesis can be considered intermediate to the influence of the social environment investigated by Musgrove and Taylor (1965), and that produced by the class being taught, to be examined as the first hypothesis above.

(b) attitude of the teacher towards education as a concept in general. The scores on all three of the scales defined by the Oliver and Butcher Survey of Educational Opinions (1962) are all likely to bear on role concepts.

(c) personality characteristics. Again on professional grounds, this should not be the case; but following the demonstrations of how personality influences both learning (Cashdan and Whitehead, 1971) and teaching style (Middlebrook, 1977) it is arguable that it will effect role conception also.



As well as answering the not-infrequent calls for a study of the role concepts of teachers, it is hoped that this work will provide a base upon which to build further investigations, especially those using interaction analysis and participant observation. The findings should be of interest to educational theorists, and to students preparing to become teachers. Whilst very few teachers change from one educational sector to another once they have commenced teaching, their pupils do so regularly, and some idea of the new conceptions which they will meet will help to reduce their apprehension at this time.

The investigation has two further major aims. The first of these is to investigate cohesion within the profession; that is, the degree of understanding teachers in one educational sector have of teachers in other sectors. From the inference of previous studies (for example, Baird, 1965; Gibson, 1970; and Cortis, 1972) and from common belief it is plausible to test the hypothesis that the degree of understanding is greater between nursery-infant and junior teachers than it is between junior and secondary level teachers; and that agreement is least between teachers at the extremes of the age range, i.e. nursery-infant and secondary. This aim is believed to be relevant to a consideration of teaching as a unified profession and the thorny questions of transfer between sectors and the co-existence of teachers from different sectors brought about by reorganization resulting in the emergence of 'Middle Schools'.

The second further aim is an examination of role constraint. The term constraint is used here to indicate a significant difference

recorded between an actual role score and that expected from a counter position. The more usual term conflict has been reserved, in the absence of more positive evidence, for instances of extreme differences between positions, or for a number of constraints acting at once. The investigation will be limited to teachers' perceptions of the expectations of the head teacher, parents and pupils. Some of the reviewed studies (Musgrove and Taylor, 1965; Leese, 1977) and informal conversations suggest the hypothesis that high levels of role constraint are not characteristic of teachers in general, but that, where role constraint is experienced, it emanates more from the perceived expectations of the head teacher than from those of parents or pupils (c.f. Taylor and Dale, 1971; and Worsley, 1973).

To meet these aims, the following strategy was drawn up. An initial collection of role items was made by the author from the research reviewed previously. This was designed to cover as many aspects of the teacher's role as possible. It was extended and refined through a series of interviews with serving teachers. Eventually, it formed the basis of a preliminary questionnaire. The response to this enabled a more discriminating and effective questionnaire to be drawn up for the main investigation. At the same time, items for the preliminary questionnaire were offered to another group of teachers for fitting into the role areas of a detailed model derived from theory. Some preliminary testing of the instruments selected for recording the variables connected with the third working hypothesis also had to be undertaken. The main research was accomplished through a single

questionnaire, though this had a number of forms to allow examination of the various hypotheses. Most of the forms carried only items which were known to reflect low consensus of opinion amongst teachers. The responses to this questionnaire were analysed factorially to develop another model of role, and this was used to analyse the results from the main investigation.



Chapter: 4

Preliminary Investigations

## Chapter 4: Preliminary Investigations

### 4 - 1: The Preliminary Questionnaire

#### 4 - 1.1: Design

The collection of statements describing the role of school teacher was made initially from published material, a process which incidentally revealed how common this method of obtaining source items is. Some items given in American research were unsuited to British teaching and were either transcribed or ignored. Since the aim was to define the whole of the teacher's role from within this collection, items were added indiscriminately at this stage. An examination of some of the theoretically derived areas of teacher role allowed other items to be formulated and added to illustrate these were insufficient already existed. In addition, some items were added to test feeling towards current issues in Education: militancy, co-operation with the police, supervision of school meals, etc. In this way, a comprehensive bank of items relating to the role of teacher was built up. Subjective attempts were made to ensure that this was applicable to both primary and secondary school teachers. After elimination of obvious duplications and awkwardly-worded items, some 195 remained.

The aims of the study and criteria for the selection of items were then discussed individually with some fourteen teachers, serving in both primary and secondary schools. The list of items was left with each one, and an interview took place some days later. These interviews took at least an hour and a quarter, but many were voluntarily prolonged to over three hours. As a result, ambiguous items were clarified or deleted. Those considered irrelevant by some teachers were carefully

checked with teachers from differing backgrounds to avoid biasing the collection towards one educational sector: some were rejected, but others were kept. The attitude throughout these interviews was one of drastic selection, whilst retaining sufficient items to ensure an adequate and comprehensive description of the role. Afterwards, 166 items remained, though since some items had been introduced at the suggestion of teachers, this selection was more drastic than it appears. A last personal analysis reduced this number to 151; even so, a number of the interviewed teachers expressed the opinion that the size of the collection was daunting.

These selected items were re-arranged using random number tables to break up any connections remaining between items from the original published lists, or from trains-of-thought used in the interviews. The prefatory instruction for the whole questionnaire was 'Please show how strongly you feel a teacher in your position should or should not act'.

Responses were sought in terms of a five-point scale: absolutely must; preferably should; may or may not; preferably should not; and absolutely must not. Although such scales have been used in practically all similar investigations, considerable thought was given to construction of a more detailed response scale if only to make mathematical results more decisive. A linear scale in which just the end and middle points are defined was considered inappropriate; yet the difficulty of defining more than five equal points in unambiguous terms proved too great.



However, a sixth response was offered for each item: 'Irrelevant'. Respondents were asked to use this category only if the item was meaningless to them in their present teaching position. It was hoped that this would remove much of the ambiguous element in the 'may or may not' response.

Respondents were also asked, before commencing the questionnaire, to nominate their present teaching position and then to answer from that point of view. This was obvious for most primary teachers, but secondary teachers were asked for the type of class they met most frequently. In all, ten types of class were offered for nomination; the eleventh category 'other - please state which' was used only once (for remedial primary teaching).

At the end of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to reveal their name and address if they were prepared to help with further work in this area. Although not obliged to do so, over 90% did so.

#### 4 - 1.2: The Sample

In all, just 200 copies of the preliminary questionnaire were sent out. The vast majority of teachers approached were those who had formerly been students of the author whilst they were in training. Some of these had been teaching for seven years, whilst others had completed just over one year of service. No teachers in their probationary year were approached. Most of them would be between twenty and thirty years of age, but some were more mature. All these former students

had taken some course in science whilst at college. Those now working in primary schools are not likely to have had their role attitudes influenced to any great extent by this, but the same may not be true for the secondary teachers.

A majority of the secondary teachers were known to be specialising in subjects other than science; but at least twenty returns came from teachers of science. This possible bias in the secondary school sample is somewhat offset by another circumstance. When early returns showed a majority of primary school replies, a small number of secondary teachers known to, but untaught by, the author were approached. This move yielded a further five secondary returns, all from non-science teachers, and brought the balance between primary and secondary returns to statistical comparison with the national distribution.

Apart from these last few, the approach made to each teacher was in the form of a personal letter, setting out the aims of the work, accompanied by the questionnaire and a pre-paid envelope for its return. These were posted to the last known address from personal records kept by the author. As might be expected, many of the addresses turned out to be incorrect. Some were returned marked 'Unknown', and others must have been ignored by the present occupants or lost in other ways. A considerable number were intercepted by parents and forwarded, so that the eventual return became acceptable. No attempt was made to follow up the non-returns.

Eventually, 125 replies were received. The response rate can be calculated in a number of ways, as table 1 shows:

Table 1: The response made to the preliminary questionnaire

No. of questionnaires distributed:	200
No. of returns made:	125
No. of questionnaires returned marked	
'Unknown':	13
No. of teachers traced to addresses outside the United Kingdom:	4
No. of teachers now known to be dead:	2
Total number of questionnaires known to be undelivered:	19
Hence, no. of non-returns:	56
Replies received, expressed as a proportion of those known to have been delivered:	69.1%

It was possible to investigate some of the non-returns further by checking addresses against telephone directories and voters' lists. Of sixteen addresses checked in this way, six no longer had people of the respondent's family living there. Proportionately, there could be 21 of the 56 non-returns which were never received, making a possible return rate of 78%. Even this figure makes no allowance for questionnaires received at the parental home of a teacher, but not passed on. It seems reasonable to assess the final return rate as being near to 80% - a very high value for a postal survey without follow-up. Cohen (1970), investigating head teachers' roles, obtained a first reply of 43.8% and a final rate of 86.8% only after three reminders.

One of the 125 replies proved to be unsatisfactory and was ignored.



#### 4 - 1.3: Treatment of the Replies

Replies to each item were scored 5 for 'absolutely must' through to 1 for 'absolutely must not', regardless of whether the item could be regarded as favourable or unfavourable. The 'irrelevant' replies were coded as 0. The mean score and standard deviation for each item was determined by computer, the programme being constructed to ignore all scores of 0.

The items were then rank ordered according to their mean score: items were a high mean score being those with a favourable response, and vice versa. Interpretation of the standard deviations was not so easy. In general, a small standard deviation can be considered to show agreement amongst the respondents, and a large value, disagreement. If the means are distributed in a normal fashion, it might be expected that standard deviations would be inversely proportional to the difference between their corresponding mean and the overall mean. Casual inspection showed that this was not so: that the favourableness with which an item is viewed by teachers is independent of consensus of opinion.

Some allowance for this was made by grouping items according to their mean value in categories of 0.1 of a scale interval, giving twenty-four occupied categories, with half-a-dozen items in each. The standard deviations of items in each category were then compared, and lists of high and low consensus items drawn up. This procedure meant that an item like 42: Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement, which received a very favourable response judging by the mean score of 4.626, was considered to have low consensus of

opinion, since its standard deviation, 0.501, was very large when compared to those of other items with similar mean values. On the other hand, an item such as 28: Reprimand a child on his work in front of other children, with a standard deviation of 0.535, was considered to have high consensus, since this value is small compared to those of other items with a mean score close to the overall scale mean.

#### 4 - 1.4: Results

The full list of items used in this preliminary questionnaire, with mean values and standard deviations, are given in table I in the appendix. Also set out there is the number of 'irrelevant' responses made to each item, together with a note of the degree of consensus.

Some of these findings are set out again here as tables, 2,3, and 4. The first two show items with a high consensus of opinion, and those with a low consensus. They are set out in rank order of the mean: there is no simple way of rank ordering standard deviations. Table 4 lists items which evoked an unusually large number of 'irrelevant' replies.

Table 2: Items in the preliminary questionnaire with comparatively small standard deviations, signifying a high consensus of opinion amongst teachers

Responses were scored from absolutely must (5) to absolutely must not (1)

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
144	Evaluate textbooks and teaching material before using them	4.623	0.432
77	Help children to be self-disciplined	4.520	0.430
145	Encourage children to be tidy	4.431	0.444
1	Help children to acquire good manners and good speech	4.398	0.418
97	Prefer your pupils to acquire a broad understanding of a number of subjects rather than a detailed knowledge of one or two	4.228	0.504
104	Actively follow curriculum development in areas of importance to your work	4.120	0.479
37	Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority	4.081	0.453
82	Organise additional displays, museums, or self-guided learning projects	3.966	0.454
48	Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes	3.850	0.480
114	Organise extra-curricular activities	3.835	0.516
92	Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities	3.646	0.586
123	Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils	3.571	0.547
45	Read the Times Educational Supplement, Teacher's World or similar professional journal each week	3.470	0.537



Table 2: continued

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
112	Make a definite effort to keep abreast of 'pop' culture	3.463	0.546
34	Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities	3.395	0.572
49	Change schools every two or three years to gain experience and promotion	3.192	0.570
79	Write articles for professional journals which will be of benefit to others in teaching	3.189	0.328
91	Take a part in the cultural life of the community by supporting a musical society or a drama group, etc.	3.151	0.350
46	Take up a teaching appointment in a difficult school or a depressed area	3.145	0.390
83	Give talks to local groups about what you are doing in school	3.118	0.309
18	Possess a university degree	3.071	0.411
127	Advise others to take up teaching as a career when asked to	2.991	0.437
78	Take an active part in church affairs	2.890	0.440
137	Take an active part in local politics	2.791	0.489
28	Reprimand a child on his work in front of other children	2.780	0.535

Table 3: Items in the preliminary questionnaire with comparatively large standard deviations, signifying a low consensus of opinion amongst teachers

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
42	Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement rather than by comparing them with other children	4.626	0.501
130	Possess a recognised qualification in Education	4.508	0.595
27	Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticisms by parents	4.423	0.712
119	Maintain your authority at all times	4.358	0.713
76	As a newly-appointed teacher, start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority	4.306	0.705
63	Avoid 'giving a dog a bad name'	4.236	0.724
99	Expect to take some school work home at times	4.195	0.902
30	Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom	4.058	0.792
4	Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishing	3.992	1.028
14	Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching	3.842	0.967
134	Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher	3.735	1.072
13	Alternate interesting work with less interesting so that pupils will appreciate the former yet gain by the discipline of the latter	3.621	0.994
55	Encourage a uniformity of technique and curriculum throughout the school	3.521	0.972

Table 3: continued

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
71	Lose your patience at times to show that you are only human	3.403	0.986
72	Insist on all pupils wearing school uniform	3.373	1.051
113	Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline	3.358	1.094
51	Expect to supply some teaching aids - pictures, newspaper cuttings, materials - out of your own pocket	3.220	1.090
132	Teach children to obey orders at once and without question	3.164	0.982
6	Guard against showing affection to children in your class	3.141	1.082
66	Avoid open familiarity with colleagues in front of children	3.139	0.902
20	Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.	3.060	1.125
85	Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable	2.847	0.959
122	Put 'slow' learners with other 'slow' learners in all academic work	2.797	1.019
67	Consider your main responsibility to be to act as a sort of 'substitute parent' to the pupils in the class	2.767	1.055
125	Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient	2.722	1.176
61	Avoid all familiarity with children	2.533	0.946



Table 3: continued

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
107	Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils	2.147	0.946

Table 4: Items in the preliminary questionnaire which elicited unusually large numbers of 'irrelevant' replies

Item No.	Item	Number Irrelevant Responses
73	Keep your subject separate and distinct in the pupils' minds from other subjects taught in the school	41
72	Insist on all pupils wearing school uniform	40
78	Take an active part in church affairs	33
137	Take part in local politics	32
68	Encourage children to form a class council to make rules for their own classroom behaviour	30
18	Possess a university degree	25
20	Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.	22
107	Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils	21
65	Connect your out-of-school activities largely with youth work, sport, etc.	19
154	Avoid involvement with factional groups in the community	18
91	Take a part in the cultural life of the community by supporting a musical society or a drama group, etc.	17
15	Press for higher salaries	15
112	Make a definite effort to keep abreast of 'pop' culture	15
131	Hold the values and norms of the majority of your pupils	15
56	Join a teachers' organisation reflecting a subject specialism: the Society for Environment Education, etc.	14

Table 4: continued

Item No.	Item	Number Irrelevant Responses
46	Take up a teaching appointment in a difficult school or depressed area	13
152	Reflect liberal rather than conservative cultural views	13
83	Give talks to local groups about what you are doing in the school	13
60	Attempt to control pupils' dress and behaviour out of school	12
79	Write articles for professional journals which will be of benefit to others in teaching	12
90	Be consulted about which pupils to have (or not to have) within your class	12
121	Occasionally remind pupils of your superior position and experinece	12
99	Expect to take some school work home at times	11
93	Take a neutral stand on any issue in which the community is evenly divided	11
64	Co-operate with the police in combating crime	10
80	Ostracise colleagues who express radical political or religious views	10
92	Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities	10



#### 4 - 1.5: Discussion

The high rate of return to this preliminary survey has already been noted. Although the participants were aware of its nature, far fewer comments were made than were later made to the main investigation. Discussion will be limited to a consideration of the statistical findings, with a view to resolving items which will be of most value for the main investigation.

#### The overall mean

It is generally recommended that a battery of items should contain roughly the same number of favourable and unfavourable questions in order to discourage the formation of a response set. If the polar responses are weighted 5 and 1 as in this survey, an ideal overall mean would be 3.0. A selection of items with such a value would be very sensitive, resolving teachers of opposing attitudes most efficiently.

The overall mean here was 3.629: the majority of items were seen in a favourable light. This value is slightly inflated because of separation of the 'irrelevant' category from the 'may or may not' one. If irrelevancies had been scored as if they were non-committed responses, the overall mean falls to 3.601. This confirms what can be seen from a casual perusal of the results: it is the unfavourable items that produce the greatest number of 'irrelevant' replies. Teachers generally appear to see favourable items as relevant, and to consider unfavourable ones as irrelevant.

The spread of answers was towards favourable items. Only a few were considered reprehensible and still generally meaningful. It would be possible to reduce this skew and the overall mean by inverting some of the items to make them unfavourable. However, it is not certain that they would remain meaningful. It does seem difficult to write unfavourable items.

Cohen's studies also revealed generally favourable attitudes towards his item batteries. Head teachers in the 1965 study gave a mean score of 3.757, and students, training to become teachers, 3.728. His second study of heads (1970) gave a mean value of 3.820. The lower value in this study will be due both to a more balanced spread of items and to less favourable attitudes amongst teachers.

#### Standard deviations as a measure of agreement

The technique of comparing standard deviations of item scores after these had been drawn up in rank order has allowed some comparisons to be made; though it is insufficiently sound to permit any rank ordering of agreements. It shows that items generally thought to be unfavourable produce less agreement amongst teachers than those thought to be favourable. Taken together with the skew towards approval it does seem that teachers are more ready to approve than they are to condemn. Rather than appear critical or disapproving, many of them would rather mark the 'may or may not' response. Teachers are more willing to widen their role than restrict it, giving further evidence that people may have many different groups of characteristics, and still be 'acceptable' teachers.

It proved to be difficult to predict with any certainty which items would attract high or low consensus of opinion. Teachers might be expected to agree on 104: Actively follow curriculum development in area of importance to your work; and to disagree on items like 134: Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher; 20: Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects . . . ; and 113: Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline. Agreement on 48: Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes might not have been expected; but the amount of disagreement on some items was surprising. There was contention on 4: Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishing; on 85: Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable; and on 130: Possess a recognised qualification in Education. This last reaction is at least in line with a marked agreement on 18: Possess a university degree, which was considered somewhat unfavourably! Since this sample had fewer university graduates than teachers in general, this apathy might be expected; but the disagreement over educational qualifications must be looked into further.

It is strange that opinion on 15: Press for higher salaries, was not more marked. A reasonable hypothesis here would have been that teachers in this sample, being younger and with fewer allowances than the total teaching population, would be strongly in favour; but this was not supported.

A detailed analysis of these findings would be out of place here. A general finding for interpretation of data has become clear. An item showing high agreement and a mean close to 3.0 (though not close to the



overall sample mean) is generally considered unimportant by teachers.

There are several items in this category:

- 18: Possess a university degree
- 46: Take up a teaching appointment in a difficult school or a depressed area
- 79: Write articles for professional journals which will be of benefit to others in teaching
- 83: Give talks to local groups about what you are doing in school
- 91: Take a part in the cultural life of the community by supporting a musical society or a drama group

Each of these items also attracted a number of 'Irrelevant' scores - a further indication of their unsuitability.

#### The value of the 'irrelevant' category

Since care had been taken in the initial selection of items, and respondents had been asked to use this reply 'only if this item is meaningless to you . . .' it could be expected that such responses would be rare. However, the different nature of primary and secondary school work is likely to make some items more meaningful in one situation than the other. Again, this category was offered as an 'escape' from the more positive answers if one should be needed.

Forty-three items were considered relevant by every respondent. Twenty-three of the 124 replies were made without any recourse to this category. Proportionately, secondary teachers managed without (18 times out of 56 replies) far more frequently than primary teachers did (5 out of 68 replies). This may be interpreted that the items were

more representative of secondary school work; it may also be evidence of the wider role-conception of secondary teachers. The 'irrelevant' category was used more frequently by primary teachers (mean use, 9.2 times) than by secondary teachers (mean use, 7.1 times). However, examined by the Mann-Whitney U test, these differences just fail to reach statistical significance ( $U = 1.87$ , probability = 0.067), which tends to support the contention that the questionnaire should be equally relevant to all teachers. It is also in accord with the finding of Musgrove and Taylor (1965) who found a similar degree of role diffuseness perceived by infant, junior and secondary staff. They found grammar school staff defined their role in more restricted terms, while secondary modern staff had a far more diffuse view. This difference has not been examined here.

One respondent found forty-four items irrelevant, almost twice as many as anyone else, and clearly an example of 'set'. However, the response had not been used arbitrarily: only three of the items found irrelevant by this respondent were peculiar to him, and the overall reply was used along with all the others. In all, the irrelevant category was used 841 times, some 4.3% of answers.

Some of the items attracted sufficient 'irrelevant' responses to allow some hypotheses to be examined. If these scores come from all three educational sectors equally, the item is seen as having little relevance by all teachers; but if they come predominantly from one sector, the item may still have relevance for the other two sectors - it is simply inappropriate for one sector. There were sufficient 'irrelevant' scores for this hypothesis to be examined for eight items by

the chi-squared test.

Table 5: An analysis of 'irrelevant' responses made to certain items in the preliminary investigation

Column headings are as follows:

- (1) item no. (the items are set out below)
- (2) by secondary teachers
- (3) by junior teachers
- (4) by nursery-infant teachers
- (5) Total of all 'irrelevant' responses made
- (6) by secondary teachers
- (7) by junior teachers
- (8) by nursery-infant teachers
- (9)  $\chi^2$
- (10) Probability, at 2 degrees of freedom, that the observed results and the expected results are alike

	No. of irrelevant responses made				Expected no. of responses if made equally				
	(2)	(3)	(4)		(5)	(6)	(7)		
73	1	19	21	41	18.3	14.0	8.7	32.1	0.000
72	3	20	17	40	17.9	13.7	8.5	21.6	0.000
78	15	12	6	33	14.7	11.3	7.0	0.5	0.97
137	14	12	6	32	14.3	10.9	6.8	0.0	0.99
68	5	7	18	30	13.4	0.2	6.3	25.3	0.000
18	15	8	2	25	11.2	8.5	5.3	2.5	0.29
20	11	4	8	23	10.3	7.9	4.7	3.2	0.21
107	5	2	14	21	9.4	7.2	4.4	17.8	0.000



The numbers of results available for analysis of some of these items would be questionable were it not for the distinct findings. The responses divide clearly into two groups: the first with items seen as having little relevance by all teachers

- 78: Take an active part in church affairs
- 137: Take an active part in local politics
- 18: Possess a university degree
- 20: Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History etc.

and the second with items of relevance to at least one group of teachers:

- 73: Keep your subject separate and distinct in the pupils' minds from other subject taught in the school
- 72: Insist on all pupils wearing school uniform (both seen as relevant by secondary teachers)
- 68: Encourage children to form a class council to make rules for their own classroom behaviour
- 107: Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils

The very nature of these items, and the distinct interpretation of the 'irrelevant' responses made to them, indicate that this category was used as it was intended: as a response other than the 'may or may not' one.

A number of items attracted far fewer 'irrelevant' replies than might have been expected:

- 67: Consider your main responsibility to be to act as a sort of 'substitute parent' to the pupils in the class (2)
- 75: Supervise school meals, collect savings, etc. (1)
- 45: Read the Times Educational Supplement, Teacher's World, or similar professional journal each week (3)

The positive answers received by these items can now be seen to be meaningful, and if the 'may or may not' category was chosen very frequently in such cases, it is because teachers feel that their action must depend upon circumstances, rather than because they find the item meaningless.

During the scoring of replies from some secondary school teachers of physical education, it became obvious that certain questions were unavoidably irrelevant: it is not practical for them to 'Regularly publish a list of marks' or to 'Put 'slow' learners with other 'slow' learners in all academic work'. It may be that other inconsistencies are also contained in the questionnaire. However, their number cannot be great. There were insufficient replies from physical education teachers in this survey to make a more detailed analysis possible.

At least two items had a similar implication - 78: Take an active part in church affairs; and 137: Take an active part in local politics. A considerable number of teachers predictably felt these were irrelevant, regardless of the type of school they worked in. Not all the teachers thought both items were out of place, however: 23 thought both were irrelevant, whilst 18 or 19 thought one or the other alone was. This high proportion differentiating between the appropriateness of religion and politics implies that much thought was given to the questionnaire, as well as confirming the value of the 'irrelevant' category.

#### 4 - 1.6: Implications

The high value of the overall mean response shows that the items were generally viewed in a favourable light. There is likely to be some difficulty in moving the balance to a more neutral position. Only a few items can be inverted and still remain meaningful; even if this is possible, the complementary forms are unlikely to be seen in a corresponding negative way. There was little evidence of any 'response set'; and the very few comments returned with the replies show that the majority of items were understood.

Because of the low value of their standard deviation, some items can be recognised as those on which all teachers are agreed. Several of these have a mean value close to 3.0, implying that the item is not considered important. Such items can be discounted in further investigations - save perhaps for 18: Possess a university degree. Because of a possible bias in this preliminary sample, and of its intrinsic interest, this item would be worth keeping.

The response 'Irrelevant' has been used with moderation. Whilst it does not entirely remove the ambiguity of 'May or may not' it goes some way towards this - a welcome step, since there is some evidence that respondents choose this category rather than appear to condemn an unfavourable item. It also allows retention of some items that would otherwise seem 'biased' towards certain educational sectors.



#### 4 - 2: A Preliminary Attempt to Structure Role Concepts

Whatever the full pattern of teachers' roles may be, it is likely to be complex. A theoretical study which defines a large number of role areas will give a useful starting point. Such a list is likely to be comprehensive and detailed; and should some of the areas be unrecognised by practising teachers, they can be rejected without great detriment to the whole model.

The work of Hoyle meets this stipulation well. It considers far more roles than other studies, and each is clearly defined. His account was compiled from a number of other sources. Furthermore, his textbook - the Role of the Teacher (1969) - would be familiar to many of the people who would be asked to work with the list.

##### 4 - 2.1: Hoyle's Theoretical Model of Role Concepts

Hoyle groups teachers' roles into three areas: the classroom, with fourteen sub-roles (Hoyle's term); the school with four sub-roles; and society, with four sub-roles. A few minor amendments were made for the purpose of this investigation. His role 'Fosters autonomy' (taken from Blythe, 1965) was renamed 'Democrat' and the definition changed accordingly. The role 'Keeps control' as defined by Hoyle, was easily split into two: 'Administrator' and 'Disciplinarian', and these were redefined. The role 'Teacher' was well-defined though its title was felt to be inadequate; but in the absence of anything better, this title was kept, within inverted commas.

These amendments resulted in a list of twenty-three well-defined roles in three areas, set out in table 6 on the next page.

Matching the 157 items of the preliminary investigation with these twenty-three roles was obviously a task too difficult to ask any one judge to perform. A number of concessions were made. The roles were divided into three groups: those relating to the classroom into two groups of seven; and those to the school and society were joined to make a rather heterogeneous group of nine. Each judge was to be asked to work with just one group, knowing that other groups containing further roles were under consideration by other judges.

Table 5: The Theoretical Structure  
of the Teacher's Role used  
in this investigation

(Only an abbreviated definition of each role is given here. The full definitions offered to judges are set out as Table II in the appendix. Hoyle (1969) gives details of the derivation of the list).

Area 1: In the Classroom

- a. Representative of society. (Inculcates moral precepts)
- b. Judge. (Awards marks and ratings)
- c. Resource. (Possess knowledge and skills)
- d. Helper in the learning process. (Provides guidance for pupil difficulties)
- e. Referee. (Settles disputes amongst pupils)
- f. Detective. (Discovers rule-breakers)
- g. Object of identification. (Possess traits which children imitate)
- h. Limiter of anxiety. (Helps children to control impulses)
- i. Ego-supporter. (Helps children to have confidence in themselves)
- j. Group-leader. (Establishes the climate of the group)
- k. Parent surrogate. (Acts as object of bids for attention from younger children)
- l. Target for hostilities. (Acts as object of aggression arising from frustrations caused by adults)
- m. Friend and confidante. (Establishes warm relationship with children and shares confidences)
- n. Object of affection. (Meets the psychological needs of children)

Area 2: In the School

- o. Administrator. (Draws up scheme and makes reports)
- p. Disciplinarian. (Keeps control and respect of children)
- q. 'Teacher'. (The public image of a school teacher)
- r. Employee. (Adheres to rules; is loyal)
- s. Professional. (Experienced, handling his own problems and advising on the running of the school)

Area 3: In Society

- t. Instructor. (Teaches by both formal and informal methods)
- u. Judge. (Moulds intellectual and social skills of pupils)
- v. Model. (Inculcates values)
- w. Democrat. (Encourages child to make the most of himself)



Judges were asked to work through the complete list of items, fitting to each one the most appropriate role from the list assigned to them. When difficulty was experienced, they were asked to leave the item unassigned, aware that other judges might find it easier to fit into their lists of roles. This meant that, when the returns were put together, some items had been judged to be representative of more than one role, and that others had not been seen as part of any of the hypothesised roles.

A number of serving teachers were asked to act as judges. In view of the difficulty of their task, even after these concessions had been made, they were selected in the light of their known ability. Thirty-six people were initially approached for help. All had previously been students of the author, and all now held posts of responsibility in schools. Twenty-eight of these had gained degrees after ending their certificate of education courses: thirteen had B.Ed. degrees, and another nine had degrees with education as a major component. All the non-graduates approached were deputy-heads. Of those initially asked to co-operate, two excused themselves because of other commitments and two did not reply. By asking a further four serving teachers, all personal friends and graduates, for help, thirty-six returns were made, twelve in each of the areas. In this way, each item was effectively put under the appropriate heading by twelve experienced judges. No attempt was made to match the backgrounds of judges acting in each of the areas.

## 7 - 2.2: The Results

A summary of these is given in table 6a on the next page. Assignment of items into the roles offered was done very unevenly. Of the 157 items, eleven were considered as contributing to none of these roles at all. On the other hand, one item was considered appropriate to no less than nine roles, and another to eight. In all, each item was assigned to rather more than one role (mean number of assignments, 1.22).

The roles themselves attracted very varying numbers of item nominations. Those in the area relating to the school received most, whilst those in the second group of classroom roles received least. Two roles: those of 'Target for hostilities' and 'Object of affection' received remarkably few nominations. These might be considered as complementary to each other, yet the score for both when combined is still less than that given to 'Detective' - another role which attracted few nominations. The low scores given to these roles does not mean that they are invalid; merely that they are inadequately represented by items contained in this preliminary investigation. Further evidence of the inadequacy of these items to define Hoyle's roles is by the replies to 'Referee' - another low-scoring role. All twelve judges agreed that item 43: Act as mediator in conflicts between children, illustrated this, but there were few other nominations. Other examples of an item practically defining a role could be given; yet these 'definitions' cannot be considered as rigorous. Item 43 was nominated for four other roles as well as that of 'Referee'.

Table 6a: Assignment of items used in  
the preliminary investigation  
into the roles proposed  
theoretically by Hoyle

Column headings are as follows:

- (1) Code letter of Role
- (2) Role
- (3) Number of items assigned at least once
- (4) Total number of assignments made by 12 judges

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<u>Area 1: In the Classroom</u>			
a.	Representative of society	97	305
b.	Judge	77	203
c.	Resource	58	168
d.	Helper in the learning process	109	370
e.	Referee	45	106
f.	Detective	27	65
g.	Object of identification	73	203
h.	Limiter of anxiety	80	187
i.	Ego-supporter	64	147
j.	Group-leader	104	266
k.	Parent surrogate	58	139
l.	Target for hostilities	17	25
m.	Friend and confidante	45	125
n.	Object of affection	16	22
<u>Area 2: In the School</u>			
o.	Administrator	66	157
p.	Disciplinarian	75	249
q.	'Teacher'	107	250
r.	Employee	81	212
s.	Professional	115	365
<u>Area 3: In Society</u>			
t.	Instructor	100	223
u.	Judge	65	138
v.	Model	83	245
w.	Democrat	81	248



### 7 - 2.3: Discussion

Each nomination has been made in the belief that the item illustrated a particular role. Although twelve judges were used, many of the nominations were unique, showing at least some of the difficulty with which they were made. As more judges agree on the nomination of an item, the validity of their decision increases. The problem becomes: How many judges have to concur before their decision becomes valid, and other than might be expected from random choosing?

Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) met a similar problem in the construction of their Semantic Differential. They state (p. 48) that 18 judges sorting into 17 categories reach significance at the 1% level when five of them place an item into the same category. No explanation of how this value was reached is given, nor is there a reference to a more detailed treatment.

If sorting is considered to be a random process, the probability of agreement among judges can be determined from the binomial theorem. The chances for each number of agreements occurring between  $n$  judges is given by the successive terms of the expansion of the expression  $(p + q)^n$ , where  $p$  is the proportion that one category forms of the whole, and  $q$  is the other. In Osgood's case,  $n = 18$ ;  $p = 1$  out of 17, or 0.0588; and  $q = 0.9412$ . The fourth term of this series is 0.9698 and the fifth term, 0.9905. This corresponds well with Osgood's value, which was probably derived in the same way.

For this investigation, the corresponding values are  $n = 12$ ;  $p = 1$  out of 23, or 0.0435; and  $q = 0.9565$ . The third term of this series comes to 0.9865: there is just less than a 2% probability that three or more agreements between the judges could occur by chance. On this reasoning, any item receiving more than three nominations to a particular role becomes significant.

All this depends upon judgements being made in a random manner. This can only be so if the items are neutral. In this instance, the roles taken from Hoyle were chosen for similar reasons as the items themselves: the sorting process could not have been random. Furthermore, the binomial theorem assumes that just one choice is made on each occasion. The judges here were a little more generous, making 1.22 nominations per item. Both these considerations are likely to increase the ease with which agreements are made, so that mathematical reasoning can only be an indication of the answer required. An examination of the way in which the probability of random occurrences happens is instructive: in this case, the third term is 0.9865; the fourth, 0.9987; and the fifth, 0.9999. Whilst no objective decision can be made, it does seem that, even allowing for the two complications, agreement on five or more items must be due to more than chance. The number of items meeting this criterion for each role is set out in table 7 on the next page.

Table 7: The number of items, agreed by at least five judges, which represent the roles of the teacher (as taken from Hoyle, 1969)

(This table is condensed from table III given in the appendix.)

Column headings are as follows:

- |     |                         |  |
|-----|-------------------------|--|
| (1) | Code letter of role     |  |
| (2) | Role                    |  |
| (3) | Peculiar to the role    |  |
| (4) | Shared by 1 other role  | (No item was agreed to represent more than five roles in all.) |
| (5) | Shared by 2 other roles |  |
| (6) | Shared by 3 other roles |  |
| (7) | Shared by 4 other roles |  |
| (8) | Total                   |  |

		Number of items Agreed by at least five judges						
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	
<u>Area 1: In the Classroom</u>								
a.	Representative of society	9	5	5	2	5	26	
b.	Judge	1	4	2	2	1	10	
c.	Resource	1	4	1	5	1	12	
d.	Helper in the learning process	2	11	6	9	3	31	
e.	Referee	0	2	1	1	0	4	
f.	Detective	0	4	0	1	1	6	
g.	Object of identification	1	1	4	2	4	12	
h.	Limitter of anxiety	0	2	3	2	0	6	
i.	Ego-supporter	1	2	2	2	0	7	
j.	Group-leader	0	2	4	3	2	11	
k.	Parent-surrogate	0	3	2	3	2	10	
l.	Target for hostilities	0	0	0	0	0	0	
m.	Friend and confidante	1	1	4	1	0	7	
n.	Object of affection	0	0	0	0	0	0	
<u>Area 2: In the School</u>								
o.	Administrator	2	3	2	2	1	10	
p.	Disciplinarian	12	5	3	1	2	23	
q.	'Teacher'	2	5	1	2	4	14	
r.	Employee	6	6	0	0	0	12	
s.	Professional	12	9	2	6	0	29	
<u>Area 3: In Society</u>								
t.	Instructor	0	3	2	2	4	11	
u.	Judge	0	2	2	2	1	7	
v.	Model	1	3	4	1	5	14	
w.	Democrat	2	6	5	3	1	17	



Apart from the two already found to have little support from these items, each role still has a number of items which are agreed to represent it. However, there are very few items which support any role uniquely: most are seen as part of two, three or even more other roles. Only 'Disciplinarian' has more agreed items which are unique to support it than are shared; only four roles altogether are supported by more than two unique items. On the other hand, there are now twenty-five items which have no agreed nomination to any role: not a large increase on the eleven completely ignored, but sufficient to show that this theoretical model is incomplete.

Whilst many of Hoyle's theoretical roles are easily recognised by teachers in terms of items from this preliminary investigation, others are not recognised at all. There are also some items which do not seem to fit into any of the proposed roles. Hoyle's detailed role model is incomplete, yet the many items offered here also fail to cover the role conceptions of teachers entirely. Better agreement, of at least an empirically-derived model with that of Hoyle, would come from the addition of more items. Yet difficulty has already been experienced in framing the existing ones and this is likely to increase if the items are to be relatively peculiar to one role. Further questions are unlikely to appeal to respondents, either.

In a postscript to his work, Hoyle observed that 'the picture presented here will become out of date in the next few years' (p.94). Roles must be expected to be fluid, and to change with time just as they do with circumstances. The evidence he gave for this change largely relates to the method of teaching - he mentions team teaching, tele-

vision, teaching machines and language laboratories - which are likely to have only a minimal effect. The designation of staff as counsellors, teacher-social workers, and curriculum development leaders is far more likely to influence role conception; but this process has hardly affected most teachers as yet. (Some of the respondents to the main survey had to ask what a counsellor - referred to in one of the instruments - was.) Hoyle's model still seems entirely relevant to the work of these teachers. The present failure to find much agreement with it is due only to discrepancies between the two methods of approach.

Rather than try to amend either scheme in order to achieve closer agreement, it will be better to recognise both as being distinct, each having some advantages and some disadvantages.

#### 4 - 3: Conclusions

Whilst the responses given to several items were very illuminating, no attempt will be made here to draw specific conclusions.

There was a good response rate, which brought a number of encouraging comments, but very few criticisms. The investigation was clearly seen to be meaningful and the methods employed were well received. A similar approach is justified for the main investigation. The 'irrelevant' category seems to have been used with thought, and has clarified differences which exist between teachers, especially between those in different educational sectors.

The attempts made to fit items into a detailed theoretical model of role have shown that no complete description is likely to be made, since many items are seen as part of a number of roles, and few items appear role-specific. Little can be gained by trying to make a practical instrument out of Hoyle's model, or any other comprehensive account. A more worthwhile approach, still in keeping with the original aims of the study, will be to concentrate on items now known to cause controversy amongst teachers. The attitude of teachers towards the less controversial items, whether this is favourable or otherwise, has already been measured adequately through this preliminary investigation.



Chapter: 5

The Main Investigation

## Chapter 5: The Main Investigation

Information for this had to be gathered from one instrument which would not only examine controversial items in detail, but also provide information on cohesion within the teaching profession and on role constraint, as set out in the initial aims.

### 5 - 1: Selection of the items for further study

The decision to concentrate on controversial items did much to reduce the difficulty of selecting from the 157 items in the preliminary investigation. Twenty-five items were already known to have caused a low consensus of opinion, being recognised by the large standard deviation of their response. In evaluating these standard deviations, note had been taken of the spread of the corresponding mean values. The items chosen, despite their controversial nature, still represented a range of agreement from very acceptable to quite unacceptable.

Eight further items were chosen from those which had been shown to cause little controversy amongst teachers. These were added partly because, being uncontroversial, it was hoped they would encourage a more co-operative attitude from the respondents; and partly as a check on these preliminary results. They tended to be items with a fairly high or low mean value. Those with mean scores close to the scale mean of 3.0 were rejected since a 'may or may not' answer implies an item of little real concern to teachers. Similarly, those with very high mean values were also overlooked, since this implies that the item is considered essential for teaching.

Little attention was paid to the number of 'Irrelevant' responses an item had attracted in the preliminary survey. As it turned out, four of the selected items had commonly been considered irrelevant, whilst none of the other items had. Three of these items often considered irrelevant were those where the opinion could be shown as due to the individual teacher rather than a particular education sector (see p.108; the other item considered there - 78: Take an active part in church affairs, was dropped because of its similarity with 137: Take an active part in local politics). The fourth item chosen was 107: Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank orders of pupils, which had surprisingly been accepted by junior school teachers. The complete list is set out in table 8.



Table 8: The thirty-three items used in all the main questionnaires.

The mean and standard deviation of each item shown are those recorded from the preliminary investigation. They are included here to show the range of attitude being surveyed by this selection. A majority of the items were chosen for their known controversial nature. Those marked with an asterisk are non-controversial. New numbers have been allotted to the items: they do not correspond to those used in the preliminary investigation.

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
1*	Help children to acquire good manners and good speech	4.398	0.418
2	Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishment	3.992	1.028
3	Guard against showing affection to children in your class	3.141	1.082
4	Alternate interesting work with less interesting so that pupils will appreciate the former yet gain by the discipline of the latter	3.621	0.994
5	Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching	3.842	0.967
6*	Possess a university degree	3.071	0.411
7	Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.	3.060	1.125
8	Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticism by parents	4.423	0.712
9	Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom	4.058	0.792
10*	Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities	3.395	0.572
11*	Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority	4.081	0.453

Table 8: continued

Item No.		Mean	Std Dev.
12	Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement rather than by comparing them with other children	4.626	0.501
13*	Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes	3.850	0.480
14	Expect to supply some teaching aids - pictures, newspaper cuttings, materials - out of your own pocket	3.220	1.090
15	Encourage a uniformity of technique and curriculum throughout the school	3.521	0.972
16	Avoid all familiarity with children	2.533	0.946
17	Avoid 'giving a dog a bad name'	4.236	0.724
18	Avoid all open familiarity with colleagues in front of children	3.139	0.902
19	As a newly-appointed teacher, start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority	4.306	0.705
20	Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable	2.847	0.959
21*	Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities	3.646	0.586
22	Expect to take some school work home at times	4.195	0.902
23*	Visit the local teachers' centre frequently	3.608	0.613
24	Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils	2.147	0.946
25	Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline	3.358	1.094
26*	Organise extra-curricular activities	3.835	0.516
27	Maintain your authority at all times	4.358	0.713
28*	Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils	3.571	0.547

Table 8: continued

Item No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.
29	Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient	2.722	1.176
30	Possess a recognised qualification in Education	4.508	0.595
31	Teach children to obey orders at once and without question	3.164	0.982
32	Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher	3.735	1.072
33*	Take an active part in local politics	2.791	0.489



The scoring method which was used in the preliminary survey was retained: five boxes corresponding to opinions from 'absolutely must' to 'absolutely must not', and a sixth box for 'irrelevant'. The whole list was prefaced with the instruction: 'Please show how strongly you feel a teacher in your position should or should not act'. Introductory notes explained that opinion was to be registered by ticking the appropriate box; and that the 'irrelevant' category was to be used 'only if you find the statement seems meaningless in your position'.

#### 5 - 2: Collection of Biographical Data

Biographical data were collected so that the second research hypothesis might be examined. Most were asked as a part of the introductory notes to each questionnaire, but some were obtained by accident.

All respondents were asked their sex, length of teaching experience and what sort of class they were taking this year. Precoded answers for experience distinguished between less than one year, than two years, than five years, than ten years, than twenty years, and more than twenty years. Respondents were not asked their age; this will obviously be related to experience, though may vary considerably for mature entrants to the profession, and in the case of women who have returned to teaching after having children. It was felt that respondents would be more willing to reveal their length of experience than their age; and that this would probably be the more meaningful statistic.

The 'class taken this year' could be chosen from a selection of six primary and six secondary school situations, set out in the table:

<u>Primary schools</u>	<u>Secondary schools</u>
Nursery	Poor ability or remedial classes
Infant	Average ability or instreamed classes:
Lower junior	1st & 2nd form
Upper junior	3rd, 4th, 5th form
Middle school	High ability classes:
Other (please give details)	1st and 2nd form
	3rd, 4th, 5th form
	Sixth form

Teachers meeting a variety of classes each week were asked to nominate a particular class, and continue answering from that point of view. The number of secondary school alternatives offered was an attempt to meet both the varying age of pupils, and their academic ability. It turned out that many secondary teachers failed to appreciate this: several indicated a pair of classes, or an even wider range that could not be resolved any further than secondary teaching. A few teachers showed a rank order of frequency of contact with classes, in which case they were considered as taking the first class only.

Certain of the respondents were asked for further information, depending upon which part of the later investigations their answers would be used. Those to be used in the 'Professional Coherence' study were asked: 'Apart from the school in which you are now working, have you ever taught in a secondary school? in a junior school? or in a nursery or infant school?' It seems reasonable to assume that those who have had experience in another educational sector are likely to be more

aware of the roles appropriate to that sector than those who have not. By matching the 'class taken this year' against information given to this question, the exact nature of the respondent's experience could be gained. No attempt was made to determine the length of such experience.

Respondents whose answers would be used in the 'Role Constraint' study were asked if they had children of their own; and, if they had, whether they were of school age. Teachers who are also parents are more likely to be aware of the role expectations of both children and other parents, and possibly of heads also. Having a family of school age will put heavier commitments on the home life of a teacher, and their perception of roles involving extra-curricular activities may well change.

Some information became available incidentally. Each questionnaire carried a unique code number, to identify non-returns (see p. 142). Part of this was a school code, so that it became possible to draw together all replies from staff at a particular school for certain analyses, without ever identifying individual teachers.

The accidental information came from the staffing lists supplied by the local Education Authority. Primary teachers were credited with the age of the children they were teaching - and this formed a useful check on the question 'Which class are you taking this year?' In addition to name and initials, each teacher had his university degrees and similar awards shown where appropriate. These were set out on the envelopes containing each questionnaire; some people expressed surprise that this information should be known to the author, but no-one resented it. For the purpose of graduate status, membership of professional bodies or



academies was accepted in this survey.

Lastly, the staffing lists also credited each teacher with their responsibilities, viz. 'Scale 2 post, in charge of girls' PE' or 'Probationer'. This proved to be rather embarrassing information, for whilst few teachers would mind anyone knowing their academic responsibility, many of them quite rightly would object if their financial standing was revealed. Responsibility - in the professional sense - is likely to be related to experience, though many must complain that the correlation is far from ideal. Since it was known that all information collected would remain confidential, a teacher's responsibility was also noted, with the proviso that analyses using this information would have to be treated with care.

#### 5 - 3: The other Instruments Administered

Three other measures of teachers' attitudes were used: these were based on the work of Eysenck, Oliver and Butcher, and Halpin. They were chosen largely because of their appropriateness for investigating the third research hypothesis, but also in part because they could be administered in a shortened form. Whilst it was important to collect as much relevant data as possible, there is also a limit to the size of questionnaire which can be successfully employed.

## The Personality Inventory

A test giving meaningful personality scores from a minimum of questions was sought. In the absence of any information about how personality affects teachers' role concepts, only a simple personality assessment was needed. The most appropriate seemed to be a version of the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck, 1958). This was designed for use in interviews, even though it would be given in this study in a written form. Eysenck gives various measures of correlation and validity; but in this case it was possible to check them by administering both the shortened version and the normal Eysenck Personality Inventory to a small group of teachers attending in-service classes run by the author. They represent a slightly different sample to those of the main work, being drawn in part from Education Committees other than the one under investigation, and by having chosen to follow in-service training. However, for purposes of validating the shortened form of questionnaire, these differences were considered unimportant. Both forms yield scores on the personality dimensions extrovert/introvert and neurotic/stable. The shorter instrument used in the main investigation consisted of twelve questions, and gave scores from 1 - 7 on each dimension.

## The Oliver and Butcher 'Survey of Opinions about Education'

Since its publication (Oliver and Butcher, 1962) this has become a well-known test of the attitudes of teachers. It yields scores on three dimensions: naturalism, radicalism and tender-mindedness. It has been

used in many British investigations, in itself a strong recommendation.

The original form of the test consists of three groups of questions: eight on 'debateable opinions about education', eleven concerning suggested changes in education (some of which have now been implemented, though they still remain controversial), and ten questions concerning the reasons for teaching school subjects, with four possible answers offered for each - a total of fifty-nine questions. Calculation of the score on each dimension is not direct: the answers are combined in various ways, regardless of grouping. Furthermore, some questions do not contribute to any of the scores. In order to save space, the non-scoring questions were omitted for this investigation, leaving thirty-nine items.

#### The 'Organisational Climate of Schools'

A.W. Halpin in 'Theory and Research in Administration' (1966) gives a list of items from which he derived six 'climates' in schools: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal and closed. This instrument was developed from studies of American elementary schools. As far as is known, it has not been applied in British schools. There are sixty-four items forming eight sub-tests. Respondents are asked to rate each of the incidents on a four point scale: 'Rarely occurs'; 'Sometimes occurs'; 'Often occurs'; and 'Very frequently occurs'. Answers are scored one, two, three or four points respectively and a total score obtained on each sub-test. Halpin recommends that these should be converted into standard scores with means of fifty and standard deviations of ten. The climate prevailing in a given school is found by examining



the profile of its teachers scores on the eight sub-tests.

The full test of sixty-four questions was considered to be too long to be used conveniently in this investigation. Four of the tests relate directly to the behaviour of the head as seen by the teacher, and could easily provoke unpleasantness. However, Halpin says (p. 170) of one of the sub-tests, 'Esprit':

The ranking of the climates . . . roughly parallels the scores which the schools receive on Esprit, the best single indicator of morale. As we trace the loading on Esprit through the six climates, we note that these loadings become increasingly smaller as we move from the more Open to the more Closed climates. We therefore have chosen to regard Esprit as the key subtest for describing a school's Organisational Climate. We infer that high Esprit reflects an effective balance between task-accomplishment and social-needs satisfaction.

He gives the profile scores of schools typifying each organisational climate upon this sub-test as follows:

Open	63	Autonomous	55	Controlled	54
Familiar	50	Paternal	45	Closed	38

The separation is good for all except the autonomous and controlled climates. Fortunately, there is a second sub-test, 'Intimacy' which also gives clearly-defined scores to a school's profile, and whilst these are not ordinal, they do offer a means of separating the 'autonomous' and 'controlled' scores from the Esprit sub-test, and even of confirming the others. The profile scores of schools on the Intimacy

sub-test are given as follows:

Open	50	Autonomous	62	Controlled	40
Familiar	58	Paternal	46	Closed	54

Both of these sub-tests were administered. They comprise sixteen questions, ten for Esprit, and six for Intimacy, few of them likely to cause offence. Some expressions were altered to make them more appropriate to English education: 'faculty members' became 'staff members' or 'colleagues', 'vim and vigour' became 'determination'. After some deliberation, 'custodial service' was rendered as 'counselling service' though even this term proved unfamiliar to some respondents.

It would be unreasonable to compare the school climates revealed by results of these two sub-tests with those given by all eight of Halpin's tests too closely. Not only is a majority of items omitted, but the two tests are being supplied in a variety of English schools rather than in American elementary ones. Furthermore, Halpin's profile scores are the means of responses from several teachers at each school; in this study, the scores will be one person's perception of the school climate. Nevertheless, these two sub-tests of Halpin should separate teachers into a number of groups according to their perception of school atmosphere, and it should prove possible to give some objective measure of school climate, which would be preferable to any single subjective estimate.

Professional cohesion was investigated by asking teachers to imagine themselves teaching in schools of the two other educational sectors, and then to respond to the same thirty-three items again for each. The position of an adjacent sector was offered first, so nursery-infant teachers were asked to respond from the point of view of a junior teacher before that of a secondary teacher. Junior staff were asked to respond for the nursery-infant position first. This meant there were three distinct forms of the questionnaire, known as the 'Interpositionals': one for nursery-infant, junior, and secondary teachers.

The perception of role conflict was measured by asking respondents to answer how they thought their head teacher, their pupils, or the parents of their pupils expected them to act. This necessitated three further versions of the questionnaire, which were designated 'Heads', 'Pupils' and 'Parents'. In addition to the thirty-three items, some others were added as seemed appropriate to the perception under investigation. Twenty-five further items were added to the heads' version; twenty-three to the parents', and thirty to the pupils'. In all, fifty-six further items were used (some of them appeared in two versions); and, together with the original thirty-three, these formed the basis of a seventh version, called 'Basic'.

So that each version should be of comparable length, the supplementary instruments were only offered in some questionnaires. They were set out between blocks of the role definition items in order to break response set and to increase motivation.



Table 9: The composition of the seven versions of the questionnaire used in the main investigation

	Basic	Nursery- infant	Inter- positional Junior	Secondary	Heads	Parents	Pupils
Biographical data:*	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Basic study 33 items answered for own position	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Role cohesion 33 items, as perceived for Nursery -infant teachers: Junior teachers: Secondary teachers:	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-
Role conflict study Supplementary items answered for own position 33 items plus supplementary items, as perceived for Heads: Parents: Pupils:	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
Supplementary instruments Personality: Educational Opinions: School Climate:	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-

\*Not all respondents were asked for exactly the same information. Possession of children of one's own was only asked of teachers responding to the Pupils version, for instance.

5 - 5: The Sample

Teachers invited to participate in the survey were all employed by the Education Committee of a large West Midland Metropolitan Borough. The committee controls staff in some 144 schools. The majority of the secondary schools are comprehensive, but one boys' grammar and one girls' high school remain. The four first schools send their pupils to two middle schools; all other primary schools are either nursery, infant, or junior, or some combination of these. The approach was limited to this population purely for convenience. The borough has few schools which could be said to be in a rural setting, and the average size of its schools is likely to be above that for the whole country. There must be several other departures from the ideal of a representative sample, but since there is little agreement upon what such a sample might be, this may not be serious. The limitations must be kept in mind.

The Director of Education gave permission for the experiment to proceed, and kindly allowed use of the schools' mailing service for the distribution of materials. Heads of about half the schools were asked to allow their staff to be approached. An attempt was made to keep this choice representative of all the committee's schools, though a greater consideration was knowledge of the school and its staff by the author. It was felt that this knowledge would encourage a better response rate without seriously prejudicing the nature of the response. The schools approached contained a total of some 1,300 staff, a number considered likely to give sufficient replies in each of the sub-divisions to be generated in the analysis.

Three head teachers declined permission immediately, and two more did so after receiving the materials. The staff at seven schools invited the author to explain his aims and methods: two of these staffs subsequently declined to participate, one because of continuing doubts over the confidentiality of replies, the other because they felt 'over-researched' already. A single reply was in fact received from each of these schools. Staff at a third school also declined, as a body, to respond. The replies from the staffs at two further schools, against advice, were returned to the local education offices, and both were lost: though it is only fair to point out that the office was in course of moving from one building to another at the time. To make good some of these losses, two more schools, one primary and one secondary, were asked to co-operate.

The staffs of 63 schools eventually participated in this work: 52 'primary', 1 middle, and 10 secondary. Details of these are set out in table 10 on the next page.



Table 10: Details of schools approached in the main investigation

Column headings are as follows:

- (1) Type of school
- (2) Number administered by the borough
- (3) Number of schools approached
- (4) By the head } Refusals
- (5) By the staff }
- (6) Lost
- (7) Satisfactory responses

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Nursery	8	4	-	-	-	4
Infant	20	11	1	1	-	9
Infant and Nursery	11	4	-	-	-	4
First	4	2	1	-	-	1
Junior	26	15	1	-	1	13
Junior and Infant	37	18	1	2	-	15
Junior, Infant and Nursery	14	6	-	-	-	6
Middle	2	1	-	-	-	1
Comprehensive	20	10	-	-	1	9
Grammar	2	2	1	-	-	5
Totals	144	73*	5	3	2	63

\*Includes the two schools added to make up the sample

Of the 32 social priority schools in the borough, 18 were approached, and all but two co-operated. Some 28 schools are controlled by religious bodies, and of these, 8 were approached. One of these was the school whose staff expressed doubt over confidentiality - this school has been considered a 'refusal' although one return was received. The other sponsored schools all co-operated.

Early in March, 1976, questionnaires were sent out to all full-time members of the teaching staff of these schools, on the basis of their staffing returns made at the beginning of that calendar year. Not all staff were approached. Most head teachers, and deputy heads and senior staff in secondary schools, were excluded, since their role is more likely to be 'administrator' than 'class teacher'. One junior school head asked that his deputy should be omitted. In nursery schools, both head teachers and full-time nursery nurses were approached, since they were considered to participate fully in teaching.

Together with the questionnaire, each teacher received a covering letter setting out the aims of the survey, and inviting a return in the plain envelope supplied, through the school secretary. Each questionnaire carried a personal code on the front cover, made up two numbers to represent the school, and three further numbers to represent the staff member. The reason for this was also given in the letter: to identify non-returns, so that a reminder could be sent.

The seven forms were distributed randomly by dividing all the staffs into blocks of eight, and allocating two basic questionnaires and one of each of the others in order through each block. Interpositional questionnaires were restricted to the appropriate schools: secondary schools received only secondary interpositional booklets, but teachers in primary schools received either junior or nursery-infant interpositional booklets depending on the type of class they took, as shown on the staffing return. The head of the one middle school kindly advised on the more suitable questionnaires for each member of his staff:

almost all had a junior background. The few primary school deputy heads who would have had the 'Heads' version were given another, to avoid unreasonable conflict. Finally, some arbitrary rearrangement of questionnaires was made to ensue that each school got as wide a selection as possible.

It was later found that 23 teachers were prevented from replying: some were on secondment; some were ill for a number of weeks; a few had left, and one had died. In all, 1,270 teachers effectively received a questionnaire. Table 11 overleaf shows their distribution through the various types of school.



Table 11: Details of teachers approached in the main investigation

Column headings are as follows:

- (1) Type of school
- (2) Number of schools
- (3) Number of teaching staff
- (4) Number of staff absent, or otherwise unable to participate
- (5) Number of teachers effectively approached
- (6) Number of teachers expressed as a percentage of the total

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Nursery	4	25	-	25	2.0
Infant	9	94	-	94	7.4
Infant and Nursery	4	40	-	40	3.1
First	1	13	2	11	0.9
Junior	13	175	2	173	13.6
Junior and Infant	15	189	4	185	14.6
Junior, Infant and Nursery	6	79	1	78	6.1
Middle	1	24	-	24	1.9
Comprehensive	9	626	14	612	48.2
Grammar	1	28	-	28	2.2
Totals	63	1293	23	1270	100.0

Two weeks later, all the schools were visited and replies were collected from the secretary. Non-returns were identified through the code numbers and a reminder letter was left, addressed personally, for each defaulter. Between one and two weeks later, each school (save those making a complete return first time) was visited again and further

replies were collected. Teachers who had still not replied were left a second reminder, asking them to forward the reply to a given address.

At most primary schools, it was possible to talk with a good many of the staff, answering questions, giving reassurances and accepting refusals. This was not usually possible in secondary schools; the number of outright refusals in such schools is therefore lower than in primaries. The number of staff recorded as absent in both types of school may have been exaggerated by secretaries.

It proved very difficult to reassure secondary schools about confidentiality. In two schools, a quiet word with one or two staff was sufficient to improve confidence, and a fair response was made to the second reminder. In a third school, a senior member of staff wrote expressing the dismay of a number of her colleagues that the code number had been used to trace non-returns; despite a reassuring letter in answer and an offer to meet the staff (which was not taken up) no more replies were received from that school, despite further reminders.

Thirty-four teachers were unwilling to co-operate. Their decision was usually given by letter, but sometimes in conversation, and three questionnaires were returned unopened. About thirty returns were made via the Post Office, twelve of them in response to the last reminder. Although some replies were incomplete, there was only one which was quite useless. Details of the types of questionnaire sent out and returned are given in tables 12 and 13.

Table 12: Numbers of questionnaires sent out in the main investigation

Column headings are as follows:

- |                    |             |
|--------------------|-------------|
| (1) Type of school | (6) Heads   |
| (2) Basic          | (7) Parents |
| (3) Nursery-infant | (8) Pupils  |
| (4) Junior         | (9) Total   |
| (5) Secondary      |             |

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Nursery	5	9	-	-	3	4	4	25
Infant	23	38	-	-	12	10	11	94
Infant and Nursery	9	17	-	-	5	4	5	40
First	3	3	2	-	1	2	-	11
Junior	41	-	67	-	20	24	21	173
Junior and Infant	44	37	39	-	22	21	21	185
Junior, Infant and Nursery	18	16	14	-	10	10	10	78
Middle	6	-	8	1	3	3	3	24
Comprehensive	157	-	-	215	79	80	81	612
Grammar	7	-	-	10	4	4	3	28
Totals	313	120	130	226	159	162	160	1270



Table 13: Numbers of questionnaires returned in the main investigation

Column headings are as follows:

- |                    |               |
|--------------------|---------------|
| (1) Type of school | (6) Heads     |
| (2) Basic          | (7) Parents   |
| (3) Nursery-infant | (8) Pupils    |
| (4) Junior         | (9) Total     |
| (5) Secondary      | (10) Refusals |

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Nursery	4	8	-	-	2	4	4	22	1
Infant	21	34	-	-	11	8	10	84	4
Infant and Nursery	9	16	-	-	5	3	5	38	2
First	3	3	2	-	1	1	-	10	-
Junior	27	-	48	-	15	17	15	122	10
Junior and Infant	33	25	28	-	14*	16	18*	134	7
Junior, Infant and Nursery	16	13	10	-	9	8	10	66	3
Middle	4	-	3	1	1	1	2	12	1
Comprehensive	101	-	-	132*	46	44	50*	373	3
Grammar	5	-	-	7	1	4	1	18	3
Unknown	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-
Totals	224	99	91	141	105	106	115	881	34

\*These totals each include one return made from the staffs of schools which are not included in the table above: those refusing as a staff to reply, and those lost in the post.

Accepting the refusals as some sort of response, this represents a 72.0% rate of return. However, returns were not made equally from all educational sectors. Anticipating a less satisfactory response from secondary school teachers, proportionately more questionnaires were sent to them. The ratio between numbers of secondary and primary school teachers on a national scale is 49.1:50.9, and the extra copies of each form sent to secondary schools never departed from this in a statistically significant way. Similarly, the numbers of returns also match this ratio, in a statistical sense. Nevertheless, compared to the numbers of questionnaires initially issued, the secondary return is considerably less in every case. Some reasons for this are examined in the next section. At least each of the forms of the questionnaire appears to have received a similar proportional response from both primary and secondary teachers.

Table 14: The statistical significance of primary and secondary teachers' returns to the different forms of the questionnaire

The hypothesis tested is that primary and secondary teachers have responded equally well to each part of the investigation. The probability values show that this is not true.

	Primary teachers		Secondary teachers		$\chi^2$	prob- ability
	No. sent out	No. returned	No. sent out	No. returned		
Basic	143	113	170	111	7.190	0.008
Inter- positionals	250	190	226	141	23.906	0.000
Heads	73	57	86	48	8.725	0.003
Parents	78	57	87	49	6.903	0.008
Pupils	73	62	87	53	11.319	0.001
Totals	606	476	664	405	45.952	0.000

## Non-responses

Several reasons can be advanced to explain at least some of the non-returns. Three head teachers wrote to excuse their staffs, and 34 teachers took the trouble to explain why they did not wish to help. One head clearly forgot to pass on the material to her staff, and another told the researcher when the replies were to be collected that he did not believe in questionnaires and would not allow his staff to receive them. If heads and teachers react alike, many teachers will not have replied for these reasons.

Amongst primary schools, one head teacher passed on the materials but made it clear that her staff would be discouraged from replying - and only one did (the deputy head!). A second head teacher was enthusiastic but embarrassed that her staff chose as a whole not to cooperate: again one reply was received. At a third school, two replies were received promptly; none of the other staff replied, and the head explained that these two were ostracised by the others who seemed to have not responded from peevishness. In yet another, the head teacher explained that the majority of his staff had been angered by the questionnaire and refused to reply. Apologising to one of his staff later for upsetting them, the writer was told that this was not the case, and some of them had wondered why their replies had not been collected. Two completed replies are known to have been stolen during a break-in at one school; two more were lost by the head teacher.

Heads at most schools employing nursery nurses checked that their replies were required, and several of these people initially made blank



returns because they were 'only nursery nurses'. Such a response never occurred in nursery schools - an interesting reflection on the conditions experienced by nursery nurses working in other schools. Eventually, returns from nursery nurses were extremely high, hardly any failing to reply.

From conversations with teachers, two factors within this survey are likely to have caused substantial numbers of defaults: the code numbers and the personality survey. Several teachers expressed doubts over confidentiality because of the code numbers. Some refused to answer because of this; and others replied only after they had been reassured personally by the author. Twenty-seven returns were made with the code obliterated, though since most were collected by hand, it was possible to assign them to a particular school. Only two returns made with obliterated codes returned by post were impossible to relate to a school.

Many other teachers said they found parts of the questionnaires personal and irrelevant. The part causing offence in almost every case turned out to be the short personality survey. In reply, it was pointed out that no part of any questionnaire was obligatory. Several returns were made with one or another question in this part unanswered, and twenty respondents made no attempt at all. Whatever the extent of non-return caused by code-numbering and the personality survey, it is likely to have been greater in secondary schools. The smaller numbers of staff working in primaries allowed them a better opportunity to consult the author over these concerns.

The limited numbers of staff in some schools may also have had an unsatisfactory effect upon the returns they made. Whilst it was stressed to head teachers that there was no obligation upon their staffs to reply, it became clear upon collecting the first returns that heads of some schools were anxious to achieve a complete return, and would put pressure on dilatory staff. In these small schools, the staff often filled in their returns at the same time, again obliging hesitant colleagues to conform. Doubtless there would also be some consultation over certain questions made in small groups. All these points are less likely to have occurred in large schools, giving a lower rate of return, though a more 'honest' set of responses.

All these reasons put together are insufficient to account for the limited return from secondary schools, but they do indicate how apparently trivial factors can influence response - not always reducing the number of returns, but probably always reducing their quality.

On the other hand, the willingness of many teachers was encouraging. Being pressed for a reply, two teachers reported that their envelope had contained no questionnaire, and both completed one when it was supplied. A third reported that one page of her questionnaire was unprinted, and copied her answers into a complete booklet. One part-time teacher pleaded to be allowed to make a return, and another gave valuable help in scoring portions of the completed questionnaires. Despite the length of the survey, all the returns made were complete (save for some incomplete personality tests). However, it must be admitted that some teachers may have felt unwilling to reply because of this. In a very few instances, it was noticeable that the 'may or may

not' and 'irrelevant' categories were used more frequently in the later parts of the questionnaire. This is likely to be due to fatigue, since such responses can be made in place of a positive judgement. It is not possible to detect the onset of such an effect, and because the two categories are largely neutral, such responses have been allowed to remain.

Some staff confirmed that the variety of questionnaires employed had helped to give a better return: they had felt they were making a unique contribution. More than 10% of the replies contained some comment in writing, usually qualifying an answer. A few complained of a lack of clarity in some of the questions, but some were witty and humorous, and the majority were clearly intended to be helpful.



## 5.- 6: Treatment of the Replies and Initial Analysis

Upon receipt of the replies, a respondent's raw score upon each instrument was determined. Together with the biographical data, this information was coded and built into a data file. As previously, answers to the items were coded 1 for 'absolutely must not' to 5 for 'absolutely must'. A subfile was made for replies to each type of questionnaire. Much of the analysis was made using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, N.H., 1970).

Attention was given first to the independent variables, and especially to the measures of personality, educational opinions, and school climate. Each of these scores would need some validation before they could be employed further.

### The Eysenck Personality Inventory

Both forms of the Inventory had been given independently to sixty-eight teachers taking an in-service course run by the author, and sixty-six usable returns were made. The actual scores for both forms on the two scales, neuroticism and extroversion, are set out as table IV in the appendix. Means and standard deviations for each were calculated, together with all the possible intercorrelations. Sheppard's correction was employed to compensate for the limited range of scores on the short form (see Peters and Van Voorhis, 1940).

Table 15: The Intercorrelations between Neurotic and Extroversion scores on the full and shortened versions of the Eysenck Personality Inventory

Column headings are as follows:

- (1) Extrovert score on the short test
- (2) Extrovert score on the full test
- (3) Neurotic score on the short test
- (4) Neurotic score on the short test

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Mean	Std Dev.
Neurotic score, full test	-.161	-.083	.699	(1)	9.53	4.07
Neurotic score, short test	-.040	-.108	(1)		6.67	2.93
Extrovert score, full test	.706	(1)			11.56	4.49
Extrovert score, short test	(1)				7.48	3.04

These results compare well with those published by the Eysencks (1969). From table 16 overleaf, it can be seen that this small sample of teachers is slightly more introvert and rather less stable than the general population, a finding completely in accord with the surprising changes recorded during the maturation of teachers (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1969). The differences are in no way significant.

Table 16: A comparison between Personality scores of the general population (Eysenck's results) and a sample of teachers (these results)

(a) The full Eysenck Personality Inventory

	General Population (Eysenck's results)			Teacher Sample (These results)		
	Mean	Std Dev.	Correl -ation	Mean	Std Dev.	Correl -ation
Neurotic	9.31	5.09	-0.09	9.53	4.07	-0.08
Extrovert	12.45	4.84		11.56	4.49	

(b) The shortened form

	General Population (Eysenck's results)			Teacher Sample (These results)		
	Mean	Std Dev.	Correl -ation	Mean	Std Dev.	Correl -ation
Neurotic	6.15	3.42	-0.05	6.67	2.93	-0.04
Extrovert	7.96	2.97		7.48	3.04	

Correlations between scores on the short form and the full form of the Personality Inventory are not given by Eysenck. The values given here (Neurotic, 0.669; Extrovert, 0.706) are both high, but are they high enough? Both values are highly significant: for 65 pairs of random scores, a coefficient above 0.317 has less than 1% chance of occurring.

Yet since both versions of the scales are supposed to be measuring the same thing, they may be considered parts of the same test, when item/total reliabilities become relevant. Judged by this standard,



these correlations are not high. Eysenck reports values of 0.79 (for Neurotic) and 0.71 (for Extrovert) as the split-half reliabilities of the short forms of the test alone. The complete short version might be expected to correlate more highly with the full version.

The conclusion must be that whilst the two forms of the inventory measure very similar things, these are not identical. The difference is small enough, however, to allow the terms 'Neurotic' and 'Stable', 'Introvert', and 'Extrovert', as applied to the full Eysenck Personality Inventory, to be used for the shortened version also.

755 questionnaires returned in the main investigation contained the shortened form of the Personality Inventory, and 641 of these had been completed. Several of the missing 125 returns had been started, but were left incomplete: these were the items that had caused controversy. Comparison of these scores with those from the preliminary study show equivalence on the Extrovert scale, but a considerable difference on the Neurotic scale. The full study group of teachers is overwhelmingly stable; far more so than the preliminary study group, and more so than the general population value given by Eysenck. This finding is in accordance with the marked change from high instability found in student teachers to above average stability of professional teachers recorded by Eysenck, but it is clearly an area that must be looked at more closely. There may well be a relationship between personality and age, or years of experience, amongst teachers.

Table 17: A comparison between Personality scores of teachers in the preliminary study and those in the main investigation

		Scores							$\chi^2$	prob-abil-ity
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Neurotic	preliminary	3	7	14	13	14	10	5	16.683	1%
	full	116	136	116	94	73	64	42		
Extrovert	preliminary	4	4	11	13	14	9	11	4.737	50%
	full	26	42	64	145	132	130	102		

The hypothesis tested is that the two populations have similar scores on both personality dimensions.

For the majority of analyses made later, respondents were divided into three groups in each scale: the extremes and a median, normal group. Scores of 0 or 1 have been labelled 'stable' or 'introvert'; scores of 5 and 6 have been labelled 'neurotic' or 'extrovert'.

The Survey of Opinions about Education

444 of the questionnaires returned carried Butcher's 'Survey of Opinions', and 442 returns were usable for the Natural and Radical scales, 440 for the Tender-minded scale. Means and standard deviations for each scale are set out below.

	Mean	Std Dev.
Naturalism/Idealism	56.16	4.46
Radicalism/Conservatism	65.52	7.33
Tender/Tough-mindedness	68.14	12.17

The original paper of Oliver and Butcher (1962) does not report scores; in any case, the method of scoring has been changed with time. These results compare well with those of Rushton and Ward (1969), who used a smaller group of teachers taking an in-service course, save for the tendermindedness score. Teachers in this survey were considerably more tough-minded than Rushton's.

Comparisons with other groups of serving teachers have not been easy to make. Many of the surveys using this instrument have been concerned with students in training (McIntyre and Morrison, 1967, Hussell and Smithers, 1974), with teachers who had temporarily become students again (Ward and Rushton, 1969, 1973), or with teachers who had rather limited experience (Cortis, 1970). An occasional study discusses a survey without giving the results (Bill, Trew and Wilson, 1974). There is at least evidence that parts of the instrument may lack reliability (Ward and Rushton, 1973); and it has been shown that because of changing attitudes towards education with time, the three scales are no longer as homogenous as they were at first (Wilson and Bill, 1976). These findings will reduce comparability between scores made in this investigation with previous ones; but they will not prevent useful comparisons between scores gained by one subgroup and another from within this survey.

For convenience in later analyses, scores on each of these scale were divided into three groups: those beyond one standard deviation either side of the mean were designated extremes, leaving a large median, normal, group.



## School Climate

Despite some controversy which arose around both sub-scales of this test 654 usable replies were obtained for both the 'Esprit' and 'Intimacy' scales from the 661 returns received. In both cases, the scales achieved excellent separation of the respondents: scores covered almost the full range possible, and distribution was approximately normal.

Details of all scores obtained are given in table V in the appendix.

Scale	Range of Scores		Mean	Std Dev.	Number
	possible	achieved			
Esprit	10 - 40	12 - 40	26.06	5.37	654
Intimacy	6 - 24	6 - 24	13.86	2.92	654

Using these two sets of results, an attempt was made to derive scores which would be similar to the variable 'School Type' used by Halpin. Responses to the Esprit scale made in the 210 copies of the Basic questionnaire was standardised to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. Halpin gives a 'profile' score for each school climate on this scale, and it was now possible to convert these to actual scores received in this investigation. The correspondence was as follows:

	Profile score	Scale score		Profile score	Scale score
Open	63	$33\frac{1}{2}$	Familiar	50	$25\frac{1}{2}$
Autonomous	55	$28\frac{1}{2}$	Paternal	45	23
Controlled	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$27\frac{3}{4}$	Closed	38	$19\frac{1}{4}$

Since these 'profile scores' are only diagnostic, they should not be thought of as 'cut-off' points, but merely indications of each climate. Good definition was obtained for each of the climates except 'Autonomous' and 'Controlled', as was expected. These two were resolved by combining the appropriate Esprit scores and dividing again on the strength of high Intimacy score (for 'Autonomous') and low Intimacy score (for 'Controlled'). The actual method of scoring, together with the numbers of respondents in each category, is shown in table 18. The total number of results is rather less than the number of respondents to the Esprit and Intimacy sub-scales because not every respondent made an acceptable return to both scales.

Table 18: School Climate:  
the method of scoring  
and the number of re-  
spondents in each category

School Climate	Esprit score	Intimacy score	No. of respondents
Open	33 - 40	(any)	85
Autonomous	26 - 32	< 15	133
Controlled		≥ 15	145
Familiar	22 - 25	(any)	145
Paternal	19 - 21	(any)	99
Closed	12 - 18	(any)	42
Total			649

In order to simplify subsequent analyses, scoring on the Esprit and Intimacy scales was rationalised by defining extreme groups beyond one standard deviation from the mean. Those of the Esprit scale

were called 'down-hearted' and 'confident'; those of the Intimacy scale, 'aloof' and 'intimate'.

Reliability of these scales was determined by administering them to the group of teachers taking in-service training mentioned earlier, and again some four weeks later. Fifty-nine teachers completed the schedules twice, and their full scores are set out as a table in the appendix. The test/retest reliability, measured as a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, was 0.83 for esprit; 0.78 for intimacy; and 0.84 for the school climate scale.



Validation of the scale: School climate

Scores of respondents on the scale School climate, and on its two sub-scales, Esprit and Intimacy, were broken down by each of the other independent variables in the investigation. As might be expected, the relationship of scores on the sub-test Esprit are very similar to those for School climate; except in one or two instances, only the analyses for School climate will be given in detail here.

Scores on the scale School climate (and the two sub-scales) proved to be independent of the sex and length of experience of teachers, and whether they had children of their own:

The relationship between School climate and sex of teacher

		Sex	
		Male	Female
School climate	Open	23	62
	Autonomous	46	87
	Controlled	56	90
	Familiar	49	97
	Paternal	41	58
	Closed	21	24

$$X^2 = 8.252; \text{ probability} = 0.143$$

The difference is not significant; male and female teachers have similar perceptions of School climate.

The relationship between School climate and length of teaching

		Length of teaching					
		less than 1 yr	less than 2 yr	less than 5 yr	5-10 yrs	10-20 yrs	more than 20 yr
School Climate	Open	9	14	19	17	10	16
	Autonomous	16	18	33	35	19	12
	Controlled	16	20	20	44	25	21
	Familiar	21	21	37	34	20	13
	Paternal	14	14	29	22	13	7
	Closed	2	10	13	13	6	1

$$\chi^2 = 30.708; \text{ probability} = 0.199$$

The difference is not significant; teachers of all lengths of experience have similar perceptions of school climate.

The relationship between School climate and possession of children

		Children	
		Yes	No
School Climate	Open	11	6
	Autonomous	9	11
	Controlled	13	10
	Familiar	5	17
	Paternal	6	8
	Closed	2	7

$$\chi^2 = 10.218; \text{ probability} = 0.069$$

Judged at the 5% level of probability, this difference fails to reach significance. Even if a higher level of probability is used, no clear pattern emerged: the numbers fluctuate apparently at random and are never large enough to instil confidence. It seems that being a parent fails to influence the perception of school climate. There were relatively few results available for this analysis since few respondents were asked about their own children; a larger sample would have made the outcome more evident.

Similarly, the perceptions of school climate also proved to be independent of the three Educational Opinions of Oliver and Butcher. In each case, the null hypothesis that perception of school climate is the same for all teachers, regardless of their educational standing, is upheld.



The relationship between School climate and Radicalism

		Radicalism		
		low score conservative	median	high score radical
School Climate	Open	2	15	4
	Autonomous	4	40	8
	Controlled	4	35	5
	Familiar	8	32	4
	Paternal	3	32	6
	Closed	3	12	2

$\chi^2 = 5.749$ ; probability = 0.886

The relationship between School climate and Naturalism

		Naturalism		
		low score ideal	median	high score natural
School climate	Open	3	16	3
	Autonomous	9	36	7
	Controlled	6	31	7
	Familiar	5	31	8
	Paternal	4	34	3
	Closed	1	15	1

$\chi^2 = 5.940$ ; probability = 0.820

The relationship between School climate and Tendermindedness

		Tendermindedness		
		low score tough	median	high score tender
School climate	Open	4	15	2
	Autonomous	6	42	4
	Controlled	8	30	6
	Familiar	5	31	7
	Paternal	2	31	8
	Closed	5	8	3

$\chi^2 = 12.560$ ; probability = 0.275

The variables which do show a relationship with School climate can conveniently be divided into two groups: personality measures and professional attributes.

Extroversion scores might be expected to relate to intimacy, and this proved to be the case:

The relationship between Intimacy and Extroversion

		Extroversion		
		intro- vert	normal	extro- vert
Intimacy	aloof	9	42	19
	normal	55	266	173
	intimate	4	30	39

$\chi^2 = 12.662$ ; probability = 0.013

The null hypothesis that extroversion will have no effect on scores on the intimacy scale is not proved: extroverts tend to see their schools as intimate, whilst introverts see theirs as aloof. This finding lends valuable support to the validity of the intimacy subscale. There proved to be no relationship between extroversion and esprit, or with school climate: the differences were not significant.

The relationship between Esprit and Extroversion

		Extroversion		
		intro-vert	normal	extro-vert
Esprit	down-hearted	8	55	38
	normal	46	228	158
	confident	14	55	35

$X^2 = 1.766$ ; probability = 0.777

The relationship between School climate and Extroversion

		Extroversion		
		intro-vert	normal	extro-vert
School climate	open	10	41	32
	autonomous	12	60	57
	controlled	13	90	38
	familiar	18	72	52
	paternal	13	50	35
	closed	2	25	17

$X^2 = 13.835$ ; probability = 0.181



There seems to be no obvious reason to suspect a relationship between neuroticism and either esprit or intimacy, and none was found. The differences fail to reach significance.

The relationship between Esprit and Neuroticism

		Neuroticism		
		stable	normal	neurotic
Esprit	down-hearted	35	44	22
	normal	164	197	71
	confident	50	42	12

$\chi^2 = 6.595$ ; probability = 0.159

The relationship between Intimacy and Neuroticism

		Neuroticism		
		stable	normal	neurotic
Intimacy	aloof	30	27	13
	normal	198	216	80
	intimate	21	40	12

$\chi^2 = 4.940$ ; probability = 0.294

However, a very distinct and meaningful relationship was found  
neuroticism and perception of school climate.

The relationship between School climate and Neuroticism

		Neuroticism		
		stable	normal	neurotic
School climate	open	39	35	9
	autonomous	45	64	20
	controlled	77	44	20
	familiar	42	76	24
	paternal	33	45	20
	closed	13	19	12

$$X^2 = 30.944; \text{ probability} = 0.001$$

The tendency for stable teachers to regard their schools' climate as open, and for neurotic teachers to see theirs as closed is very significant. This relationship had not been expected, for the School climate scale depends heavily upon Esprit, which has been shown to be independent of personality measures; but it makes good sense, and must count as further validity for the School type scale. At the same time, this is a finding which queries the concept of a School climate for it raises the question: to what extent is the School climate a product of the individual teachers' imagination, and to what extent is it a reality? Further light may be thrown on this problem by later analyses involving School climate.

Further validation comes from the interaction of School climate with the professional attributes of graduate status and class taken this year. Graduates found their schools no more intimate than non-graduates:

The relationship between Intimacy and Graduate status

		Non-Graduate	Graduate
Intimacy	aloof	60	14
	normal	403	103
	intimate	59	15

$$\chi^2 = 0.083; \text{ probability} = 0.959$$

but they tend to find less esprit:

The relationship between Esprit and Graduate status

		Non-Graduate	Graduate
Esprit	down-hearted	78	25
	normal	348	96
	confident	96	11

$$\chi^2 = 8.153; \text{ probability} = 0.017$$

and, as might be expected, their view of School climate is different from that of non-graduates. The difference is even more significant.



The relationship between School climate and Graduate status

		Non-graduate	Graduate
School climate	open	75	10
	autonomous	100	33
	controlled	121	25
	familiar	120	26
	paternal	67	32
	closed	39	6

$$X^2 = 17.236; \text{ probability} = 0.004$$

Graduates seem to be more likely to see school climate as autonomous or paternal. The significance of this is not clear, but it may be of little consequence, for graduates are disproportionately common in secondary schools, and as will be seen shortly, class taken is a far more effective controller of school climate perception.

Intimacy, Esprit and School climate are all related to class taken this year.

The relationship between Intimacy and Class taken

		Class taken		
		nursery- infant	junior	secondary
Intimacy	aloof	18	17	39
	normal	133	132	241
	intimate	26	26	22

$$X^2 = 9.770; \text{ probability} = 0.045$$

Expressed in this manner, the differences appear to only just reach significance; but inspection shows that there is little difference between the perceptions of nursery, infant and junior teachers. If the hypothesis were rephrased to take account of this, the significance of the finding would become more obvious.

The relationship between Esprit and Class taken

		Class taken		
		nursery- infant	junior	secondary
Esprit	down- hearted	19	24	60
	normal	111	110	223
	confident	47	41	19

$$X^2 = 44.765; \text{ probability} = 0.000$$

Secondary teachers are far more likely to be down-hearted than their primary school colleagues - the difference between junior and nursery-infant teachers is not significant. Not surprisingly, secondary staff also see their school climate as different to that recognised by primary teachers: secondary schools are likely to be seen at the 'closed' end of the range, primary schools at the 'open' end.

The relationship between School climate and Class taken

		Class taken		
		nursery- infant	junior	secondary
School climate	open	39	30	16
	autonomous	33	33	67
	controlled	40	47	59
	familiar	37	32	77
	paternal	18	21	60
	closed	10	12	23

$$X^2 = 42.737; \text{ probability} = 0.000$$

The hypothesis that the perceptions of nursery-infant and junior teachers are the same is supported ( $X^2 = 2.501$ , probability = 0.75).

Since infant teachers usually work with only half-a-dozen colleagues whereas secondary school teachers would normally expect to have at least fifty colleagues, it might be thought that the greater intimacy and morale reported by primary school teachers is due to the limited number of colleagues, and that the more 'open' climate is related to the less formal administration possible in small schools. These possibilities were checked on the basis of school size: a procedure directly in accord with Halpin's work.

Mean intimacy scores for each school were calculated from the returns of its staff: schools making less than five returns were deleted. The scores calculated in this way are set out in table VI in the appendix. Correlation of these scores with the total number of staff at the school proved to be very low (0.048). Such a direct correlation may not be a very good method of investigation, since all primary schools had less than twenty-one staff, whilst the smallest secondary school had thirty. Taken individually, the correlations were still low: 0.016 for the ten secondary schools and -0.262 for the forty-one primary schools. This last figure is of the right form to support the hypothesis that schools with fewer staff have higher mean intimacy scores, but the value fails to reach significance\*.

\*The value of  $r$  needed to reach 5% significance  
from 51 sets of results is 0.276;  
from 41 sets of results, 0.308;  
and from 10 sets of results, 0.632.



The overall conclusion must be that teachers' perception of intimacy bears no relation to the number of their colleagues.

Similarly, the large difference in perception of esprit might also be due to school size, though whether morale is likely to be higher in small, cohesive units or in large, powerful ones is not obvious. The correlation between a school's mean esprit score and the number of its staff proved to be just significant:  $-0.298$ , implying that the staff of smaller schools have higher esprit scores. Taken by themselves, the primary schools' correlation coefficient is  $-0.129$ , and that for secondary schools is  $0.266$ , suggesting that both possibilities outlined above might be possible. Neither of these values is significant, however, and since these resolved values are more likely to be valid than the combined score, a safer conclusion would be that a relationship between school size and esprit is not proven.

Because of its origin, the variable 'School climate' might also be expected to show little relationship to school size, and this was found to be so. The correlation amongst all schools is  $0.220$ ; with primary schools only it is  $0.145$ ; and with secondary schools only, it is  $0.072$ . Measured in this way, school climate seems to have little relationship to school size. The overall conclusion is that the obvious differences caused by class taken this year in teachers' perceptions of intimacy, esprit and school climate have little or no origin in the size of their school, and must be sought elsewhere.

Chapter: 6

Results of the Main Investigation

Chapter 6: Results of the Main Investigation

Before data from the various portions of the questionnaire can be analysed, they need to be examined for consistency. The layout and different presentation of items could have caused sufficient differences in response to invalidate combining the results. This was achieved through an analysis of variance of returns to the thirty-three role items common to the basic, heads, parents, and pupils versions, which were distributed in a stratified manner through all types of school. The other three versions, for nursery-infant, junior, and secondary teachers, had a more limited distribution, and are likely to contain results which are not directly comparable.

The important values needed to examine this contention are set out in table 19. More detailed working is set out in table VII in the appendix.

Table 19: Analysis of the variance in respondents' answers given to the 33 common role items in the four comparable versions of the questionnaire

source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean squares	F
Versions	4.25	3	1.416	0.574
Items	6399.75	32	199.991	81.00
Items x versions interaction	237.01	96	2.469	
Total	8741.01	131		



The value of F obtained from the interaction of versions and respondents is 0.574, which with 32 and 96 degrees of freedom is less than the value needed to reject the null hypothesis at the 5% level of probability. This means that responses given to these four versions are sufficiently alike to allow them to be combined. It can now be assumed by implication that this will be true for the findings from the interpositional versions also.

The number of effective answers, and the mean and standard deviation of scores for each item in the main investigation are set out in table 20.

Table 20: The mean score, standard deviation and number of usable responses made to the 33 items concerning teachers' role perception common to all versions of the questionnaire

The column headings are as follows:

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
01	Help children to acquire good manners and good speech	4.403	.554	1	2	878
02	Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishment	3.966	1.158	2	3	876
03	Guard against showing affection to children in your class	3.015	1.221	27	11	843
04	Alternate interesting work with less interesting so that pupils will appreciate the former yet gain by the discipline of the latter	3.608	.966	91	12	778
05	Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching	3.846	1.025	68	16	797
06	Possess a university degree	3.138	.591	276	4	601

Table 20: continued

The column headings are as follows:

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
07	Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.	3.299	1.195	173	12	696
08	Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticism by parents	4.498	.692	21	1	859
09	Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom	3.771	.990	36	10	835
10	Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities	3.577	.662	21	1	859
11	Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority	4.065	.537	2	1	878
12	Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement rather than by comparing them with other children	4.497	.674	4	3	874
13	Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes	3.803	.590	36	2	843
14	Expect to supply some teaching aids - pictures, newspaper cuttings, materials - out of your own pocket	3.204	1.045	5	3	873
15	Encourage a uniformity of technique and curriculum throughout the school	3.483	1.034	36	10	835
16	Avoid all familiarity with children	2.536	1.096	23	7	851
17	Avoid 'giving a dog a bad name'	4.259	.910	20	5	856
18	Avoid all open familiarity with colleagues in front of children	3.315	1.024	28	3	850
19	As a newly-appointed teacher, start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority	4.312	.789	18	2	861

Table 20: continued

The column headings are as follows:

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
20	Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable	2.931	1.011	25	5	851
21	Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities	3.775	.666	39	2	840
22	Expect to take some school work home at times	4.297	.834	2	1	878
23	Visit the local teachers' centre frequently	3.712	.658	30	5	846
24	Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils	2.040	.972	94	3	784
25	Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline	3.232	1.193	16	4	861
26	Organise extra-curricular activities	3.747	.682	39	1	841
27	Maintain your authority at all times	4.459	.731	9	3	869
28	Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils	3.825	.770	20	0	861
29	Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient	2.671	1.227	80	1	800
30	Possess a recognised qualification in Education	4.475	.692	30	2	849
31	Teach children to obey orders at once and without question	3.362	1.116	19	5	857
32	Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher	3.857	1.048	88	2	791
33	Take an active part in local politics	2.641	.763	297	2	582



## 6 - 1: The 'Ineffective' answers

Very seldom was no answer at all given: the total of such responses comes to 0.51% of the possible answers. This small proportion cannot detract from the more positive replies. It is noteworthy that the greatest number given to any item was made to 'Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching'. Because of the multi-ethnic population of many schools in this survey, this was a pertinent, if uncomfortable, question. It also attracted a high number of 'irrelevant' replies, which were distributed equally through the three types of school ( $\chi^2 = 2.218$ , probability = 0.33). There may be some ambiguity in this item: a teacher may well feel that local feelings were irrelevant to her own work, whilst still giving due consideration to such matters. There were insufficient 'no-answers' to any other item to make analysis worthwhile.

The 'irrelevant' category was used in the main investigation for 5.76% of all answers - a rate similar to that in the preliminary study. Table 21 examines the hypothesis that certain items attracting large numbers of these responses are seen as irrelevant to the work of all groups of teachers. A finding which is significant means that the hypothesis is not supported, and that one group of teachers sees the item as having different relevance to their colleagues.

Table 21: Analysis of the distribution of 'irrelevant' replies made according to the teachers' school

The column headings are:

- (1) code number of item
- (2) abbreviated form of item
- (3) total number of 'irrelevant' replies
- (4) number given by nursery-infant teachers
- (5) number given by junior teachers
- (6) number given by secondary teachers
- (7)  $\chi^2$
- (8) probability. Values exceeding the 1% level of significance are indicated by two asterisks

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
33	Take part in local politics	294	78	95	121	4.891	
06	Possess a university degree	274	85	92	97	12.691	**
07	Main responsibility to teach subjects	170	74	22	74	28.650	**
24	Regularly publish a mark list	91	58	15	18	61.240	**
04	Alternate interesting work	88	29	29	30	4.951	
32	Teach the 3 R's	85	20	4	61	28.293	**
29	Expect children to be of similar ability	77	40	19	18	25.709	**
05	Give consideration to local feelings	68	22	13	33	2.218	

(No other item received more than 40 'irrelevant' replies)

Predictably, by far the most 'irrelevant' answers were given to the items: 'Take an active part in local politics' and 'Possess a university degree'. Political activity was seen as equally irrelevant by teachers from all three types of school, as was the method of presenting work: 'Alternate interesting work with less interesting so that pupils will appreciate the former yet gain by the discipline of the latter'. All the other items attracting large numbers of 'irrelevant' replies did so because one group of teachers behaved differently from the others.

As had been suspected, the preliminary survey finding regarding graduate status is changed: primary teachers are more likely to see a university degree as irrelevant to their work, even though nearly a quarter of secondary teachers agree with them. Nursery-infant teachers tend to see mark lists and ability grouping as less relevant than their colleagues.

The two items relating to teaching matter form an interesting contrast. These might be expected to form a balance: nursery-infant staff finding subject teaching irrelevant, and secondary staff, that of the 3 R's. But many 'specialist' secondary teachers (those of P.E., wood- and metal-work, and perhaps art) would have little opportunity to develop work in the tool subjects, which could reduce the number of secondary teacher 'irrelevant' replies considerably - perhaps to a level consistent with that of their primary colleagues. Far more secondary teachers find subject teaching irrelevant than might be expected, even though the majority of them would be appointed in that capacity. Junior teachers find teaching the 3 R's as very pertinent, and even subject teaching as far more relevant than either of their colleagues. That so many teachers do find irrelevance in these items is an indication of the variation in role cognition which exists, and that 'class taken' is likely to be a major determinant of this.



## 6 - 2: The Factor Analysis

The findings of the main investigation, as presented in table 20 are not easy to comprehend because of at least two circumstances: the very number of items involved and the influence which independent variables such as sex and class taken have upon the replies.

The earlier investigation of judges' ability to fit items into the role areas of Hoyle's theoretical model has shown that even the wide range of material initially employed is not sufficient to describe the role behaviour of teachers completely; and that a theoretical model is not likely to translate into practical terms with ease. In an attempt to find some simple structure which would represent the variety of responses made during the main investigation, factor analysis was carried out.

In some respects this was inappropriate. The thirty-three items had been selected largely for their controversial nature: any systematic attempt to produce a comprehensive picture of teaching had been given up. The pattern to emerge from factor analysis could only fit a part of the information contained in the main investigation's response, and so relate to an even smaller part of the overall conception. Nevertheless, the need for rationalisation was considerable, and the large standard deviations caused by divergent *opinions* would be *appropriate to factor analysis.*

Before analysis, the 'ineffective' answers were rescored to the scale mean of 3. There were so few missing answers that this procedure could make little difference, other than to reduce the eventual size of

the correlation matrix. The 'irrelevant' replies became neutral: their value in recognising the extent of meaning of items had been recognised, and this rescaling allowed them to be entered in the main matrix without disturbing other scores.

The initial principal factor analysis showed that eleven factors had latent roots of more than 1.0, and that they accounted for just over half (52.6%) of the total variance in the results. Kaiser's criterion, that useful factors should have a latent root of more than 1.0, is now believed to err on the generous side (Child, 1970, p.44). The scree test (Cattell, 1966, p. 174 et seq.) suggested that six factors would give the best solution, even though these account for only 36.4% of the total variance. Convergence of this first matrix to yield six factors took 15 iterations; these were then rotated by the varimax procedure.

These six factors proved to be well-defined and meaningful. If more than six factors were extracted, the first two tended to stay firm; the third disappeared; and the last three degenerated into a larger or smaller number of similar but less-well-defined factors. The six factor solution was chosen as being most appropriate for further use. The major loadings of items on these six factors are shown in table 22.

A number of items: 04, 05, 06, 20, 30 and 33, fail to receive high loadings on any of these factors. All these items had low communalities - they represent distinct facets of an overall solution. Items 04, 05, 06 and 33 had attracted large numbers of irrelevant answers, and so represent either areas deemed to be of little concern

Table 22: Rotated Factor Matrix Scores for a Six Factor Solution

The data used came from all 881 respondents. Incomplete and irrelevant answers were recoded to 3, the mean scale score. These six factors account for 36.4% of the total variance.

Code no. of item	F A C T O R S					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
01	.327*					.156
02			.219*			
03			.539*	-.151		
04	.214					
05		.178		.169		
06						.425*
07						
08	.218			.296*	.167	
09					.324*	
10		.409*			.356*	
11	.163			.234*		
12				.484*	.153	
13				.294*	.362*	
14					.495*	
15					.248	.379*
16			.694*			
17				.416*		
18	.161		.467*	.160		
19	.371*		.212*			.179
20	.187		.158			.194
21		.719*				
22		.164			.391*	
23		.287*			.308*	
24				.231		
25	.344*			-.457*		
26		.614*				
27	.598*		.161			
28	.238*	.195	-.160	.172	.230	
29	.195		.175	-.297*	-.267	
30				.184		
31	.444*			-.169		.248*
32	.159			.158		.604*
33	-.180		-.177			

Loadings of less than 0.150 have not been shown.  
The item loadings used in determining factor scores are marked with an asterisk (\*).



by a large proportion of teachers, or specific to one particular educational sector. Item 30 - Possess a recognised qualification in Education - might be expected to load on all the factors, even if only to a limited degree; whilst item 20 - Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable - loads to a limited extent on three factors.

Some items have moderately high loadings on two factors, showing that the factors are not unique, or that the items have implications in a number of areas. By isolating the items with the highest loadings on each, the six factors which appear to give the best fit can be characterised as follows:

#### Factor I

- 27 (.598) Maintain your authority at all times
- 31 (.444) Teach children to obey orders at once and without question
- 19 (.371) As a newly-appointed teacher start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority
- 25 (.344) Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline
- 01 (.327) Help children to acquire good manners and good speech
- 21 (.238) Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils

This factor clearly describes discipline, in the restricted sense of preserving order. Items which would increase the meaning to include personal control, such as 04: Alternate interesting work . . . also load on this factor, but not sufficiently to have any influence. Surprisingly, item 11: Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority, also has only a limited loading here. The items which load highest leave no doubt that the quality described is authoritarian. A high score on these items indicates a discipline so tight that it may be repressive, perhaps arising from a

sense of insecurity. A low score may indicate a state approaching anarchy. It is to be hoped that the majority of teachers would opt for an intermediate approach.

#### Factor II

- 21 (.719) Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities
- 26 (.614) Organise extra-curricular activities
- 10 (.409) Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities
- 23 (.287) Visit the local teachers' centre frequently

Whilst few items have high loadings on this factor, its tenor is obvious. This relates to activities in addition to classroom teaching. Whilst item 26 would probably be taken as referring to school clubs and societies, the others all refer directly to activities outside the school. If this factor is labelled 'Extra-curricular activities', it must be seen in the widest possible sense, and involving the social behaviour of teachers. Two items which fail to load very significantly also back this contention: 05 - Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching; and 28: Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils. A low score here indicates a '9 to 4' teacher - one who keeps his work very distinct from his private life. On the other hand, one who is always on the go, long after 4.00 o'clock, and is always scheming to bring the whole of living back into the classroom would score highly.



### Factor III

- 16 (.694) Avoid all familiarity with children
- 03 (.539) Guard against showing affection to children in your class
- 18 (.467) Avoid all open familiarity with colleagues in front of children
- 02 (.219) Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishment
- 19 (.212) As a newly-appointed teacher, start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority.

Because of the high loading which item 18 has on this factor, it must be interpreted as more than just relationships with children. The last two items listed above, despite their low loadings, add an element of fairness, also present in item 29, Expect children in your class to be of similar ability . . . , which loads on this factor. The wording of the three major items means that a high score on this factor indicates reserve. Familiarity, perhaps clouded by an element of favouritism, is indicated by a low score. Although it indicates the converse of what is actually measured, it is proposed to call this scale 'Familiarity'; in the sense of sociability rather than knowledge.

The remaining three factors all seem to relate to the nature of teaching itself, and are less easy to define.

### Factor IV

- 12 (.484) Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement rather than by comparing them with other children
- 24 (-.457) Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils
- 17 (.416) Avoid 'giving a dog a bad name'
- 29 (-.297) Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient
- 08 (.296) Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticism by parents
- 13 (.294) Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes
- 11 (.234) Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority



With the possible exception of 08, all these items relate to children. Some care needs to be taken in interpretation because of the negative loading of two items. Teachers scoring well on this factor would favour wide ability grouping, and covert grading on an individual basis; those scoring poorly would favour 'streaming', open competition and regular testing. Since the former quantities would seem to be to the immediate interest of the individual child, this factor can be called 'Child-centered'. The latter qualities represent a work-centered approach.

#### Factor V

- 14 (.495) Expect to supply some teaching aids - pictures, newspaper cuttings, material - out of your own pocket
- 22 (.391) Expect to take some school work home at times
- 13 (.362) Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes
- 10 (.356) Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities
- 09 (.324) Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom
- 23 (.308) Visit the local teachers' centre frequently

Only one item loads even moderately on this factor, but there are several items with limited loadings. It resembled factor II in that all the items involve out-of-classroom activities; the similarity is all the more since two items (09 and 23) have loadings on both. This is sure to cause some correlation, though it need not be great since the major loadings for each are on other items. The emphasis here is on tasks rather than activities. Some teachers may feel against all of these behaviours, yet the vast majority do undertake such work at least on occasion. It is proposed to call this factor 'Duties'.

## Factor VI

- 32 (.604) Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher  
07 (.425) Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects  
such as English, Maths, Music, History etc.  
15 (.379) Encourage a uniformity of technique and curriculum through-  
out the school  
31 (.248) Teach children to obey orders at once and without question  
02 (.229) Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishment

As might be expected, this factor is the least easy to define; yet if more factors are requested in the solution, the additional ones become even less clear. The two items with the biggest loadings were often seen as irrelevant: the first especially by secondary teachers, and the second by nursery-infant teachers. Their resolution together in this factor may well represent a choice, for any one teacher is unlikely to find both items irrelevant. A high score on this factor would represent a teacher behaving in the public image of one who has a clear definition of the work in hand, and who stands no nonsense during lessons, as opposed to the more liberal, informal approach advocated by many modern exponents. This factor compares well with the role 'Teacher' in Hoyle's model, but it is proposed to call it 'Instructor' to avoid confusion with the term 'teacher' used in a more general sense.

The value of any factorial model can only be a fraction of that of the material put into it, and in this case this was known to be incomplete. Since the six factors between them represent just over one third of the total variance, this model must be very incomplete. However, comparison between the preliminary investigation and Hoyle's theoretical study has shown that a complete description is not possible:



what is needed is a construct that will depict the salient points which arise from this investigation succinctly. The six factors which have been resolved all represent meaningful and important aspects of teachers' work.

The validity of this model cannot rest upon any practical study of behaviour, since it is based upon attitudes which may not always be expressed overtly. It must depend upon its meaningful nature and upon the acceptability of findings made whilst using it. It is felt that validity, judged by the first of these criteria, is already high, and that it is likely to be improved as a result of further analyses.

Scores on these factor scales were made for each respondent by adding answers weighted by the appropriate loading. Items 24 and 29, both contributing to factor IV, were scored negatively. The reliability of these scales was not high. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients were as follows: Factor I - 0.59; Factor II - 0.65; Factor III - 0.62; Factor IV - 0.64; Factor V - 0.55; and Factor VI - 0.59. Doubtless these values would increase if more items were included in each scale. Such limited reliability would be unacceptable for diagnostic purposes, but for use in resolving some of the role concepts of teachers, they will be suitable. There is no need to measure an individual's standing on any scale in this investigation; the need is for some instrument that will detect differences in perception between whole groups of teachers.



### 6 - 3: Further Statistical Analysis

Early in the analysis, the influence of the independent variables upon the response to each of the role items used in the main investigation was made. The chi-squared test was used to compare the total responses made under each of the five score categories by teachers in the various groups. Very often, only three of the five possible responses had been used - occasionally only two - and parametric statistics would have been inadequate. This produced so much evidence that its presentation here would be tedious. It could also be misleading: if a 5% level of significance is accepted, there is a 1 in 20 chance of rejecting a null hypothesis incorrectly, and vice-versa. Since there are some thousands of comparisons which could be made, a considerable number of errors could accumulate in this way. If a more severe level of probability is used, some useful hypotheses could remain inadequately tested. The results of this preliminary analysis will be referred to now only in passing.

The factorial model offers a valuable way of presenting so much information in a condensed and more-readily-examinable way. Composite scores taken from a number of weighted items for each teacher form a continuum suitable for analysis by parametric statistics. Respondents were grouped in various ways depending on which variables were being examined, and an F-test was performed to determine the amount of variance between the groups in respect of each of the six factor scales. The hypothesis tested in almost every case was that the responses of the contrasted groups would be the same. Since the computer programme being used printed out the exact probability, this has

been given, rather than merely indicating significance beyond a particular probability level. This has avoided some of the argument over an appropriate level of significance. Where the outcome was not obvious, the 5% level was normally taken as indicating rejection of the null hypothesis, that is, that the difference between the groups was more than might have been expected by chance, and due rather to the division created by the variable under consideration.

In those cases where there were more than two divisions, and where the F-test showed that a significant difference between the groups existed overall, this was often examined further by t-tests. Since most of the variation picked out by the F-test is likely to reside between the two groups with the greatest difference between their means, and these are obvious, there is a logical objection to using t-tests in this manner. They are really to be used for random sampling amongst a whole series of differences. Conversely, where the F-test showed no significant difference between the groups, no further analysis was undertaken, even though there is a small chance of overlooking a real difference by doing so. A solution to this dilemma lies in the size of probability indicated by the F-test. Frequently this was extremely small, indicating such a considerable difference between groups that t-testing was a mere formality. When probabilities close to the 5% level were found, caution has been exercised in interpreting them.

On occasion, the interaction of two variables has been examined. The computer programme used could print out the means, standard deviations and number of responses in each part of such an analysis, but



not determine a statistical check. This was done later with a calculator. For ease, the statistic used in such circumstances has been  $\bar{z}$ . Like the statistic  $t$ , this assumes that the two distributions compared are part of the same general population, of which the ratio of the deviation from the mean to the standard error of that population is calculated. Values of  $\bar{z}$  are distributed normally, and its calculation assumes that large populations are involved. Values of  $t$  can become relatively free from sample size by considering degrees of freedom. Where this reaches infinity, the significance of  $t$  and  $\bar{z}$  values is about the same. In the situations examined here, there are usually some 150 degrees of freedom; the values of  $t$  and  $z$  needed for significance at the 5% level are 1.976 and 1.960, and at the 1% level, 2.609 and 2.575 respectively. Any error caused by considering these values as interchangeable is likely to be of little importance compared to others which must be present.

The large number of results has meant that problems connected with small samples have not often arisen. In undertaking the initial  $X^2$  analyses, it sometimes happened that there were few responses in a particular category; and wherever the total number of results in a category was less than ten, they were added into those of an adjacent category. There were normally more than forty results in any category for the F-,  $t$ - and  $\bar{z}$  analyses; and whilst numbers in contrasted groups sometimes differed widely, variances were normally similar, and these tests are likely to be sufficiently robust to handle such data.



The results which follow are expressed as population means with a standard deviation. They are usually scores on the six factor scales. Taken by themselves, such scores have little meaning; but they are valuable for assessing the responses given by contrasting groups.

6 - 4: The Effect of Independent Variables upon Role Cognition

6 - 4.1: The Sex of Teachers

Examined individually by the  $X^2$  test, 22 of the 33 items provoked responses from the two sexes which were different at the 5% level of probability. This was a greater number of real differences than that caused by any other variable.

Expressed in terms of the role model, male and female teachers gave similar responses to the Discipline and Familiarity scales, but there were profound differences on the others:

Table 23: Scores given by male and female teachers to the factor scales of the role model

	Male		Female		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
	N = 315		N = 566			
Discipline	9.119	1.259	9.221	1.108	1.527	0.217
Extra-curricular activities	7.634	1.045	7.402	0.948	11.193	0.001
Familiarity	6.763	1.610	6.684	1.482	0.542	0.462
Child-centred	9.058	1.001	9.527	0.876	9.465	0.002
Duties	7.841	1.118	8.226	1.018	27.016	0.000
Instructor	6.383	1.253	6.852	1.158	31.219	0.000

The differences between the sexes found on the scales Extra-curricular activities and Duties make an interesting contrast. Men claim to be more willing to undertake extra-curricular activities, which are easily seen by the public, whilst women are more ready to undertake less obvious duties. It could be that, because of their

domestic ties, women feel more able to do some of their work at home, that men prefer the overt responsibilities since they would have more potential for promotion. There is certainly no evidence of correlation between these scales here.

As might be expected, women have the more child-centered attitude, suggesting they favour wide-ability grouping and less formal administration than men. Women also score more highly on the scale Instructor.

However, the most obvious sex difference amongst teachers is their distribution in schools. 57% of secondary replies were from men; 35% of junior teachers were male; but only one man (representing 0.5%) was found teaching in a nursery-infant school. The class taken is also likely to be a powerful determiner of role cognition, and further comment upon the differences caused by sex would be out of place at this stage.

#### 6 - 4.2: Class taken

Although respondents were offered a choice of twelve different types of class, all the analyses have been made using the division Nursery-infant/Junior/Secondary. Many secondary teachers found difficulty in nominating one type of class for their work, and some of the types of class proved to be so uncommon that their retention would have been unjustifiable. Nevertheless, division of the Nursery-infant group into the three components nursery teachers, infant teachers, and



nursery nurses, and of the Junior group into teachers of lower juniors and upper juniors would be valid and worthwhile for later investigations. Defined in this way, class taken caused a significant difference of opinion on 21 of the 33 items when examined by the  $X^2$  test, judged at the 5% level of probability.

Using the role model, analysis showed that similar responses were given by all three groups of teachers to the role area Discipline, but that there were very significant differences on all the others. This is shown in table 24, and results of a further analysis to distinguish between results of individual groups is shown in table 25.

Table 24: Scores given by teachers of Nursery-infant, Junior and Secondary school children to the factor scales of the role model

	Nursery- infant N = 241		Junior N = 235		Secondary N = 405		F	proba- bility
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.184	1.140	9.130	1.114	9.192	1.209	0.411	0.380
Extra-curricular activities	7.164	0.906	7.819	0.995	7.482	0.972	17.626	0.000
Familiarity	6.379	1.455	6.552	1.450	7.003	1.565	14.803	0.000
Child-centered	10.379	0.906	10.250	1.025	9.367	1.007	102.293	0.000
Duties	8.390	1.043	8.323	1.039	7.772	1.018	35.492	0.000
Instructor	7.001	1.771	7.042	1.110	6.288	1.177	43.924	0.000

Table 25: The significance of differences between scores shown in table 24

The hypothesis examined is that the responses of nursery-infant, junior, and secondary teachers to the role scales, taken in pairs, is the same. If the probability recorded is low, they must be considered distinct.

	Nursery-infant and junior		Junior and secondary		Nursery-infant and secondary	
	t	probability	t	probability	t	probability
Discipline	.522	0.614	.656	0.512	.084	0.933
Extra-curricular activities	7.488	0.000	4.197	0.000	4.121	0.000
Familiarity	1.301	0.199	3.609	0.000	5.115	0.000
Child-centred	1.450	0.146	10.551	0.000	13.142	0.000
Duties	.217	0.828	6.552	0.000	7.335	0.000
Instructor	.392	0.695	8.086	0.000	7.467	0.000

At first sight, it appears that teachers in all three sectors hold very similar views towards the role area Discipline; that they have very different views on Extra-curricular activities; and that the teachers in primary schools have similar views, significantly different from those of secondary school teachers, towards each of the other four role areas. This conclusion, however, fails to take account of the predominance of male teachers in secondary schools and of female teachers in primary ones. It has already been shown that role conception is strongly influenced by a teacher's sex; a further analysis is needed to tease out the relationship between gender and the class taken.

6 - 4.3: The relationship between Class taken and Gender

Only one male teacher was found in an infant school, so there is no reliable division by sex available for this sector. (It was noticeable that the returns he made were often quite radical, but that is another story.) The breakdown can concern only junior and secondary staff. This is no great drawback, however, since junior and nursery-infant staff appear to have agreed on many role conceptions.

Table 26: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Discipline

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	8.922	1.139	83	9.243	1.087	152	2.088	0.037
Secondary	9.194	1.296	231	9.190	1.088	174	0.039	0.97
$\bar{z}$		1.789			0.438			
Probability		0.073			0.662			

All teachers had extremely similar scores on Discipline in the initial analyses. When 'Class Taken' is held constant, male teachers in junior schools are found to achieve only a low score. The difference between their score and that of female junior teachers is significant beyond the 5% level. Secondary teachers of both sexes are seen to be remarkably unanimous. The nursery-infant teachers' score (females only: mean = 9.229,  $\sigma$  = 1.140) falls between the scores of women in other schools. The similar views which all teachers have on Discipline are confirmed, save that male teachers in junior schools tend to gain lower scores than others.



Table 27: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Extra-curricular activities

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	proba- bility
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	7.908	1.083	83	7.770	0.944	152	0.976	0.329
Secondary	7.538	1.017	231	7.408	0.906	174	0.478	0.633
$\bar{z}$		2.699			3.508			
probability		0.007			0.002			

The different opinions held by male and female teachers on Extra-curricular activities disappear when the class taken is held constant. The differences between teachers in junior and secondary schools are slightly reduced, but they still remain very significant: it is fair to conclude that this entirely explains the observed difference caused by sex. Women nursery-infant teachers are even less in favour of this than other teachers (mean = 7.165,  $\sigma$  = 0.908). This score is significantly lower than that of secondary women staff ( $\bar{z}$  = 2.684, probability = 0.007). Teachers in the three types of school hold quite distinct views on this matter, regardless of their sex.

Table 28: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Familiarity

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	proba- bility
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	6.546	1.497	83	6.556	1.429	152	0.049	0.961
Secondary	6.857	1.630	231	7.198	1.455	174	2.211	0.027
$\bar{z}$		2.018			3.499			
probability		0.043			0.000			

The mean score of women in nursery-infant schools was 6.393,  $\sigma = 1.442$ . This is effectively the same as that given by women in junior schools. All primary teachers gain low scores on this scale, regardless of sex, indicating that they are in favour of familiarity. The initial analysis showed that secondary teachers had much higher scores; but this can now be seen as due very largely to a sex difference. Whilst male secondary teachers probably hold less familiar views than their junior counterparts (the difference just exceeds the 5% probability level), women working in secondary schools achieve very high scores, indicating considerable reserve. If class taken is not considered, there appears to be no difference due to sex. This extreme view of female secondary staff has been masked by the opposing views of nursery-infant teachers, who are almost exclusively female.

Table 29: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Child-centered

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	10.022	1.045	83	10.374	0.995	152	2.500	0.012
Secondary	9.301	1.026	231	9.455	0.977	174	1.536	0.125
$\bar{z}$		5.240			8.364			
probability		0.000			0.000			

The difference between male and female teachers initially found largely disappears when class taken is held constant. Teachers of both sexes in secondary schools have similar scores on the Child-centered scale. Men working in junior schools have significantly lower scores than women, but the difference is not nearly so great as that



which exists between junior and secondary staffs, regardless of sex. Nursery-infant teachers have a score (women only, mean = 10.378,  $\sigma = 0.908$ ) which is almost identical to that of female teachers in junior schools. Whilst male junior teachers score rather lower than their colleagues, the overwhelming cause of the differences which exist amongst teachers on this scale is due to the class being taught.

Table 30: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Duties

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	8.280	1.124	83	8.347	0.993	152	0.450	0.653
Secondary	7.678	1.026	231	7.897	0.926	174	0.934	0.350
$\bar{z}$		4.231			4.199			
probability		0.000			0.000			

The differences apparently due to the sex of teachers on this scale completely disappear when class taken is held constant. Very considerable differences remain between both male and female teachers, whether they work in junior or secondary schools. Although female nursery-infant teachers score higher than any other group, their view is not significantly different from that of female junior teachers ( $\bar{z} = 0.389$ , probability = 0.698). The difference of opinion with regard to Duties lies entirely between primary and secondary schools.



Table 31: The relationship between class taken and the sex of teacher for the role area Instructor

	Male			Female			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Junior	6.821	1.167	83	7.162	1.063	152	2.199	0.023
Secondary	6.240	1.235	231	6.352	1.096	174	0.965	0.334
$\bar{z}$		3.811			6.744			
probability		0.000			0.000			

The initial analysis had indicated a considerable difference of opinion towards this scale between the two sexes: this analysis shows that this is almost completely due to the class being taught. Some difference exists at junior level. Female teachers score higher than male teachers, and the difference is significant. There is no sex difference in secondary schools. With a mean score of 7.017 ( $\sigma = 1.146$ ), women teachers in nursery and infant schools have opinions very similar to those of female junior teachers. The major cause of the variation amongst teachers which exists with respect to this scale once again turns out to be due to the class taken.

Response to the items not included in the six factor scales show that men and women teachers differ in at least some of their role concepts. The relevant findings are set out in table 32.

Table 32: An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with reference to gender and the class taught

No analysis by sex is possible for nursery and infant teachers. Mean scores for the various groups are shown only as an indication of feelings; analysis by the  $X^2$  test is independent of mean values.

Junior teachers

item no.	item	male mean	female mean	$X^2$	p
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.680	3.931	12.676	0.013
06	Possess a university degree	3.204	2.989	12.165	0.002
20	Condemn outlandish classroom methods	2.950	2.860	4.226	0.386
30	Possess an educational qualification	4.526	4.626	1.432	0.498

Secondary teachers

item no.	item	male mean	female mean	$X^2$	p
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.693	3.938	12.847	0.012
06	Possess a university degree	3.389	3.138	17.586	0.001
20	Condemn outlandish classroom methods	3.083	2.724	19.165	0.001
30	Possess an educational qualification	4.332	4.485	4.803	0.092

There is little difference between nursery-infant, junior and secondary teachers in their willingness to consider local feelings, but women in both junior and secondary schools are more favourably inclined than are men. Male teachers in secondary schools are less willing to consider unusual methods than female, though this difference is not found amongst junior teachers.

Some care is needed in interpreting responses to 'Possess a university degree', for many teachers, especially those in primary schools, saw this as irrelevant to their work. Secondary teachers were the



most in favour, and men teachers more so than women. Primary women teachers are, if anything, rather against the idea of graduate status. Some of this difference may be due to career teachers seeing a degree in promotional terms. On the other hand, an apparent sex difference towards educational qualifications disappears when junior and secondary staffs are considered separately. Junior staff as a whole are more in favour of this than are secondary; and it is seen as a relevant question by all teachers. The conclusion must be that all teachers see an educational qualification as being of the utmost importance; men, especially those in secondary schools, see university degrees as useful - at least, more so than women do. The effect that graduate status has upon role conception will become more apparent in the next analysis.

Summary. The differences due to sex found in the initial analysis have been completely reversed by holding the class taken constant. In the two role areas where no difference apparently existed, differences significant at least at the 5% level have been found. Men in junior schools score low on the Discipline scale; and women in secondary schools score high on the Familiarity scale, indicating their reserve. In two areas the differences are reduced considerably: men have significantly lower scores than women in junior schools on the scales Child-centered and Instructor. They tend to have attitudes closer to secondary school teachers. In the remaining role areas, Extra-curricular activities and Duties, all sex differences disappear completely. There is no role area left in which a difference due to the sex of teachers remains without some qualification concerning the class taken. However, items which possibly represent distinct areas of the teacher's



role do cause some differences between male and female teachers which are not all explained in terms of the class taken. These are particularly marked in secondary schools.

On the other hand, the considerable differences due to the class being taught have all been maintained. No differences on the scale Discipline have emerged, and the very significant differences between all three types of teacher with respect to the scale Extra-curricular activities remain. In every other role area, the similar views of nursery-infant and junior teachers are upheld, and the considerable differences between them and secondary teachers are confirmed.

6 - 4.4: Graduate/non-graduate status

A difference significant beyond the 5% level between graduate and non-graduate teachers was found on 16 of the 33 individual items; yet only on 29: Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient, were graduates more in favour.

When item scores were combined to give values on the six role scales, the following results were obtained:

Table 33: Scores given by graduate and non-graduate teachers to the factor scales of the role model

	Non-graduate N = 705		Graduate N = 176		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.240	1.111	8.964	1.341	7.972	0.005
Extra-curricular activities	7.509	0.989	7.386	0.990	2.186	0.140
Familiarity	6.692	1.501	6.795	1.637	0.649	0.421
Child-centered	9.975	1.067	9.497	1.114	27.771	0.000
Duties	8.175	1.070	7.740	1.001	23.920	0.000
Instructor	6.788	1.193	6.267	1.205	26.742	0.000

It turned out that there were very few graduates in nursery or infant schools (10, forming 4.3% of all such teachers), and only a limited number in junior schools (23, or 9.8%). Of the male respondents, 110 out of 315 held degrees or were of graduate-equivalent standing, whereas only 66 out of 566 female teachers replying were graduates. Because of this, all direct comparisons were fraught with difficulty. In view of the almost complete disappearance of sex differences when class taken is held constant, only breakdowns of graduate status by class taken were attempted. Again, since nursery-infant and

junior staffs gave similar replies to all the scales (save Extra-curricular activities), these two categories were generally combined, producing a more acceptable number of primary school graduate teachers (33) for further analysis. Even so, this is a limited number of results for analysis by the  $\bar{z}$  procedure; the significance of the difference between means will tend to be under-estimated.

Tables showing the breakdown of class taken by status of teacher for each of the six factor scales follow, together with an attempt at interpretation.

Table 34: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Discipline

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Primary	9.218	1.111	443	8.591	1.412	33	2.457	0.014
Secondary	9.272	1.143	262	9.046	1.314	143	1.725	0.084
$\bar{z}$		0.612			1.667			
probability		0.561			0.096			

Graduates teaching in primary schools gain a very low score on this scale: the difference between them and non-graduates is significant. Secondary graduates also gain a low score, but the difference with non-graduates fails to reach significance. Teachers in all three situations have been found to agree with respect to this scale, and this is true of non-graduates. The difference between primary and secondary graduates fails to reach significance, but when the small number of primary graduates is remembered, the size of this discrepancy is noteworthy.



Table 35: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Extra-curricular activities

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Nursery-infant	7.174	0.914	231	6.934	0.714	10	0.978	0.328
Junior	7.823	0.960	212	7.781	1.301	23	0.147	0.883
Secondary	7.552	0.987	262	7.354	0.934	143	1.992	0.047

Scores for nursery-infant and junior teachers have not been combined for this analysis because their opinions are known to differ so markedly; and this difference appears to be true for graduates working in primary schools. Even an increased sample size would not justify an amalgamation in this case. The difference at secondary level which just achieves significance seems acceptable, since it is based upon large samples. Non-graduates and graduates in both nursery-infant and junior schools seem to agree on involvement in extra-curricular activities, for although the comparisons are based on small samples, the differences between both means are quite small.

Non-graduate staff in the three situations show considerable differences towards Extra-curricular activities, as might be expected. Both are very significant:  $\bar{z}$  for junior and secondary teachers is 3.011, probability 0.003; and for nursery-infant and secondary teachers is 4.405, equivalent to a probability of 0.000. The  $\bar{z}$  for junior and secondary graduate teachers is 1.481 (probability, 0.139), and for nursery-infant and secondary graduates, 1.676 (probability, 0.094). It would seem that graduates do not share the marked differences their non-graduate colleagues have towards extra-curricular activities.

The differences between the mean scores of graduates are larger than the corresponding non-graduate ones, however, and the limited number of primary school graduates is known to reduce the significance of these differences. It would be prudent to regard these findings as inconclusive. Despite the small number of nursery-infant graduates, the difference of opinion between them and junior graduate teachers seems confirmed:  $\bar{z} = 2.317$ , probability = 0.021.

Table 36: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Familiarity

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Primary	6.484	1.439	443	6.226	1.840	33	0.776	0.438
Secondary	7.049	1.566	262	6.920	1.564	143	0.791	0.429
$\bar{z}$		4.761			2.007			
probability		0.000			0.045			

The difference between non-graduate and graduate teachers in both primary and secondary schools disappears when class is held constant. The differences between classes are both maintained. Graduates seem to have the same attitudes towards familiarity as non-graduates.

Table 37: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Child-centered

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Primary	9.434	0.851	443	9.021	0.801	33	0.919	0.358
Secondary	9.084	0.996	262	8.931	1.058	143	1.429	0.153
$\bar{z}$		4.847			0.538			
probability		0.000			0.591			



The difference between non-graduate and graduate teachers in secondary schools goes when the class taken is held constant, and so does that between the corresponding primary teachers, although it is much larger. The difference between non-graduates in primary and secondary schools is maintained; but that between graduates disappears, and the size of the probability is sufficient to dispel any doubts caused by sample size.

Table 38: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Duties

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Primary	8.367	1.070	443	8.210	0.885	33	0.954	0.340
Secondary	7.849	1.020	262	7.631	1.001	143	2.075	0.034
$\bar{z}$		6.388			3.261			
probability		0.000			0.001			

The differences between primary and secondary teachers remain, regardless of teacher status. Primary school non-graduates and graduates have similar opinions about Duties; but a difference exists amongst secondary teachers. Because of the numbers involved, there can be no doubt that secondary graduates score lower than non-graduates with respect to the scale Duties.



Table 39: The relationship between class taken and status of teacher for the role area: Instructor

	Non-graduate			Graduate			$\bar{z}$	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	N	mean	$\sigma$	N		
Primary	7.053	1.161	443	6.612	1.066	33	2.246	0.025
Secondary	6.344	1.166	262	6.187	1.194	143	1.271	0.204
$\bar{z}$		7.802			1.991			
probability		0.000			0.047			

Although that between graduates is small, the differences between both groups of primary and secondary teachers remain. Secondary teachers, graduates or not, are agreed on their attitude; but the difference between the scores of graduates and non-graduates in primary schools is significant. Primary school graduate teachers are less well-disposed to the factor scale Instructor.

Table 40: An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with respect to graduate status

Mean scores are shown only as an indication of conceptions; analysis by the  $X^2$  test is independent of mean values.

item no.	item	non-grad. mean	grad. mean	$X^2$	p
06	Possess a university degree	3.020	3.415	49.112	0.000
30	Possess an educational qualification	4.474	4.297	15.344	0.000

It is understandable that non-graduates should see an educational qualification as being of even more importance to them than graduates; but whilst graduates are more in favour of degrees than non-graduates,

they still see an educational qualification as being far more important. A large proportion of teachers see degrees as irrelevant: 35% of non-graduates, and even 12% of graduates, thought this.

### Summary

The limited number of graduates working in primary schools makes a totally satisfactory analysis difficult. Control by the class taken reduces the differences caused by graduate status, but does not remove all of them. Graduates in secondary schools are likely to feel less obliged to carry out extra-curricular activities and other teaching duties, and may also favour a less formal standard of discipline. In primary schools, graduates see their role as less like the public image of teacher than non-graduates do.

Perhaps the most important finding is that in every instance graduates have scored lower than non-graduates (save on the scale Familiarity - which is being interpreted here in a reversed sense). This certainly shows that they are more practical and less idealist in their conceptions than non-graduates. It does not necessarily mean that they are less aware of the diffuseness of the teacher's role: this would be best measured in terms of the 'irrelevant' answers made.

#### 6 - 4.5: Length of Teaching Experience

Though chosen arbitrarily, the length categories offered to respondents proved to give very satisfactory numbers in each, with 83 in even the smallest group - those with more than 20 years experience. In the initial analysis by individual items, 14 produced differences in response significant at the 5% level, 11 of them beyond the 1% level.

When item scores are amalgamated to form factor scores, reference to table 41 shows that experience brings significant changes of role cognition on four of the six scales.

Teachers with less than one year's experience give the lowest scores to the Discipline scale, consistent with a 'soft' approach. Those with less than two years' experience have much higher scores, and the difference between them and probationary teachers is significant ( $\bar{z} = 2.189$ , probability = 0.029). This could well represent a general attempt to tighten up a standard of discipline found to be too slack after a year's experience. After two years, more moderate scores are given, but teachers with the most experience also tend to gain high scores, indicating much firmer discipline.

Teachers of all lengths of experience show very similar responses to the scale Extra-curricular activities: the importance of education outside the classroom seems equally agreed by teachers of all ages.



Table 41: Scores given by teachers with varying lengths of experience to the factor scales of the role model

	Less than 1 year N = 117	Less than 2 years N = 128	Less than 5 years N = 207	5 - 10 years N = 220	10 - 20 years N = 126	More than 20 years N = 83	F	probability
	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$		
Discipline	8.990 1.221	9.327 1.169	9.102 1.212	9.146 1.164	9.241 0.988	9.459 1.165	2.283	0.045
Extra-curricular activities	7.499 0.859	7.413 1.036	7.484 1.051	7.497 1.033	7.574 9.889	7.412 0.971	0.441	0.820
Familiarity	6.419 1.533	6.731 1.364	6.503 1.363	6.613 1.599	7.117 1.640	7.268 1.565	5.944	0.000
Child-centred	9.673 1.100	9.719 1.095	9.812 1.121	9.975 1.064	10.106 1.155	9.986 0.900	3.163	0.008
Duties	8.248 1.140	7.971 1.092	7.978 1.059	7.992 1.051	8.331 0.973	8.207 1.087	3.157	0.008
Instructor	6.523 1.074	6.715 1.226	6.642 1.135	6.646 1.321	6.722 1.143	7.016 1.336	1.800	0.110

Findings from the scale Familiarity are very significant, and parallel those from the scale Discipline. Teachers with less than one year's experience have the lowest scores - indicating the greatest intimacy - and those with the longest experience, the highest scores - indicating reserve. Again, there is a sharp change in score after one year, almost indicating an attempt to compensate for too liberal a start: here, the difference fails to reach significance ( $\bar{z} = 1.668$ , probability = 0.096).

The Child-centered scale produces the lowest scores from teachers with less than one year's experience. After this, scores generally increase with increasing length of service, the relationship being the closest to a linear relationship of any of the six. The overall difference is very significant.

A considerable change in role cognition after the first year of teaching is also registered by the scale Duties. Teachers with very limited experience feel they ought to undertake many school duties; but before their second year is over, they are much less favourably inclined: the difference between these two groups just fails to reach significance ( $\bar{z} = 1.927$ , probability = 0.056). After several years of teaching, attitudes become more favourable again.

Replies made to the final scale, Instructor, fail to show any significant difference with increasing experience. Nevertheless, the very favourable attitude of the oldest teachers is remarkable; and there may again be slight evidence of a distinct change after only one year of experience.

Table 42: An analysis of replies made to individual role items, made with respect to length of teaching experience and responsibility

Item no.	item	length of teaching experience						X <sup>2</sup>	p
		1 yr mean	2 yr mean	5 yr mean	5-10 yr mean	10-20 yr mean	20 yr mean		
04	Alternate interesting work	3.449	3.517	3.523	3.495	3.884	3.918	33.455	0.004
30	Possess an educational qualification	4.195	4.508	4.447	4.538	4.557	4.595	27.344	0.005
33	Take part in local politics	2.806	2.675	2.717	2.619	2.563	2.390	25.643	0.004

Item no.	item	responsibility				X <sup>2</sup>	p
		prob-ation-er mean	scale 1 post mean	scale 2 post mean	scale 3 & 4 posts mean		
30	Possess and educational qualification	4.167	4.495	4.561	4.561	34.57	0.000



The length of teaching experience also influenced the replies made to some of the items not contained in the role scales. The relevant information is contained in table 42. The most experienced teachers were more in favour of alternating interesting and less interesting work, and of keeping out of local politics (though, with the low number of worthwhile answers, any answer to this item must be viewed with caution). Teachers in their first year of work are well aware of the value of an educational qualification, but even after only one year of experience, they become noticeably still more in favour.

#### 6 - 4.5: Responsibility

Responsibility as defined in the L.E.A.'s staffing returns could be grouped into seven categories. These were as follows: the number of teachers in each category is shown in brackets:-

Probationers	(114)	Scale 4	(41)
Scale 1	(196)	Deputy Heads	(42)
Scale 2	(296)	N.N.E.B.	(51)
Scale 3	(110)		

Some other variables are obviously closely related to responsibility. The more senior posts were held by teachers who had the longest experience, though no less than five with deputy head or scale 4 posts admitted to having less than 5 years experience (and one probationer was apparently in the third year of teaching!). The class taught is less clearly related. Probationers and holders of scale 1 and 2 posts are likely to be found in proportion in all three types of school; but scale 3 posts are largely restricted to secondary schools. Scale 4

posts are exclusively found in secondary schools, whilst the deputy heads surveyed all came from junior schools. One or two nursery nurses appeared to be working in infant schools, otherwise these ladies were not found outside nursery establishments. No attempt has been made to untangle the effects which such variables may have on responsibility.

Nine individual items produced responses which were different at the 5% level measured by the  $X^2$  test, and only four of these remained so at the 1% level. To help interpretation of these initial tests, the N.N.E.B. returns were omitted, and holders of scale 3 and 4 posts were combined with deputy heads. This group of senior teachers proved to be very significantly more in favour of the following items than their junior colleagues:

- 08: Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticism by parents
- 09: Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom
- 24: Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils
- 30: Possess a recognised qualification in Education.

When items had been combined to form scores on the six factor scales, table 43 was produced.

No significant difference emerges from scores on the Discipline scale, though the very low score of probationers corresponds well to the score of teachers with less than one year's experience.

Table 43: Scores given by teachers with varying responsibilities to the factor scales of the role model

	Scale 1		Scale 2		Scale 3		Scale 4		Deputy heads		N.N.E.B.		Probationer		probability	
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		F
Discipline	9.266	1.152	9.268	1.070	9.261	1.259	9.179	1.349	9.231	1.065	8.849	1.186	9.064	1.230	1.375	0.222
Extra-curricular activities	7.332	0.966	7.462	1.026	7.745	0.903	7.499	0.895	7.941	1.106	7.412	0.803	7.421	0.997	3.761	0.001
Familiarity	6.730	1.345	6.744	1.530	7.049	1.593	6.873	1.826	6.436	1.548	6.267	1.488	6.473	1.600	2.427	0.025
Child-centered	9.735	1.083	10.081	1.121	9.752	0.875	9.631	0.970	10.267	1.051	10.330	0.993	9.573	1.090	7.042	0.000
Duties	7.951	1.013	8.058	1.062	8.118	1.050	7.986	0.914	8.696	1.016	8.374	0.978	8.057	1.247	3.586	0.002
Instructor	6.727	1.248	6.831	1.162	6.438	1.366	6.372	1.072	7.181	1.222	6.414	1.089	6.655	1.115	3.649	0.001



Contrary to what might have been expected from the finding with length of service, responsibility produced very significantly differing scores for Extra-curricular activities. The intervening effect of class taken is shown by the responses of scale 4 post holders, deputy heads, and nursery nurses, who represent secondary, junior and nursery-infant schools respectively. Nevertheless, the lowest score of all comes from scale 1 post holders, who are most likely to be found proportionately in the three situations.

Scores on the scale Familiarity just reach significance. By far the lowest score is gained by nursery nurses, which is consistent with the intimate atmosphere likely to be found in schools for the youngest children. It is conceivable that if their contribution was removed, the differences between other teachers would lose its significance.

As might be expected, nursery nurses give the most favourable response to Child-centered items. Deputy heads from junior schools also score highly, in contrast to the senior secondary teachers. The lowest scores of all from probationary teachers agrees with the finding from the previous analysis that responses to this scale increase with length of experience.

The contrast between deputy heads and scale 4 post holders is again evident in the response to the scale Duties, the former being exceptionally in favour of such activities. Holders of scale 1 posts are least in favour - a finding which matches that from the scale Extra-curricular activities very closely.

With the last scale, Instructor, a contrast between deputy heads and scale 4 post holders appears, who give the highest and lowest scores respectively. Teachers with differing lengths of teaching experience all gave very similar responses to this scale: the significant differences found here must be due very largely to class taken.

Just one item not contained in the factor scales caused significant differences. Table 42 shows that probationary teachers are in favour of educational qualifications, but that after a year, they value this still more. This effectively only repeats the finding made in relation to experience; the other differences reported there no longer cause significant changes when responsibility is considered. The relationship between these two variables is not very close.

6 - 4.6: Being a parent

Replies to this variable were sought under three categories: no children of one's own; children - but not of school age; and children - of school age. Because the question was set in only two of the questionnaires and there proved to be few teachers who had children who were not of school age, this data has been analysed simply as having children or not having children.

Seven of the items individually provoked differences between parents and non-parents which were significant at the 5% level. When factor scores were calculated, those of only one - Child-centered - was found to have significant differences present. The findings are set out in table 44:

Table 44: Scores given by teachers with and without children of their own to the factor scales of the role model

	Without children		With children		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
	N = 196		N = 126			
Discipline	9.234	1.121	9.129	1.184	0.627	0.535
Extra-curricular activities	7.417	0.872	7.445	1.123	0.842	0.432
Familiarity	6.821	1.589	6.787	1.131	0.529	0.590
Child-centered	9.704	1.131	10.092	1.179	4.268	0.015
Duties	8.192	1.037	8.187	1.121	0.230	0.794
Instructor	6.781	1.254	6.607	1.215	0.741	0.478



6 - 4.7: Personality Factors

Distribution of the scores on both personality inventories proved to be skewed, the extrovert scale positively, the neurotic scale negatively. Lumping results together as indicated earlier gave rather smaller groups of 'introvert' and 'neurotic' teachers than might be expected, but not too small for analysis. The relationship of scores on the six factor scales for both personality dimensions is shown in tables 45 and 46.

Table 45: Scores given by teachers with personalities assessed along the extrovert/introvert dimension to the factor scales of the role model

	Introvert N = 68		N = 341		Extrovert N = 232		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.140	1.146	9.195	1.158	9.149	1.210	0.137	0.872
Extra-curricular activities	7.398	1.132	7.436	0.968	7.654	0.943	3.934	0.020
Familiarity	6.874	1.636	6.779	1.509	6.544	1.478	2.150	0.117
Child-centered	9.893	1.145	9.923	1.065	9.876	1.082	0.137	0.872
Duties	7.986	0.951	8.077	1.034	8.045	1.135	0.220	0.803
Instructor	6.572	1.161	6.729	1.199	6.675	1.254	0.512	0.600

Table 46: Scores given by teachers with personalities assessed along the neurotic/stable dimension to the factor scales of the role model

	Stable N = 252		N = 283		Neurotic N = 106		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.103	1.172	9.214	1.208	9.278	1.088	0.734	0.481
Extra-curricular activities	7.532	1.009	7.535	0.920	7.395	0.980	0.877	0.417
Familiarity	6.823	1.627	6.628	1.434	6.622	1.437	1.294	0.275
Child-centered	9.987	1.183	9.852	1.006	9.840	0.999	1.258	0.285
Duties	8.114	1.108	8.007	1.042	8.048	1.002	0.674	0.510
Instructor	6.781	1.138	6.648	1.246	6.603	1.299	1.145	0.319

Four individual items produced answers significantly different at the 5% level amongst teachers judged on the neurotic/stable dimension; only one of which, O6: Possess a university degree, favoured by stable teachers, remained so at the 1% level. Only three items gave significantly different answers amongst teachers judged on the extrovert/introvert dimension, none of which remained at the 1% level.

Accordingly, it is not surprising that only one factor scale produced a significant difference: extrovert staff are more in favour of extra-curricular activities. Introverted teachers score more highly on the Familiarity scale, indicating their reserve, but the difference does not reach significance. The important result here is that, in general, the personality of teachers seems to make no effect upon their role cognitions.

#### 6 - 4.8: Educational Opinions

The distribution of raw scores given by these three scales has already been given, and their low mean values, compared to those of a number of studies, have been noted. After breaking the returns down into three groups, representing the two extreme views and a larger median group, further investigation showed that scores on the Natural and Radical scales were quite independent of biographical data, confirming Cortis' opinion of 1972.



The scores on the Tender scale proved to have a number of interesting relationships. There were more male teachers in the high-scoring, tender-minded group than expected (1). Teachers with the longest experience tended to have low scores (2), indicating a tough-minded attitude; and there were more nursery and infant teachers in the group of low scorers than expected (3). Graduates also tended to gain high scores, but the difference just fails to make significance (4) and it is probably attributable to interaction between male and secondary teachers, who also gain the higher scores.

These findings sound strange if the original names of the poles of this scale - tender and tough-minded - are retained. Butcher's admission (in Oliver and Butcher, 1962) that the terms theoretical and practical are also appropriate makes more sense. The finding now is that young teachers, males, working in secondary schools, are the more theoretical; and that older women teachers, in nursery and infant schools, are the more practical.

Few individual items brought widely differing answers from teachers separated on the Natural scale: four achieved significance. Combined to form the factor scales, just scores on the Child-centered scale were markedly different, but this was at a very significant level. Ideal-minded teachers seem to score very high on the Child-centered scale, in contrast to all other teachers.

- (1)  $X^2 = 11.070$ ; probability = 0.004 (2)  $X^2 = 45.901$ ; probability = 0.000  
(3)  $X^2 = 14.133$ ; probability = 0.007 (4)  $X^2 = 5.763$ ; probability = 0.056



Table 47: Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Natural dimension to the factor scales of the role model

	Ideal-minded N = 64		N = 299		Natural-minded N = 79		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.225	1.189	9.153	1.207	9.188	1.080	0.109	0.987
Extra-curricular activities	7.437	0.989	7.438	1.037	7.582	0.928	0.665	0.515
Familiarity	6.749	1.597	6.742	1.525	6.733	1.356	0.002	0.998
Child-centered	10.325	1.134	9.770	1.031	9.883	0.956	7.616	0.001
Duties	7.970	1.002	7.910	1.059	7.879	1.061	0.136	0.873
Instructor	6.689	1.317	6.567	1.169	6.480	1.158	0.548	0.579

Teachers separated on the dimension Tenderminded gave responses significantly different to eight of the individual items, and after these had been combined, three of the factor scales showed wide differences of opinion. Interpretation of these shown in table 48, was simple and made good sense. Tough-minded (or practical) teachers have much higher scores on the scale Discipline. They have much higher scores on the scale Instructor, indicating conservative teaching and formal manners; and they also achieve high scores on the Child-centered scale, appearing to favour wide-ability grouping, individual achievements and to reject mark lists.

Table 48: Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Tender-minded dimension to the factor scales of the role model

	Tough-minded	N = 254	Tender-minded	F	probability
	N = 87		N = 99		
	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$		
Discipline	9.411 0.873	9.228 1.216	8.818 1.233	6.755	0.001
Extra-curricular activities	7.417 0.977	7.467 1.014	7.508 1.040	0.187	0.830
Familiarity	6.837 1.542	6.755 1.518	6.593 1.432	0.667	0.514
Child-centered	10.189 0.956	9.818 1.029	9.712 1.378	5.533	0.004
Duties	8.023 1.110	7.930 1.068	7.778 0.950	1.324	0.267
Instructor	6.818 1.272	6.626 1.433	6.193 0.983	7.399	0.001

The dimension Radical/Conservative produced the largest number of significant differences of all the variables examined. Although only twelve individual items received answers significantly different from teachers separated in this way (as compared to 22 caused by sex), the scores gained on all six factor scales showed considerable differences of opinion. They are shown in table 49.

Table 49: Scores given by teachers separated by their attitudes on the Radical dimension to the factor scales of the role model

	Con-servative	N = 271	Radical	F	probability
	N = 82		N = 89		
	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$	mean $\sigma$		
Discipline	9.616 1.005	9.177 1.135	8.712 1.299	13.278	0.000
Extra-curricular activities	7.130 1.009	7.422 0.980	7.874 0.970	12.719	0.000
Familiarity	7.151 1.572	6.795 1.394	6.191 1.619	9.535	0.000
Child-centered	9.639 1.222	9.792 0.999	10.307 0.910	10.899	0.000
Duties	7.707 1.129	7.878 0.996	8.228 1.078	5.856	0.003
Instructor	6.792 1.397	6.591 1.094	6.294 1.212	3.929	0.020



Again, the differences are all well marked and easy to interpret. Conservative teachers gain the higher scores on Discipline, Familiarity and Instructor, indicating they prefer tight control, less intimate methods, and a clear delineation of work. Radical teachers score more highly in the role areas Extra-curricular activities, Child-centered, and Duties.

6 - 4.9: School Climate

Divided according to their scores on the scale Esprit, teachers gave significantly differing replies to three of the role factor scales:

Table 50: Scores given by teachers separated by their scores on the Esprit scale to the factor scales of the role model

	Down-hearted N = 103		N = 416		Confident N = 135		F	probability
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.233	1.058	9.109	1.213	9.352	1.129	2.317	0.099
Extra-curricular activities	7.317	1.111	7.486	0.953	7.744	0.915	6.065	0.003
Familiarity	6.723	1.564	6.713	1.485	6.562	1.544	0.548	0.578
Child-centered	9.587	0.941	9.901	0.950	10.037	0.829	6.266	0.002
Duties	7.776	1.069	7.934	1.005	8.576	1.051	23.976	0.000
Instructor	6.666	1.296	6.635	1.190	6.902	1.201	2.513	0.082

The teachers who have a high regard for their school are more favourable towards both Extra-curricular activities and Duties, suggesting that they are more willing to work outside the 9.00 to 4.00 hours. They have a higher score in the Child-centered role area, indicating a preference for wide-ability grouping and individual pacing



of work. The most confident teachers also score well on the scale Instructor, suggesting they welcome a clear delineation of their work, though this difference does not reach significance.

These differences all arise on scales which are known to be strongly influenced by class taken, and it may well be that should this variable be held constant, some of them would disappear. Such a control will have to be applied to the final measure of School climate.

Teachers divided into groups by the scale Intimacy also gave significantly different answers to three of the factor scales. Those who found their school more intimate gained higher scores on the scales Extra-curricular activities and Familiarity, and also on the scale Duties. The findings are set out in table 51.

Table 51: Scores given by teachers separated according to the Intimacy scale to the factor scales of the role model

	Aloof				Intimate		F	proba- bility
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
	N = 134		N = 404		N = 116			
Discipline	9.189	1.110	9.158	1.201	9.242	1.167	0.236	0.790
Extra-curricular activities	7.151	1.067	7.559	0.941	7.767	0.897	14.039	0.000
Familiarity	7.034	1.536	6.679	1.532	6.295	1.296	7.615	0.001
Child-centered	9.775	0.995	9.899	0.920	9.936	0.903	0.987	0.373
Duties	7.646	1.058	8.100	1.006	8.307	1.129	14.124	0.000
Instructor	6.780	1.215	6.682	1.219	6.641	1.190	0.468	0.627

Perception of School climate depends largely upon scores given to the Esprit test, so it is not surprising to find that teachers grouped into the six school climates differ significantly upon the same three factor scores: Extra-curricular activities, Child-centered, and Duties. The results are given in table 52, and, because of the effect which the class taken may have upon this division into School climate, this is followed by table 53, in which the returns of nursery-infant, junior and secondary teachers are analysed independently.

Before the control of Class taken is applied, four role areas produced scores differing significantly amongst the School climate groups. Attitudes towards the scales Discipline and Familiarity are similar, regardless of School climate perception. Teachers who see their school as being towards the open end of the School climate range are more favourable towards Extra-curricular activities, Child-centered methods, and Duties. They also gain the highest scores on the scale Instructor, though differences here only just reach significance.

When variations due to the class taken are controlled, the differences on the scale Instructor disappear. Only the differences on Child-centered remain in all three groups: teachers who see their working environment as open rather than closed are likely to have more child-centered attitudes, regardless of the age of the children they teach.

The other differences significant at the secondary level disappear, but they remain at both junior and nursery-infant level: no real surprise since teachers in these schools seem to have a number of similar

Table 52: Scores given by teachers separated according to their perceptions of School climate to the factor scales of the role model

	Open N = 85		Autonomous N = 133		Controlled N = 146		Familiar N = 146		Paternal N = 99		Closed N = 42		F	proba- bility
	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$	mean	$\sigma$		
Discipline	9.370	1.115	9.218	1.138	9.160	1.309	9.117	1.160	8.996	1.142	9.285	1.006	1.117	0.350
Extra-curricular activities	7.924	0.925	7.567	0.881	7.534	0.928	7.448	0.956	7.284	1.042	7.314	0.971	4.985	0.000
Familiarity	6.489	1.518	6.442	1.384	6.713	1.637	6.927	1.434	6.760	1.561	6.641	1.487	1.799	0.111
Child-centered	10.569	0.900	9.980	0.969	9.956	1.066	9.715	1.038	0.677	0.990	9.402	1.190	11.538	0.000
Duties	8.755	1.034	8.084	1.060	8.133	0.944	7.806	0.999	7.773	0.952	7.770	1.137	12.416	0.000
Instructor	6.933	1.102	6.559	1.262	6.862	1.238	6.600	1.123	6.496	1.284	6.757	1.171	2.209	0.044

Table 53: Scores given by Nursery-infant, Junior and Secondary teachers, separated according to their perceptions of School climate, to the factor scales of the role model (page 234)



	Open	Autonomous	Controlled	Familiar	Paternal	Closed	
	N = 39 mean $\sigma$	N = 33 mean $\sigma$	N = 40 mean $\sigma$	N = 37 mean $\sigma$	N = 18 mean $\sigma$	N = 10 mean $\sigma$	F proba- bility
<u>Nursery-infant teachers</u>							
Discipline	9.589 0.975	9.448 1.145	9.058 1.280	8.860 1.090	8.623 1.187	9.462 1.056	3.075 0.011
Extra-curricular activities	7.675 0.868	6.959 0.846	7.385 0.993	7.165 0.952	6.777 0.772	7.129 0.551	3.789 0.003
Familiarity	6.292 1.526	6.347 1.339	6.316 1.303	6.449 1.347	6.183 1.698	6.197 1.507	0.113 0.989
Child-centered	10.713 0.843	10.331 0.983	10.584 0.746	10.034 0.778	10.347 0.783	10.492 0.670	3.052 0.012
Duties	8.905 1.095	8.084 1.019	8.411 0.885	8.154 0.724	7.967 1.137	8.443 1.154	3.565 0.004
Instructor	6.875 1.313	6.954 1.293	7.054 1.163	6.755 0.802	6.947 1.360	7.426 1.139	0.621 0.684
<u>Junior teachers</u>							
	N = 30 mean $\sigma$	N = 33 mean $\sigma$	N = 47 mean $\sigma$	N = 32 mean $\sigma$	N = 21 mean $\sigma$	N = 11 mean $\sigma$	F proba- bility
Discipline	9.008 1.149	9.126 0.871	9.211 1.125	9.020 1.202	8.962 1.055	9.503 0.906	0.551 0.737
Extra-curricular activities	8.268 0.970	8.078 0.769	7.608 0.968	7.493 1.029	7.488 1.055	7.631 1.209	3.412 0.006
Familiarity	6.289 1.375	6.286 1.403	6.725 1.604	6.676 1.388	6.943 1.070	6.098 1.359	1.174 0.324
Child-centered	10.837 0.784	10.356 0.874	10.217 1.094	10.115 1.010	9.971 0.765	9.809 1.112	3.291 0.007
Duties	8.834 0.975	8.372 1.114	8.230 0.950	7.783 0.984	7.959 0.857	7.878 0.937	4.329 0.001
Instructor	7.146 0.819	7.045 1.047	7.257 1.293	6.920 1.078	6.875 1.017	7.329 1.190	0.662 0.653
<u>Secondary teachers</u>							
	N = 16 mean $\sigma$	N = 67 mean $\sigma$	N = 59 mean $\sigma$	N = 77 mean $\sigma$	N = 60 mean $\sigma$	N = 21 mean $\sigma$	F proba- bility
Discipline	9.518 1.260	9.151 1.246	9.100 1.473	9.281 1.164	9.120 1.151	9.087 1.040	0.380 0.862
Extra-curricular activities	7.887 0.813	7.614 0.774	7.576 0.851	7.565 0.910	7.365 1.074	7.236 0.994	1.502 0.189
Familiarity	7.332 1.553	6.565 1.405	6.973 1.829	7.260 1.424	6.869 1.644	7.136 1.439	1.704 0.134
Child-centered	9.716 0.759	9.623 0.831	9.322 0.883	9.395 1.064	9.373 0.996	8.671 0.913	3.638 0.003
Duties	8.240 0.870	7.887 1.027	7.866 0.924	7.647 1.085	7.651 0.920	7.392 1.109	1.989 0.080
Instructor	6.674 0.979	6.126 1.207	6.416 1.115	6.392 1.236	6.229 1.292	6.138 0.845	0.942 0.454

role conceptions. Teachers in the more open primary schools score significantly higher on Extra-curricular activities and Duties. One other significant score also appears: nursery-infant teachers in open schools favour stricter forms of discipline. Whilst the statistical significance of this is not strong, it is one of the few variables which has brought any extreme difference amongst teachers in the role area Discipline.

Chapter: 7

Discussion of Results from the Main Investigation



## Chapter 7: Discussion of Results from the Main Investigation

The purpose of this chapter is to relate the findings presented in the previous chapter to those of other workers and to the hypotheses developed in chapter three. First, however, the attempts at developing a role model need reviewing.

### 7 - 1: The Role Model

Some studies have deliberately set out to examine a limited perspective of the teacher's role: both Grace (1972) and Kelly (1970) restricted themselves to four areas. Others have attempted a more comprehensive survey, using similar numbers of items, grouped into a variety of role areas - two (Gibson, 1970); three (Cohen, 1965); or four (Finlayson and Cohen, 1967). It has not always been made clear whether the role areas were selected before the items were written; or if they were decided after examination of an item pool. Still more conservative workers have kept to lists of items without any attempt at relating them to a role model (Coulson and Cox, 1977; Leese, 1977). These studies have used similar, if not identical items, but their groupings differ. An idea of the confusion can be gained from the table:

Item	Author and Ascription			
	Cohen (1965)	Finlayson and Cohen (1967)	Gibson (1970)	This study
Teach the 3 R's	Director of learning	General aims	Instrumental order	Teacher
Expect children to be of similar ability	Director of learning	Organisation	Instrumental order	Child-centered
Guard against showing affection	Director of learning	Classroom behaviour	(not set)	Familiarity
Meet parents informally in the community	School/home liaison	(not set)	Expressive order	Extra-curricular activities

The weakness of such studies lies in fitting items to a particular role: an item may be considered to be a part of several roles. The attempts of judges to fit items to a given role schedule in this study were unsuccessful: the process is too subjective. This finding has relevance to the idea of role flexibility, postulated by Hoyle (1969) amongst others. It shows clearly the difficulties facing workers who used interaction techniques. The factor analysis used in this investigation places an item with others into homogeneous, yet distinct, groups; but despite rotation of the factors, several items cannot be placed with any certainty. Table 22 shows that seven items have noticeable loadings on at least three factors, and that six items are not accommodated on any of the factors extracted.

The six factors extracted by factor analysis account for no more than 36% of the variance present in even the items selected for consideration. The majority of the variance is contained in unique items, and so offers further evidence of the diffuseness of the teacher's role. Startup (1972) found that the six factors he ex-

tracted from students' perceptions of a university lecturer's role accounted for 52.3% of the variance, implying a more coherent role structure, and offering some evidence in favour of Westwood's suggestion (1969) that most difficulty in perceiving role will be found for situations near the middle of the teaching hierarchy.

An objective assessment of so little of the total role structure may hardly seem worthwhile. However, it does offer some indication of how much of the teacher's role can be described in a series of distinct role statements - something left unconsidered in many other studies. Furthermore, since these role statements have been selected for their controversial nature, they are likely to be much more representative of the differences which exist between role conceptions of various groups of teachers.

The finding that so much of the difference in role conception is due to the age of the children being taught is no great surprise, but it does illustrate the dangers of making subjective ascriptions. No single observer is likely to be equally familiar with the intricacies of role appropriate to all three education sectors. There might even be a case for re-analysing these results in order to erect separate role models for at least the primary and secondary sectors. However, the present model has done all that might be expected: it makes good sense, stands up to analysis by biographical data well, but reveals differences in role conception where they might be expected. Despite their low reliability, the scales which have been used have revealed differences effectively, and allowed a number of comparisons to be made within the context of this study. They would not be



suitable for predictive purposes, but this was not the intention; it does not detract from their immediate value.

A distinctive feature of the research design was the opportunity for teachers to show when they considered an item to be irrelevant to their work. Irrelevant answers formed 5.8% of all replies in this investigation, less than the 8.2% recorded by Musgrove and Taylor in their study (1965). In both studies, some items relating to social matters have been considered irrelevant by at least some teachers, but only in this study have some of those relating to educational content been considered outside the teacher's role. The contrary finding is due to the levels at which the studies were organised. One of Musgrove and Taylor's aims is 'Instruction in Subjects (imparting information and promoting understanding of a body of knowledge).' The equivalent in this study is given by two items: 'Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher' and 'Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.' It is understandable that a teacher could find either one or the other (but not both) of these items irrelevant, though no teacher is likely to reject the idea of 'Instruction in Subjects'. In terms of the theory set out in figure 1, Musgrove and Taylor's study lies well to the left of the diagram, whilst the measure of role diffusion taken in this study is at a position on the extreme right.

7 - 2: The age of children taught and sex of the teacher

The first research hypothesis, that the age of the pupils taught is related to profound differences in role conception, is clearly supported. Of these role sales, only one distinguishes between nursery-infant and junior teachers, but five distinguish between all primary teachers and those in secondary schools. The traditional differences are confirmed: nursery and infant teachers have the most open and child-centered attitudes, and secondary teachers, the least. But it would be quite wrong to think of junior teachers as occupying an intermediate position. Their concepts are indistinguishable from those of nursery and infant teachers on four role areas, and they have an entirely unique concept on a fifth - Extra-curricular activities. The change in atmosphere experienced by a child in moving to a secondary school must be considerable greater than that met on entry into a junior school, even allowing for the greater age of the pupils concerned. These findings are in agreement with those of Baird (1965) who found little difference between the behaviour of nursery teachers and those of older infant children; and of Gibson (1970) and Cortis (1972), who both demonstrated the difference between primary and secondary teachers (and assumed that junior and nursery-infant teachers' concepts were alike).

The consistent views of discipline shared by all teachers are encouraging. A reason commonly given for teaching in junior schools is 'I'd never be able to gain respect in a secondary school', sometimes expressed as 'I moved into junior work because I wanted to get on with teaching rather than keeping order.' It is very possible that dis-



cipline is harder to enforce in secondary schools, but at least all teachers see it as equally important to their work. Such a finding underlines a limitation of this study. It has measured the strength of role conception of teachers, but this may have little relationship to the ease with which they can turn their concept into practice.

Although investigations concerning the sex of teachers and their role really forms a part of the second hypothesis, it will be more convenient to discuss the findings here, for when the class being taught is taken into consideration, gender has little influence upon role concept. Women, at least those teaching in junior and secondary schools, are more ready to consider local feelings in their work than are men. Nursery-infant teachers are even more concerned. The difference may have something to do with women's interests in general being more related to the home and the local area; it has not been reported before. The only other role area on which men and women in all schools differ concerns university degrees: doubtless men are more in favour of these because they offer opportunities for promotion.

The few other differences are restricted to a particular type of school. The lower scores of men working in junior schools on the scales Discipline, Child-centered and Instructor are all closer to those of secondary teachers than are the scores of their women colleagues - but the differences are never great and might well disappear if these staff were further divided into teachers of upper and lower junior classes. Men are more often found taking upper junior classes, and in this position, their different conception of role will do much to prepare children for the new environment they will face in a secondary school.



From the teachers' point of view, a more serious difference in concept is that between men and women in secondary schools over the sociability they should show, measured by the scale Familiarity. Again, the difference is not large: the greater reserve shown by women had originally been masked by the understandably more open attitudes of nursery-infant teachers. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) report that women teachers find pupil misbehaviour more stressful than men. It may be that, faced with pupils who are beginning to become socially aware, women feel obliged to erect a barrier. A later phase of this study shows that teachers' perceptions of constraint in this role area are restricted to secondary schools; but that, within these schools, they are very considerable.

There seem to be no other differences in role conception that can be clearly related to the sex of the teacher. Many previous studies have had a similar finding. In a specific study, Kniveton (1976) reported that sex appeared to make no difference to a variety of attitudes held by teachers. It is possible that the popular idea that men and women teachers differ in the conception of their work may arise from an association of ideas - that junior teachers are expected to be women, and secondary teachers to be men. Pupils themselves seem aware of differences: those in junior schools are always apprehensive of their first male teacher. In a study of student teaching practice assessment, Middlebrook (1977) has confirmed the finding of McClain (1968) that sex is an important variable. This does not contradict the finding from this study, but it does emphasise the difference between role conception and its application.

In the immediate context, control by the class being taught has reduced the differences apparently due to the sex of teachers in almost every instance, often to the extent that they have disappeared altogether. This offers further evidence in favour of both the first hypothesis, that the class taught has a profound influence upon role conception, and the second hypothesis, that the sex of the teacher (amongst other things) will have only a limited influence.

### 7 - 3: The Influence of Biographical Data upon the Conception of Role

#### Graduate Status

The revelation that almost all of the differences due to the sex of teachers can be resolved in terms of the class being taught has already been offered as evidence in favour of the second hypothesis. The same control also reduces the number of differences apparently due to the possession of a degree, until graduate status also seems to have little influence upon role conception.

Enough differences remain to allow a tentative examination of Kob's postulate of two types of teacher, recently developed by Gallop (1978). The lower scores of secondary graduate teachers on the scales Extra-curricular activities and Duties lend support to the division; but the absence of any difference on the scale Child-centered brings doubts (type B teachers, those who are subject-orientated and likely to be graduates, might have been expected to receive lower scores on this scale). The division into type A and type B teachers is neither confirmed or denied by this evidence.

Two differences between graduates and non-graduates remain at primary school level. The lower score of graduates on the scale Instructor might seem to lend support for the Kob postulate (which was not developed for primary schools, but an extension may well be worth considering as the number of graduates in such schools increases), but since this scale covers both subject- and child-oriented attitudes, the evidence is of uncertain value. It would be safer to conclude that graduates have a more broadly-based concept of their role as instructor. The lower score of graduates on the scale Discipline may well be due to their greater poise and confidence.

The similar views of graduates and non-graduates, in both primary and secondary schools, on the scales Child-centered and Familiarity can only be seen as evidence against the Kob thesis. The stereotype of graduates being subject oriented and somewhat reserved is not supported. A reason for this lies in the growing number of graduates who have studied Education as part of their degree course. B.Ed. degrees made a considerable contribution to the total of primary graduates - 15 out of 33; but in this survey, the 14 B.Ed. degrees out of a total of 143 in secondary schools are relatively insignificant. However, both of these proportions are likely to increase, and if the B.Ed. degree is really a 'professional' degree, the stereotype graduate teacher will become harder to find.



## Being a Parent

Possession of children of one's own has little bearing on role conception, and so further supports the second hypothesis. Indeed, a further, more searching hypothesis, that being a parent will influence role conception only in matters relating to children directly, is also supported. Being a parent brings a significantly more child-centered approach, but leaves responses to all the other scales and individual items unaffected. Intimate knowledge of at least one child makes a teacher more open to the needs of each of the children in a class, but makes no other difference to role conception. Whilst this finding may be of little practical significance, it does increase the construct validity of the factor scales as a framework for role concepts.

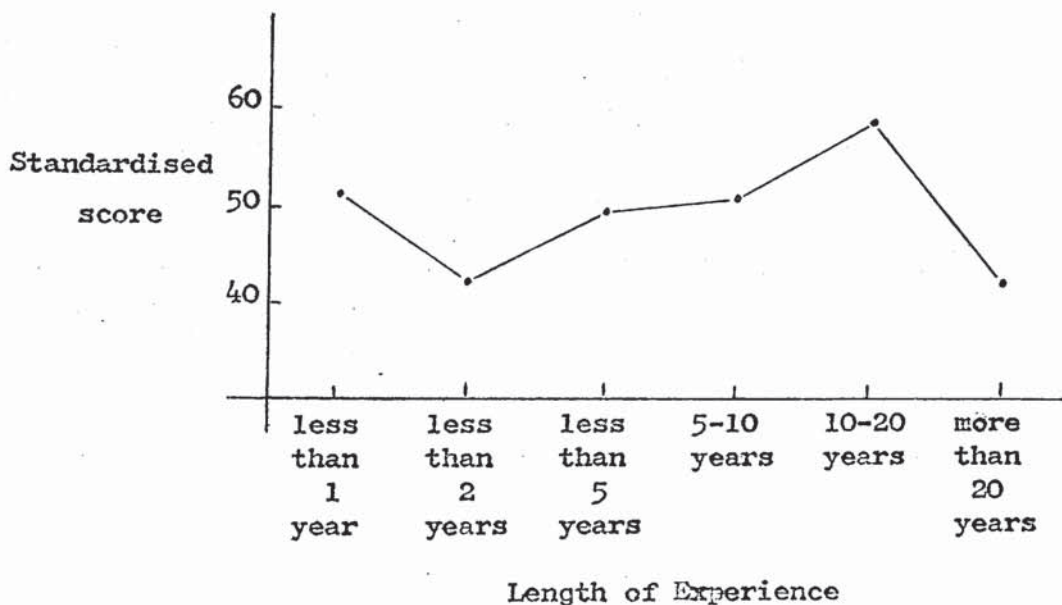
## Length of Teaching Experience

Unlike the other biographical data examined, the length of teaching experience does influence role conceptions to a marked degree; the second hypothesis is not confirmed in this respect. The findings can be seen best in a graphical form. The mean scores on each of the six role scales given by groups of teachers with differing lengths of experience have been converted to standard scores, with a mean of 50 and standard deviation of 10. These values are set out in table VIII in the appendix. They are plotted in the graphs which follow against length of teaching experience. Three patterns of relationship can be made out.

1. Despite the considerable differences amongst teachers in their perception of the importance of extra-curricular activities, there is effectively no change associated with length of experience (see figure 2). It might have been thought that teachers in their mid-40's, with any number of personal commitments, would be less enthusiastic towards extra curricular activities; but whilst this oldest group of teachers does gain a low score, the overall difference amongst teachers is not significant. The unexpected attention given to such activities, most amongst junior school staff and least amongst nursery and infant teachers, is recognised by teachers of all lengths of experience.

Text figure 2: Scores on the scale Extra-curricular activities, plotted against length of experience

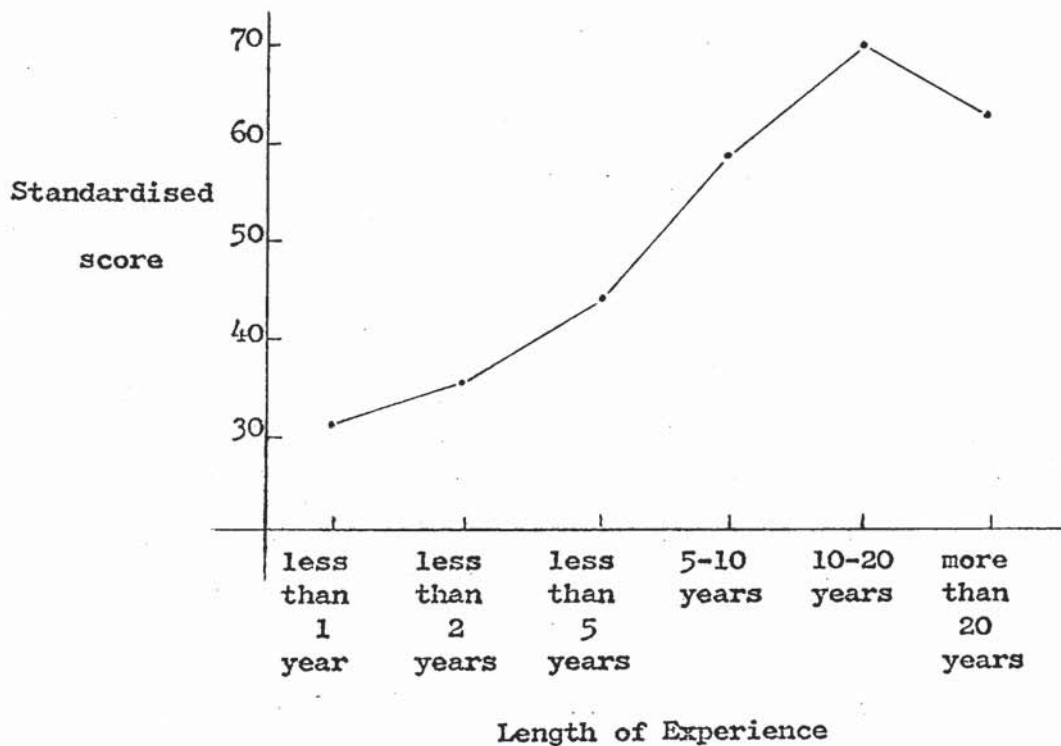
The actual scores have been standardised. They are set out in table VIII in the appendix.



2. Scores on the scale Child-centered gained by teachers with the least experience are very low, but with increasing experience, they become less class- and more child-centered. Even those with the most experience are very committed to child-centered methods.

Text figure 3: Scores on the scale Child-centered plotted against length of experience

The actual scores have been standardised. They are set out in table VIII in the appendix.



It seems that with increasing experience, teachers are more willing to set individual work-targets, accept wide-ability classes, and use less formal teaching methods. This may be due to either a growing efficiency or an increasing awareness of children's abilities. Whichever it is, this finding goes against that of the N.F.E.R. report on streaming (1967).



This was limited to junior schools. It found that streamed schools had staff who were less permissive, gave more tests, used more formal methods, and were older. The report also found that staff seem able to adapt to the methods of the school in which they work. Since this report, streaming has become less fashionable. It is possible that the more experienced teachers have changed their methods with the fashion, whilst the younger ones have remained uncommitted to any distinct method. These apparently contradictory findings call for a further study of the adaptability of teachers.

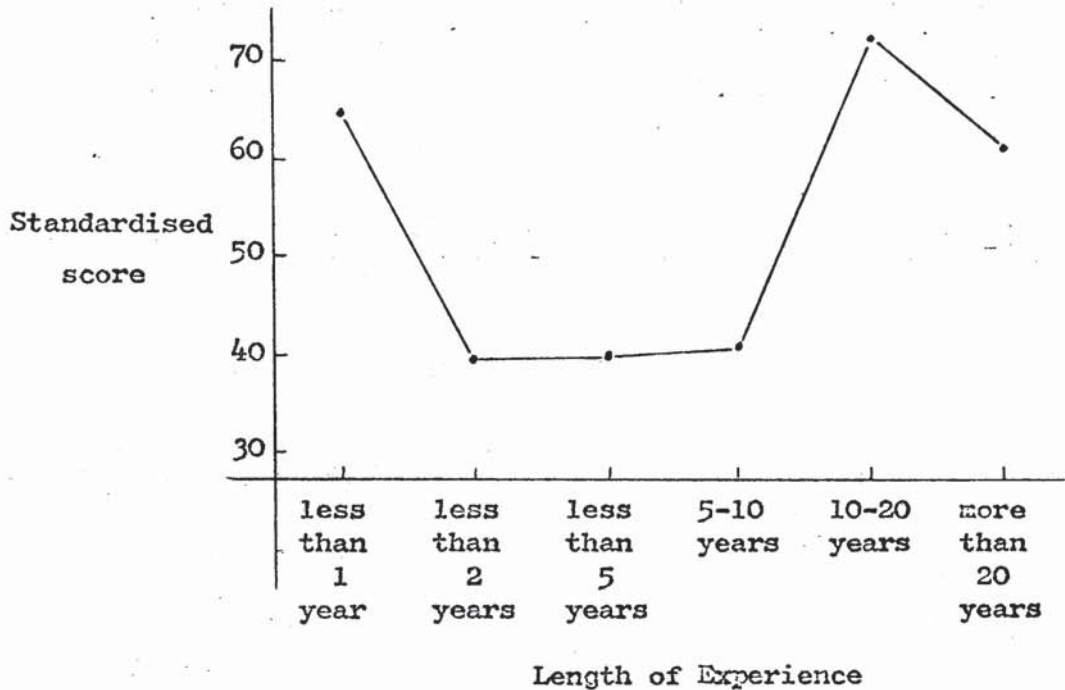
Several studies made with students in training (Steele, 1959; Cohen, 1965; Gibson, 1971) have shown that the peak of liberalism in teaching methods achieved by the middle of their course has been replaced by authoritarian views at its end. This study confirms that the youngest teachers have authoritarian attitudes, and further suggests that, with experience, liberal views slowly return. After fifteen years or so, some teachers are likely to return to college, this time as tutors, to advocate the extreme child-centered views for a new generation of students to emulate, at least temporarily (see Shipman, 1967).

3. Scores on all of the other scales show a number of sharp changes of opinion shown in figures 4 and 5. During their first year, teachers gain high scores on the scale Duties, indicating great enthusiasm for their work. They gain low scores on the scales Discipline and Familiarity, confirming

the liberal and intimate attitudes of most new teachers.

Text figure 4: Scores on the scale Duties, plotted against length of experience.

The actual scores have been standardised. They are set out in table VIII in the appendix.

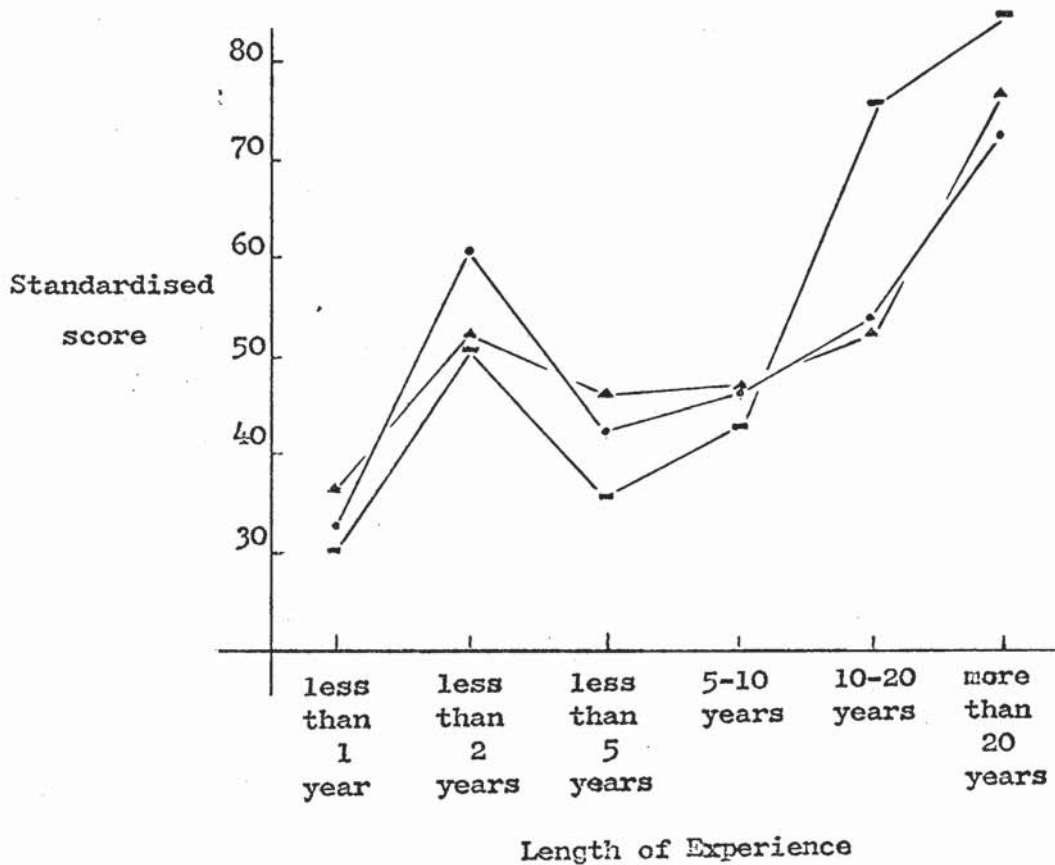


Their low score on the scale Instructor suggests that they also have a much broader view of education than more experienced colleagues. In all four role areas, the scores change dramatically during the second year. Such a change is only to be expected: despite professional training, there is bound to be a considerable body of 'expertise' which can only be picked up 'on the job' (see Finlayson and Cohen, 1967). Whiteside et al. (1969) went so far as to consider this change in attitudes due to a 'reality shock'. A surprising thing in the findings of this study is that such radical attitudes were still being held some six months after starting work in school. Many of the expected changes cannot be made con-

veniently until the end of the year, when a new group of pupils, and an opportunity to start afresh, present themselves; but some of the changes must have already taken place. The attitudes held earlier, as the new teachers started their work, must have been still more radical.

Text figure 5: Scores on the scales Discipline, Familiarity, and Instructor, plotted against length of experience

The actual scores have been standardised. They are set out in table VIII in the appendix.



Key

Discipline .-.-.- Familiarity -.-.- Instructor ▲-▲-▲



**PAGE  
MISSING  
IN  
ORIGINAL**

Teachers with less than five years of experience gain scores on two of the scales - Discipline and Familiarity - that are comparable to those of probationers, though not quite so low. This suggests that having 'established' themselves after one or two years of firm discipline and reserve, many teachers relent, and seek to re-adopt the liberal attitudes they had earlier as a raw recruit. Scores on the scale Instructor also record a sharp turn-about during the first few years of teaching, though the differences fail to gain a significant level. During this time, many teachers will have settled into a new teaching post. It is likely that, having been initiated, they now commence work with sufficient poise to allow them to adopt the relaxed discipline and more intimate relationships they had attempted to use when they first started. With still further experience, however, the more restricted and conservative attitudes return. An attitude of reserve may have been adopted within ten years of starting teaching; strict discipline and formal teaching methods may not come until a few years later.

Attitudes to the role area Duties do not show any other sudden changes after the reversion from the initial willingness. It is only after teachers have had so much experience of teaching that they are likely to be in posts of responsibility that they again become more favourable to items such as taking school work home; supplying teaching material themselves; and being familiar with children's radio and television.

In general, the attitudes of probationary teachers on these four role areas agree with those found by Finlayson and Cohen (1967), Hussell and Smithers (1974) and Gibson (1976). The considerable shifts in attitude recorded during the first year of teaching in this study support the findings of Cornwell (1965) and Hanson and Herrington (1976). Little has been known until now of further changes in role conception which may occur in time. This study shows that they do occur, and that several age categories must be taken if they are to be followed carefully. Simple dichotomies, such as those used by Bledsoe et al. (1971) and Kniveton (1977) are unsuitable.

These further changes may well be due to increasing experience, but it is also possible that, once established, teachers' role conceptions remain relatively fixed, so that the changes recorded amongst older teachers reflect educational opinions prevailing during their early years. The plateau in role conception which develops in many role areas after some five years would offer support to this interpretation. In the absence of any longitudinal studies directly concerning role, it is impossible to be sure which explanation is correct.

The time scale used in this study is necessarily crude. If these changes are due to a development of educational policy, it would have to have occurred some ten years ago - in the mid 1960's. At this time, secondary education was becoming comprehensive; many classes were becoming wide-ability; and the sudden increase in demand for teachers altered the provision for training drastically. Sufficient was happening for Grace to write on 'The changing role of the teacher'



(1967). It does seem possible that these attitudes of older teachers represent a fossilized picture of past educational policy. Butcher (1965) reported that once teachers are twenty-five years old, their educational opinions do not change. An American study (de Lansheere, 1974) has shown that teachers are resistant to changes in educational policy. Cortis' latest follow-up revealed 'a fall-off in performance . . . amongst the highest rated groups of teachers', due he thinks, to them becoming resistant to change. The evidence is very sketchy, but it does seem to favour the stabilization of role concepts after about five years, so that the changes found amongst the older teachers are possibly the left-overs from a former educational climate.

The present replete state of the profession means that it will gradually age with time, rather than maintain a balance between recruitment and retirement. In view of this, an understanding of how teachers' attitudes change is important, and further studies are needed. Whilst cross-sectional studies are a poor substitute for longitudinal ones, there will not be time for anything other than the former type, which could be modelled on this one.

The second hypothesis, that biographical details will cause relatively few differences in role conception amongst teachers, has been proved with respect to gender, degree status, and possession of children; but length of experience has been found to cause many changes in conception. It might have been better considered as part of the first hypothesis, dealing with variables that cause very considerable role changes.

## Responsibility

The effect which responsibility has upon role concept remains to be discussed. This is related to several distinct changes so that, in terms of the initial hypotheses, it ought to be considered similar in effect to the variable length of experience. However, the expected similarity in results between these two variables has not materialized. Inspection shows that this is due to the profound difference in attitude which exists between deputy heads (found almost exclusively in junior schools) and scale 4 post holders (found only in secondary schools). In effect, role conception related to responsibility is dependent upon the type of class taught.

If nursery nurses are ignored for a moment, deputy heads are the extreme-scoring group on every scale where differences exist. They are the group most in favour of extra-curricular activities; child-centered methods; duties; and the type of teaching implied in the role area 'Instructor'. They are even less reserved than probationers. Their extreme position is accentuated because primary staff in general gain high scores and deputy heads are the only exclusively primary school group in this particular analysis; nevertheless, their response is remarkable. They may feel obliged to 'set an example' for colleagues (in which case, the common practice of putting students on teaching practice with the deputy head becomes questionable, especially with respect to child-centered techniques and the role area Familiarity). Their extreme position may be an attempt to impress and so gain promotion to head teacher. Coulson and Cox (1977) show that deputy heads see their position primarily in terms of further promotion for only five years; after this, they accept the administrative responsibilities



more readily. If this is so, newly-promoted deputy heads could hold even more extreme attitudes for a limited period!

The holders of scale 4 posts are unremarkable save for their low score on the role area 'Instructor', which is entirely consistent with the heavier administrative load they carry. The high score which deputy heads achieve on this scale is evidence of their role conception in terms of teaching rather than administration.

It has been suggested that women working in infant classes are not really 'teachers' (Musgrove and Taylor, 1969, p. 76), which must make the position of nursery nurses in even greater doubt. Their surprise, together with that of several of the heads, at being included in this survey, must support this inference. However, the opportunities they have for teaching by example must be just as great as those of qualified teachers, and they form the greater part of the staff of most nurseries. The detailed responses they made were every bit as reliable as those of other teachers. They score the highest of all groups in the role areas Child-centered and Familiarity - just as might be expected for work with such young children. Apart from deputy heads, they score the highest on the scale Duties, indicating a high professional commitment. The low score they obtain on the scale Discipline is a contrast to the generally high score of most nursery and infant teachers. It needs to be seen against the authority they have. It is unlikely that a nursery nurse will have to take sole responsibility for discipline in the way that a classroom teacher will. She is more likely to look to a senior teacher to impose control, allowing her to maintain 'relaxed' attitudes.



Teachers who hold scale 1 and scale 2 posts form well over half of all school staff, and show very little difference in their role concepts. It is not easy to summarise the influence responsibility has upon role conception. For certain small groups, which may be restricted to one education sector, it is considerable; but for many teachers, it makes no obvious effect to the way in which they see their work.

7 - 4: The Influence of the other Variables Investigated upon Role Conception

Personality

The initial research hypothesis with respect to personality is not supported. It was reasoned that personality was likely to have a considerable influence upon the way teachers see their role, if only because of the way in which it is known to effect many related activities. This does not appear to be so. The only statistical relationship with personality as measured in this study adds validity to the overall construct: introverted teachers might be expected to be less enthusiastic about extra-curricular activities, especially when this scale includes items like 'Meet parents informally . . .'.

Almost all of the previous studies made of the relationship of personality with educational behaviours have used the detailed 16PF instrument of Cattell. Using these inventories, McCabe and Savage (1973) and Middlebrook (1977) have both found that personality was related to teaching ability - at least in student teachers. Soar et al. (1966) used it in their studies of classroom ethos, as did

Ward and Rushton (1969) for investigations of job satisfaction. Cortis' longitudinal study of teacher behaviour (1975, 1979) uses the 16PF inventory. It was felt that this detailed instrument was too long for use in this survey, and inappropriate for an exploratory study. It may still be that a closer examination would reveal findings similar to those of other workers.

Teachers themselves rated 'personality' very highly in Taylor's studies (1962) of their role concepts. The composite image he drew, with their advice, of the good teacher's personality (patient, understanding, kind, sympathetic, cheerful, friendly, good-tempered, and with a sense of humour) is sure to bring success to anyone dealing in interpersonal relationships. The popular image of an infant teacher (warm, affectionate, maternal) has always been contrasted to that of a grammar school master (disciplined, and rather reserved). Common-sense tells that personality, when assessed in these terms, must be related to teaching behaviours; but it is not these qualities which are measured by the Eysenck scales, nor should actual behaviour be confused with a teacher's conception of his work. The absence of any relationship between personality, as measured on the extroversion and neuroticism scales, and role concept shows that teachers approach their work objectively and in a professional manner.

#### Educational Opinions

The outstanding characteristic of the findings from this part of the investigation is their clarity. Of the eighteen tests possible between scores on the three Educational Opinions scales and the role



model, eight do not even approach significance; one makes significance at the 5% level; two more at the 1% level; and the remaining seven all exceed the 0.1% level. The third hypothesis is proved: educational opinions do influence role concepts, those on the Natural scale the least, and those on the Radical scale profoundly.

Oliver and Butcher seem reluctant to offer stereotypes for the teachers resolved by their scales. Morrison and McIntyre describe the Natural scale as 'bearing particularly upon child-centered versus teacher-centered attitudes to pupils' (1969, p. 23). The finding here that natural-minded teachers have high scores on only the child-centered scale adds validity to all of them.

The findings from the Tenderminded scale also add some validity. One would expect tough-minded, or practical, teachers to have firm attitude toward discipline. The conception of role assessed by the scale Discipline has been remarkably alike amongst all teachers, but those who hold tough-minded attitudes do gain significantly higher scores. A theoretically inclined teacher is likely to be more aware of and ready to accept the diffuseness of role and the individuality of the pupils implied by high scores on the scale Instructor and Child-centered; practical, tough-minded teachers are more likely to see restrictions in their role (whether self-imposed, or determined by the head), and to seek regular assessment in streamed classes. However, in view of McIntyre and Morrison's interpretation (1967, p. 36) of the Tenderminded scale as being more specific to education than the other two, more variation in concept in the role areas Extra-curricular activities, Familiarity and Duties might have been expected.



When teachers are divided according to their responses to the Radical/conservative scale, there is more disagreement over their role conception than is caused by any other variable examined. This scale, like that of Tenderness, was originally based upon Eysenck's investigations of personality (1954), and although developed by Butcher in educational terms, it is just as recognizable in political terms. For each of the factor scales, conservative-minded teachers take the moderate, cautious, or more limiting position, whilst the radical-minded ones take the less secure, progressive or open position.

It has not generally been recognised that the three Educational Opinion scales differ in their immediacy to the classroom. The Naturalism scale, containing items on the content and nature of teaching, comes closest. The Tenderminded scale seeks justification of the curriculum, both in terms of pupils and society, and might be considered to represent a more distant view, roughly equivalent to that of the school; whilst the national issues raised in the Radical scale can only represent the most broadly-based attitudes. The items included in the questionnaire were selected so as to be representative of education on a broad base, rather than just in the more limited terms of classroom behaviour. The profound differences amongst teachers assessed on the Radical scale, as opposed to the minor ones caused by assessment on the Natural scale, offer some evidence that this aim has been met.

#### School Climate

Teachers' perception of the atmosphere of their school, as shown by scores on the scale School climate, influences their concept

of role to an appreciable degree. Since both sets of scores depend on the opinions of the same teachers, such a finding is hardly surprising. The analysis turns out to be worthwhile because of the differing responses of teachers in the three types of school.

As defined by Halpin, school climate is ultimately determined by the head teacher. The variation in scores from teachers at any one school shows that their perception is variable, and may well be just as great a determinant. The finding that personality measured on the neurotic/stable dimension is related to school climate supports this idea. A neurotic teacher is not likely to fully appreciate even the most 'open' of climates, whilst a stable one will be able to compensate for administrative inadequacies. School climate becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Using a series of scales also derived from those of Halpin, Finlayson (1973) has been drawn to the same conclusion.

Halpin makes little attempt to validate his scale beyond giving vignettes of the six climates, and calling for further studies (1966, p. 193). Such pen-portraits are likely to be very subjective, but in an attempt to provide some face validity, the attempt has also been made here: an account appears in the appendix as table IX. The value of School climate as an effective instrument also depends upon its stability to sex of the teachers, length of experience and educational opinions. None of these variables seems to be related; even the scale Tendermindedness, considered earlier to be closest to perceptions of education at the school level, has no significant relationship with School climate.



Many of the significant differences in role conception found amongst teachers in general remain after the class being taught is held constant (table 53). Scores on the scales Familiarity and Instructor can be seen to be independent of School climate. The most likely explanation is that teachers see these areas as being under their own direct control: they determine how formal they will be, and the way in which they present their subject matter.

As defined by the items loading on factor I, the scale Discipline could also be expected to be the responsibility of individual teachers, and scores on it might be expected to be largely independent of school climate perception. The only significant relationship is found in nursery and infant schools, and is interesting for two reasons. It is one of the few situations in which teachers disagree on their attitude towards discipline; and it arises in a situation where individual teachers are likely to have a limited opportunity of imposing their own discipline. All the nursery schools involved were open-plan, with the head always present to impose her own discipline; and the infant schools often had a 'working' head, who was much closer to her staff and pupils than many other heads, and so able to impose her own standard of discipline.

Differences on the Extra-curricular activities and Duties scales are only found amongst primary school staff. Secondary schools usually have these roles detailed out precisely, using specialist staff and more ancillaries, so leaving less opportunity for the staff to consider them as a part of their own role. This is evidence of a greater diffuseness of role at the primary level; the actual findings also show



how school morale leads staff to take on extra responsibilities when given the opportunity.

The one consistent difference amongst all teachers is on the scale Child-centered. Whilst perception of an 'open' climate brings child-centered behaviour, a 'closed' climate brings teacher-centered behaviour. Teachers, regardless of the educational sector in which they work, pass on the climate they experience: if this is 'open', children also receive an 'open' education.

In all, the role concepts of secondary school teachers are influenced much less by their perception of school climate than those of their primary colleagues. It seems that perception of the school climate may have more influence in this matter with nursery-infant staff than with staff in junior schools. It has already been argued (page 174 ) that the overall size of a school seems to have little effect upon the perception of its climate. Halpin claims that the pattern of school climate is largely determined by the head teacher, though no attempt has been made to examine this contention in this study. It would follow that role concepts would be influenced to a considerable degree by the head. This seems quite possible in primary schools, and less so in secondaries, if only because a considerable part of the teacher's role in such a position is seen in terms of a subject specialism. The matter clearly deserves some further investigation.

Chapter: 8

Professional Cohesion

## Chapter 8: Professional Cohesion

The earlier analysis has confirmed that one of the major determinants of role conception is the class being taken. This additional study is to examine the extent to which teachers are aware of the roles of their colleagues who work in other types of school. This can be assessed from the similarity between scores perceived on each of the role scales for teachers of a particular position, and those of teachers actually in that position. The analysis has been confined to returns made in the 'interpositional' questionnaires, that is, both perceived and actual scores in the following analyses come from the appropriate sections of these booklets. The analysis of variance made earlier showed that returns made to the other parts of the questionnaire were comparable. It seems reasonable to conclude that this will be true of the interpositional returns also, but since these were restricted to particular educational sectors, direct comparisons is not easy. However, what differences may exist will be diminished if the comparison of perceived and actual scores is restricted to information gathered in a similar manner through the interpositional questionnaires. The returns made to each of these sections of the survey were: Nursery-infant, 99; Junior, 91; and Secondary, 141. These figures are in the same proportion as those of all teachers serving in these schools.

The appropriate scores are set out in the table 54, together with a statistical measure of their difference. The hypothesis being tested is that there is no difference between perceived and actual scores.



Table 54: Differences between scores perceived on the role scales for colleagues compared to their actual score

Nursery-infant teachers' perceptions

	of Junior teachers				of Secondary teachers			
	perceived score	actual score			perceived score	actual score		
	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p
Discipline	9.351 1.148	9.162 1.010	1.21	0.226	9.395 1.205	9.259 1.242	0.85	0.398
Extra-curricular activities	7.687 1.043	7.681 1.009	0.04	0.968	7.742 1.047	7.614 .892	0.99	0.320
Familiarity	6.830 1.349	6.650 1.419	0.89	0.373	7.527 1.518	6.904 1.680	1.81	0.070
Child-centered	10.343 .932	10.367 1.069	0.16	0.872	9.792 .897	9.375 .978	3.43	0.001
Duties	8.766 1.006	8.316 1.028	3.04	0.002	8.578 1.063	7.955 1.052	4.48	0.000
Instructor	7.321 1.086	7.139 1.031	1.19	0.234	6.952 1.101	6.423 1.213	3.36	0.001

Junior teachers' perceptions

	of Nursery-infant teachers				of Secondary teachers			
	perceived score	actual score			perceived score	actual score		
	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p
Discipline	8.808 1.224	9.234 1.139	2.49	0.013	9.295 1.125	9.259 1.242	0.23	0.818
Extra-curricular activities	7.265 0.987	7.342 1.001	0.60	0.549	7.729 0.979	7.614 0.892	0.90	0.368
Familiarity	6.327 1.545	6.144 1.423	0.85	0.398	7.401 1.55	6.904 1.780	2.31	0.021
Child-centered	10.665 1.066	10.644 0.829	0.15	0.882	9.588 1.183	9.375 0.978	1.43	0.152
Duties	8.414 1.033	8.747 0.957	2.31	0.021	8.049 1.108	7.955 1.052	0.64	0.522
Instructor	6.841 1.204	6.981 1.268	0.78	0.431	6.740 1.144	6.423 1.213	2.02	0.040

Table 54: continued

Secondary teachers' perceptions

	of Junior teachers				of Nursery-infant teachers			
	perceived score	actual score			perceived score	actual score		
	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	$\bar{x}$ & $\sigma$	t	p
Discipline	9.289 1.225	9.162 1.010	0.86	0.388	8.975 1.267	9.234 1.139	1.66	0.097
Extra-curricular activities	7.685 0.868	7.681 1.009	0.03	0.976	7.606 0.986	7.342 1.001	2.02	0.044
Familiarity	6.847 1.687	6.650 1.419	0.95	0.341	6.352 1.815	6.144 1.423	0.52	0.606
Child-centered	9.791 1.065	10.367 1.069	4.00	0.000	10.103 1.204	10.644 0.829	4.14	0.000
Duties	8.368 1.111	8.316 1.028	0.37	0.715	8.529 1.139	8.747 0.957	1.61	0.107
Instructor	6.879 1.093	7.139 1.031	1.83	0.067	6.578 1.140	6.981 1.268	2.53	0.011

Table 55: Role Cohesion: a Summary of findings from scores given to the Role Scales

The table shows the number of 'errors' in the perception of colleagues' roles, judged at the 5% significance level.

Judgements of an 'adjacent' sector:

Nursery-infant teachers of junior:	1	} total: 6 errors out of 24
Junior teachers of nursery-infant:	2	
of secondary:	2	
Secondary teachers of junior:	1	

Judgements of 'non-adjacent' sectors:

Nursery-infant teachers of secondary:	3	} total: 6 errors out of 12
Secondary teachers of nursery-infant:	3	



This summary helps examination of the research hypothesis: that teachers working in adjacent educational sectors will have a better understanding of each other's roles than those in non-adjacent sectors. Just a third of all these perceptions are 'wrong' in the sense that there is a less than 5% chance that they agree with the role scores. The greater proportion of them lie in the non-adjacent area, but not sufficient to give clear support for the hypothesis. However, this analysis is suspect because of the significance level, chosen arbitrarily. Two perceptions are only just 'right' and one is only just 'wrong' at the 5% level: another significance level might alter the evidence considerably. A more meaningful analysis comes from examining each of the role areas in turn.

Discipline. This is the one scale in the main investigation on which there was no significant difference between the perceptions of the three groups of teachers. Generally, teachers seem well aware of this, save that junior teachers feel a lower score would be appropriate in nursery and infant schools, suggesting that they see discipline there as less strict and more informal. Nursery-infant teachers actually score a little higher than junior staff.

It is interesting that all three groups of teachers see discipline as becoming rather more strict as the age of the children taught increases, though none of these differences are significant.

Extra-curricular activities. The findings of the main investigation are that junior teachers expect to be most involved, secondary teachers less so, and nursery-infant teachers least so, all the dif-



ferences being significant. Despite this unexpected finding, the situation seems to be recognised amongst teachers, for general perception of each others' role is good. Only secondary staff over-perceive the score of nursery and infant colleagues, and then the difference only just achieves significance.

Familiarity. All three groups of teachers expect their colleagues to score more highly - that is, to show more reserve - than they actually do. For junior teachers, this over-perception of secondary teachers is too much; and nursery-infant teachers only just manage to achieve an acceptable perception of this role for secondary teachers. Surprisingly, secondary teachers perceive the extra familiarity in primary schools very well.

Child-centered. The main investigation shows that the two groups of primary teachers have very similar views, but that those of secondary staff are much lower. Nursery-infant teachers fail to appreciate just how low this secondary position is, though junior teachers seem well aware of secondary colleagues' attitudes. Secondary teachers fail to appreciate how much higher scores in both nursery-infant and junior schools are. Nursery-infant and junior staff see each others' position well.

Nevertheless, despite this poor understanding of each others' role, teachers are aware of the difference between primary and secondary schools. They are prepared to make greater changes from their own position to accommodate colleagues on this scale than on any other; yet even these are insufficient to compensate for the considerable differences which do exist.

Duties. Again, the main investigation has shown that primary teachers have very similar conceptions, and that secondary teachers tend to gain a lower score. Here, nursery and infant staff perceive other teachers as holding their duties quite as highly as they themselves do, which is not true. Junior and secondary teachers do not score so highly, and at least junior teachers fail to recognize the position of nursery and infant teachers.

Instructor. Teachers in primary schools understand each others' position well, but both underestimate how low the secondary score is. On the other hand, secondary teachers quite fail to appreciate how high the scores of primary school teachers are.

It can now be seen that a major cause of these misunderstandings is the distance between role concepts of primary and secondary teachers. This is sufficient to account for the confusion which exists on the role areas Child-centered and Instructor. The reserve recorded by the scale Familiarity which all teachers feel their colleagues need works in favour of secondary staff - so that they correctly perceive primary teachers' scores whilst the latter are even more wrong in their perception than might otherwise be expected. Although the secondary teachers' perception of the nursery-infant response to extra-curricular activities just fails to agree at the 5% level of significance, a far more remarkable finding is the general understanding all teachers have of this role area.

The few other mistaken perceptions are not so easy to explain. The misunderstanding on the scale Duties may be due to a sort of



idealism amongst nursery and infant staff, for their own score is unexpectedly high, and they perceive their colleagues as scoring far higher than they actually do. The uncertainty shown by scores on the scale Discipline may be no more than evidence of a general feeling that conditions are less formal and strict in nursery and infant schools. From the point of view of professional cohesion, that is of the understanding which teachers have of each others' roles, these last few differences are important. However, from the point of view of the pupils who experience the practical consequences of role concepts, they are of little concern, for the main investigation shows that no real difference exists in either of these areas.

The items which did not fit into the six factor scales also show some mistaken perceptions, set out as table 56. Junior and secondary teachers understand each others' position on each of these distinct items, and their understanding of nursery-infant teachers is also generally good. Nursery-infant teachers however feel strongly that both junior and secondary teachers should vary the pattern of presentation of their work; should give consideration to local feelings; and that secondary teachers at least should possess a university degree. Their own score on these items is higher than their colleagues expected, which results in a number of misunderstandings. These unexpectedly high scores, and the still higher scores they expect of colleagues, add weight to the notion of idealism amongst nursery and infant teachers.



Table 56: An analysis of replies to individual role items, made with reference to role cohesion

Mean scores are shown only as an indication of the responses; analysis by the  $X^2$  test is independent of mean values. The findings from the other inplaced items all showed good understanding of each others' roles within the three groups of teachers.

Nursery-infant teachers' perceptions of junior teachers

item no.	item	perce- -ived score	junior teachers actual score	$X^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.828	3.319	23.672	0.000
05	Give consideration to local feelings	4.141	3.648	22.198	0.000

Nursery-infant teachers' perceptions of secondary teachers

item no.	item	perce- -ived score	secondary teachers actual score	$X^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.838	3.532	13.061	0.011
05	Give consideration to local feelings	4.161	3.653	27.324	0.000
06	Possess a university degree	3.525	3.262	12.461	0.002

Junior teachers' perceptions of nursery-infant teachers

item no.	item	perce- -ived score	nursery- -infant teachers actual score	$X^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.297	3.667	13.544	0.009
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.703	4.111	11.068	0.026

Junior teachers' perceptions of secondary teachers

item no.	item	perce- -ived score	secondary teachers actual score	$X^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.473	3.532	2.633	0.660
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.835	3.653	5.847	0.207

Table 56: continued

Secondary teachers' perceptions of junior teachers

item no.	item	perceived score	junior teachers actual score	$\chi^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.681	3.319	13.794	0.008
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.794	3.648	4.685	0.314

Secondary teachers' perception of nursery-infant teachers

item no.	item	perceived score	nursery-teachers actual score	$\chi^2$	p
04	Alternate interesting work	3.546	3.667	4.391	0.363
05	Give consideration to local feelings	3.674	4.111	21.491	0.000

## Discussion

The understanding which teachers have of their colleagues' role concepts does not really fit the initial hypothesis that teachers will perceive the roles of others in adjacent sectors better than those of teachers in a distant sector. The situation can be described better in terms of the primary/secondary division, which is in keeping with the profound differences revealed by the main investigation. However, even this does not account for all the misunderstandings found.

Yet the foregoing examination of the misunderstandings which teachers have of their colleagues' role has drawn attention from the understanding which does exist. An acceptable perception, if judged at the 5% level, exists for twenty-four of the thirty-six situations which can be examined by the role scales. This increases to thirty if the 1% level is used. There is actually little agreement between the conceived roles of the three groups of teachers as measured by the six factor scales: differences occur on eleven of the eighteen possible comparisons which can be made, and all are significant beyond the 1% level of probability (see table 25 on page 199).

So much understanding is evidence of the considerable agreement which exists amongst teachers about their overall role perception. They are often aware that the role conception of a colleague in another sector of education may be quite different to their own. The ability to change attitude to fit the circumstances might be expected since a number of commentators (Hoyle, 1969; Westwood, 1969; and Adams, 1970) have all stressed the need for flexibility in role con-



ception; but it is also evidence of a sound professional understanding. The impression given is that if teachers should have to change from work in one educational sector to another, they would already have a good idea of the role considered appropriate by their new colleagues, and would be able to adapt to make an even better fit with ease.

Nevertheless, some misunderstandings do remain. The majority of these is associated with the division between primary and secondary education, which is in keeping with the profound differences revealed by the main investigation. Several of them relate to the role area Child-centered, where the greatest actual differences in role conception occur. Although each group of teachers seems aware of the variation which does exist here, only teachers in junior schools have a clear idea of how great the division between primary and secondary education with respect to this role area actually is. Another cause of misunderstanding has been recognized as a sense of idealism amongst nursery and infant teachers. Analysis of the Natural scale from the Oliver and Butcher Survey of Educational Opinions had failed to find any significant differences between teachers in the three sectors (see table 47); but, on inspection, nursery-infant teachers do gain a greater proportion of low scores, corresponding to idealism. The effect is noticeable when they are compared to those of junior teachers, though the difference is not significant. Their attitude does seem sufficient to cause the only misunderstandings of colleagues' roles to occur in the primary sector, appearing where no differences actually exist.

It was originally intended to examine the hypothesis that teachers who had had experience of work in educational sectors other than their current one would have a better understanding of their colleagues than those without this experience. Unfortunately, the key question was widely misinterpreted: some teachers considered that teaching practice experience was relevant, others that it was not. Even so, it is obvious that, once established, teachers are not likely to consider moving to another type of school. Only 15.9% of respondents claimed they had had any sort of experience in another type of school, the majority having worked in the two types of primary school. Less than 1% of teachers had taught at all three levels of education. Recent changes in the organisation of education, resulting in the establishment first of comprehensive, and then middle schools, together with changes stemming from the falling birth-rate, mean that teachers will be obliged to consider working in different types of schools more frequently. The finding of this survey is that perception of the modified role will be good, and so unlikely to limit transfer. The reason that teachers do not change more readily must lie elsewhere: in the nature of the material taught, or the climate which obtains in different schools.

Chapter: 9

Role Constraint



There are many groups in society that expect to influence what teachers do, yet the organisation of schools is such that they have to operate to a large extent through the head teacher. Inspectors and advisers of the education committee normally work with the head, and only occasionally with individual teachers. The school managers, the parents' association, and in church-sponsored schools, the clergy, are all similarly restricted in their dealing with teachers.

It is this isolation which has helped to encourage the traditional idea of autonomy amongst teachers. Many see themselves as being responsible to the head almost exclusively. The head teacher is therefore able to act as a selective agent, screening his staff from expectations which he considers unreasonable, and doubtless modifying others to make them fit his own views, at least to some extent. In this way, he is able to exert a very considerable pressure on the members of his staff.

The head may attempt to modify any pressure the parents make, since all correspondence to teachers has normally to go through him. In practice, however, a certain amount of direct communication occurs - at parents' meetings, at social functions, or merely through messages passed on by pupils. In nursery schools, parents meet teachers regularly as they deliver and collect their children. Parents of older children expect to see a teacher when transfer to secondary education occurs, and before their child leaves school to take up employment. They have the opportunity to make a significant effect upon the teachers' role, even though they may choose not to do so (see Musgrove and Taylor, 1965).

The children being taught are potentially even more influential to the teacher's role than the head, since they are invariably present when teaching takes place. Their numbers and behaviour are sure to modify the teacher's performance, and so the conception he has of his job. However, since they are immature, their demands come at a different level to those from the rest of society, one which a teacher may feel able to ignore at times. As their pupils become older and more mature, it may be that teachers become more aware of, and even more ready to accept, their demands.

In order to assess the influence these three key positions - the head, parents, and pupils - have on teachers' conceptions of their role, this further investigation was undertaken. A distinct group of teachers was used for the examination of each position. The appropriate questionnaires were distributed on a stratified basis through the entire sample, and brought 105 replies to the head's version, 106 to the parents' version, and 115 to the pupils'. These questionnaires contained the thirty-three items used in all other parts of the investigation, together with a varying number of others which were considered to be especially relevant to the position under review. Each respondent was asked to answer first as he felt he should act, and then again as it was felt the head (or parents, or pupils) expected him to act.

The replies have been analysed in terms of the six role scales used in the previous studies, which allows some comparison to be made with findings from other parts of the survey. The actual scores used are the mean answers given only by teachers replying to these particular



questionnaires. They are similar to the scores from the overall study, but they are used here because they form a complement to the expected scores. The initial analyses are shown in tables 57, 58, and 59.

Table 57: Differences between scores on the role scales expected for the head teacher and teachers' actual scores

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for the head teacher		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.254	1.271	9.098	1.149	1.19	0.238
Extra-curricular activities	7.309	1.034	7.497	1.254	1.60	0.112
Familiarity	6.684	1.619	7.131	1.613	3.14	0.002
Child-centered	9.898	1.116	9.391	1.275	4.05	0.000
Duties	8.163	1.096	8.332	1.049	1.37	0.174
Instructor	6.658	1.263	6.887	1.157	2.04	0.044

Table 58: Differences between scores on the role scales expected for parents and teachers' actual scores

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for parents		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.141	1.156	8.721	1.219	2.84	0.005
Extra-curricular activities	7.388	0.968	7.355	0.927	0.28	0.781
Familiarity	6.903	1.501	7.422	1.263	3.73	0.000
Child-centered	10.123	1.142	8.642	1.227	9.13	0.000
Duties	8.167	1.054	7.906	0.935	2.05	0.042
Instructor	6.840	1.264	7.519	1.035	5.24	0.000



Table 59: Differences between scores on the role scales expected for pupils and teachers' actual scores

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for pupils		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.186	1.005	8.534	1.243	5.70	0.000
Extra-curricular activities	7.518	0.962	7.375	0.973	1.61	0.111
Familiarity	6.884	1.551	6.574	1.316	2.97	0.004
Child-centered	10.028	1.190	9.195	1.278	6.12	0.000
Duties	8.300	1.090	7.814	1.033	5.48	0.000
Instructor	6.664	1.201	6.817	0.974	1.65	0.103

The hypothesis being tested here is that the expectation and the actual score are the same. Where the probability that this is so exceeds a significant level, a 'real' difference of opinion can be considered to exist, though whether this amounts to role conflict is likely to be related to the level of significance employed. On just one role area - Extra-curricular activities - there is no difference of opinion which could be considered significant with any other group, but differences exist for each of the others. Most significant differences appear with the expectations of parents, and least with the head teacher. Also noticeable is the size of some of the differences: there can be no doubt that constraint amounts to role conflict in certain areas with respect to parents and pupils. The role area Child-centered provokes the biggest differences of all, and all three role constrainers are thought to expect much less in this respect than teachers feel is required.

These preliminary findings represent the views of groups of teachers working in all three types of school. Since the age of children being taught influences teachers' conceptions, division of the responses into three more homogeneous groups is needed before further discussion becomes worthwhile. This can indicate whether conflict is perceived to a similar extent amongst the different types of teacher; whether pupil pressure is any more acute in secondary schools; and whether parental influence is thought to be greater in schools where they can be expected to meet teaching staff regularly.

The results of such an analysis are shown in tables 60, 61 and 62 for nursery-infant teachers; junior teachers; and secondary teachers respectively. Whilst there are sufficient secondary school teachers to justify such a division, the smaller numbers of nursery-infant and junior returns has meant that in some role areas the results can be no more than indicative. The overall attempt is justified by the intrinsic interest of the analysis. As it happens, the expectations of primary school teachers turn out to be quite similar, and so make good some of the uncertainty due to numbers.



Table 60: Nursery and infant teachers and Role Constraint

(i) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for the head mistress and nursery-infant teachers' actual scores. Results are taken from 30 replies

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for the head mistress		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.428	1.327	9.065	1.083	1.19	0.242
Extra-curricular activities	6.878	0.754	7.032	1.177	0.72	0.475
Familiarity	6.614	1.699	6.949	1.659	1.30	0.203
Child-centered	10.201	1.052	9.389	1.285	3.02	0.005
Duties	8.367	1.128	8.418	0.897	0.24	0.816
Instructor	7.062	1.140	6.933	1.199	0.63	0.531

(ii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for parents and nursery-infant teachers' actual scores. Results are taken from 23 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for parents		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.240	1.133	8.531	1.101	2.23	0.037
Extra-curricular activities	6.944	0.656	7.107	0.791	1.00	0.330
Familiarity	6.782	1.718	7.166	1.265	1.56	0.133
Child-centered	10.562	0.933	8.911	1.302	4.89	0.000
Duties	8.109	0.981	8.067	0.674	0.18	0.860
Instructor	7.304	1.167	7.978	1.030	2.48	0.021

(iii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for pupils and nursery-infant teachers' actual scores. Results are taken from 30 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for pupils		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.273	0.761	8.756	1.427	2.89	0.007
Extra-curricular activities	7.047	0.893	7.007	1.055	0.29	0.772
Familiarity	6.303	1.489	6.038	1.183	1.21	0.234
Child-centered	10.618	1.047	9.600	1.539	3.84	0.001
Duties	8.536	1.190	8.177	1.349	2.08	0.046
Instructor	7.287	1.235	7.269	1.142	0.09	0.926



Table 61: Junior teachers and Role Constraint

- (i) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for the head teacher and junior teachers' actual scores.  
Results are taken from 27 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for the head teacher		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.364	1.323	9.014	1.255	1.59	0.124
Extra-curricular activities	7.684	0.792	7.550	1.018	0.71	0.487
Familiarity	6.407	1.714	6.632	1.622	0.74	0.464
Child-centered	10.142	1.018	9.706	1.309	2.27	0.032
Duties	8.620	0.944	8.340	1.224	1.19	0.244
Instructor	7.126	0.947	7.126	1.337	0.00	0.997

- (ii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for parents and junior teachers' actual scores.  
Results are taken from 34 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for parents		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.011	1.243	8.675	1.222	1.29	0.208
Extra-curricular activities	7.856	0.856	7.453	1.047	2.07	0.047
Familiarity	6.757	1.499	7.142	1.181	1.75	0.090
Child-centered	10.528	0.947	8.894	1.149	7.39	0.000
Duties	8.571	0.921	8.022	1.088	2.98	0.005
Instructor	7.159	1.286	7.766	0.941	2.61	0.014

- (iii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for pupils and junior teachers' actual scores.  
Results are taken from 32 replies.

	Teacher actual score		Expectation for pupils		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.017	1.161	8.502	1.226	2.34	0.026
Extra-curricular activities	8.078	1.012	7.792	1.105	1.60	0.120
Familiarity	6.683	1.444	6.707	1.185	0.12	0.903
Child-centered	10.499	1.089	9.327	1.457	4.76	0.000
Duties	8.640	1.081	8.042	0.979	3.69	0.001
Instructor	6.685	1.293	6.846	0.925	0.84	0.406

Table 62: Secondary teachers and Role Constraint

(i) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for the head teacher and secondary teachers actual scores.  
Results are taken from 48 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for the head teacher		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.083	1.211	9.166	1.148	0.48	0.635
Extra-curricular activities	7.367	1.210	7.757	1.357	2.07	0.044
Familiarity	6.884	1.518	7.526	1.511	3.12	0.003
Child-centered	9.571	1.140	9.270	1.260	1.78	0.081
Duties	7.779	1.115	8.274	1.050	2.71	0.009
Instructor	6.142	1.314	6.725	1.012	3.53	0.001

(ii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for parents and secondary teachers' actual scores.  
Results are taken from 49 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for parents		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.185	1.120	8.841	1.279	1.56	0.125
Extra-curricular activities	7.271	1.041	7.403	0.895	0.65	0.520
Familiarity	7.060	1.408	7.737	1.268	2.89	0.006
Child-centered	9.636	1.177	8.341	1.201	4.72	0.000
Duties	7.914	1.105	7.750	0.919	0.76	0.449
Instructor	6.401	1.167	7.131	0.976	3.78	0.000

(iii) Differences between scores on the role scales expected for pupils and secondary teachers' actual scores.  
Results are taken from 53 replies.

	Teachers actual score		Expectation for pupils		t	probability
	mean	std dev.	mean	std dev.		
Discipline	9.240	1.030	8.427	1.146	4.42	0.000
Extra-curricular activities	7.447	0.805	7.332	0.735	0.81	0.421
Familiarity	7.335	1.539	6.797	1.396	3.72	0.000
Child-centered	9.409	1.029	9.102	0.948	2.31	0.025
Duties	7.961	0.946	7.470	0.818	3.62	0.001
Instructor	6.299	0.979	6.543	0.804	1.98	0.053



Information from the previous six tables is summarised in table 63, where only an indication of the amount of difference between actual and expected scores is shown.

Table 63: Role Constraint - a summary

Differences significant beyond the 5% level are indicated by an asterisk, and those beyond the 1% level by two asterisks.

The column headings are:

(1) Head teachers      (2) Parents      (3) Pupils

	All teachers			Nursery-infant teachers			Junior teachers			Secondary teachers		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
Discipline		**	**		*	**			*			**
Extra-curricular activities								*			*	
Familiarity	**	**	**							**	**	**
Child-centered	**	**	**	**	**	**	*	**	**		**	*
Duties			*			*		**	**	**		**
Instructor	*	**			*			*		**	**	

The division of results into three groups corresponding to the educational sectors tends to confirm the earlier findings. The impression that more constraint is felt from parents and pupils is supported. Constraint felt from the head can now be seen to be minimal amongst primary school teachers, though secondary teachers feel their head teachers impose just as much constraint as their pupils and parents. An important new finding emerges: nursery-infant and junior teachers experience far less role constraint than their secondary colleagues do. The responses made to each of the role scales becomes more distinct. All three groups of teachers experience considerable



constraint with regard to their Child centered concept of teaching. Constraint caused by the scale Familiarity can now be seen to be limited to secondary schools. The restrictions perceived by teachers become more obvious if each of the role scales is examined in turn.

Discipline. The only group which is seen by teachers as expecting strict and formal standard of discipline is that of secondary head teachers; otherwise, teachers have a more rigorous conception than they expect parents, pupils, or primary school heads to require. Understandably, it is the differences with pupils' expectations that are the most significant.

Extra-curricular activities. Constraint in this role area is less marked than in any other. Heads in secondary schools are again thought to expect more extra-curricular activity by their staff - the difference just reaches the 5% level of significance. The high degree of activity typical of junior teachers seems to be contrary to the wishes they receive from parents, though the difference only just reaches significance. The outstanding impression is that teachers feel under no real external influence to participate in such activities.

Familiarity. Primary school staff in general appear to experience no restrictions to the nature of their social relationships. This must help to make many primary schools happy and friendly places in which to work. In contrast, secondary teachers report finding restraint from all sides. This situation must surely be considered role conflict, for all the differences are very significant. The finding is consistent with the greater feeling of reserve already found

amongst them, especially in women staff. The acuteness of their situation may be relieved a little because they adopt a position between the contrasting demands of pupils on the one hand, and the head and parents on the other.

Child-centered. This role area is the only one to cause more feelings of constraint in primary schools than in secondary, though even amongst secondary teachers there is a considerable effect. Each group of teachers has greater concern for the welfare of individual children than they expect any of the counter-position studied to do. The differences between positions are very significant more often than not. Such an extreme role concept can only be held if teachers are very certain of their aims, for they hold out against parents, pupils, and (save in secondary schools) the head. It says much for the professionalism of teachers that all of them should be so agreed upon this role area.

Duties. Each group of teachers claims that their pupils expect them to be less involved with duties than they themselves would wish. At first, this appears odd, for many of the duties - responsibility for the class, familiarity with radio and T.V., visits to the teachers' centre - could be expected to benefit the children. However, it may be nothing more than acknowledgement by teachers that there is far more to their work than the classroom contact which their pupils experience. It is interesting that, while all teachers are more involved with duties than they feel parents appreciate, it is only in junior schools (where teachers are particularly favourable to the notion of Extra-curricular activities), that the difference may be considered significant.



It may be that teachers have largely accepted that parents' wishes are similar to their own, at least in this role area (cf. Musgrove and Taylor's complaint (1965) that teachers take an unflattering view of parents).

Instructor. All parents are seen as expecting more of this quality than teachers feel they need to give. The obvious conclusion is that parents expect teachers to teach. The significantly lower scores given by all teachers may show that they have a wider conception of their role. Primary school teachers feel they meet their head's requirements, but secondary teachers see their head as also expecting more 'teaching' from them.

Table 64: An analysis of replies made to individual role items made with reference to role constraint

Mean scores are shown only as an indication of the responses; analysis by the  $X^2$  test is independent of mean values. The findings from the other items not contained in the six factor scales all showed little or no perception of constraint. The responses made to these items have not been divided into groups corresponding to the educational sectors.

Teachers' perception of constraint from parents

item no.	item	parents expected score	teachers actual score	$X^2$	p
20	Condemn outlandish classroom methods	3.670	2.981	32.341	0.000

Teachers' perception of constraint from pupils

item no.	item	pupils expected score	actual score	$X^2$	p
20	Condemn outlandish classroom methods	3.157	2.887	16.927	0.002
30	Possess an educational qualification	3.687	4.383	31.981	0.000



Little constraint was reported from expectations related to the individual role items which do not fit the six role scales. An indication of this is given in table 64. No constraint was felt from the head teacher for any of the items. Both parents and pupils were thought to expect teachers to condemn outlandish classroom methods (which supports the notion that they expect more 'teaching'). Pupils were also seen to consider educational qualifications for the teacher to be of little consequence, though teachers felt heads and parents both thought them very necessary. No constraint was felt over the possession of a degree.

### Discussion

The distinct nature of the findings from primary and secondary schools mean that the research hypothesis which initiated this investigation must be examined for each in turn. It seems true that teachers in primary schools do not experience high levels of role constraint; this finding is similar to that of Leese (1977) who worked in primary schools in an adjacent authority. Contrary to the hypothesis, however, secondary school teachers report sufficient constraint to warrant the description of general role conflict.

Headteachers of primary schools emerge from this analysis in quite a different light from those in secondary schools. Apart from some disagreement over child-centered attitudes (an area of considerable general conflict) teachers in nursery-infant and junior schools feel they are doing just what their head would wish, and so experience no other constraint from this direction at all. This conclusion is

directly against the original hypothesis, that whatever constraint is felt will come largely from the head teacher. The conflict which Taylor (1968) reported between primary school heads and their staff and concerned the teacher's personality has not been examined here; but his finding that the head was expected to require a greater measure of formal instruction is not supported.

In contrast, secondary school heads are felt to be far more demanding. Teachers see them as expecting more attention to duties, more 'teaching', and further activities outside the normal curriculum, all to be achieved with a more reserved and formal manner. These heads seem to exert just as much pressure on the teacher's role as parents and pupils, though not so much as to support the hypothesis that most of it comes from them. This is in general agreement with the substantial conflict with the head reported in secondary schools by Musgrove (1967). Grace, who also studied secondary school teachers, reported little conflict with the head (1972), though he was using essentially different concepts.

A reason for this difference between primary and secondary perceptions may lie in the nature of secondary teaching: it is more achievement biased, and the head will be particularly conscious of this. Removed from direct contact with the pupils, teachers may feel that he has less sympathy for the personal aspect of their work. A contributory factor for this must lie in the size of secondary schools. This makes regular contact with the head more difficult for teachers, so giving them less opportunity to discuss their conflicts, or even to perceive them adequately. Musgrove and Taylor (1969, p. 67) have



drawn attention to feelings of conflict being fuelled by poor communication.

All teachers feel that the influence that parents exert is considerable. The constraints are felt least in nursery and infant schools. This supports the idea that the inevitable close contact between parents and teachers of such young children will encourage mutual understanding (as was found by Cohen and Cohen, 1970). It can also be reasoned that these teachers are acting more in the role of parent than any others, and are so more likely to have opinions that accord with their pupils' parents.

It is possible to discern a difference between junior and secondary teachers' feelings of parental constraint. Junior teachers have little real agreement with any parental expectation measured on these role scales, whilst secondary teachers do achieve this on at least two. For them, disagreements are specific, being acute on three role areas, whilst for junior staff they are more general.

The constraints imposed by pupils are felt uniformly by all teachers. Pupils are always seen as expecting less strict discipline, fewer child-centered activities, and less attention to duties. Teachers feel that pupils get the extra-curricular activities and instruction they expect, and that at least in primary schools, social relationships are at an acceptable level. The greater intimacy which secondary pupils are seen to expect is doubtless due to growing social maturity in these children, and so an inevitable source of role conflict if teachers are to preserve any barrier between themselves and the pupils.



Teachers all report feeling minimal constraint over extra-curricular activities, but there is sufficient in all other role areas for some of them to warrant it being considered as role conflict. Acute conflict may be reduced, at least psychologically, by adopting a position between the perceived constraints, but teachers do this only infrequently. The conflict caused by familiarity is confined to secondary schools, where teachers adopt a more intimate manner than they feel the head or parents expect, and a more reserved one than they feel pupils expect. Similarly, secondary teachers balance their attitude towards duties between the expectations they feel from the head and their pupils.

In all other instances, constraints tend to be seen as one-sided. This becomes extreme for the role area Child-centered, where every position is seen as expecting more class-centered work, often at a very significant level; yet all teachers are agreed in their determination, and have been shown to be generally aware that their colleagues hold similar views. It clearly represents a matter of professional idealism. A similar situation obtains for the role Discipline. All teachers feel their pupils expect less strict standards of discipline, and that parents and even the head expect a lower standard, though the differences are not very significant. The implication is that many teachers feel they must set their own standard of discipline against the constraints they perceive. Junior teachers alone appear to experience conflict from their attention to duties. They feel that parents and pupils both expect them to be less involved in such matters, and that they can expect little support from their head in the matter.

This finding, that teachers often have a distinct conception of their role in spite of contrary expectations they perceive from others, is good evidence of a determined and professional manner.

Chapter: 10

Final Discussions and the Conclusions



## Chapter 10: Final Discussions and the Conclusions

Several of the chapters in this account have contained summaries or discussions which have helped to relate findings to the initial hypotheses. The purpose of this concluding chapter is to offer a critique of the methods used before conclusions are drawn; to draw together salient points from throughout the study; to define more closely the areas which have not been resolved; and to suggest profitable lines for further research.

### Some criticisms of the study

The use of role items has allowed a broad but effective approach to be made to the concept of the teacher's role. The items were based upon initial interviews and a preliminary questionnaire. Hardly any comments were made in the main investigation about the nature of these items, although several additional contributions were made voluntarily. This is taken as evidence that the items were found to be meaningful and acceptable to the teachers surveyed. The large amount of information collected is likely to be as objective as that made by any other method. The purpose of subsequent analyses has been to group the data in various ways. Inevitably this has meant a loss of information about individuals and therefore makes it unlikely that generalizations can be applied to any individual teacher. Such a loss is particularly unfortunate in the examination of role constraints, for the pressure felt by an individual teacher may be quite different to that generally experienced. However, in an exploratory study, it was not considered appropriate to examine the concepts of individuals, and so this did not feature amongst the initial aims. The limitation in this particular circumstance is acknowledged by the use of the term 'constraint' rather than 'conflict', a more specific term.

Many illustrative comments, written by the responding teachers or made during the many discussions which have accompanied this work, have not been used directly. Their incorporation may well have clarified some of the issues which have been raised. It would also have added to the overall length of the account, and would not have contributed to the objective data obtained in the study. In an indirect way, however, observations and comments have given much to the analyses and discussion, and their value is acknowledged.

The additional items relating to role constraints which were contained in those versions of the questionnaire directed particularly to head teachers, parents and pupils respectively have not been analysed in full. Since these items were also contained in the Basic version, an opportunity exists for an analysis of the teacher's role in a more extensive manner than that described here. The opportunity is limited because of the comparatively small number of respondents who were offered all these items. A preliminary analysis shows that the first five of the scales used here form a major part of such a more extensive survey.

The present investigation has been able to show the important correlates of teachers' role concepts, and has allowed comparisons to be drawn between the concepts of teachers in one educational sector with those in another. It has given an indication of the understanding which exists between members of the profession, and has allowed a preliminary study of the constraints teachers see surrounding their role.



In the initial consideration of items, an attempt was made to select those which had some relevance to the concept of education in general, rather than to specific classroom techniques. The relationship found between scores on the role scales and the more general measures of educational opinion is some indication that this was effective. Another indication of the relationship lies in the small number of items which were considered irrelevant by any number of teachers, other than might have been expected. On many items, teachers appear to have taken a 'may or may not' attitude rather than consider the matter as irrelevant. This unwillingness to see an item as being of no concern to their work illustrates an aspect of the diffuseness which teachers see as being characteristic of their role.

When attempts were made by judges to combine items into groups corresponding to theoretically derived areas of role, there was a marked lack of agreement. The difficulty in categorizing arises because a given item may be interpreted differently by two judges, or even by one judge if it is set against different circumstances. From the teacher's point of view, this reflects the flexibility in role conception stressed by Westwood (1969), Hoyle (1969), and Gammage (1973). From the point of view of this study, it shows what caution must be exercised before responses can be grouped, either to rationalize the concept or to form scales.

The value of factor analysis has been to give an unbiased, relatively objective method of combination. The difficulty of making an unequivocal classification is shown by the small amount of variance accounted for by the factors extracted. Despite the selection of items



with relatively low consensus for the main investigation, the amount of residual variance has remained high. This shows another aspect of role diffuseness: even items which are accepted as part of the teacher's role are difficult to place in relation to each other in any coherent sense.

The low reliability of the scales extracted was not unexpected. It means that this particular method of analysis may not be the most suitable for subsequent studies, even if they are made in a similar fashion. In this particular study, the scales have gone some way towards defining areas of the teacher's role which are meaningful although there may be little agreement amongst teachers as to their importance. They have enabled the comparisons made in this study to be made. These areas could form useful foci for other work, especially when other methods of collecting information are employed.

#### Differences in role associated with the three educational sectors

The age of the children being taught is confirmed as having a very considerable influence upon role conception. This is no surprise, for to a serving teacher the aims of each educational sector appear very distinct. If anything, the unexpected finding is that teachers of nursery-infant and junior children agree to such a large extent. The traditional practice of considering primary and secondary sectors as distinct for many research purposes, but of combining infant and junior sectors, is strongly supported. It highlights the difficulties facing any teacher who elects to work in a 'middle' school, since colleagues coming originally from both junior and secondary schools will bring widely differing concepts of what they should be doing. The number of replies

from middle school teachers in this survey is insufficient to justify an analysis of this aspect of the study in detail, but it is very likely that many of these teachers feel confused over the most appropriate behaviour for them. This is likely to bring higher feelings of constraint and a lack of cohesion amongst staff. The work of Ginsburg et al. (1977) contains many comments from middle school teachers supporting this contention.

In almost every respect, secondary school teachers have been found to have more conservative and traditional attitudes than primary school teachers. This conclusion supports the findings of Ryans (1960) rather than those of Cortis (1972). Cortis admits that his findings were contrary to expectation: they were based on the views of teachers taken during the final stages of their training and again after two years of service. It seems that more experienced teachers conform to expectation.

Results of this study show that the considerable differences in role conception held by men and women teachers are almost entirely associated with their unequal distribution in junior and secondary schools. Many of the apparent differences are associated rather with the age of the children being taught. Men and women teachers in a particular educational sector disagree on very few items, despite what has been suggested in a number of theoretical studies (e.g. Hoyle, 1969, p. 59). This finding supports the intensive study of Kniveton (1977) who also found few differences between teachers' conceptions of their role which could be attributed to sex alone. It seems possible that the differences found in this study between men and women teachers in junior schools may also



be attributed to the sort of class they take within such schools, but this hypothesis has not been tested.

An important difference between men and women teachers lies in their attitude towards university degrees. All women teachers see less need for such qualifications. This is evidence of the considerable difference of opinion existing between the sexes on professionally-orientated matters which was predicted by Purvis (1973) and demonstrated, at least in a group of deputy head teachers, by Coulson and Cox (1977). The greater reserve which women teaching in secondary schools show cannot be explained so easily, and would justify further investigation.

Many of the differences associated with graduate status are reduced or even lost when note is taken of the insignificant number of graduate teachers in primary schools. Even among secondary school staff, there was only limited evidence of the two types of teacher based largely upon graduate status which were recognized by Kob in 1961. As the proportion of graduates with education as a major component of their degree increases, such a division will become even more unlikely in the future.

Measurements of school climate, assessed as a mean score from the perceptions of staff, show that primary schools are seen as more 'open' than secondary schools, though the difference only just reached significance. In both nursery-infant and junior schools, recognition of an 'open' school climate is associated with a more 'open' concept of role, and vice versa. This finding is expected since it is the same group of people who are making two similar decisions. However, in secondary schools, role concepts seem to be held regardless of a teacher's perception of the school climate.



The perception of school climate, which depends heavily upon the idea of morale, may be influenced by many variables. Tests have shown that the actual size of the school is unrelated to the perception of its climate by staff, but the head teacher's behaviour is likely to be critical. No direct measures of this have been made in this study (though an indirect one comes from the feelings of constraint from the head, and this will be examined again shortly), but it was central to Halpin's thinking in the initial definition of school climates. To account for the difference which perception of school climate has on role conception, it may be hypothesised that teachers in primary schools are strongly influenced by their head teacher, whilst those in secondary schools feel much less influence from their head. The head's influence in primary schools is strong because of the intimate nature of such schools, and because he or she is seen as possessing expert knowledge of teaching. Some evidence for this last assertion comes from the role concepts of deputy heads. Many of these will be seeking promotion. Their radical conception of role will be held partly as an example or encouragement to their colleagues, and partly because they consider such behaviour is appropriate to head teachers. In contrast, secondary school head teachers have a limited influence because of the size of their school, because staff see the role of the head as an administrator just as much as a teacher, and because heads are likely to be unfamiliar with much of the specialist teaching which is found in secondary schools. Some evidence relative to this hypothesis comes from the study which has been made of role constraint; but despite the number of studies which have been made of the head teacher, there seems to be room for more, especially into the interaction they have with their staff.

Constraint has been defined as being present when there is a difference between teachers' expectations for themselves and those which they believe are held for them by others. The constraint they feel is also shown to be related to the age of the children being taught. The expectations from all three of the counter positions studied are perceived in a similar manner by nursery-infant and junior teachers, but quite differently by secondary staff. Rather more constraint is felt by secondary teachers to come from parents and pupils than is felt by primary teachers from these positions. The head teachers in secondary schools are thought by their staff to exert more constraint than either parents or pupils, whereas primary school heads seem to exert hardly any constraint at all. There is almost complete agreement on role conception between the head teacher and staff in nursery, infant and junior schools. This finding offers good evidence in favour of the hypothesis just developed. In primary schools, the relationship between the staff's perception of the school climate (probably determined by the head teacher) and their role conception is close, and the constraint felt from the head is minimal. In secondary schools, perception of the school climate has little influence upon teachers' conception of their role, and considerable constraint is felt to come from the head.

The constraint, as measured in this study, experienced by secondary teachers in general is often extreme. It may be felt from all three counter-positions at once, and often this comes in a uni-directional manner. Although individual teachers may have a quite different experience, there seems to be no reason why this situation should not be called a conflict of role. Teachers who hold concepts of their role against such



pressure show great professional determination. They may get some encouragement from the senior teachers who are found in secondary schools in positions between the head and classroom teachers. The role concepts of scale 4 post holders (shown in table 43) are very similar to those of scale 1 and 2 teachers, and quite unlike that thought by secondary teachers in general to be expected by their head (table 62). It seems that the holders of these senior teaching posts experience severe role conflict whilst serving as an example for their colleagues in less responsible positions. However, this argument is not very strong, for it relies on a score perceived for the head, whilst that for senior teachers is an actual measurement. It is quite possible that teachers imagine some constraints from their head, just as Musgrove and Taylor (1965) have shown they do for parents. The findings of Cohen (1965) concerning head teachers' conception of their role are hardly a valid comparison, if only because the organisation of secondary schools has changed so much; but a tentative matching of scores for individual items made in his study with the same items used in this one shows that at least some constraints may be imagined. In large comprehensive schools, ineffective communication could well allow this to happen. Teaching may well be a 'self-fulfilling prophecy' (Westwood, 1967, p. 129).

#### Teachers and Professionalism

The term 'professional' has been used at a number of points in the preceding account without any definition. There is no simple definition which is generally accepted. Here, it is taken to refer to the shared view of what a teacher is, does, and believes; that is, the consensus view used by Purvis (1973, p. 57, fn.). The study of role



cohesion was designed to examine this definition.

Evidence suggests that teachers have a high degree of unanimity or common ground in the conceptions of their role, which includes the belief that it is appropriate for colleagues in different sectors to address themselves to different aims. Individual teachers also hold very diverse views of their own role. Such a broad-based yet differentiated understanding does not accord well with the popular view of a profession, a point already stressed by both Wilson (1962) and Westwood (1967). The view that a profession can be defined by a common set of aims, beliefs and attitudes is too simplistic. It must be extended to incorporate a sense of differentiation when this is agreed amongst the members of the profession.

Compared to the differences which actually exist, between the concepts of teachers in the three educational sectors, the understanding which teachers have of their colleagues' role is accurate. This feeling of coherence amongst themselves will encourage professional feelings which will not be appreciated by those outside the profession.

The profession has a better, though more complex, sense of its cohesiveness than may be perceived by the general public. This study has found that, once the age of the children being taught is held constant, role concepts are held with little regard for sex, training, and personality. The influence which biographical variables have been expected to have upon role conception (by amongst others, Gammage, 1973) has not been found. The reason lies in the difference between the role expected

of teachers by the public and that which they hold for themselves, as Hoyle (1969), has already pointed out.

This differentiated concept of role is not affected by the changes which have been found to occur with experience in school. The length of teaching experience has two distinct influences upon role conception. The first, more obvious, one is related to a settling-in period, during which the ideas of teaching gained from tradition and training are matched against the realities of the job. Such a change has been predicted by several theoretical studies (Wilson, 1962; Westwood, 1967; and Gammage, 1973) and can be inferred from the known reactions of students commencing teaching (Gibson, 1971). Since the role of teacher is drawn in such broad terms, this takes time; but a stable conception has been adopted by most teachers within five years of commencing work. Westwood (1967) questions whether teachers trained for three, or even four, years in teacher training courses are able to settle to a stable conception of role any more quickly than the graduates who receive only one year of professional training, and in view of the graduate training which is now expected for almost all new entrants to the profession, this is very pertinent. The idea has not been examined here, though the necessary information is available.

The second change only comes with maturity, and does not come until at least ten years, and even longer in some role areas, have been spent in the profession. Consideration has been given to whether this represents a trend that is due to increasing age, or whether role conceptions, once formed, are fixed: the variation would then represent a



role pattern that was current at the time these older teachers ended their initial training. Whatever the reason may be, such changes in attitude due to increasing age or experience are acceptable, and even beneficial, to professional status.

Although the study has indicated a broad basis of agreement about role across the profession, nevertheless certain areas of misunderstanding have been revealed. In particular, these misunderstandings exist across the boundary between junior and secondary schools. Teachers are aware of the considerable division between primary and secondary education, but have not always been able to make an adequate allowance for it. It is suggested that another source of this misunderstanding lies in the readiness of nursery and infant teachers to see teaching in more idealistic terms than their colleagues. Their own role concepts are high, and they expect teachers in junior and secondary schools to hold equally high conceptions. A possible explanation is that (despite the inference given by the variety of items which they accepted as 'relevant') nursery and infant teachers have a more limited perception of the diversity of the teacher's role. Hoyle (1969) has suggested that nursery and infant school teachers find the role of model as especially relevant, and that the teachers of older children progressively add further roles to this one as they become appropriate. Westwood (1967) has drawn attention to the 'pecking order' amongst teachers, in which nursery and infant teachers come at the bottom. If this is so, nursery and infant teachers could well adopt a more earnest attitude to the roles which they feel are entirely correct for them, and so expect colleagues to do likewise. Little attention has been given in this study to academic learning, which has limited relevance in nursery and infant schools. It is suggested



that some compensation that teachers in such schools make for this omission is reflected in their attitudes to other, more general, areas of the teacher's role. Gammage (1973), writing from the point of view of primary education, considers the primary teacher's role to be more diverse than the secondary teacher's, but only with the qualification that 'book-learning' is not considered.

Despite the generally accurate perception which teachers have of each other's role, very few of them actually consider working in another educational sector. The reasons for this must lie in the ways in which role concepts are put into practice. This study has made no attempt to investigate what teachers do to operationalize their role. There is a need for further investigation. It is hoped that the scheme developed here and the initial studies based upon it will have defined areas of the teacher's role, and offered sufficient indication of the likely findings, to act as a stimulus and perhaps a framework for further work. This could well depend upon the techniques of participant observation and interaction analysis. There is a real need to explore the relationship between concepts and practice in the teacher's role.

### Conclusions

This study of the teacher's role has attempted to cover aspects relating to society and the school in addition to those relating to the classroom. It has allowed comparisons between the role concepts of various groups of practising teachers to be examined, and a number of other related studies to be made. If the investigation had been made

completely in terms of classroom practices, it is likely that several of these comparisons could not have been undertaken.

The conclusions reached are set out with respect to the initial research hypotheses given in chapter three, but they represent only the major findings. Several others are offered in the discussion in chapters seven to ten.

Hypothesis 1 is supported: the class for which the teachers is responsible has a very considerable influence upon role conception. Nursery-infant and junior teachers have very similar concepts; those of secondary teachers are quite distinct. The staff of secondary schools are more conservative and less child-centered.

Hypothesis 2 is generally supported: when the age of the children being taught is held constant, biographical variables have little or no relation to role conception. The amount of teaching experience has two effects: the first is associated with an early, settling-in period, and the second is due to the more radical views of older teachers. The level of responsibility carried by a teacher has little influence upon role conception in general, though the roles held by nursery nurses are distinct, as could have been expected, while those of junior school deputy heads are distinct in a way that could hardly have been expected.

Hypothesis 3 is only supported in part. Personality, at least as measured in the terms of this study, has very little influence on roles. Of the Educational Opinion scales, naturalmindedness has no effect upon role conception; tendermindedness has some influence; but radical

thinking has the most profound effect of all the variables examined. Extreme conceptions of role are held by radical teachers for each of the role areas defined in this study. Measures of the perception of school climate are closely related to role conceptions of primary school teachers; but not to those of secondary school teachers.

The hypothesis relating to role constraint is supported in primary schools, where relatively little constraint is felt. In secondary schools, the constraint reported is considerable and varied, and worthy of the term role conflict. This is especially marked with respect to the head.

The hypothesis relating to role cohesion is generally supported well. Considering the wide differences which exist in conception of their role between different groups of teachers, they have an accurate perception of each other's role. The misunderstandings that do occur are mostly associated with the considerable division between the primary and secondary sectors of education. Some are also due to a sense of idealism in nursery and infant school teachers. Despite their diffuse role, teachers are probably justified in their claims to be considered as a profession, though some of their evidence is not likely to be appreciated by the public.



Appendix

Table I: Items used in the preliminary investigation  
and an analysis of the response

Answers were sought on a 5-point scale, scored 5 for absolutely must to 1 for absolutely must not. There were 124 respondents.

The number considering an item irrelevant to them in their situation is shown; this number was subtracted from the total of respondents before the mean was calculated.

Recognition of items with unusually high or low consensus is explained in the text; these items are marked 'H' or 'L' respectively.

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
1	Help children to acquire good manners and good speech	4.398	.418	-	H
2	Praise pupils' work frequently	4.488	.577	-	
3	Discuss with colleagues new materials and methods which might improve the quality of your teaching	4.512	.501	-	
4	Treat every child alike in rewarding and punishment	3.992	1.028	-	L
5	Keep a particular check on the work of children suspected of underachievement by parents or other staff	4.301	.526	-	
6	Guard against showing affection to children in your class	3.141	1.082	2	L
7	Allow children to act at times on what you consider to be wrong decisions on their part	3.413	.760	2	

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
8	Be an active member of a teacher's professional organisation, such as NUT or NAS	3.395	.608	8	
9	Co-operate willingly with researchers who are trying to advance knowledge in your field	4.107	.560	2	
10	Bring the work of particularly able or of less capable children to the notice of your colleagues	4.148	.638	1	
11	Encourage children to disagree with you at times	3.613	.679	4	
12	Expect support from the head, even though you may be reprimanded later in private	4.691	.480	1	
13	Alternate interesting work with less interesting so that pupils will appreciate the former yet gain by the discipline of the latter	3.621	.994	6	L
14	Give consideration to local feelings regarding colour, race, religion, country of origin, in your teaching	3.842	.967	10	L
15	Press for higher salaries	3.833	.809	15	
16	Encourage the development of joint parent-teacher social activities	3.590	.686	5	
17	Encourage children to seek their own position in society, regardless of their background	4.303	.591	4	
18	Possess a university degree	3.071	.411	25	H
19	Try to ensure that in your classroom pupils are all working on the same subject or topic	2.878	.627	8	



Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
20	Consider your main responsibility to be to teach subjects such as English, Maths, Music, History, etc.	3.060	1.125	22	L
21	Allow older pupils in the school more privileges than younger ones	3.534	.820	7	
22	Help children to acquire attitudes and values not fostered in them in their own homes	3.846	.757	-	
23	By your own example in dealing with children, stress kindness and courtesy	4.626	.449	-	
24	Discuss serious personal problems with the head teacher	3.504	.859	6	
25	Consult with parents of children whose behaviour does not satisfy the school's standards	4.220	.683	-	
26	Never allow children to know how you will react to classroom situations	2.728	.983	9	
27	Defend the head against unsubstantiated criticisms by parents	4.423	.712	-	L
28	Reprimand a child on his work in front of other children	2.780	.535	-	H
29	Mention to a colleague your awareness of that teacher's discipline problems and offer to help	2.886	.703	-	
30	Be responsible for your class when they are outside the classroom	4.058	.792	3	L
31	Devote most of your time to working with individual pupils or small groups	3.512	.754	2	

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
32	Allow pupils to discover 'right' and 'wrong' in behaviour and attitudes for themselves	3.186	.823	4	
33	Keep regular records of all work done	4.463	.576	-	
34	Meet parents informally in local community affairs and activities	3.395	.572	4	H
35	Allow children to choose other pupils with whom they wish to work in class	3.352	.587	1	
36	Know how to teach: i.e. a good knowledge of the methods and principles of teaching, rather than a detailed knowledge of one or two subjects	4.352	.667	1	
37	Deal with your own discipline problems rather than refer them to a higher authority	4.081	.453	-	H
38	Keep children informed about policy and organisational changes that in any way affect them	4.322	.599	5	
39	Consider that a stricter standard of conduct in the community applies to you because you are a teacher	3.443	.821	8	
40	Be able to converse with the head regularly	4.382	.503	-	
41	Be able to teach a number of subjects quite well	4.076	.707	5	
42	Evaluate the work of pupils on the basis of their individual improvement rather than by comparing them with other children	4.626	.501	-	L
43	Act as mediator in conflicts between children	3.626	.793	-	

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
44	Comply with parents' requests to keep children in at play-time or excuse them from games and P.E.	3.446	.670	2	
45	Read the Times Educational Supplement, Teacher's World or similar professional journal each week	3.470	.537	3	H
46	Take up a teaching appointment in a difficult school or depressed area	3.145	.390	13	H
47	Encourage parents to participate in the education of their children	4.131	.654	1	
48	Be familiar with children's radio and television programmes	3.850	.480	3	H
49	Change schools every two or three years to gain experience and promotion	3.192	.570	3	H
50	Keep personal opinions out of school	3.172	.810	1	
51	Expect to supply some teaching aids - pictures, newspaper cuttings, materials - out of your own pocket	3.220	1.090	-	L
52	Invite visitors into the school from outside to talk to the pupils about their (the visitors) work, interests, etc.	3.967	.515	2	
53	Evaluate your own teaching regularly	4.545	.447	-	
54	Be familiar with the norms and values of your pupils' parents (e.g. by reading a variety of newspapers and watching all T.V. channels)	3.845	.557	6	



Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
55	Encourage a uniformity of technique and curriculum throughout the school	3.521	.972	6	L
56	Join a teachers' organisation reflecting a subject specialism: the Society for Environmental Education, etc.	3.183	.503	14	
57	Relate teaching to everyday life	4.295	.584	1	
58	Set your pupils individual targets rather than secure a uniform advance	4.174	.641	2	
59	Be competent at school matters outside your classroom subject or age range: i.e. in stock requisitioning, timetabling, attendance returns, etc.	4.172	.540	1	
60	Attempt to control pupils' dress and behaviour out of school	2.667	.861	12	
61	Avoid all familiarity with children	2.533	.946	1	L
62	Turn a blind eye to infringements of the school rules at times	3.089	.799	-	
63	Avoid 'giving a dog a bad name'	4.236	.724	-	L
64	Co-operate with the police in combating crime	4.372	.591	10	
65	Connect your out-of-school activities largely with youth work, sport, etc.	2.904	.544	19	
66	Avoid open familiarity with colleagues in front of children	3.139	.902	1	L

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
67	Consider your main responsibility to be to act as a sort of 'substitute parent' to the pupils in the class	2.769	1.055	2	L
68	Encourage children to form a class council to make rules for their own classroom behaviour	3.065	.659	30	
69	Seek information from parents about children's homework habits, bedtime, week-end activities, reading habits	3.483	.659	7	
70	Ensure that the head is kept informed of changes in a child's circumstances	4.512	.534	3	
71	Lose your patience at times to show that you are only human	3.403	.986	3	L
72	Insist on all pupils wearing uniform	3.373	1.051	40	L
73	Keep your subject separate and distinct in the pupils' minds from other subjects taught in the school	1.890	.764	41	
74	Punish the aggressive child for his attacks on other children	3.854	.806	-	
75	Supervise school meals, collect savings, etc.	2.738	.916	1	
76	As a newly-appointed teacher, start as a strict disciplinarian and gradually become more approachable as your class respects your authority	4.306	.705	2	L
77	Help children to be self-disciplined	4.520	.430	-	H
78	Take an active part in church affairs	2.890	.440	3	H

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
79	Write articles for professional journals which will be of benefit to others in teaching	3.189	.328	12	H
80	Ostracise colleagues who express radical political or religious views	2.115	.897	10	
81	Supervise the children's movement about the school to and from classes and during break	3.808	.834	3	
82	Organise additional displays, museums, or self-guided learning projects	3.966	.454	5	H
83	Give talks to local groups about what you are doing in the school	3.118	.309	11	H
84	Have access to the children's personal record folders and to all information contained in them	4.472	.617	-	
85	Condemn classroom methods that are, in your opinion, too 'outlandish' and impracticable	2.847	.959	5	L
86	Use the comparison of one child's work with that of another as a method of motivation	2.691	.725	-	
87	Expect to do some teaching in a team situation with a teaching assistant	3.763	.737	5	
88	Have an equal voice in school matters with all colleagues, regardless of how senior they may be	3.943	.749	-	
89	Get to know children in out-of school situations such as visits weekend camps, school holidays abroad, etc.	3.911	.552	11	



Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
90	Be consulted about which pupils to have (or not have) within your class	3.640	.855	12	
91	Take a part in the cultural life of the community by supporting a musical society or a drama group, etc.	3.151	.350	17	H
92	Join with children from your class in some out-of-school activities	3.646	.586	10	H
93	Take a neutral stand on any issue in which the community is evenly divided	2.973	.804	11	
94	Encourage children to follow their own interests by using activities designed to allow this	4.025	.555	2	
95	Have a good knowledge of child development	4.455	.499	-	
96	Make regular reports to parents about their children's academic and social standards	3.943	.561	-	
97	Prefer your pupils to acquire a broad understanding of a number of subjects rather than a detailed knowledge of one or two	4.228	.504	9	H
98	Compliment a child on his work in front of other children	4.195	.696	-	
99	Expect to take some school work home at times	4.195	.902	-	L
100	Visit the local teachers' centre frequently	3.608	.613	3	
101	Consider the acquisition of good manners to be more important than academic knowledge	3.134	.770	4	
102	Bring the activities of disobedient pupils to the notice of your colleagues	3.715	.695	-	

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
103	Take an active part in morning assembly	3.483	.678	5	
104	Actively follow curriculum development in areas of importance to your work	4.120	.479	6	H
105	Allow children to confide in you with personal problems that they may not wish to discuss with their parents	4.256	.661	6	
106	Put the welfare of all pupils above that of an individual child	3.553	.748	-	
107	Regularly publish a list of marks showing rank order of pupils	2.147	.946	21	L
108	Know the emotional problems of your pupils and help them with their difficulties	4.301	.526	-	
109	Encourage children to follow worthwhile out-of-school pursuits	4.127	.501	5	
110	Interpret 'right' and 'wrong' for children	3.645	.805	2	
111	Mark all work done by pupils	4.475	.652	5	
112	Make a definite effort to keep abreast of 'pop' culture	3.463	.546	15	H
113	Be allowed to use corporal punishment as one form of discipline	3.358	1.094	-	L
114	Organise extra-curricular activities	3.835	.516	8	H
115	Keep up-to-date records of all pupils' progress	4.463	.515	-	
116	Encourage children to like you	3.474	.747	9	
117	Teach for understanding rather than reproduction	4.516	.517	1	

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
118	Expect to be able to discuss children's work with their parents at a 'parents evening'	4.463	.515	-	
119	Maintain your authority at all times	4.358	.713	-	L
120	Attend meetings to discuss parents' suggestions and requests with them and the head	3.864	.571	5	
121	Occasionally remind pupils of your superior position and experience	3.432	.821	12	
122	Put 'slow' learners with other 'slow' learners in all academic work	2.797	1.019	5	L
123	Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of your pupils	3.571	.547	4	H
124	Operate some scheme of marks, stars, etc. in your classroom	3.359	.750	6	
125	Expect children in your class to be of similar ability so as to make teaching more efficient	2.722	1.176	8	L
126	Expect that important incidents concerning your pupils in out-of-school hours are brought to your notice	3.967	.641	1	
127	Advise others to take up teaching as a career when asked to	2.991	.437	9	H
128	Get right away from the school locality for your relaxation and entertainment	3.748	.857	4	
129	Refuse to see parents without a previous appointment	2.132	.816	2	
130	Possess a recognised qualification in Education	4.508	.595	3	L



Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrele- vant Replies	Con- sensus
131	Hold the values and norms of the majority of your pupils	3.148	.500	15	
132	Teach children to obey orders at once and without question	3.164	.982	1	L
133	Reflect traditional rather than liberal moral attitudes	3.308	.761	5	
134	Teach the 3 R's as your first responsibility as a teacher	3.735	1.072	10	L
135	Have on paper long range teaching schemes	3.557	.750	1	
136	Make up your own scheme of work of what you will teach	3.797	.626	-	
137	Take an active part in local politics	2.791	.489	32	H
138	Encourage parents to visit the school	4.016	.494	-	
139	In spending the allowance, give greater consideration to cost factors than to educational needs	2.174	.789	8	
140	Carry out decisions of the head teacher even when you believe them to be wrong	3.667	.855	-	
141	Attend in-service courses relevant to your subject or age range	4.146	.489	-	
142	Use extra academic work as one form of punishment	2.728	.858	9	
143	Keep all promises made to children	4.610	.471	-	
144	Evaluate textbooks and teaching materials before using them	4.623	.432	1	H
145	Encourage children to be tidy	4.431	.444	-	H
146	Live within the school catchment area	2.539	.669	8	H

Table I: continued

Code No.	Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Irrelevant Replies	Consensus
147	Insist upon neatness and tidiness in children's written work	4.233	.658	3	
148	Use monitors to give out work and materials	3.398	.644	5	
149	Be prepared to give sex instruction	3.858	.684	10	
150	Encourage school efforts like collections for charitable causes, etc.	3.818	.563	2	
151	Support the head in a discipline problem where the head, in your opinion, has acted wrongly	3.885	.694	1	
152	Reflect liberal rather than conservative cultural views	3.118	.473	13	
153	Give greater attention to the more capable pupils than to the less capable ones	1.868	.654	2	
154	Avoid involvement with factional groups in the community	3.476	.874	18	
155	Give praise sparingly lest it lost its effectiveness	2.574	.890	1	
156	Ignore parents' opinions about the method or content of teaching	2.721	.646	1	
157	Encourage respect for authority and for property	4.610	.488	-	

Table II: Definitions of the role areas given to judges for placement of items used in the preliminary investigation

Each judge was asked to fit the items into one or other of these role areas, as far as seemed appropriate.

Area 1 In the Classroom

These roles apply to the teacher particularly in the context of the classroom, as opposed to those concerning the school or society in general.

a. Representative of Society

Teachers represent to children the values which society wishes to inculcate. By precept and example, they try to develop the thinking patterns, the moral attitudes, the life goals which make for a good life. The teacher is a mirror of the society in which he lives.

b. Judge

Teachers judge the quality of a youngster's personality. They are expected to screen out the 'unworthy' who do not 'deserve' to pass into the next class or school. Children and their parents either hope or fear that teachers will form opinions upon which they or other people can act.

c. Resource

An instructor is expected to be a living textbook from which one can get information. Children expect to be able to ask questions and to receive answers.

d. Helper in the learning process

When an individual or a group of children encounters some difficulty in learning, the teacher is presumed to help overcome the obstacle. They ask leading questions; conduct discussions; lead children over the problem step by step. Parents and children both judge a teacher's worth by ability to do this job.

e. Referee

When young people find themselves in disagreement they will often carry the dispute to an adult for decision. A teacher is valued for the fairness of the verdict or the skill with which the differences are reconciled.



f. Detective

When belongings disappear, injuries are inflicted and rules are broken, victims and by-standers wait for the damage to be rectified, the culprit punished and security to be restored. Prestige lies in preserving law and order; blundering leads to unwise use of third degree methods or mass punishment.

g. Object of identification

Young people may take over the surface traits of teachers such as manner of walking or method of grooming. Through values expressed in punishment or voiced in words, or illustrated in actions, teachers serve as models after whom some class members pattern themselves.

h. Limiters of anxiety

In the process of growing up and learning to control their impulses, many children develop anxiety. Unconsciously, they look to teachers to reduce this. By defining permissible behaviour, acting in a confident and competent manner, by being 'understanding', teachers can meet these expectations. By building an atmosphere of rigid severity or by stern threats, some teachers increase this anxiety.

i. Ego-supporter

Almost all children feel a lack of confidence in themselves at times. A good teacher will see that each child makes the most of his resources, gets assurance, and tastes success.

j. Group-leader

This is the field of classroom management. Teachers set the tone of a class. Teachers are expected to provide guidance so that groups of children achieve harmony in functioning and efficiency in reaching goals.

k. Parent surrogate

This is much more than a legal function. It occurs when nursery children throng around making bids for affection, and also when a senior girl seeks personal advice usually sought from a mother. Emotional attitudes towards parents may be displaced onto teachers.

l. Target for hostile feelings

Learning the ways of society causes frustration to every child. Hostility develops that may be deepened by rejection at home, parental overdomination or community pressure. Teachers should expect to cope with some juvenile ill-will that has nothing whatsoever to do with them.

m. Friend and confidante

Young people instinctively feel that life will be more pleasant if they and their teachers share confidence and good will in each other. Such ties may have a place in rounding out the child's world. Some teachers behave so as to increase the likelihood of such incidents because of the pleasure which can be involved.

n. Object of affection

As with adults, most children need to have someone to love. The ordinary friendly feelings of the classroom may sometimes take on a special force for some youngsters. Such feelings express psychological needs that are almost opposite to the hostility in (1.) above.

Area 2 In the School

These roles apply to the teacher particularly in the context of the school, as opposed to those concerning the classroom or society in general.

o. Administrator

Regardless of what or how he teaches, a teacher has to make plans to ensure the smooth running of the class and of the school. Pupils, colleagues and parents all need to know what he is doing and thinking. This involves paper work in drawing up schemes and making reports. It is often the least rewarding aspect of teaching, but nevertheless important.

p. Disciplinarian

A teacher needs to have the respect of children, both in his class and outside it. This may be sought by being superior and inapproachable just as much as by being kind, wise and tolerant. Pupils expect teachers to keep control without being overbearing, and teachers look to the head for reassurance in this role.

q. 'Teacher'

This refers to the public image of the teacher in school. It is expected that the teacher shall take the place of parents whilst children are at school. He is expected to be knowledgeable about one or more subjects, and especially in the teaching of them. He will also be expected to offer advice, on socialisation or career guidance. The balance between these expectations differs with the age of the children concerned, but teachers are expected to take on aspects of all of these.



r. Employee

Teachers need to observe the rules of their superiors, even though they do not always agree with them. This may well lead to a uniformity of procedures, to a standardised curriculum and similar teaching techniques. Because of this, a school atmosphere can develop, teachers and pupils sharing in a loyalty to the school.

s. Professional

Because of his training and comparative isolation in the classroom, a teacher may also expect to be autonomous. He will expect to handle his own discipline problems and will resent interference in the teaching of his subject 'specialism'. He expects to have a say in curriculum design and policy making. His loyalty lies with the teaching profession rather than with a school.

Area 3 In Society

These roles apply to the teacher particularly in the context of society in general, as opposed to those concerning the classroom or school.

t. Instructor

This is the most obvious and public of a teacher's roles. He transmits a body of knowledge and skills appropriate to the abilities and needs of the child. He performs this function through direct teaching and by organising learning situations of a less formal kind.

u. Judge

The teacher differentiates between children on the basis of their intellectual - and often social - skills in preparation for the social and occupational roles they will eventually play. This can be done by recommending promotions and demotions within the school, nominating children to take examinations, and counselling children and their parents with regard to appropriate school courses, further education, and employment.

v. Model

The teacher prepares the child for participating in the way of life of his society. Though much of this is taught, some is picked up by example. Values are 'caught and not taught', and are acquired in subtle ways in the process of teacher-pupil interaction. Success in encouraging children to take on a particular set of values depends to a great extent upon the teachers own conduct.



w.

Democrat

Whilst preparing a child for society, the teacher must also ensure that the child makes the most of himself. The teacher needs to draw out the individual, encouraging initiative, independence, and respect for the views of others. The child must be shown that there is more in life than what is immediately around him.

Table III: Nomination of items from the preliminary investigation to the roles based on Hoyle's model

Items are represented by the code numbers, see table I

Roles are represented by the code letters, see table II

Each nomination recorded here is agreed by at least five judges.

Item	is considered part of roles	Item	is considered part of roles	Item	is considered part of roles
1	a; g; k; q; v	41	a; g; v	81	h; p; w
2	d; i; w	42	r; s	82	b
3	c; s	43	s	83	a; f
4	e; j; p	44	k; m; w	84	-
5	b; d; u	45	s	85	p
6	m	46	a	86	k; q
7	d; w	47	a; m; v	87	j; w
8	s	48	a	88	q; u
9	c; s	49	d; i; j; w	89	o; r
10	d; u	50	d; h; s	90	v
11	a; k; m	51	b; q; u	91	c; a
12	b; i	52	d	92	b; d; i; u
13	-	53	i; w	93	e; w
14	k; q	54	s	94	-
15	s	55	s	95	s
16	-	56	a	96	-
17	b; p	57	r	97	q
18	c; k	58	a	98	d
19	g	59	r	99	-
20	p	60	p	100	r
21	-	61	f; j	101	-
22	c; d; q; t	62	-	102	d; t
23	d; o; s	63	e; p	103	d; s
24	o; d; o; s	64	a; g; h; w	104	-
25	a	65	a	105	d; r
26	q	66	s	106	c; d; s
27	o	67	-	107	g; k; m; q
28	p	68	p	108	-
29	r; s	69	d; t	109	-
30	p	70	a; q	110	k; m
31	s	71	b; d; k; o	111	a; w
32	p	72	-	112	h; v
33	d; t	73	i	113	d; s
34	w	74	-	114	-
35	j; o; t	75	s	115	f; p
36	a; v	76	a; d; h; v	116	-
37	h; w	77	d; j; t; w	117	d; o
38	c; d; q; s; t	78	o; s	118	g; m; p
39	e; f; p; s	79	a	119	d; j; t
40	h; j; w	80	p	120	k; m

Table III: continued

Items are represented by the code numbers, see table I

Roles are represented by the code letters, see table II

Each nomination recorded here is agreed by at least five judges.

Item	is considered part of roles	Item	is considered part of roles
121	f; p	141	c; d; s; t
122	r	142	p
123	p	143	g; p; v
124	b; d	144	c; d; j; s
125	a; d; j; v; w	145	a; g; v
126	r; s	146	-
127	d; t	147	-
128	-	148	o
129	s	149	c; k; q; t
130	-	150	a; g
131	a; i; w	151	r; v
132	c	152	w
133	-	153	-
134	-	154	a
135	p	155	a
136	a; g; k; v; w	156	-
137	a; g; j; p; v	157	a; f; g; p; v
138	r		
139	b; p		
140	r		





Table V: Scores gained by respondents in the main investigation to the sub-scales Esprit and Intimacy

The method of combining these scores to form a new variable 'School climate' is given in table 18 in the main text.

Esprit

Score	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
No. of respondents	1	2	5	7	5	9	16	20	38	41	43	36	43	24	65

Score	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
No. of respondents	43	43	39	39	28	22	24	20	10	11	10	4	3	3

Intimacy

Score	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
No. of respondents	2	3	16	23	30	60	79	80	108	81

Score	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
No. of respondents	56	42	35	18	10	5	4	1	1

Table VI: Mean Intimacy, Esprit and School climate scores for schools, together with the total number of staff and number of returns used for making these measures

The schools are identified by the code numbers they were given at the start of the investigation. Those which made less than five returns have been deleted. Secondary schools are asterisked (\*).

School:	01	03	04	05	06*	07*	08
Total no. of staff:	9	6	10	14	106	67	15
Mean Intimacy score:	12.6	16.4	17.3	13.0	13.3	13.5	15.2
Mean Esprit score:	21.8	29.8	32.0	23.5	24.7	23.8	24.4
Mean School climate score:	4.80	2.00	1.50	4.14	3.52	3.97	3.64
No. of returns:	5	5	6	7	44	29	11

School:	09	10	11	12	13	14*	15
Total no. of staff:	14	8	14	6	15	24	8
Mean Intimacy score:	15.9	12.6	16.0	15.8	15.7	13.6	15.7
Mean Esprit score:	32.2	23.0	30.1	31.6	29.1	28.0	29.3
Mean School climate score:	1.90	4.40	2.25	2.00	2.50	2.67	2.33
No. of returns:	10	5	8	5	10	9	6

School:	17	20	21	22	23	25	28
Total no. of staff:	12	12	16	8	15	9	20
Mean Intimacy score:	15.4	12.7	14.8	14.6	15.4	12.0	13.3
Mean Esprit score:	32.2	26.8	28.6	32.6	25.1	29.6	25.3
Mean School climate score:	1.80	3.33	2.64	2.40	3.44	2.40	3.58
No. of returns:	5	9	11	5	9	5	12

School:	29*	30*	32	33	35	37	41
Total no. of staff:	75	84	20	9	13	12	9
Mean Intimacy score:	13.0	14.8	14.0	15.6	17.2	12.8	13.3
Mean Esprit score:	24.2	26.5	30.7	28.4	33.1	27.1	24.8
Mean School climate score:	3.61	2.68	2.11	2.43	1.67	3.13	3.50
No. of returns:	33	35	9	7	9	8	6



Table VI: continued

School:	44	45	46	47	49*	50	52
Total no. of staff:	14	16	9	12	83	11	28
Mean Intimacy score:	13.7	14.0	14.0	14.3	13.8	12.5	14.9
Mean Esprit score:	26.9	21.5	26.2	26.9	25.4	19.8	25.9
Mean School climate score:	3.00	4.63	3.33	3.00	3.36	5.00	3.06
No. of returns:	9	8	6	9	33	6	16

School:	54	55	56	58*	59*	61	62*
Total no. of staff:	14	12	13	51	61	8	50
Mean Intimacy score:	13.1	17.6	13.2	12.8	13.8	17.2	12.6
Mean Esprit score:	24.9	30.0	26.4	23.4	24.5	32.7	22.4
Mean School climate score:	3.63	2.00	3.22	3.81	3.77	2.00	4.50
No. of returns:	8	10	9	27	31	6	20

School:	63	65	66	67	69	70	71
Total no. of staff:	9	17	15	14	15	16	21
Mean Intimacy score:	12.8	15.1	12.8	11.7	14.6	13.4	11.3
Mean Esprit score:	21.6	31.1	24.2	24.8	26.6	25.6	21.2
Mean School climate score:	4.80	1.85	3.60	3.70	3.33	3.45	4.64
No. of returns:	5	7	5	10	9	11	14

School:	72*	73
Total no. of staff:	49	17
Mean Intimacy score:	12.6	13.5
Mean Esprit score:	24.0	30.1
Mean School climate score:	3.86	2.45
No. of returns:	22	11

Table VII: Two Factor Analysis of Variance  
for the four comparable versions  
of the main questionnaire

This analysis is based upon the example in Campbell, R. C. (1974). *Statistics for Biologists*. London, Cambridge University Press, p. 205 - 32.

Imagine the data for each version of the questionnaire set out as a table, each item occupying a row, and each respondent's answers occupying a column. The situation is shown:

Items	Respondents							Total
	1	2	3	.	.	.	q	
1	Individual observations, $x_{ij}$							$R_1$
2								$R_2$
3								$R_3$
.								.
p								$R_p$
Total	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$	.	.	.	$C_q$	T

Basic version

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 33 & \frac{T^2}{p \cdot q} &= \frac{26498^2}{33 \cdot 224} = 94987.01 \\
 q &= 224 \\
 \sum x &= 26498 & \frac{\sum R^2}{q} &= \frac{21914639}{224} = 97833.21 \\
 \sum x^2 &= 103562 & \frac{\sum C^2}{p} &= \frac{3135637}{33} = 95019.30
 \end{aligned}$$

Source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean square	F
Items	2846.20	32	88.94	111.41
Respondents	32.39	223	.114	.181
Residual	5696.50	7136	.798	
Total	8574.99	7391		

Heads version

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 33 & \frac{T^2}{p \cdot q} &= \frac{12486^2}{33 \cdot 105} = 44992.84 \\
 q &= 105 \\
 \sum x &= 12486 & \frac{\sum R^2}{q} &= \frac{4854862}{105} = 46236.78 \\
 \sum x^2 &= 48296 & \frac{\sum C^2}{p} &= \frac{1491090}{33} = 45010.00
 \end{aligned}$$

Source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean square	F
Items	1243.94	32	38.87	48.41
Respondents	17.16	104	.165	.205
Residual	2672.06	3328	.803	
Total	3933.16	3464		

Parents version

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 33 & \frac{T^2}{p \cdot q} &= \frac{12672^2}{33 \cdot 106} = 45906.11 \\
 q &= 106 \\
 \sum x &= 12672 & \frac{\sum R^2}{q} &= \frac{5000362}{106} = 47173.23 \\
 \sum x^2 &= 49874 & \frac{\sum C^2}{p} &= \frac{1516353}{33} = 45950.09
 \end{aligned}$$

Source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean square	F
Items	1267.12	32	39.60	50.06
Respondents	43.98	105	.419	.530
Residual	2656.79	3360	.791	
Total	3967.89	3497		



Pupils version

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 33 & \frac{T^2}{p \cdot q} &= \frac{13715^2}{33 \cdot 115} = 49565.54 \\
 q &= 115 \\
 \sum x &= 13715 & \frac{\sum R^2}{q} &= \frac{5847179}{115} = 50845.04 \\
 \sum x^2 &= 53691 & \frac{\sum C^2}{p} &= \frac{1637785}{33} = 49629.85
 \end{aligned}$$

Source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean square	F
Items	1279.50	32	39.98	52.40
Respondents	64.31	114	.564	.740
Residual	2781.65	3648	.763	
Total	4125.46	3794		

Data from all four versions of the questionnaire can be combined, and the subsequent variance analysed, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Let } n &= \text{total number of respondents (columns)} \\
 &= 224 + 105 + 106 + 115 = \underline{550}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{Sum of squares for total in the combined analysis} \\
 &= (\text{within versions } \sum x^2) - \frac{(\text{overall total})^2}{p \cdot n} \\
 &= (103562 + 48926 + 49874 + 53691) \\
 &\quad - \frac{(26498 + 12486 + 12672 + 13715)^2}{33 \cdot 550} \\
 &= 256053 - \frac{65371^2}{18150} \\
 &= 256053 - 235447.25 = \underline{20605.75}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{Sum of squares between versions} \\
 &= \frac{\sum (\text{version total})^2}{p \cdot q} - \frac{(\text{overall total})^2}{p \cdot n} \\
 &= 94987.01 + 44992.84 + 45906.11 + 49565.54 \\
 &\quad - 235447.25 \\
 &= 235451.50 - 235447.25 = \underline{4.25}
 \end{aligned}$$

Sum of squares between items based on item totals over the four versions

$$= \frac{\sum(\text{item total})^2}{n} - \frac{(\text{overall total})^2}{p \cdot n}$$

$$= \frac{133015853}{550} - 235447.25$$

$$= 241847.00 - 235447.25 = \underline{6399.75}$$

Sum of items sums of squares in the version analyses

$$= 2846.20 + 1243.94 + 1267.12 + 1279.50$$

$$= 6636.76$$

Sum of squares for items x versions interaction

$$= 6399.75 - 6636.76 = \underline{237.01}$$

Sum of respondent sums of squares in the version analyses

$$= 32.29 + 17.16 + 43.98 + 64.31$$

$$= \underline{157.74}$$

Sum of residual sums of squares (ie. items x respondents interaction sums of squares) in the versions analyses

$$= 5696.50 + 2672.06 + 2656.79 + 2781.79$$

$$= \underline{13807.00}$$

Source of variation	sum of squares	degrees of freedom	mean square	F
Versions	4.25	3	1.416	.574
Items	6399.75	32	199.991	81.00
Items x versions interaction	237.01	96	2.469	
Respondents	157.74	546	.289	.366
Items x respondents interaction	13807.00	17472	.790	
Total	20605.75	18149		

The value of F given by comparison of the four different versions of the questionnaire is 0.574. With 3, 96 degrees of freedom, this is considerably less than 2.72, the value needed to achieve significance at the 5% level. There is no reason to reject the null hypothesis that results given by the four versions are equivalent. By inference there seems to be no reason why all seven versions of the questionnaire should not be combined for purposes of analysis.

Similarly, the value of F given by comparing all responses amongst themselves is 0.366. With 3, 546 degrees of freedom, this is considerably less than 2.60, the value needed to achieve significance at the 5% level. There is no reason to reject the null hypothesis that the responses are comparable.

However, the value of F given by comparing responses made to the 33 items is 81.00. With 32, 96 degrees of freedom, this is much greater than 1.71, the value needed for significance at the 0.1% level. Returns to the individual items have not been made in a similar fashion, as would be expected.



Table VIII: The effect of experience of teaching upon role conception

The mean values presented in table 41 are converted into standard scores with a mean of 50 and standard deviation of 10; and have been used to plot the graphs on pages 247 - 51.

	Overall mean	Length of Experience					
		less than 1 year	up to 2 years	up to 5 years	5 - 10 years	10-20 years	more than 20 years
Discipline	9.184	33.3	61.2	42.9	46.7	54.8	73.6
Extra-curricular activities	7.485	51.5	42.7	49.9	51.2	59.0	42.6
Familiarity	6.712	30.5	51.2	36.3	43.5	76.5	86.3
Child-centered	9.879	31.1	35.3	43.9	58.8	70.7	59.8
Duties	8.088	64.9	39.1	39.7	41.0	72.6	61.1
Instructor	6.684	36.7	52.5	46.5	46.8	53.1	77.3

Table IX: Vignettes of schools selected to illustrate the scale school climate

The schools described below have been selected to show the variation being sampled by the scale School climate. In each case, there is a good consensus of opinion amongst the staff, and at least five of the teachers are agreed on the same climate, from the six possible positions offered by the scale. In addition, they are chosen because they have been known to the author for several years. The accounts are simply the author's impressions, and have no objective value.

The climates and scores for each of the six positions on the School climate scale are as follows:

Open:	1	Familiar:	4
Autonomous:	2	Paternal:	5
Controlled:	3	Closed:	6

School A (mean School climate score: 1.67). A First School, set on site with the corresponding Middle and Comprehensive schools, in a new, middle-class housing estate. The head is encouraging without being over-enthusiastic; he is constantly on the move, but is welcomed into classrooms by all the staff. The teachers are co-operative and eager; there is a good variety of extra-curricular activities - duck- and pheasant-breeding, a gardening club; and there are many open days when everyone (not just the parents) is encouraged to attend.

School B (mean School climate score: 2.40). A primary school, housed in prefabricated buildings left over from the war. Children come mostly from tidy, neat council homes. The head has a class of his own in this small school. He encourages democracy - all staff sharing in school administration. Modern teaching methods, mixed ability classes and 'open plan' organization are favoured, though individual staff are allowed to 'opt out' if they wish.

School C (mean School climate score: 2.63). A recently-built comprehensive school, set in a relatively poor social area. The new headmaster has revitalised the school, being always available, and dealing with problems firmly and fairly (both staff and pupils agree on this). The staff shrug off vandalism and a lack of parental interest, and make a great effort to offer extra-curricular activities. The staff is young, exuberant. Much control is exercised through two deputy heads; all the staff feel they can express an opinion without recrimination.

School D (mean School climate score: 3.33). An Infant school serving a very mixed social area in the town centre. The head is nearing retirement, but still exercises a firm and strict discipline. Teaching is largely formal. The staff, all middle-aged, work individually, but achieve a high standard of work. Parents feel that they are discouraged from taking an interest in school activities.

School E (mean School climate score: 4.14). A large primary school set in a council housing estate; vandalism and truancy are problems. The head is formal, conservative and cautious. The staff are mixed: some of the younger ones complain of being 'stifled' by the more senior teachers, who, they say, have lost interest in their work.

School F (mean School climate score: 4.50). A small comprehensive school set in a semi-rural area; pupils come considerable distances, which limits opportunities for extra-curricular activities. The head is a 'theoretical' man who is not often available, and who rules through a complex system of year-staff and house-staff. There is a refined atmosphere



pupils are well mannered and dressed. A good proportion of the staff are married women. There is strong departmental rivalry, which encourages a good standard of teaching, but leaves staff unsure as to whom they are responsible.

School G (mean School climate score: 5.00). A primary school set in a run-down industrial area. Both head and most of the staff have been together for many years. The headmaster is close and guarded, tending to reminisce frequently. The staff are left to get on with their own work, hindered only by the limited supplies of material released by the head. They tend to be formal in manner. There are no extra-curricular activities, which would be most welcome in a culturally-deprived area.

References

## References

- Adams, R. S. (1970). Analysing the teacher's role. *Educ. Res.*, 12, 121 - 7.
- Adams-Webber, J. & Mirc., E. (1976). Assessing the development of student teachers' role conceptions. *Brit. J Educ. Psychol.*, 46, 338-40.
- Allen, B. (ed.) (1968). *Headship in the 1970s*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Baird, C.L. (1967). The role of the teacher of 6 and 7 year old children. M.Ed. thesis, University of Manchester.
- Banks, J.A. (1979). Sociological theories, methods and research techniques - a personal viewpoint. *Sociol. Rev.*, 27, 561 - 78.
- Bannister, D. and Fransella, F. (1971). *Inquiring Man*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Banton, M. (1965). *Roles. An Introduction to the Study of Social Relations*. London: Tavistock Publications.
- Barker-Lunn, J.C. (1979). *Streaming in the Primary School*. Slough: N.F.E.R.
- Bates, F.L. (1956). Position, role and status; a reformulation of concepts. *Social Forces*, 34, 315 - 21.
- Belasco, J.A. and Alutto, J.A. (1972). Decisional participation and teacher satisfaction. *Educ. Admin. Q.*, 8, 44 - 58.
- Ben-David, J. & Collins, R. (1966). Social factors in the origin of a new science: the case of psychology. *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 31, 451 - 65.
- Bernbaum, G. (1970). *The Role of the Headmaster: Final Report*. London: S.S.R.C. (mimeographed).
- Bernbaum, G. (1973). Headmasters and schools: some preliminary findings. *Sociol. Rev.*, 21, 463 - 84.
- Biddle, B.J. (1961). *The Present State of Role Theory*. Columbia: University of Missouri Social Psychology Laboratory.
- Biddle, B.J. (1968). Role Fonflicts of Teachers in the English-speaking Community. Paper presented at the 40th Congress of the Australian and New Zealand Association for the Advancement of Science. Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Biddle, B.J., Rosencranz, H.A. & Rankin, E.F. (1961). *Studies in the Role of the Public School Teacher*. Columbia: University of Missouri Press. (mimeographed).
- Biddle, B.J. & Thomas, E.J. (1966). *Role Theory: Concepts and Research*. New York: Wiley.



- Bill, J.M. (1973). A methodological study of the interview and questionnaire approaches to information-gathering. *Res. Educ.*, 9, 25 - 42.
- Bill, J.M., Trew, K.J. and Wilson, J.A. (1974). *Early Leaving in Northern Ireland*. Belfast: The Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research.
- Bledsoe, J.C., Brown, I.D. and Strickland, A.D. (1971). Factors related to pupil observation reports of teachers and attitudes towards their teacher. *J. Educ. Res.*, 63, 119 - 26.
- Blyth, W.A.L. (1965). *English Primary Education (2 vols)*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Burnham, P. (1964). The role of the deputy head in secondary schools. M.Ed. dissertation, University of Leicester.
- Butcher, H.J. (1965). The attitudes of student teachers to education. *Brit. J. Soc. & Clin. Psychol.*, 4, 17 - 24.
- Campbell, R.C. (1974). *Statistics for Biologists*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Cannan, C. (1964). Some variations on the teacher's role. *Educ. for Teaching*, No. 64, 29 - 36.
- Carver, R.P. (1978). The case against statistical significance testing. *Harvard Educ. Rev.*, 48, 378 - 99.
- Cashdan, A. and Whitehead, J. (ed.) (1971). *Personality growth and Learning*. London: Longmans.
- Caspari, I.E. (1965). *Roles and Responsibilities of Head Teacher and Teaching Staff in Primary Schools*. London: Tavistock Publications.
- Cattell, R.B. (1966). *Handbook of Multivariate Experimental Psychology*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Chambers, P. (1972). Role conflict as functional: a reappraisal of the tutor's role in teacher training. *Educ. for Teaching*, No. 88, 41 - 7.
- Chanan, G. (ed.) (1970). *Streaming and the Primary Teacher*. Slough: N.F.E.R.
- Charters, W.W. (1963). The social background of teaching, in Gage, N.L. (ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Child, D. (1970). *Essentials of Factor Analysis*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Cicourel, A.V. (1973). *Cognitive Sociology*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.

- Cohen, L. (1965). A study of the changes in the concept of the role of a teacher occurring in some training college students. M.Ed. thesis, University of Liverpool.
- Cohen, L. (1970a). Conceptions of head teachers concerning their role. Ph.D. thesis, University of Keele.
- Cohen, L. (1970b). The head teacher role: some differing emphases of male and female head teachers. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 40, 299 - 306.
- Cohen, L. & Cohen, A. (1970). Attributes of 'Success in Primary School' - some conflicting beliefs of teachers and parents. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 24, 449 - 54.
- Cook, A. & Mack, H. (1971). *The Teacher's Role*. London: Macmillan.
- Cornwell, J. et al. (1965). *The Probationary Year*. Birmingham: The University Institute of Education. (mimeographed).
- Cortis, G.A. (1966). The prediction of student performance in colleges of education. M.Ed. thesis, University of Manchester.
- Cortis, G.A. (1970). The assessment of a group of teachers in relation to their scores on psychological tests, their college grades, and certain biographical and demographical data. Ph.D. thesis, University of London.
- Cortis, G.A. (1972). An analysis of some differences between primary and secondary teachers. *Educ. Res.*, 15, 109 - 14.
- Cortis, G.A. (1975). Seven years on - a longitudinal study of teacher behaviour. *Educ. Rev.*, 28, 60 - 71.
- Cortis, G.A. (1979). Twelve years on - a longitudinal study of teacher behaviour continued. *Educ. Rev.*, 31, 205 - 15.
- Corwin, R. (1965). *A Sociology of Education*. New York: Appleton Century Crofts.
- Coser, R.L. (1966). Role distance, sociological ambivalence, and transitional status systems. *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 72, 173 - 87.
- Coulson, A.A. (1974). The deputy head in the primary school: the role conceptions of heads and deputy heads. M.Ed. thesis, University of Hull.
- Coulson, A.A. (1976). The attitudes of primary school heads and deputy heads to deputy headship. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 46, 244 - 52.
- Coulson, A.A. & Cox, M.V. (1977). Primary school deputy headship: differences in the conceptions of heads and deputy heads associated with age, sex and length of experience. *Educ. Studies*, 3, 129 - 36.
- Coulson, M.A. (1972). Role: a redundant concept in sociology? Some educational considerations, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) *Sociological Studies 4: Role*. London: Cambridge University Press, 107 - 28.



- Dahrendorf, R. (1968). *Essays in the Theory of Society*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Davis, K. (1949). *Human Society*. New York: Macmillan.
- Delamont, S. (1976). *Interaction in the Classroom*. London: Methuen.
- Dodd, C. (1974). Comprehensive school teachers' perceptions of role change. *Res. Educ.*, 12, 35 - 45.
- Dodd, P.C. (1965). *Role Conflicts of School Principals*. Cambridge, Mass: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.
- Donaldson, P.R. (1970). Role expectations of primary school head-teachers. Diploma in Child Development thesis, University of London.
- Dreeben, R. & Gross, N. (1965). *The Role Behaviour of School Principals*. Cambridge, Mass: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.
- Dunham, J. (1976). Stress situations and responses, in National Association of Schoolmasters (ed.) *Stress in Schools*. Hemel Hempstead: N.A.S., 19 - 48.
- Eggleston, J. (ed.) (1974). *Contemporary Research in the Sociology of Education*. London: Methuen.
- Emmett, D. & MacIntyre, A. (1970). *Sociological Theory and Philosophical Analysis*. London: Macmillan.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1947). Primary social attitudes. *Int. J. Opin. & Att. Res.*, 1, 49 - 84.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1954). *The Psychology of Politics*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1958). A short questionnaire for the measurement of two dimensions of personality. *J. App. Psychol.* 42, 14 - 17.
- Eysenck, H.J. & Eysenck, S.B.G. (1969). *Personality Structure and Measurement*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Finlayson, D. (1973). The school perceptions of teachers of differential status. *Res. Educ.*, 9, 83 - 92.
- Finlayson, D. & Cohen, L. (1967). The teacher's role: a comparative study of the conceptions of college of education students and head-teachers. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 37, 22 - 31.
- Fleming, C.M. (1958). *Teaching - a Psychological Analysis*. London: Methuen.
- Floud, J. (1962). Teaching in the affluent society. *Brit. J. Sociol.*, 13, 299 - 308.



- Gallop, R. (1978). Two types of teacher. *Brit. J. Teacher Educ.*, 4, 47 - 53.
- Gammage, P. (1973). Concepts of role and the role of the teacher: an attempt to articulate general theory with specific aspects of teaching. *Froebel J.*, 25, 14 - 25.
- Gardner, D.E.M. & Cass, J. (1965). *The Role of the Teacher in Infant and Nursery Schools*. London: Pergamon Press.
- Getzels, J.W. (1952). A psycho-sociological framework for the study of educational administration. *Harvard Educ. Rev.*, 22, 235 - 46.
- Getzels, J.W. (1963). Conflict and role behaviour in the educational setting, in Charters, W.W. & Gage, N.L. (ed.) *Readings in the Social Psychology of Education*. New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon.
- Getzels, J.W. & Guba, E.G. (1954). Role, role conflict and effectiveness: an empirical study. *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 19, 164 - 75.
- Getzels, J.W. and Guba, E.G. (1965). The structure of role and role conflict in the teaching situation. *J. Educ. Sociol.*, 29, 30 - 40.
- Getzels, J. W. & Jackson, P.W. (1963). The teacher's personality and characteristics in Gage, N.L. (ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. Chicago: Rand McNally. 506-82.
- Getzels, J.W., Lipham, J.M. and Campbell, R.F. (1968). *Educational Administration as a Social Process*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Gibson, D.R. (1970). The role of the primary and secondary school teacher. *Educ. Res.*, 13, 20 - 7.
- Gibson, D.R. (1971). Professional socialization: the effects of a college course upon role-conceptions of students in teacher training. *Educ. Res.*, 14, 213 - 9.
- Gibson, R. (1976). The effect of school practice: the development of student perspectives. *Brit. J. Teacher Educ.*, 2, 241 - 50.
- Ginsberg, M.B., Meyenn, R.J., Miller, H.D.R. and Ranceford-Hadley, C. (1977). *The Role of the Middle School Teacher*. Birmingham: The University of Aston in Birmingham Educational Enquiry Monograph No. 7.
- Goffman, E. (1959). *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. New York: Doubleday.
- Goffman, E. (1961). *Encounters: Two Studies in the Sociology of Interaction*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

- Goodacre, E.J. (1968). Teachers and their Pupils' Home Background: an investigation into teachers' attitudes and expectations in relation to their estimates and records of pupils' abilities, attributes and reading attainment. Slough: N.F.E.R.
- Gordon, C. (1972). Role and value development across the life cycle, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) Sociological Studies 4: Role. London: Cambridge University Press. 65 - 106.
- Grace, G.R. (1967). The changing role of the teacher: implications for recruitment. Educ. for Teaching, No. 72, 51 - 8.
- Grace, G.R. (1972). Role Conflict and the Teacher. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Gray, H.L. (1973). The function of the head of a school. J. Moral Educ., 2, 99 - 108.
- Gross, N., Mason, W.S. & McEachern, A.W. (1958). Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role. New York: Wiley.
- Gross, N. and Trask, A.E. (1964). Men and Women as Elementary School Principals. Cambridge, Mass: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.
- Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education. (1975). Inter-disciplinarity. London: Nuffield Foundation.
- Gullahorn, J.T. and Gullahorn, J.E. (1963). Role conflict and its resolution. Sociol. Q., 4, 32 - 48.
- Halpert, R.L. (1966). A study of the sources, manifestations and magnitude of stress among student teachers at U.C.L.A. Ed. D. thesis, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Halpin, A.W. (1966). Theory and Research in Administration. New York: Macmillan.
- Hamner, W.C. and Tosi, H.L. (1974). Relationship of role conflict and role ambiguity to job involvement measures. J.App. Psychol., 59, 497 - 9.
- Hanson, D. & Herrington, M. (1976). From College to Classroom: the Probationary Year. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Hardie, C.D. (1977). Probability and education. Educ. Studies, 3, 227 - 34.
- Havighurst, R.J. and Neugarten, B.L. (1967). Society and Education. New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon.



- Heading, B. (1972). In Bradbury, M., Heading, B. and Hollis, M. The man and the mask: a discussion of role theory, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) Sociological Studies 4: Role. London: Cambridge University Press. 41 - 64.
- Holland, R. (1977). Self and Social Concept. London: Macmillan.
- Hollis, M. (1972). In Bradbury, M., Heading, B. and Hollis, M. The man and the mask: a discussion of role theory, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) Sociological Studies 4: Role. London: Cambridge University Press. 41 - 64.
- Hoyle, E. (1965). Organizational analysis in the field of education. Educ. Res., 7, 97 - 114.
- Hoyle, E. (1969). The Role of the Teacher. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Hughes, M.G. (1972). The role of the secondary school head. Ph.D. thesis, University of Wales.
- Hussell, I. and Smithers, A. (1974). Changes in the educational opinions of student teachers associated with college experience and school practice. Res. Educ., 11, 43 - 50.
- Jacobson, E., Charters, W.W. and Lieberman, S. (1951). The use of role concept in the study of complex organizations. J. Social Issues, 7, 18 - 27.
- Kahn, R.L., Wolfe, D.M., Quinn, R.P., Snoek, J.D. and Rosenthal, R.A. (1964). Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity. New York: Wiley.
- Kelly, S.G. (1970). Teaching in the City - A Study of the Role of the Primary Teacher. Dublin: Gill and Macmillan.
- Kelsall, R.K. and Kelsall, H.M. (1969). The School Teacher in England and the United States. London: Pergamon.
- Kniveton, B.H. (197 ). Teacher attitudes and self-perceptions: an age/sex comparison. Educ. Studies, 2, 185 - 91.
- Kob, J. (1961). Definition of the teacher's role, in Halsey, A.H., Floud, J. and Anderson, C. (ed.). Education, Economy and Society: a Reader in the Sociology of Education. New York: The Free Press.
- Koopman-Boyden, P.G. and Adams, R.S. (1974). Role consensus and teacher job satisfaction. J. Educ. Admin., 12, 98 - 111.
- Kyriacou, C and Sutcliffe, J. (1977). Teacher stress: a review. Educ. Rev., 29, 299 - 306.
- Kyriacou, C and Sutcliffe, J. (1978). Teacher stress: prevalence, sources and symptoms. Brit. J. Educ. Psychol. 48, 159 - 67.



- Lacey, C. (1970). *Hightown Grammar*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Lacey, C. (1977). *The Socialization of Teachers*. London: Methuen.
- de Landsheere, G. (1974). The causes of the resistance of teachers to innovation, in *The Teacher and Educational Change: a New Role* (volume 1). Paris: O.E.C.D.
- Leese, T.A. (1977). Role conflict, decisional participation and satisfaction as perceived by primary/middle school teachers. B. Phil. (Ed.) thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Levinson, D.J. (1959). Role, personality and social structure in the organizational setting. *J. Abnormal Soc. Psychol.*, 58, 170 - 80.
- Linton, R. (1936). *The Study of Man*. New York: Appleton Century.
- Linton, R. (1945). *The Cultural Background of Personality*. New York: Appleton Century.
- McCabe, J.J.C. and Savage, R.D. (1973). Personality and assessment in a college of education. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 7, 800 - 5.
- McClain, E.W. (1968). 16PF scores and success in student teaching. *J. Teacher Educ.*, 19, 25 - 32.
- McIntyre, D. and Morrison, A. (1967). The educational opinions of teachers in training. *Brit. J. Soc. and Clin. Psychol.*, 6, 32 - 7.
- Mead, G. (1934). *Mind, Self and Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Meighan, R. (1979). The pupils' point of view, in Meighan, R., Shelton, I. and Marks, T., (ed.) *Perspectives on Sociology - an Introductory Reader in Sociology*. Sunbury on Thames: Nelson. 96 - 104.
- Merton, R.K. (1957). *Social Theory and Social Structure*. Chicago: Collier-Macmillan.
- Middlebrook, B. (1977). The relationship between personality and assessment on the teaching practice of student teachers. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 8, 23 - 30.
- Moore, M.E. (1971). Primary teachers' opinions of causes of disagreement between teachers and parents. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 6, 515 - 22.
- Morris, B. (1971). Reflections on role analysis. *Brit. J. Sociol.*, 22, 395 - 409.
- Morrison, A. and McIntyre, D. (1969). *Teachers and Teaching*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Mulkay, M. (1972). *The Social Processes of Innovation*. London: Macmillan.

- Musgrove, F. (1961). Parents' expectations of the junior school. *Sociol. Rev.*, 9, 167 - 80.
- Musgrove, F. and Taylor, P.H. (1965). Teachers' and parents' conceptions of the teacher's role. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 35, 171 - 8.
- Musgrove, F. (1967). Teachers' role conflicts in the English grammar and secondary modern school. *Int. J. Educ. Sci.*, 2, 61 - 9.
- Musgrove, F. and Taylor, P.H. (1969). *Society and the Teacher's Role*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Naegele, K.D. (1960). Superintendency versus superintendents: a critical essay. *Harvard Educ. Rev.*, 30, 372 - 93.
- Newcomb, T.M. (1950). *Social Psychology*. New York: Dryden.
- Newcomb, T.M. and Wilson, E.K. (ed.) (1968). *College Peer Groups: Problems and Prospects for Research*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co.
- Nias, J. (1977). What should Nellie do? Students' role-expectations for the head and class-teachers on school-supervised practice. *Brit. J. Teacher Educ.*, 3, 121 - 30.
- Nie, N.H., Bent, D.H. and Hull, C.H. (1970). *S.P.S.S.: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Oeser, O.A. (ed.) (1955). *Teacher, Pupil and Task*. London: Tavistock Publications.
- Oliver, R.A.C. and Butcher, H.J. (1962). Teachers' attitudes to education. *Brit. J. Soc. and Clin. Psychol.*, 1, 56 - 69.
- Osgood, C.E. Suci, G.J. and Tannenbaum, P.H. (1957). *The Measurement of Meaning*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Parsons, T. (1951). *The Social System*. New York: The Free Press.
- Parsons, T. (1959). The school class as a social system: some of its functions in American society. *Harvard Educ. Rev.*, 29, 297 - 318.
- Pashley, B.W. (1977). Staff and student perspectives on the role of the university lecturer. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 8, 31 - 46.
- Payne, L. (1977). The role of the deputy-head in the primary school. B. Phil. (Ed.) thesis. University of Birmingham.
- Peters, C.C. and Van Voorhis, W.R. (1940). *Statistical Procedures and their Mathematical Bases*. Westport, Conn: Greenwood.
- Peters, R.S. (ed.) (1976). *The Role of the Head*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.



- Preiss, J. and Ehrlich, H. (1966). *An Examination of Role Theory: the Case of the State Police*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Purvis, J. (1973). Schoolteaching as a professional career. *Brit. J. Sociol.* 23, 43 - 57.
- Reid, I. (1977). *Sociological Perspectives on School and Education*. London: Open Books.
- Reynolds, D. (1976). The Delinquent School, in Hammersley, M. and Woods, P. (ed.). *The Process of Schooling*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. 217 - 29.
- Rudd, W.G.A. and Wiseman, S. (1962). Sources of dissatisfaction among a group of teachers. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.* 32, 275 - 91.
- Runcimann, W.G. (1972). Reply to Mr. Urry, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) *Sociological Studies 4: Role*. London: Cambridge University Press. 143 - 47.
- Rushton, J. and Ward, J. (1969). American and British teachers' attitudes to education. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 23, 403 - 5.
- Ryans, D.G. (1960). *Characteristics of Teachers, their Description, Comparison and Appraisal*. Washington: American Council on Education.
- Sarbin, T.R. (1954). Role theory, in Lindzey, G. (ed.) *Handbook of Social Psychology*. Cambridge, Mass: Addison Wesley. 223 - 58.
- Sarbin, T.R. (1968). Psychological aspects of role, in Sills, D.L. (ed.) *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*. New York: Collier Macmillan. 13, 546 - 52.
- Sargent, S. (1951). Concepts of role and ego in contemporary psychology in Rohrer, J.H. and Sherif, M. (ed.) *Social Psychology at the Cross Roads*. New York: Harper Books.
- Seeman, M. (1953). Role conflict and ambivalence in leadership. *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 18, 373 - 80.
- Seeman, M. (1960). *Social Status and Leadership: The Case of the School Executive*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University.
- Sergiovanni, T. (1967). Factors which affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers. *J. Educ. Admin.*, 5, 66 - 82.
- Sharp, R. and Green, A. (1975). *Education and Social Control: a Study in Progressive Primary Education*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Shipman, M.D. (1967). Theory and practice in the education of teachers. *Educ. Res.*, 9, 208 - 12.



- Shipman, M.D. (1969). The changing role of the college of education lecturer, *Paedagogica Europaea*, 5, 137 - 45.
- Smith, D.C. (1976). The role of the deputy head in primary schools. B. Phil. (Ed.) thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Soar, R.S. (1966). *An Integrative Approach to Classroom Learning*. Philadelphia: Temple University.
- Startup, R. (1972). How students see the role of the university lecturer. *Sociology*, 6, 237 - 54.
- Steele, P.M. (1958). Changes in attitude amongst training college students towards education in junior schools. M.Ed. thesis, University of Manchester.
- Stones, E. (1963). The role of the headteacher in English education. *Forum*, 6, 4 - 7.
- Strong, P.M. and Davis, A.G. (1977). Roles, role formats and medical encounters: a cross-cultural analysis of staff-client relationships in children's clinics. *Sociol. Rev.*, 25, 775-800.
- Taylor, J.K. and Dale, I.R. (1971). *A Survey of Teachers in their First Year of Service*. Bristol: the University of Bristol.
- Taylor, L. (1967). Psychology and sociology: interdisciplinary teaching. *Bull. Brit. Psychol. Soc.*, 20, 11.
- Taylor, P.H. (1962). Children's evaluations of the characteristics of the good teacher. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 32, 258 - 66.
- Taylor, P.H. (1968). Teachers' role conflicts in infant and junior schools. *Int. J. Educ. Sci.*, 3, 167 - 73.
- Todd, R and Dennison, W.F. (1978). The changing role of the deputy headmaster in English secondary schools. *Educ. Rev.*, 30, 209 - 20.
- Turner, J.D. and Rushton, J. (ed.) (1974). *The Teacher in a Changing Society*. Manchester: University of Manchester Press.
- Turner, R.H. (1956). Role taking, role standpoint, and reference group behaviour. *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 61, 316 - 28.
- Turner, R.H. (1968). Sociological aspects of role, in Sills, D.L. (ed.) *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*. New York: Collier Macmillan, 13, 552 - 7.
- Urry, J. (1972). Role performance and social comparison processes, in Jackson, J.A. (ed.) *Sociological Studies 4: Role*. London: Cambridge University Press, 129 - 41.

- Walker, R and Adelman, C. (1975). A Guide to Classroom Observation. London: Methuen.
- Waller, W. (1932). The Sociology of Teaching. New York: Wiley.
- Ward, J. and Rushton, J. (1969). Teacher personality related to job satisfaction, attitudes to education and perception of school environment. *Durham Res. Rev.*, 22, 358 - 64.
- Ward, J. and Rushton, J. (1973). The fakeability of the Survey of Opinions about Education. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 43, 76 - 9.
- Weber, M. (1947). The Theory of Social and Economic Organization. London: Oxford University Press.
- West, A.J.F. (1973). The role of the head of department in colleges of education. M.Ed. thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Westwood, L.J. (1966). Re-assessing the role of the head. *Educ. for Teaching*, No. 71, 65 - 75.
- Westwood, L.J. (1967). The role of the teacher - I. *Educ. Res.*, 9, 122 - 34.
- Westwood, L.J. (1969). The role of the teacher - II. *Educ. Res.*, 12, 21 - 37.
- Wetz, J. (1978). Caring for teaching. *Times Educ. Supplement*, July 14th.
- Whiteside, M.T., Bernbaum, G and Noble, G. (1969). Aspirations, reality shock and entry into teaching. *Sociol. Rev.*, 17, 399 - 414.
- Williams, B.D.J., (1976). The role of the deputy head teacher in the 9 - 13 middle school. B. Phil. (Ed.) thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Wilson, B.R. (1962). The teacher's role - a sociological analysis. *Brit. J. Sociol.*, 13, 15 - 32.
- Wilson, J.A. and Bill, J.M. (1976). The structure of Oliver's 'Survey of Opinions about Education'. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.*, 46, 184 - 9.
- Woods, P. (1979). The Divided School. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Worsley, F.J. (1973). Teachers in urban junior schools: an analysis of their satisfactions and dissatisfactions. M.Ed. thesis, University of Birmingham.