The extent and kind of attachment to teaching of metropolitan senior secondary teachers as compared to other life attachments by Charles Clifford Hanna

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
Montana State University
© Copyright by Charles Clifford Hanna (1969)

Abstract:
It was the purpose of this study to explore the degree and kind of secondary teacher attachment to teaching as compared to non-teaching attachments.

Questionnaires were sent to a 50 per cent random sample of secondary teachers in the Minnesota cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul: The questionnaires of 489 respondents, 78 per cent, were utilized to derive the findings of this investigation.

In interpreting the study results it was assumed that a lightly committed teacher will tend to play out the most obvious expectations placed on his job performance and view the school as a means to acquire the ends to participate in non-school interactions which have more social meaning to him than does teaching.

Some of the more important findings and conclusions were as follows: (1) Only about half of the secondary teachers studied were found to be Job Oriented in their total value commitment to teaching. (2) Eight out of ten secondary teachers preferred non-school related environments for their Informal human relations; it appears that their perceived primary social relationships which are not prescribed by organizational rules, procedures and job necessity do not take place in school or with school related activities. (3) In the Formal dimension of social behavior secondary teachers are Job Oriented in that nearly nine out of ten of the teachers studied were attached to the school as an organization and did prefer school related interactions for the application of their specialized knowledge and skill.

The broad generalization suggested by these findings is that the global and complete dedication of self to work assumed to be characteristic of professional occupations does not exist for many secondary teachers.
THE EXTENT AND KIND OF ATTACHMENT TO TEACHING
OF METROPOLITAN SENIOR SECONDARY TEACHERS
AS COMPARED TO OTHER LIFE ATTACHMENTS
by
CHARLES CLIFFORD HANNA

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Approved:

[Signatures]
Head, Major Department
Chairman, Examining Committee
Graduate Dean

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY
Bozeman, Montana

June, 1969
iii

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The writer acknowledges the help, cooperation and continuous support of his graduate committee in the preparation of this dissertation. He is in particular indebted for the guidance and direction provided by the major advisor, Dr. E. Ringo, and the minor advisor, Dr. D. Samson. He is also grateful for the stimulation and advice provided by Dr. R. Thibeault, Dr. R. Henjum, and Mr. H. Tureck.

He also thanks his wife, Barbara and children, Chuck and Linda, for their patience, understanding and sacrifice during the writing of this dissertation.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th></th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Social Act</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Propositions about Social Acts Basic to the Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Worlds</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Background of the Conceptual Model</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Formal and Informal Systems of this Study</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Operational Model</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>DESIGNING THE STUDY</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement of the Propositions Derived from the Literature</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Conceptual Model</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development of the Hypotheses</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Major and Component Hypotheses</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Subordinate Hypotheses</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire Development</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definition of the Sample of the Study</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Statistical Treatment of the Data</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Component Hypotheses</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparisons of Job Orientation with Previous Studies</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpretation of Study Findings</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Major Hypothesis
The Component Hypotheses
The Subordinate Hypotheses
Recommendations

APPENDIX

Appendix A: Study Questionnaire
Appendix B: First and Second Follow-Up Letters

LITERATURE CONSULTED
**LIST OF TABLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Total Job Orientation of Secondary Teachers</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Orientation Scores for the Formal System</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job Orientation Scores for Organizational Experiences</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Job Orientation Scores for Technical Experiences</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Job Orientation Scores for the Informal System</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job Orientation Scores for Four Demographic Categories</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job Orientation Scores for Six Demographic Categories</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Comparisons of Four Measures of Job Orientation</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The Conceptual Model of Organizational Behavioral Experiences which Forms the Basis for Operationalization of the Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>An Example of the Procedure Used in Scoring One Teacher as Job or Non-Job Oriented</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It was the purpose of this study to explore the degree and kind of secondary teacher attachment to teaching as compared to non-teaching attachments.

Questionnaires were sent to a 50 per cent random sample of secondary teachers in the Minnesota cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. The questionnaires of 489 respondents, 78 per cent, were utilized to derive the findings of this investigation.

In interpreting the study results it was assumed that a lightly committed teacher will tend to play out the most obvious expectations placed on his job performance and view the school as a means to acquire the ends to participate in non-school interactions which have more social meaning to him than does teaching.

Some of the more important findings and conclusions were as follows: (1) Only about half of the secondary teachers studied were found to be Job Oriented in their total value commitment to teaching. (2) Eight out of ten secondary teachers preferred non-school related environments for their Informal human relations; it appears that their perceived primary social relationships which are not prescribed by organizational rules, procedures and job necessity do not take place in school or with school related activities. (3) In the Formal dimension of social behavior secondary teachers are Job Oriented in that nearly nine out of ten of the teachers studied were attached to the school as an organization and did prefer school related interactions for the application of their specialized knowledge and skill.

The broad generalization suggested by these findings is that the global and complete dedication of self to work assumed to be characteristic of professional occupations does not exist for many secondary teachers.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Systematic study of the relationship between man and his work is of relatively recent origin. This is not to imply that man, once he developed language capacity, has not always valued or devalued everything he has had to do. It is hoped that a brief historical review of some of the attempted analyses of man and work relationships will provide an introduction to and support for the importance of empirically testing the values man assigns work experiences as compared to the values he assigns non-work experiences.

It must be noted that an ex post facto attempt to ascribe man's view of work prior to systematic reporting of the relationship is at best highly speculative and therefore open to criticism. For example, Tilgher suggests that the early Greeks and Romans held work in low esteem; that those who worked were scorned while a life devoted to reading, thinking and discussing
was held in high esteem.\textsuperscript{1} There is no way to verify or deny his observations as it is equally likely that this kind of value orientation was limited to a few "elites" as it is that it might have been typical of the general population. It would seem that the most appropriate statement which could be made about the early relationship between man and his work is that we do not have sufficient information to precisely describe the relationship.

Wilensky states that the early Hebrews thought of work as painful drudgery although they felt they must suffer it as a way to atone for original sin. "... in this sense work was accepted as an expiation, a way to regain lost spiritual dignity. In fact, Rabbinical literature held that no labor, however lowly, is as offensive as idleness."\textsuperscript{2} Although the Hebrew's view of work is not well substantiated, the fact the concept is treated in their religious literature tends to lend support to

\textsuperscript{1}Tilgher, Adriano, "Work Through the Ages," in \textit{Man Work and Society}, pp. 11-12.

Wilensky's conclusions.

Wrenn feels that in the early centuries and into the medieval period, work was dignified for the religious orders but it was still valued less than prayer and contemplation. He suggests that work gradually became thought of as worthwhile and with the advancement of the guild system, it gained further acceptability; however, he notes that individual profit and money lending were socially condemned.\(^3\)

Wilensky posits that the work-view of St. Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274) is, "...not far from that of the Catholic Church today: work is a natural right and duty, the sole legitimate base of society, the foundation of property and profit, of guilds and corporations (according to divine plan), but it is always a means to a higher spiritual end."\(^4\) Wilensky feels that work was viewed as a means to an end— the real value, aim, and motive in living


\(^4\)Wilensky, op. cit., p. 127.
was preparation for a life hereafter—and in itself did not possess dignity. If St. Thomas Aquinas and subsequent Catholic leaders were successful in dignifying work and if at the same time they succeeded in convincing Catholics that its purpose was preparation for a life hereafter, then the concept of a Protestant Work Ethic is more or less accurate. If in fact Catholic workers tended to value work in much the same way as did non-Catholic workers from the time of the Reformation to the present, then the concept is subject to question. The resolution of this dilemma is beyond the scope of this investigation; whatever the case, the Protestant Ethic point of view is presented herewith for the reader's consideration.

"Protestantism is the moving force and the profound spiritual revolution which established work in the modern mind as the base and key of life, and in this matter, the first voice of Protestantism is Luther." 5 Wrenn identifies Luther as the agent of change for work. He notes that with the Reformation work became not only essential but

5 Tilgher, op. cit., p. 17
also it was God's will that man should work. Luther was seen as a proponent of the position that it is equally honorable to work in and without religious occupations. 6

Tilgher said of Luther:

For Luther, as for medieval Catholicism, work is natural, the *remedium peccati* of fallen man. It has both a penal and an educational character. So far nothing new. But from these familiar premises he draws a conclusion that all who can work should work; that idleness, beggary, lending at interest are unnatural; that charity should be bestowed only on those who cannot work; that (and this had farreaching effects) the monastic and contemplative life is the result of egotism and lack of human affection on the part of monks, who evade in the cloister their duty to their neighbors in the world....Everyone should earn his living and no more....But—and here is the immense originality of Luther—within the limits of his own profession, whatever that may be, as long as it is legitimate, Luther held that work is a form of serving God. There is just one best way to serve God—to do perfectly the work of one's profession....So long as work is done in a spirit of obedience to God and of love for one's neighbor, every variety of labor has equal spiritual dignity, each is the service of God on earth....From his hands work came forth endowed with religious dignity. The gate which gives upon modernity was from his time on, definitely open. 7


Wrenn suggests that Calvin was the stimulator of the next developmental step in the work ethic. In his view, Calvin proposed that God requires man to work and profit-making is acceptable so long as the profits are re-invested to create more work. Social mobility through work is acceptable and idleness is a sin.\textsuperscript{8}

There is little question that Luther, Calvin, and others associated with the Reformation and post-Reformation period did contribute toward making labor a virtue. It must be pointed out that there is not universal agreement that the emergent work ethic is solely a product of Protestantism. What is of concern to this study is well summarized by Wilensky (ignoring his emphasis on the Protestant Ethic) when he writes:

...the vast economic expansion of the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries....This is the period in which the 'Protestant Ethic,' together with other strands of Christian doctrine, meshed with the 'Spirit of Capitalism' to form, ultimately, a secular religion of work....

On the issue of the importance of work, nineteenth-century socialism was at one with ascetic

\textsuperscript{8} Wrenn, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 26.
Protestantism and free-wheeling capitalism. In the society of socialist dreamers, work is central, natural, and an end in itself. In fact, in the early writings of Marx and Engels, in their humanistic stage, work in the utopia of classless society would acquire the free, fluid character of leisure.

Wilensky further noted that the utopiasts, typified by the philosophies of Sir Thomas More, Charles Fourier and Saint-Simon, all subscribed that all men shall work as it is a central and necessary aspect of successful living. He states about the present value assigned to work by man:

The dominant modern philosophies of work have in common a positive approval of labor. All modern states have developed ideologies which give work a positive central place. For modern fascists work is a social duty, carried out through the guided collaboration of various occupations and classes so that the nation may achieve its highest development. The Soviets call themselves the republic of workers, peasants, and soldiers, glorifying manual labor as the highest human dignity. Modern Protestant countries in the free West still draw on the liberal economics of yesterday in defense of the free market, private property, and (in America) minimum government as the formula for releasing the productive.

---

9 Wilensky, *op. cit.*, pp. 127-129

energies of the people. Catholic idealizations of labor continue to emphasize its roots in the spiritual ends and its utility in the attainment of higher spiritual ends. French humanists define labor as man's confirmation of himself against nature (whatever it does to make life easier and longer or useful and beautiful).\textsuperscript{11}

Wrenn points out that the American work ethic was brought to this country by immigrants. It has the social dimensions inherited from the class system and the religious justification value adopted from the religious systems of Western Europe. These values, coupled with the demands of pioneer life and the later pressures of an individualistic early civilization combined to form the American work ethic. As the United States industrialized and urbanized there was an increased demand for workers and they were imported to work the machines and to serve as slaves on southern plantations. Work and work products were of great importance to the development of this new nation. In America, a man has been thought capable of rising to any height if he works intelligently and hard enough.

\textsuperscript{11} Ibid., pp. 129-130.
Tilgher notes:

Since Calvin's day (work) has never lost its dignity, but work for work's sake is no longer preached (as it was during the Reformation) as a worthy but subordinate accompaniment to a good and pious life. On the contrary, with the passing years it has more and more lost its connection with religion, has been more and more granted an importance for its own sake, until it stands today the watchword of the nations, the creed of the one really vital, sincerely felt religion of the age.¹²

In way of introduction to his article, "Is the Work Ethic Realistic in an Age of Automation?" G. B. Childs said about the American work Ethic:

Work, being necessary, came to have a very central significance in our social and economic thinking. Work is necessary, work is desirable, work is good....It is through work that one receives economic rewards....It is through work that one achieves identity....Work provides the principal means of social interaction in our society and for large numbers of people offers the only means of establishing social contacts....Work for some is pleasurable as a release from boredom; for others it provides an opportunity to do something constructive....

Work is so central to our lives that we take it for granted and our ideas about work are so deeply ingrained that we rarely examine them. Of course everyone should work and of course he

¹² Tilgher, op. cit., p. 20.
should be paid for working. Work is good. Non-work is bad. He who works is good. He is industrious, provident, a contributor to society, a wage earner....

This is the way we tend, as a society, to think. And we think this way because to do so is compatible with a system which, with temporary dislocations, has operated successfully throughout history.¹³

The purpose of his article was to challenge this concept of work and to point out the necessity for our society to teach a new work ethic in view of changing social and economic conditions.

A somewhat different view is taken by Sigmund Nosow who posits:

The problems of obtaining valid resource materials and adequate documentation characterize all social research....Similar pitfalls are found in the contemporary study of work. Most of the research data currently available are the result of direct questions put to people asking what they like or dislike about their work....Although work has become increasingly segregated from other realms of social life, today more people than ever before consciously expect to derive meaning from work. Whereas in earlier eras family, community, and religious activities were expected to give

meaning to work, today we expect work to give meaning to other areas of life.

The separation of work from other realms of life has been erroneously interpreted by some as indicating that work is no longer a central life interest of man. The available evidence does not confirm this, for work continues to be the driving force giving direction and meaning to contemporary living. While it is true that work satisfaction tends to decrease with level of occupational skill, work still occupies a central role in the lives of most people.

Nosow has indicated that much of the available research focuses almost exclusive attention on gathering data about peoples' reactions to the work environment. Wilensky agrees with Nosow that a new kind of research approach is needed but sharply disagrees with what he speculates the research will reveal. He writes,

Few studies focus directly on the place of the job in the total round of life. Few analyze job satisfaction in relation to satisfactions derived from other life areas. Dubin found that only one in four could be classified as mainly job-oriented. Arthur Kornhauser found, 'Mental health was best among those high in education and occupation, poorest among those low in both'. If we assume that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are inseparable, this study suggests that the portrait

---

of the cheerful worker derived from more direct approaches to job satisfaction is grossly overdrawn....

Direct questions yield a misleading picture of cheerful majorities, although they also suggest the prominence of economic meanings of work among lower strata. More indirect approaches and some consideration of the balance between rewards and aspirations and their chronology over the work life uncover more discontent. They also suggest that job satisfaction is part of life satisfaction, that job discontent spreads to other discontents....

A more fruitful way to join debate about what work is doing to or for modern man is to compare men variously situated and ask how well their prized self-images fit their work roles.\textsuperscript{15}

Dubin did conduct a study of 1,200 Middle-western industrial workers using the research approach suggested by Wilensky wherein an analysis of job attachments as compared to non-job attachments was the focus. He found, when viewed from a comparative point of view, work and the workplace were not central life interests for the subjects of his study.\textsuperscript{16}

\textsuperscript{15} Wilensky, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 137-149.

In recognition that Dubin has offered a somewhat unique perspective from which to view man in relationship to his work; being aware that the societal work values have undergone transitions in the course of history; and believing that an exploration of the extent and kind of attachment to teaching of active members will be of value to those people training and working with these teachers, a study utilizing symbolic interaction theory and taking the theoretical orientation suggested by Wilensky and Dubin, was designed. A more complete description of the design of this study follows.

Statement of the Problem

The major hypothesis of this investigation required the exploration of the degree and direction of teacher attachment to job oriented interactions and experiences as compared to those which are non-job oriented. Four component hypotheses were delineated to test the different attachments to the Formal and Informal behavioral systems (see definitions pages 15-18) with a comparison within
each system between job oriented and non-job oriented interactions and experiences. Finally, selected sub-categories of teacher characteristics were stated in the form of null hypotheses (termed subordinate) to measure the differences, if any, among teachers in their attachment to job oriented as compared to non-job oriented interactions and experiences.

Procedures

To explore the areas of concern mentioned under the statement of the problem, the following procedures were used:

1. The literature was reviewed to develop propositions which in turn yielded the hypotheses tested and to formulate a conceptual model of the behavioral systems within the school. The phenomenal world for teachers was divided into two broad categories: Job Oriented Social Worlds and Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds. The Social Acts which occur in these Social Worlds were categorized under two behavioral systems: the Formal and the Informal.
2. Social acts and experiences which can reasonably occur in both Job Oriented and Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds were identified. Questionnaire items to measure these properties were constructed and administered to a random sample of Minnesota secondary school teachers. By comparing the teacher's degree of preference for participating in a Social Act in one of the two divisions of the teacher's Social Worlds, it was possible to test the hypotheses derived.

Definition of Terms

A number of terms have been used in this study which require interpretations; they are defined in this section to clarify their meanings.

1. Social Act. It is, "A unit for observation and analysis of interaction....The social act may be said to have three distinct parts: a beginning, a middle, and an end." In the beginning phase the actor is defining the situation in terms of his past experiences, present observations, and future anticipations. The middle of the act
16

is devoted to some kind of action; the universal and by far most prevalent kind of action in the social act is talk. In this phase of the act, action is continuously being constructed. The end of the act signals the end of the interaction; it may or may not terminate in the fulfillment of participant objectives.

2. **Social World.** It is a setting, locale, or situation for carrying out a Social Act.

3. **Informal System.** It refers to interactions where the relationship is face-to-face and may be shared over a wide range of subjects. Dubin has characterized such interactions as, "Relations between people that are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization or related positions in a division of labor." Such behaviors as small talk, leisure-time

---


activity, friendship interactions, casual conversations, and affectional attachments are the components.

4. Formal System. Carzo and Yanouzas see this system as including behaviors and experiences directly related to achieving the objectives of the organization. The Formal System includes organizational prescriptions of rules, procedures, controls, rewards, and ordering as well as the carrying out of prescribed tasks. In this study the Formal System has been dichotomized into Organizational Experiences and Technical Experiences.

a. Organizational Experiences. These are interactions and prescriptions relating to hiring, joining, firing, disciplining, rewarding, directing, and ordering. This subcategory includes such things as: becoming a more important member in...; the importance of rules, regulations, and procedures; attachment to the goals and purposes of the organization; duties and responsibilities; and the carrying out of job functions.

20 Carzo, Rocco, Jr., and Yanouzas, J. N., Formal Organizations, p. 117.

21 Ibid., pp. 117-123; Dubin, op. cit., p. 137.
b. Technical Experiences. These are the relationships between an individual and his actual work operations. The job tasks and things directly related to the job tasks are included. For the teacher, such things as the following are included in this subcategory: concern with techniques; specialized knowledge; accuracy of job performance; evaluation; transmission of knowledge and skills; committee work; changing behavior of others; the quality and maintenance of materials; and the implementing of the programs, goals and procedures specified by the school.

5. Secondary School Teacher. One who teachers in a grade(s) between nine and twelve, inclusive.

Limitations of the Study

Riley has noted that in any research, it is never possible to attend to all properties of the case.


Homans has pointed out that when you deal with social theory it is always easy to say, "You have left such and such out. They are quite right: we always leave something out. We must if we are to make theories at all." This would seem to be the very nature of theories as attempts at generalizations in the way of explanation. The crucial question is: what has been taken into account.

The conceptual model which formed the basis for this study requires recognition of the fact that it can only be assumed the behavioral properties observed are representative of the universal nature of the case. It is also recognized that the self-concept is only partially accounted for in the conceptual framework used in defining the phenomenal world of the teacher. However, it would seem that the model does sample a significant amount of the interactional experiences which occur between the teacher and others.

---

The Formal and Informal systems are considered to be of equal importance in determining the degree of teacher attachment to work. A review of the literature (cited elsewhere) reveals that this assumption must be kept in mind in the formulation of conclusions but that does not compromise the basic design of the study.
CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Dubin utilized a conceptual model of the world of work which was based on symbolic interaction theory in his study of the "Central Life Interests" of industrial workers. 1 Orzack made a direct application of Dubin's instrumentation to measure the "Central Life Interests" of nurses 2 and Nelson likewise directly applied Dubin's conceptualizations to Michigan Industrial Arts teachers. 3

This study relies on Dubin's design, yet, the derivation of hypotheses is based on a somewhat different application of symbolic interaction theory; thus, the orientation is from a somewhat different perspective than that of the other studies mentioned and required the


development of new instrumentation for data collection.

It is perhaps commonplace to mention that a measure of attachment to social groups (using the term in its broadest denotation) must originate in the study of the value systems of the group members. The seeming simplicity of this logical observation is misleading and the complexity and elusiveness of the source of individual values becomes evident on considering the process of symbolic interaction. To ascertain the value orientations of individuals, it is necessary to analyze that portion of symbolic interaction theory which in this study has been defined as Social Acts and Social Worlds.

This chapter will be devoted to an explanation of the nature of Social Acts and Social Worlds and related symbolic interaction processes. With this framework established, it will then be possible to measure an individual's attachment to different Social Worlds by applying these concepts to the different types of interactions which occur. Specifically, by comparing an actor's preference for Social Acts in job related Social Worlds with
Social Acts which occur in non-job related Social Worlds, it is possible to determine the extent and kind of teacher attachment to teaching.

The Social Act

Kuhn offers a very useful division of the social act for analysis when he suggests it has three distinct parts: anticipation (beginnings), action (middle), and consensual termination (end).  

Beginning of the Social Act. A Social Act does not begin with overt, observable behavior as would be the impression of a casual observer; rather, action is preceded by a series of complex anticipations or to use W. I. Thomas' term, definitions of the situation, and a series of participant adjustments. To what extent the anticipations are conscious or unconscious is not a matter of concern to this study as it is only relevant that such anticipations and adjustments do precede action.

---

Mead in discussing the social act notes that the observed, external act is only a part of a process which has started within the organism. He recognized (as do most all interactionists) that something is occurring within the central nervous system of the organism during this anticipatory stage but also points out that the exact nature of the nervous system adjustment is yet beyond the grasp of man. It cannot be explained by a set of stimulus-response connections nor can a precise conscious-unconscious continuum be established. The purpose of anticipatory behavior is clear to Mead and others. Its purpose is for the organism to pick out of the whole group of stimuli which confront the actor, those to which he intends to respond. The organism picks out and organizes the set of stimuli which sets the stage for action. From the multitudinous number of possible stimuli and combinations thereof, the organism, by anticipating the situation in which it finds itself, makes its selections—it schedules the agenda. The selections made are tentative and will be constantly modified during the enactment of the Social Act. In this
part of the act, the organism is defining the situation (selecting stimuli) and preparing for action.  

Shibutani extends the concept of definition of the situation by drawing a distinction between the perspectives imputed to an audience and those of the people who make up the audience. He notes that action which will follow depends to a large extent upon how an actor defines the situation. He observes that the definition of the situation depends on the actor's perspective which he defines in the following manner:

...an organized view of one's world, what is taken for granted about the attributes of objects, of events, and of human nature. The environment in which men live is an order of things remembered and expected as well as things actually perceived.

The complexity of the social act begins to emerge when it is seen that people view the same situation from different perspectives, which means that actors within the


7 Ibid., p. 130.
same situation will view the situation in somewhat different ways. The concept of selective perception (or put another way, selective inattention) becomes clear when it is recognized that what is perceived depends to a large extent on what is anticipated. (i.e. Shibutani points out to illustrate this point that, "A prostitute and social worker walking through a slum area notice different things."\textsuperscript{8}) The vague and tentative boundaries of the Social Act are drawn during the beginning part of the act when the organism interprets to self present perceptions based on: remembrances, what is perceived in the present situation, and anticipations of future events. In this manner, certain tentative responses are readied for action. Since different actors in the same situation view the situation from unique perspectives, the stage is now set not only for responding but also for changing definitions of the situation. e.g. testing one's own views against others by first checking or validating one's own assessments of others attitudes.

\textsuperscript{8} Ibid., p. 131.
Middle of the Social Act. It is in this part of the act, the action phase, that the dynamic and fluid nature of social interaction becomes most obvious. Action begins with a conversation of gestures (which in themselves require participants to begin the process of re-definition of the situation and modification of the boundaries of the Social Act), and in most cases extends into symbolic interaction (interactions mediated by language, other significant gestures, and natural signs) which can best be analyzed by attending to the concepts role, role taking, role making, and reference groups. Each of these concepts require further explanation in order to carry forward the conceptual design of this research.

Mead's Conversation of Gestures. Mead points out that the gesture is that part of the Social Act which serves as a stimulus to other forms involved in the act. He illustrates a gesture by his classical "dog story."

The act of each dog becomes the stimulus to the other dog for his response. There is then a relationship between these two; and as the act is responded to by the other dog, it, in turn, undergoes change. The very fact that the dog is ready to attack another becomes a stimulus to the other dog to change his own position
or his own attitude. He has no sooner done this than the change of attitude in the second dog in turn causes the first dog to change his attitude. We have here a conversation of gestures.9 Several distinctions should be made at this point although more will be said of these matters later. First, the changes in the definition of the situation by each dog are not the result of gestures which can be considered "significant." That is, the dogs are not capable of defining to themselves the meaning of the attitude of other, but respond directly to the situation in re-defining the situation. (The process of response to significant language symbols which characterizes the interactions of man is far more complex than this direct S-R relationship.) Second, the limitations of conversations by natural signs (non-verbal signals) begin to be obvious.

Mead further clarifies the gesture when he says,

...certain parts (gestures) of the act become a stimulus to the other form to adjust itself to those responses; and that adjustment in turn becomes a stimulus to the first form to change his own act and start a new one. There are a series

of attitudes, movements, on the part of these forms which belong to the beginning of acts that are the stimuli for the responses that take place. The beginning of a response becomes the stimulus to the first form to change his attitude, to adopt a different act.\textsuperscript{10}

Thus, the gesture as a beginning point for action, calls out a response of the other which in turn becomes a stimulus for the original sender to readjust so that the action part of the Social Act can proceed. The initial definitions of the situation and the communication by natural sign gestures proceed almost simultaneously; the adjustments in many instances occur with almost "lightning-like" speed; and the process gives the appearance of being "automatic."

Mead notes that when verbal symbols (language) reach the stage that the gesture "...means this idea behind it and it arouses that idea in the other individual, then we have a significant symbol."\textsuperscript{11} Simply, when a language symbol, which has a particular meaning in the

\textsuperscript{10} Ibid., p. 43.

\textsuperscript{11} Ibid., p. 45.
experience of the first individual, calls out that meaning in the second individual, it is then a significant symbol. Interactions among human beings is best understood by analyzing the communication of significant symbols among them—more will be said of this matter later.

Role, Role Taking, and Role Making. The process illustrated by the conversation of gestures is extended in the process of communication by significant symbols. It is necessary to first take into account the nature of role prior to explaining the communication by significant symbols which is basic to the process of role taking and role making.

Ralph Turner has pointed out that the term "role" has many and varied referents, that many people repudiate it as rigid cultural and mechanical determinism, and that they think of "role" as being synonymous with social norm or culture. The clarification he offers dissipates these criticisms. Turner significantly points out that a

distinction must be made "...between taking the existence of distinct and identifiable roles as the starting point in role theory, and postulating a tendency to create and modify concepts of self-and other roles as the orienting process in interactive behavior."\(^{13}\) This approach to role theory places emphasis on the construction or making of the role during the course of its enactment. People who occupy roles behave as if there were roles and the participants frame their behavior as if their roles actually had clear existence, yet, closer observation of the process reveals that roles have constantly shifting boundaries and exist in varying degrees of concreteness.

Turner begins to clarify the process of role making (this term is used to give emphasis to the concept of the role being constructed during the course of the interaction rather than the misleading idea of playing out or enacting a predetermined role much as one would follow a script of a play) when he notes that every role must have

\(^{13}\textit{Ibid.}, \text{p. }21-22.\)
one or more other roles toward which it is oriented. (For example, the role of father makes no sense without the role of child.) A role is always in relationship to at least one other role. Stryker points out three other propositions which are basic to an understanding of the process of role making.

First, to participate in social interaction, a person must take the role of other(s) implicated with him in the role relationship. Mead notes that animals do not communicate in such a manner that one puts another in the proper "attitude" toward external conditions. He also points out the difference between this kind of communication of general attitudes toward a part of the environment and the self-conscious communication of man by observing.

In the human group, on the other hand, there is not only this kind of communication (that of

---

14 Ibid., p. 23.


general attitude) but also that in which the person who uses this gesture and so communicates assumes the attitude of the other individual as well as calling it out in the other. He is himself in the role of the other person whom he is so exciting and influencing. It is through taking this role of the other that he is able to come back on himself and so direct his own process of communication....The immediate effect of such role-taking lies in the control which the individual is able to exercise over his own response.17

Second, Stryker offers the following illustration of the process of role taking, "To play a role, Person A must incorporate into his 'self' the role of Person B. A must anticipate or predict the response of B, since that response is the basis for A's future activity."18 This is one illustration of the tentative nature of playing a role; during the course of interaction the participants are constantly changing their role performance as a result of the continuous testing which comes about by taking the role of the other(s) and interpreting their anticipated responses to self role. The process is more one of taking the role

17 Ibid., p. 254.
18 Stryker, op. cit., p. 42.
of the other than it is of playing a role prescribed for self by the other.

The third and most important proposition of Stryker is that the ability to take the role or attitude of other is "...predicated upon a common universe of discourse." Rose explains a part of the concept of a universe of discourse when he writes,

A symbol is defined as a stimulus that has a learned meaning and value for people, and man's response to a symbol is in terms of its meaning and value rather than in terms of its physical stimulation of his sense organs... language does not simply symbolize a situation or object which is already there in advance; it makes possible the existence or the appearance of that situation or object, for it is a part of the mechanism whereby that situation or object is created.

Practically all the symbols a man learns he learns through communication (interaction) with other people, and therefore most symbols can be thought of as common or shared meanings and values.

...taking the role of the other (also called empathy)--as well as more spontaneous expression that happens to evoke in the other a feeling tone and body response which are present in himself. The learned symbols which require

19 Ibid., p. 42.
...role-taking for their communication Mead called significant symbols.

...in communication by significant symbols... the communicator may influence the behavior of the attender, but he cannot control it... symbolic communication is a social process, in which the communicator and the attender both contribute to the content of the communication.

...It is not the noise of the words or the physical movement of the gesture itself which communicates, but the meaning for which the noise or physical movement stands as a symbol. Both the communicator and the observer have had to learn the meaning of the words or gestures in order to communicate symbolically.

...Role-taking is involved in all communication by means of significant symbols; it means that the individual communicator imagines--evokes within himself--how the recipient of his communication understands that communication.  

The significant gesture or symbol always presupposes for its significance the social process of experience and behavior in which it arises; or, as the logicians say, a universe of discourse is always implied as the context in terms of which, or as the field within which, significant gestures or symbols do in fact have significance. This universe

---

of discourse is constituted by a group of individuals carrying on and participating in a common social process of experience and behavior, within which these gestures or symbols have the same or common meanings for all members of that group, whether they make them or address them to other individuals, or whether they overtly respond to them as made or addressed to them by other individuals. A universe of discourse is simply a system of common or social meanings.  

Stone made a major contribution to the understanding of the dynamic, tentative and changeable nature of the role-making process when he noted that "same" meanings of symbols to different people actually never result in identical responses by different participants to the same symbol. Because symbolic meanings only more or less coincide, one places his self in the role of the other or the attitude of the other and in so doing can anticipate the response of the other from other's perspective and in this way guarantee that one's own response will more or less coincide with the response of other.  

21 Mead, op. cit., pp. 89-90.

role of the other that gives meaning and order to symbolic communication.

This study relies heavily on the assumption that language—symbolic communication—is the most significant dimension of the interaction process. The findings and design of the investigation are based on the assumption that what teachers say about symbolic interactions will reveal their attachment to different Social Worlds and that the most meaningful portion of social interaction is communication with significant symbols. Mead’s theory does support this assumption and in addition, offers additional insights into the role making process. Mead writes,

...the conscious or significant conversation of gestures is a much more adequate and effective mechanism of mutual adjustment within the social act—involving, as it does, the taking, by each of the individuals carrying it on, of the attitudes of the others toward himself—that is the unconscious or non-significant conversation of gestures.

When, in any given social act or situation, one individual indicates by a gesture to another individual what this other individual is to do, the first individual is conscious of the meaning of his own gesture—or the meaning
of his gesture appears in his own experiences—in so far as he takes the attitude of the second individual toward that gesture, and tends to respond to it implicitly in the same way that the second individual responds to it explicitly....the individual's consciousness of the content and flow of meaning involved depends on his thus taking the attitude of the other toward his own gestures....Only in terms of gestures as significant symbols is the existence of mind or intelligence possible; for only in terms of gestures which are significant symbols can thinking—which is simply an internalized or implicit conversation of the individual with himself by means of such gestures—take place.

...the taking of the attitude of other toward one's self, or toward one's own behavior—also necessarily involves the genesis and existence at the same time of significant symbols, or significant gestures.

...the vocal gesture is one which does give one this capacity for answering to one's own stimulus as another would answer.

We must be constantly responding to the gesture we make if we are to carry on successful vocal conversation. The meaning of what we are saying is the tendency to respond to it.

...but where one significantly says something with his own vocal process he is saying it to himself as well as to everybody else within reach of his voice. It is only the vocal gesture that is fitted for this sort of communication, because it is only the vocal gesture to which one responds or tends to respond as another person tends to respond to it.
The conversation of gestures is not significant below the human level, because it is not conscious, that is, not self-conscious (though it is conscious in the sense of involving feelings and sensations). An animal as opposed to a human form, in indicating something to, or bringing out a meaning for, another form, is not at the same time indicating or bringing out the same thing or meaning to or for himself; for he has no mind, no thought, and hence there is no meaning here in the significant or self-conscious sense. A gesture is not significant when the response of another organism to it does not indicate to the organism making it what the other organism is responding to.

Mead has clearly pointed out the importance of language to the communication process and the major differentiation between animals, who can communicate only on a natural sign level and the human who can communicate with significant gestures—language.

In summarizing the process of role making, it should be noted that the enactment of a role is dependent upon communication with significant symbols between the person occupying the role and others. A role is not a predetermined set of behaviors which are simply released.

or acted out in response to certain stimuli; rather, the role is constantly being made up during the process of the interaction. The tentative and dynamic nature of the role is the result of man's unique capacity to communicate with significant symbols—language symbols which have more or less the same meanings to self and other(s). When Person A enacts his role by sending a communication to Person B, he must anticipate how Person B will interpret his communication. In order to empathize with Person B, Person A takes the role or attitude of Person B and anticipates how B will respond to the communication. Person A then interprets his anticipations of Person B's potential responses to himself and constructs his communication on the basis of his anticipations. Since the significant symbols do not have identical referents in the experiences of Persons A and B, Person A is able to evoke within himself with only partial accuracy how Person B will respond to the communication. Therefore, in taking the role of Person B, Person A is able to tentatively anticipate the response of Person B, he then sends a communication to
Person B in light of the imagined response to Person B which he has evoked in himself. He must constantly reassess the responses of Person B during the course of the communication by taking the role of Person B and interpreting to himself the anticipated responses of Person B on which he will base his subsequent actions. Since the significant symbols have only more or less identical referents, his anticipations at best are somewhat inaccurate and call for constant modification. Person A is therefore constructing and making up the role he is enacting during the course of the enactment on the basis of his changing perceptions and anticipations of the responses of Person B.

The process of role making brings into sharp focus the difference between animal and human interaction—language allows the human to interpret to self the meaning of the responses of other(s) and self. Language is the most significant dimension of interaction since it utilizes the participant's intelligence; thus, symbolic language communication can be legitimately used as a basis
for analysis of the degree of attachment a teacher assigns different interactional relationships.

Reference Groups as Sources of Values. Attention to how man performs during the Social Act has been explained by the process of role making. By noting how man interacts with others and what characterizes the process of interaction, it was possible to establish that an analysis of communication by significant symbols is a legitimate framework within which to measure a teacher's attachment to different interactional situations. Before leaving the discussion of Social Acts, it is essential to offer some insight into why man acts as he does—what are the norm sources which guide his behavior as he enacts a role? Symbolic interaction theory explains this "why" of behavior within the concept reference group or to use another term, significant other.

W. I. Thomas offers an appropriate point of departure in considering the "why" of human behavior when he writes,

One of the most important powers gained during the evaluation of animal life is the
ability to make decisions from within instead of having them imposed from without. Very low forms of life do not make decisions, as we understand this term, but are pushed and pulled by chemical substances, heat, light, etc.

On the other hand, the higher animals, and above all man, have the power of refusing to obey a stimulation which they followed at an earlier time.

Preliminary to any self-determined act of behavior there is always a stage of examination and deliberation which we may call the definition of the situation. And actually not only concrete acts are dependent on the definition of the situation, but gradually a whole life-policy and the personality of the individual himself follow from a series of such definitions.24

Mead offers the general background for understanding the "why" of behavior when he analyzes the socialization process out of which an individual develops a self. He notes that the child is at first a very "vague" commodity (the play stage of the socialization) in that there is no unity in the organization of his self. Once the child

has learned language (in itself an excellent example of
the child taking the attitudes of those about him and in-
corporating attributes of others into self) he then has
developed the capacity to take the role of other(s) and
constructs his behavior by reflecting the attitudes of
those about him. This early stage of socialization is
characterized by the attitudes of others having a direct
effect or control on his behavior—the self is nothing
more than an organization of the particular attitudes of
others toward him, and toward one another in the specific
social acts in which he participates with them.25

The second stage (the game stage) of socialization
is the development of the self in its fullest sense. A
fully constituted self is not only a reflection of atti-
tudes of specific others, but also "...an organization of
the social attitudes of the generalized other or the
social group as a whole to which he belongs."26 The indi-
vidual attitudes of others are organized into social or

26 Ibid., p. 158.
group attitudes and reflect a general, systematic pattern of acceptable behaviors. Put another way, the social group or organized community which gives unity to an individual self can be called the generalized other. "To take the attitude of the generalized other is to take the attitude of the whole community." Mead offers further clarification of the concept "generalized other" when he writes,

It is possible for inanimate objects, no less than for other human organisms, to form parts of the generalized and organized—the completely socialized—other for any given human individual, in so far as he responds to such objects socially or in a social fashion (by means of the mechanism of thought, the internalized conversation of gestures). Any thing—any object or set of objects, whether animate or inanimate, human or animal, or merely physical—toward which he acts, or to which he responds, socially, is an element in what for him is the generalized other; by taking the attitudes of which toward himself he becomes conscious of himself as an object or individual, and thus develops a self or personality.  

27 Ibid., p. 154.

28 Ibid., p. 154.
Hughes introduces the idea of different kinds of "others" as well as degrees of influence of others when he notes,

One of the complications of civilized life is that one is confronted with a variety of 'others,' some of whose directions are not compatible with those of some others. None is completely compatible with all others.

Any one of us has certain ready-made 'others' by virtue of his birth and the accidents of his schooling and career. Some of them are there from infancy, others gather about him later. Some creep upon him; others he chooses of his own will and seeks that admission to them which will reveal to him the direction in which he must travel if he is to be accepted as one of them.

Some people find, in this welter of 'others,' some complex balance or compromise among several. Others let one or another tyrannize them. Some people manage to remain responsive to only one 'other' even in the midst of a complex society. 29

Goffman looks at the assimilation of "others" in a slightly different way when he writes, "The role others for whom he performs similarly represent only slices of these others. Presumably his contribution and their

---

contribution, differentiated and interdependent, fit together into a single assemblage of activity, this system or pattern being the real concern of role analysis."  

Merton and Kitt in their study of "The American Soldier" point out the different reference groups in their dichotomy of membership and non-membership groups which serve as sources of values for soldiers in the army. They found that soldiers pattern their behavior to the organizational and non-organizational norms in individualistic and varying degrees.  

The fact that a fully developed self has reference groups which influence and guide self behavior is pointed out by all of the authors mentioned. The fact that it is possible to hold group membership and at the same time be influenced and guided by out-group sources of reference is a major proposition of this study. Shibutani stated the  

---

30 Goffman, Erving, Encounters, p. 87.  

general picture very well when he said, "Deliberately, intuitively, or unconsciously each person performs for some kind of audience; in the drama of life, as in the theater, conduct is oriented toward certain people whose judgment is deemed important."32

Every person develops a personal frame of norms (values) by internalizing the values learned during the process of interaction. These values exist in reference to specific other people and in a generalized form. It is this factor which accounts for the consistency in human group behavior. Individual group members learn the norms of the group in their interactions with one another and with significant others within the group. The attitudes of others are internalized and contribute to the personal value system of the individual.

It has been noted that humans in interaction construct their behavior by taking the role of the other and anticipating the response an action will call out in the other; now, the concept of reference groups (generalized

32 Shibutani, op. cit., p. 129.
and specific significant others) places additional restrictions on the alternatives an actor will consider as potential responses. He responds not only in terms of his anticipations of other(s) responses but also in light of his personal value system. In the process of socialization, man aligns his value system not only to specific significant others but also develops a generalized other which operates to control his behavior. The composition of reference groups as sources of value orientation are highly individualized, complex, segmented, and subject to modification. Since group members learn the norms of the group by taking the role of others within the group in their interactions, the group norms become known to individual members. The degree to which individual members internalize the group norms and make them a part of their personal value structure will vary from individual to individual; however, awareness alone (with only partial internalization) is sufficient to give influence and guidance to individual members so that they, as members of a group, act in a somewhat consistent manner. In any Social Act,
the possible combinations of significant others and
generalized other, membership and non-membership oriented
values, which will influence and guide the behavior of
the participants at any given moment in the Social Act
are multitudinous. The central purpose of this study is
to identify the audience for whom teachers really prefer
to perform; where are the significant others for teachers
located?

End of the Social Act. Consensual termination of
the Social Act occurs when the interaction stops. Kuhn
offers a description of this part of the Social Act when
he writes,

The end of the act is commonly thought to
come with the realization of the objective,
and so indeed it may. But an act may end as
it began—by virtue of institutional sched­
uling (the time for it gets all used up!)—
and in any event it is by no means uncommon
for an act to cease long before it is possible
to assess whether it achieved its purpose or
not.33

In view of the explanations of Social Acts offered,
it is now possible to derive Propositions basic to the

33 Kuhn, op. cit., p. 195.
theoretical framework of this study.

Propositions about Social Acts Basic to the Theoretical Framework

1. The most meaningful segment of social interaction in a Social Act is communication by significant symbols—language.

2. A role is not a predetermined set of behaviors which are simply released or acted out in response to stimuli; the role is constantly being made up during the course of enactment of the Social Act.

3. In constructing behavior during the enactment of the Social Act, participants respond to other(s) by taking their role and in turn interpreting to self the anticipated responses of other(s) on which self actions are based; also, actions are influenced and guided by the personal value systems of the participants. The personal value system is a product of internalizing the attitudes of specific significant others and the development of a generalized other.
4. In face-to-face interaction which takes place at a particular time in a particular setting, the actor's internalization of the values of membership and non-membership norms will in varying degrees impose influences and guides to his behavior.

5. The actor's stated preference for interactions with particular others in a particular location will reveal the source of his significant and generalized others; specifically, the source and location of his personal value system—his genuine source of emotional attachment.

Social Worlds

For the purpose of this study, Social Worlds have been defined as settings, locales, or situations for carrying out a Social Act. The combination of setting and interaction have been referred to in the literature as focused gatherings, encounters, internal and external systems, group interactions, role boundaries, and other terms which denote social contexts with accompanying symbolic interactions. This portion of the theoretical design
will treat the segmented and multitudinous nature of Social Worlds and the differential values assigned interactions which occur therein.

**The Segmented and Multitudinous Nature of Social Worlds.** Since the findings of this study depend on analysis of teachers in group interaction, some readers might question the lack of reference to "group" dynamics. Allport suggests that the most meaningful explanation of "group" originates in attention to individual members, when he writes,

"...No matter how closely we look, we can never experience any group agent who is performing such actions. If we point to, or try to touch the group, we are doing nothing that can be distinguished from pointing to or touching individuals...."

The word 'Congress,' (in contradistinction to these instances), has actual denotational reference only at a step that is lower down in the natural hierarchy than the level to which it is presumed to refer. Its referent is encounterable only at the level of individuals and their actions. Ought we not, therefore, to observe the acts of individuals and base our generalizations upon them....
rather than attempt to describe what Congress is said to do?\textsuperscript{34}

This is the orientation taken in this investigation and it was the intent to draw teacher group generalizations from observation of individual teacher behavior.

The study divides Social Worlds into two broad clusters: Job Oriented and Non-Job Oriented. Within each of these divisions, an almost infinite number of Social Worlds exist for the teacher; the segmented nature of "setting" for interactions needs further clarification.

Shibutani introduces this concept when he notes,

Society exists in and through communication; common perspectives—common cultures—emerge through participation in common communication channels....

Hence each communication channel gives rise to a separate world....\textsuperscript{35}

In a revised version of the article from which the above statement was quoted, he expands this idea of a


separate Social World for each communication by stating,

Worlds differ in the extent and clarity of their boundaries; each is confined by some kind of horizon, but this may be wide or narrow, clear or vague.

In each social world there develops a universe of discourse... Each social world, then, is a cultural area, the boundaries of which are set neither by territory nor formal group membership, but by the limits of effective communication....

In each social world there evolves a different historical orientation, selectively emphasizing past events of special interest....

Many misunderstandings arise in our society from the fact that people who are living in the same community and even cooperating in a number of transactions are actually oriented toward different audiences. 36

Although Shibutani was writing about groupings of Social Acts and Social Worlds into such communication channels as the world of sports, the world of stamp collectors, the world of fashions, and other such common cultural communication channels, his concepts are applicable to individual Social Acts. Further support of the segmented nature

of Social Worlds is offered by his explanation that,  

One of the characteristics of life in modern mass societies is simultaneous participation in a variety of social worlds. Because of the ease with which the individual may expose himself to a number of communication channels, he may lead a segmentalized life, participating successively in a number of unrelated activities. Furthermore, the particular combination of social worlds differ from person to person; this is what led Simmel to declare that each stands at the point at which a unique combination of social circles intersects... To understand what a man does, we must get at his unique perspective—which he takes for granted and how he defines the situation—but in mass societies we must learn in addition the social world in which he is participating in a given act.

Most people live more or less compartmentalized lives, shifting from one social world to another as they participate in a succession of transactions. In each world their roles are different, and they reveal a different facet of their personalities. Men have become so accustomed to this mode of life that they manage to conceive of themselves as reasonably consistent human beings in spite of this segmentalization and are generally not aware of the fact that their acts do not fit into a coherent pattern.\textsuperscript{37}

Other writers also have noted the segmented nature of interaction and like Shibutani tend to cluster multiple

\textsuperscript{37}Ibid., pp. 166-167.
Social Acts and Social Worlds into roles. Zaleznik continues this line of thinking by noting,

...the fact that individuals play multiple roles at any given stage in the life cycle. A man, for example, is at once husband and father, has an occupation, and is possibly a member of many community groups in which he may be an elected official. Performance in any one role implies a capacity either to integrate the multiple role expectations, or to select certain expectations and suppress others in a fashion that is congruent with the situation at a given point in time.38

Although the organizational setting for role performance will be treated at greater length in a later section, it seems appropriate to point out the segmented nature of roles within organizations at this point.

Each person in an organization is linked to some set of other members by virtue of the functional requirements of the system which are heavily implemented through the expectations these members have of him; he is the focal person for that set. An organization can be viewed as consisting of a number of such sets, one for each person in the organization.39

38Zaleznik, Abraham, "Interpersonal Relations in Organizations," in Handbook of Organizations, p. 590.

Goffman notes,

Social establishments—_institutions in the everyday sense of that term_—are buildings or plants in which activity of a particular kind regularly goes on....Each captures something of the time and interest of its members and provides something of a world for them; in brief, every institution has encompassing tendencies....A basic social arrangement in modern society is that we tend to sleep, play and work in different places, in each case with a different set of coparticipants, under a different authority, and without an overall plan.40

The "groupings" of roles in different situations for a given actor have been defined by Merton as role-sets which he defines in the following manner:

A particular social status involves, not a single associated role, but an array of associated roles....This fact of structure can be registered by a distinctive term, *role-set*, by which I mean that complement of role relationships which persons have by virtue of occupying a particular social status....The status of the public school teacher has its distinctive role-set, relating the teacher to his pupils, to colleagues, the school principal and superintendent, the Board of Education, and, on frequent occasions, to local patriotic organizations, to professional organizations of

---

teachers, Parent-Teacher Associations, and the like....

The occupant of a status does not engage in continuous interaction with all those in his role-sets. The interactions with each member (individual or group) of the role-set is variously limited and intermittent; it is not equally sustained throughout the range of relationships entailed by the social status. This fundamental fact of role-structure allows for role-behavior which is at odds with the expectations of some in the role-set to proceed without undue stress.

Goffman's concept of the focused gathering or encounter is useful in further delineating the segmented nature of Social Worlds. He notes,

Examples of focused gatherings are: a tête-à-tête; a jury deliberation; a game of cards; a couple dancing; a task jointly pursued by persons physically close to one another; love-making; boxing. Obviously, taking turns at talking is not the only kind of activity upon which focused gatherings are built.

It has been pointed out that the basic unit of observation is the Social Act which occurs in a particular

---


42 Goffman, Erving, Encounters, p. 18
Social World; further, it was pointed out in the discussion of the Social Act that man constructs his behavior during the enactment of the act. The previous analysis of reference groups revealed that in the process of socialization, man aligns his behavior and value system in relation to both specific significant others and a generalized other. Also, it has been noted that what aspects of one's personal value system will be activated during any given Social Act will depend upon the actor's definition of the situation. Before further substantiating that differential values are assigned to various individual Social Acts, it is necessary to take note of the nature of the boundaries around Social Acts.

Homans conceptualized two broad boundary systems: the internal system of the work organization and the external system which comprises the rest of the environment.43 (Job Oriented and Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds fit rather well this conceptualization.) The boundaries around these systems are not fixed, concrete, or

---

Goffman describes the flexible and "sieve-like" character of boundaries around interactions when he notes,

We have been focusing our attention on the boundary between the wider world and the mutual activity embedded in a focused gathering, and we have asked how properties from the outside world are selectively handled within the encounter. We found that the barrier to externally realized properties was more like a screen than a solid wall, and we then came to see that the screen not only selects but also transforms and modifies what is passed through it.44

It has been noted that behavior both within a system and in an individual encounter is constructed during the enactment of the act, dependent upon the participants definition of the situation, and is influenced by both on- and off-the-scene factors. Thus, the behavior or role an actor will construct can be expected to be dependent in part upon the Social World in which it occurs.

It is now necessary to look more closely at the value attachments to Social Acts.

**Values Assigned to Social Acts by Participants.** To support the design of the study and the derived hypotheses,

it is necessary to validate the fact that actors place different values on different Social Acts. To establish the changeable and individualistic nature of each Social Act it is first necessary to mention the inadequacy of cultural predetermination of behavior as an explanation and then to support the concept of differential attachments.

Foote attacks the concept of predisposition by noting,

Metaphorically put, the operation of values in the formulation of responses to situations is advisory, not executive....While we can only mobilize for our next act when it or its elements can be construed as similar to acts which have gone before, the determination of the appropriate act is made in the situation, not prior to it. Experience is continually being recombined in new patterns; and even the most habitual act must be defined as appropriate to its immediate context to be launched overtly. 45

In the discussion of Social Acts in the first part of this Chapter, it was pointed out that behavior is not

merely a release of stored behaviors but rather it is con-
structed during the course of the enactment of the Act.

Poote has reemphasized this concept and Thomas and
Znaniecki offer additional insight into why this is so when
they note:

Every concrete activity is the solution of a
situation. The situation includes three kinds of
data: (1) The objective conditions under which
the individual or society has to act, that is, the
totality of values--economic, social, reli-
gious, intellectual, etc.--which at the given
moment affect directly or indirectly the con-
scious status of the individual or group.
(2) The pre-existing attitudes of the individual
or the group which at the given moment have an
actual influence upon his behavior. (3) The
definition of the situation, that is, the more
or less clear conception of the conditions and
consciousness of the attitudes. And the defi-
nition of the situation is a necessary prelim-
inary to any act of the will, for in given con-
ditions and with a given set of attitudes an
indefinite plurality of actions is possible,
and one definite action can appear only if
these conditions are selected, interpreted, and
combined in a determined way and if a certain
systemization of these attitudes is reached, so
that one of them becomes predominant and sub-
ordinates the others.46

---

46 Thomas, W. I., and Znaniecki, Florian, The Polish
Peasant in America, p. 68.
The authors cited clearly point out that how an actor will respond under a given set of conditions (how he will act in a given Social World) depends upon what personal values he brings to the situation, what he perceives in the situation, and what he anticipates happening as a consequence of his actions.

If in fact an almost unlimited number of responses are possible in a given Social Act by virtue of the fact the definition of the situation undergoes continuous modification during the enactment and the boundaries of the Act change, how then is role behavior ever predictable or consistent? The answer seems to be that precise prediction is not possible; however, the consistency of behavior is explained by Goffman when he writes,

It seems characteristic of encounters, as distinguished from other elements of social organization, that their order pertains largely to what shall be attended and dis-attended, and through this, to what shall be accepted as the definition of the situation. (Of course, what definition of the situation the encounter will be obliged to maintain is often determined by the social occasion or
affair in whose domain the encounter takes place. 47

The point is, roles have expectations and awareness of the customary behaviors prescribed for the role occupants are known to the occupants. It must be noted that occupants of roles can appear to play the roles while at the same time hold varying degrees of attachment to the roles. Goode partially takes this into account when he writes,

The content of a given role is partly an organization of norms, that is, a connection among several norms, as applicable to a particular type of situation. Thus organization checks the individual's tendency to range too widely in his selection of possible norms, some of which would require less of him but would yield less for institutional or alter's needs....

the significance of socialization is thus not only that the individual acquires a commitment to the norms of the society, that is, internalizes the norms, but that he accepts the rightness of applying a particular norm or norms to a specified situation.

Goode concludes that,

...role relationships embody three main.

47Goffman, op. cit., p. 19.
sources of pressure toward fulfillment of role 
obligations: (a) ego (self) is socialized to 
have an autonomous emotional commitment to his 
appropriate role behavior; (b) alter (other) 
may in turn require that behavior of ego; and 
(c) other concerned individuals may censure 
the behavior of either ego or alter. 48

Goode is pointing out that even though commitment of self 
to role is weak, self may conform to role expectations be- 
cause of "pressure" from others (who may or may not be 
present in the social group) who define the situation as 
calling for certain behaviors. Perhaps Goode has given too 
little attention to "pressure" as a determinant of the kind 
of and extent of behaviors which will be activated in a 
particular Social Act. Goffman offers insight into the 
varying degrees of personal commitment which accompany be-

havior when he states:

At one extreme, one finds that the performer 
can be fully taken in by his own act; he can be 
sincerely convinced that the impression of 
reality which he stages is the real reality....

At the other extreme, we find that the per- 
former may not be taken in at all by his routine. 
This possibility is understandable, since no one

48 Goode, W. J., "Norm Commitment and Conformity to 
Role-Status Obligations," in Role Theory, p. 313.
is in quite as good an observational position to see through the act as the person who puts it on....When the individual has no belief in his own act and no ultimate concern with the beliefs of his audience, we may call him cynical, reserving the term 'sincere' for individuals who believe in the impression fostered by their own performance.49

In the same article, Goffman offers further analysis of playing a role with differential attachment in his discussion of total institutions such as prisons, hospitals and convents. He notes that for many total institutions, the goal is "resetting" of the inmate's self-regulatory mechanisms and he found, except for the religious institutions, neither the "stripping process" (removal of undesirable identifications) nor the "reorganizing processes" seem to have lasting effects. Apparently the inmates "play it cool" in the institution and on release revert to previous behavior patterns. Of particular interest was his observation that a gap exists between what the institution says it does and what it actually does. He points out that even the most radical total institution is not free from outside

influence and that use will be made of environmental distinctions established by society outside the organization.

A study was designed to test the hypothesis that behavior which is appropriate to a clearly specified role is relatively uninformative about individual actor personal characteristics. The authors found that out-of-role behaviors of the subjects were far more revealing than in-role behaviors. This study supports the contention that an actor can play a role in an adequate manner if the expected behaviors of the role are well known to him, without necessarily being firmly committed to the role or "throwing" himself into the role wholeheartedly.

Turner's discussion of role standpoint reveals why actors will differentially attach themselves to different Social Acts in particular Social Worlds. He notes that, "The reference group is a generalized other which is viewed as possessing member roles and attributes independently of

the specific individuals who compose it. He sees a reference group as,

A group with which one compares himself; or a source of individual values or perspectives; or a group whose acceptance one seeks. The desire to be accepted as a member of a group leads to adoption of the values and perspectives of the reference group and the person derives his values through adopting other's standpoints.\(^\text{52}\)

Turner further notes that the influence of the group on a member extends from the maximum as a source of norms which the individual internalizes to the minimum extreme where the actor merely takes other group members into account in order to accomplish self aims. Put another way,

Taking the role of another may or may not include adopting the standpoint of the other as one's own. The role of the other may remain an object to the actor, so that he understands and interprets it without allowing its point of view to become his own, or the actor may allow the inferred attitudes of the other to become his own and to direct his behavior.\(^\text{53}\)


\(^{52}\) Ibid., p. 155.

\(^{53}\) Ibid., p. 151.
Turner has indicated that actors will differentially value particular interactions in particular Social Worlds and that the attachment can take the following directions:

(1) The actor may adopt the standpoint of the other in which case it becomes a guide or norm for his behavior;

(2) The actor may take the "third party" standpoint; that is, he may place some construction on the role of other in the form of a generalized or depersonalized norm; or,

(3) The actor may take the standpoint of other not in terms of seeking or following guides for self but rather to make a judgment about the effects of interaction—as a means toward some individual or shared purpose. 54

Propositions about Social Worlds Basic to the Theoretical Framework.

1. Social Worlds are segmented and multitudinous.

2. The boundary around a Social Act which occurs in a Social World is not fixed by territory or formal group memberships; rather, it is fixed by what is attended to and

54 Ibid., pp. 151-159.
what is ignored—the definition of the situation.

3. Differential values are assigned to various individual Social Acts which occur in particular Social Worlds.

4. In the enactment of a Social Act the actor may be behaving consistent with internalized norms or may merely be taking into account the situation in order to accomplish his purpose with no real attachment or belief in his actions.
CHAPTER III
THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

It is the purpose of this study to explore the degree and kind of Secondary teacher attachment to teaching as compared to non-teaching attachments.

The first step in this exploration was to divide the phenomenal world of the teacher into two broad categories: Job Oriented Social Worlds and Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds. The matter of preference could then be determined by measuring the teacher's attachment to similar Social Acts and experiences in each of the two Social Worlds.

The major difficulty encountered in the design was to categorize the different interactions and experiences which would in turn serve as legitimate samples of the universe of behavioral properties possible within organizations. A review of the literature revealed a wide variety of conceptualizations about the behavioral systems within organizations. A brief analysis of the more suggestive and useful classifications and their relationship to the design of this study seemed necessary and it is hoped
that support for the categorizations used will be evident.

Following the review of organizational theory, the Formal and Informal systems were delineated. Finally, an operational model was derived in light of the propositions developed in Chapter II and the organizational theory reviewed herewith.

Background of the Conceptual Model

Dubin divided organizational experiences and interactions into four categories for his analysis of the behavioral systems within organizations. The four categories are:

Informal Group Experiences--these are relationships between people which are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization or related positions in a division of labor. Such behaviors as small talk, leisure-time activities, friendship interactions, and affectional attachments characterize this group of experiences.

General Experiences--these are valued social experiences; they are activities which give pleasure,
satisfaction, or general rewards which may be pursued in varying places and at varying times. "The most important things I do," "The most pleasant things I do," "My ideas about getting ahead," "My worries," and "My interests," are the kinds of experiences represented in this category.

Technical Experiences--these are relationships between an individual and his actual work operations. Material maintenance, overcoming operating problems, concern with operating techniques, minimizing waste, accuracy of operations, quality of materials, and cleanliness and care of operation characterize the job tasks in this category.

Formal Organizational Experiences--these are relationships involved with hiring, joining, firing, disciplining, rewarding, directing and ordering. It implies the choice of the situation where the worker would like to have the work carried out. "Becoming a more important member in..." "The importance of the rules, regulations, and procedures," "Attachment to the goals and purposes of the organization," "Duties and responsibilities," and "Carrying
out job functions," are experiences in this category.\textsuperscript{1} In the early stages of planning this investigation, Dubin's model was used to design a questionnaire for the collection of data. In preparation for pretesting the questionnaire, it was discovered that the categories did not offer the desirable degree of exclusiveness and although the categories eventually developed rely heavily on Dubin's excellent operational descriptions, it was determined that a somewhat different design was required.

Zaleznik, in writing about organizational analysis, has noted:

In describing the types of issues of concern in the study of interpersonal relations, we must differentiate the various units of analysis involved from the modes of investigations. There are three distinct units of interpersonal phenomena: (a) the organizational, (b) the intrapersonal, and (c) the interpersonal.

The first unit of analysis, the organizational, places interpersonal relations in purposive settings. Men interact to achieve purposes that are both distinct from and yet related to personal goals. The work of the organization also provides substance to interaction and acts as a distinct culture created by but also

\textsuperscript{1}Dubin, Robert, \textit{The World of Work}, pp. 61-75.
constraining to the processes of interpersonal behavior.

A second unit of analysis is the intra-personal. Here the phenomena of interest exists within the individual as a feeling, thinking, and expressing person.

A third unit of analysis, the interpersonal, focuses on the encounter and interchange in all its concreteness. What men do in the interaction and the flow of behavior over time defines the core of interpersonal relations as a scientific and practical area of study.2

The major concern of this study was to determine the intrapersonal characteristics of the subjects in relation to work. Zaleznik's organizational unit of analysis is a subcategory in the adopted model of this investigation. Also, the interpersonal relations unit was taken into account and served as a basis for a substantial portion of the categories developed. Although the model of this study is not arranged in the same fashion as that proposed by Zaleznik, it does include his three units of interpersonal relations.

2 Zaleznik, Abraham, "Interpersonal Relations in Organizations," in Handbook of Organizations, pp. 574-575.
Bell has stated that the major elements of an organization can be placed into the framework of four general categories; they are:

Technical system--The technical system contains those activities which are performed in carrying out major productive tasks that enable the organization to develop a service or product. Workers on the assembly line in a production plant, most physicians and nurses in a hospital, professors and secretaries in a university are carrying out major productive tasks of their respective organizations.

Administrative system--This component of organizations encompasses activities performed by those who primarily attempt to allocate resources and people, set goals and policies, integrate and coordinate activities performed in the technical system, plan the recruitment of new members, and, finally, encourage full participation from the present membership.

Personal system--This component of organization consists of those activities which express and result from members' feelings about their jobs and work relationships. The satisfactions individuals derive from their jobs, the involvement and participation they find in their work, the emotional climate of their relationships with fellow employees have significant effects upon their behavior.

Cultural system--The cultural properties of an organization consist of its guiding traditions, values, philosophies, and goals. These activities concerned with and symbolizing the articulation of the society's and
the organization's customs also fall within this category.

Again, the model used in this study does take into account Bell's four categories, but delineated them somewhat differently. The Technical system was included in this study's classification in a manner almost identical to Bell's definition. His Administrative and Cultural systems were taken into account in this study's Formal system. A part of Bell's Personal system is the expected yield of the study (member's feelings about their relationships) and the interpersonal relationships he mentions are synonymous with Social Acts which were used as a basic unit of measurement in this study.

Homans arrived at his organizational categories deductively as the result of extensive participant observation in his Bank Wiring Room study. From his observations of workers in interaction, Homans categorized the behavior of the group into three concepts: Activity--from the observation of behavior he notes that many of the "words"

used to describe the interactions of his subjects could be
categorized by work or activity; the things people were
doing; Interactions—this concept is almost synonymous with
communication; and Sentiment—this refers to the internal
state of the body; he notes that sentiments are identifi-
able by what people say about what they feel. The classi-
fication system of this study does take into account what
people do, their interactions, and the sentiments they
hold about tasks and interactions. Although arranged some-
what differently, Homans' concepts are included within the
design of the categories of this investigation.

McCall and Simmons discuss a role identity model
for analysis of organizational interaction by integrating
the concept of boundaries on interactions with the four
components which are determinants of the nature and kind of
interaction. The four components are the four W's: Who,
When, Where, and What. Their goal was analysis of Who

5 McCall, G. J., and Simmons, J. L., *Identities and
comes together in What Social Act, When and Where. Both the categories and questionnaire design used in this study focus attention on these elements. (The attention to When is implied in this design rather than made explicit as the When for a teacher is controlled by the nature of work—the teacher has little choice in determining When job interactions will occur.)

Carzo and Yanouzas suggest that there are three patterns of behavior within an organization:

Formalized task-oriented behavior, social behavior, and power behavior are the behavior patterns of formal organization discussed in this book...Although it is conceptually convenient and necessary to discuss these patterns in separate parts of the book, it should be recognized that they are not independent systems. 6

The authors have pointed out the non-exclusive nature of their categories in the above statement, yet, they do indicate the kind of consideration which must be attended to in organizational analysis.

Although Carzo and Yanouzas divide the behavioral

6 Carzo, Rocco, Jr., and Yanouzas, John, Formal Organizations, p. 182.
system of an organization into the three categories mentioned above, they offer a somewhat "rearranged" description of the behavioral system when they define: formal behavior, nonformal task-oriented behavior, nonformal social behavior, and power behavior.

By formal behavior we mean that behavior which is prescribed by the formal organization. Formal prescriptions about behavior include standards with respect to activities required to perform a job or task, as well as social behavior related to task performance. For instance, the task-oriented activities may involve a prescribed method of operating a machine, selling a product to a customer, performing an appendectomy on a patient, teaching typing skills to a student, and requisitioning military supplies. Some aspects of social conduct may be required for effective job performance.  

They define nonformal behavior, which they then divide into nonformal social and nonformal task-oriented behavior, as behavior which:

As far as the formal organization is concerned...is unintended. By this we do not want to imply that it is necessarily undesirable behavior. Like formal behavior,
nonformal behavior may be task-oriented or social.

Nonformal task-oriented behavior is illustrated by one worker helping another although helping was not prescribed by the formal structure. (The authors point out that the formal rules and procedures are dysfunctional for several reasons: "They may fail to cover the job task; they may not be applicable to all situations of the job... and they may not specify the best way of performing a task." Briefly, nonformal task-oriented behavior is a means of getting the job done utilizing methods not prescribed by the formal organization.

The second kind of nonformal behavior is defined as nonformal social behavior:

Nonformal social behavior involves any socializing on the job which is not related to work performance. For instance, employees playing games, joking, or gambling are examples of nonformal social behavior in formal organization. Informal group norms or standards, union practices, external reference group

8 Ibid., p. 117.
9 Ibid., p. 122.
values, ethnic expectations, or other cultural factors may be the basis for nonformal social behavior in formal organizations.\textsuperscript{10}

They describe power behavior in the following way:

Each subsystem has influence mechanisms. The formal or technical subsystem assigns each organization member to a specialized job and attempts to govern his behavior through job specifications and a statement of expected performance.\textsuperscript{11}

Power is a mode of influence. It is an interpersonal concept. It refers to a relation or relations between or among people. Influence is defined as an ability of an individual or group to induce others to produce an intended result.\textsuperscript{12}

In the conceptual model of this study, the inclusion of formal behavior, nonformal task-oriented behavior, and nonformal social behavior are clearly obvious in the Formal and Informal systems. Power behavior by its very definition cuts across all of the behavioral systems and appears to be more a part of all subsystems rather than a different category.

\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., p. 117.
\textsuperscript{11}Ibid., p. 182.
\textsuperscript{12}Ibid., p. 186.
In view of the theoretical designs suggested by the authors cited, the behavioral systems of this study, for the purpose of analysis of Senior Secondary Teacher attachment to teaching, were divided into the Formal and Informal systems. Prior to stating the definitions of these systems, it is necessary to review the background upon which the decision to treat the systems as being of equal importance in determining job attachment was based.

The Formal and Informal Systems of this Study

The Formal and Informal systems were considered as being of equal importance in determining the degree of teacher attachment to work. It could be argued that this assumption is a flaw in design which dilutes the findings. There is no doubt that the proportionate extent of the influence by the Informal and Formal systems on individual behavior does vary considerably from individual to individual; however, a review of the literature would suggest that this assumption must be kept in mind in formulation of conclusions, but that it does not compromise the basic designs
of the study. Further enumeration is required.

Many early writers who theorized about organizational behavior ignored the Informal system; Carzo and Yanouzas offer the following explanation of traditional organizational theory: Traditional organizational theory begins with the objectives the organization seeks to achieve. Once the objectives have been stated, the next step is to determine the division of the labor. The individual job tasks are grouped into administrative units with a boss for each division. The small units are grouped and form a pyramid with one official at the top. Laws and regulations are developed to guide the performance at each unit level and the rewards are based on job performance. This specialization of labor tasks and legal rule is assumed to be the best method of obtaining efficiency from the workers. In contrast to this approach, they suggest,

While the concept of self-interest based on financial reward is important in explaining human behavior, it presents an incomplete picture of human needs. It says nothing, for example, about the desire to feel important, to be respected, or

\[\text{Ibid., pp. 24-102.}\]
to have prestige. Of equal importance to the study of formal organization is the human desire to associate, to belong, or to be accepted as a member of a group on an informal basis.

Thus, there is reason to question the assumption that man is motivated simply by self enrichment. Also...man does not hold to the pattern of behavior prescribed by the formal organization. He elaborates his behavior and relationships beyond the formal requirements of a job.\textsuperscript{14}

Carzo and Yanouzas used the well known Western Electric Company and Hawthorne experiments as support for not viewing man as purely an economic creature. They observe that to understand man at work, man's personal and social needs as well as his economic needs must be taken into account; that the social as well as the economic and physical environment will influence his likes and dislikes about work and thus his work behavior.

The existence and potential influence of the Formal and Informal systems within organizations is brought into sharper focus by the following observations:

There are two well-accepted beliefs about social organization and behavior in formal

\textsuperscript{14}Ibid., p. 108.
organization. First, there is the belief that social behavior and social organization always exist in formal organization. This belief has been well supported by empirical evidence. It seems that whenever men associate on a continuous basis, they interact, develop and express sentiments toward each other, and engage in activities that are different from, or in addition to, activities required by job specifications. Second, it is believed that social organization provides the basis for cooperative behavior.

...formal organization has technical requirements which arise from its explicit goals. The goals require the performance of a certain amount of work. Men are assigned to specific jobs to perform this work. There is usually a design which relates men and jobs in a formal hierarchy of authority. Social organization does not arise as a result of design or deliberation, but it evolves naturally whenever men interact with each other over extended periods of time. While the formal organization is a means to an end, the social organization is important to members for its own sake, that is, it fulfills a basic need for human interaction.15

(i.e. The view that man at work restricts his behavior to influences which arise at work—implied in the last sentence above—is in contradiction to the theoretical design of this study. Indeed, the statement that the social organization is important for its own sake is a

15 Ibid., p. 139.
contradiction of their empirically supported findings that the Informal system has tremendous impact on the ends of the organization. This position also restricts the study of workers to an analysis of "closed" and isolated organizational systems without allowing for comparative study. Nonetheless, they do highlight the importance and existence of both systems.)

The social organization is like the formal organization in that it attempts to regulate behavior. The codes of behavior and customs of the social organization are based on mores and shared beliefs, while the rules and regulations of the formal organization are based on the need for efficiency.\(^{16}\)

The potency of the Informal System as a potential "influencer" of work behavior is noted by Carzo and Yanouzas when they point out that the values individuals hold will guide their selections among alternative behaviors when faced by a choice situation. They note,

At all levels in the organization, people meld values, beliefs, opinions, and myths into an ideology which influences the

\(^{16}\textit{Ibid.}, \ p. \ 141.\)
behavior of the individual. Sentiments concerning conflict, cooperation, superiority, inferiority, authoritarianism, democracy, equality, and others form the basis for defining the goals of an informal organization. The values which are shared by informal group members may not be necessarily in accord with the logic of the formal part of the organization.\textsuperscript{17}

(i.e. They again speak of the organization as a "closed" system; also, they fail to note that the beliefs and values individuals hold will not only influence the informal system but also the Formal system.)

Shared values may serve as a basis for the development of group norms and role expectations. The social norms which develop in an informal group define the human behavior expected of each group member. These norms may consist of explicitly or tacitly understood rules. They may prescribe social behavior on how to dress, terminology to use, relations with the boss, and who to associate with, as well as work behavior, that is, how to do the work, when to do it, and how much work to do. For example, an informal group which shares working-class values may establish a dress norm for manual labours which would not tolerate the conduct of a group member who comes to work wearing a suit, necktie, and dress hat. Norms involving activities such as gambling, stealing, escaping, and playing exist in formal organizations even though

\textsuperscript{17}Ibid., p. 143.
they appear to be alien to the performance of the organization. For instance, hospital patients, prison inmates and war prisoners in forced labor camps may not be motivated to accept the hospital, prison, or labor camp standards. Their conduct may be guided by the norms of the informal organization.  

(i.e. It is made clear that the Informal system may have a tremendous influence on behavior in the Formal system; however, they again restrict their attention to at work Informal group memberships and at work adopted values.)

To further illustrate the importance of the Informal system, consider the concept status. The Formal system attempts to confer status upon a position and delegates, through its rules and procedures, certain authorities and responsibilities to the position. When a person enters the position and actually plays the role (performs the tasks of the position), the importance of the Informal system becomes obvious as the actual status of the person performing the role is extended, changed, and elaborated by the Informal system. The actual status of the role player is conferred upon the occupant by other members of the

\[^{18}\text{Ibid.}, \ p. \ 147-148.\]
organization. Systematic studies have proven this to be the case and perhaps additional validation is provided by the fact that nearly every worker in any organization can give personal accounts that this is so.

Another illustration of the potency of the Informal system is seen when the concept power or authority is considered.

...power is defined simply as an ability to get things done or to bring about the action required in a decision. It is evident from our previous illustrations that much of the work of organizations is done unofficially or without formal authority. In other words, some people in organizations have more power than authority.¹⁹

...it is evident from the examples presented that a considerable amount of the work of organization is done unofficially or without formal authority. Power relations develop in such an environment. Some people in organizations have more power than, while others have less power than, and still others have power equal to their delegated authority.²⁰

Thus, the Formal system prescribes what shall be done, how it shall be done, who shall do various tasks, and

¹⁹Ibid., p. 130.
²⁰Ibid., p. 137.
it expects a certain kind of performance in exchange for economic rewards. If this were the sole system in operation in an organization, there would be little need for this kind of study. However, as Carzo and Yanouzas have pointed out, the Informal system not only exists but is a potent influence on what is done, how it is done, who does what, and the kind of sentiments workers hold about their organization, their work, and their interpersonal relationships with the organization.

To analyze teacher attachment to teaching, it must be recognized that the school is not a "total institution" which exists in isolation from other segments of society. It is therefore not appropriate to analyze teacher attachments to the Formal and Informal systems within the school without giving consideration to other teacher attachments in other dimensions of their lives. For example, to investigate only the Informal system within the school is to ignore the very real possibility that the Informal system exerting the most influence on teacher behavior in the Formal system of the school exists outside the school!
It is the position taken in this investigation, based on the organizational literature reviewed, that the Formal and Informal systems can be considered of equal weight in assessing teacher attachment to teaching. For the reader who cannot accept the "equal" value of the two systems, the study will provide meaningful data about the two systems individually. A complete explanation of the analysis of data is contained in Chapter IV.

Based upon the designs of the research previously cited in this chapter, and being aware of the necessity of developing mutually exclusive categories, the behavioral systems of this study were divided into: the Formal system and the Informal system. A definition of these systems follows.

The Formal System. This system includes behavior and experiences directly related to achieving the objectives of the organization. It involves the organizational prescriptions of rules, procedures, controls, rewards, and ordering as well as the actual carrying out of prescribed tasks. The Formal system was divided into Organizational
Experiences and Technical Experiences.

Organizational Experiences. These are interactions and prescriptions relating to hiring, firing, joining, disciplining, rewarding, directing, and ordering. This category includes such things as: "Becoming a more important member in..." "The importance of rules, regulations, and procedures," "Attachment to the goals and purposes of the organization," "Duties and responsibilities," and "The carrying out of job functions."

Technical Experiences. These are the relationships between an individual and his actual work operations. The job tasks and things directly related to job tasks are included. For the teacher, such things as the following are included in this subcategory: concern with techniques; specialized knowledge; accuracy of job performance; evaluation; transmission of knowledge and skills; committee work; influencing the behavior of others; the quality and maintenance of materials; and the implementing of the programs, goals and procedures specified by the school.

The Informal System. These are the informal social
behaviors which are not prescribed by the organization and do not directly relate to job performance. They are relationships which are not a direct product of the official relationship. Such interactions as small talk, casual conversation, leisure-time activity, friendship interaction, and affectional attachment characterize this system.

With these systems delineated, with the insights into Social Worlds and Social Acts provided in Chapter II, and with the clarifications offered by the review of organizational systems theory, it is now possible to specify an operational model.

The Operational Model

To provide a basis for analysis of teacher attachment to work as compared to teacher attachments to non-job oriented interactions, it was first necessary to divide the phenomenal world of the teacher into two broad categories—Job Oriented Social Worlds and Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds. These two broad categories provided the possibility of measurement of similar Social Acts and
experiences in two different settings; a preference for one setting over the other would reveal whether or not the teachers were more attached to teaching than they were to other life interactions.

The second necessity was to design and support a system of classification of interactions and experiences which would provide a legitimate sample of the universe of behavioral properties possible within an organization. It was necessary for the operational model to take into account: (1) Where teachers would prefer to interact; (2) With Whom teachers would prefer to interact; (3) What teachers would prefer to do; and (4) Which interactions teachers value most highly.

An analysis of the Formal and the Informal systems revealed what Social Acts and experiences could be classified as Job Oriented as compared to Non-Job Oriented for the subjects of this study. To complete the classification system for operationalization, it was necessary to provide a system for analyses of Where, Whom, and Which. The following model meets this requirement.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioral System</th>
<th>Job Oriented Social Worlds</th>
<th>Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Where?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal System</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Informal System |                          |                          |

**Whom?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal System</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Informal System |                          |                          |

**Which?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal System</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Informal System |                          |                          |

Figure 1. The Conceptual Model of Organizational Behavioral Experiences which Forms the Basis for Operationalization of the Theoretical Framework.

Figure 1 was utilized in Chapter IV for the development of a questionnaire for assessment of teacher attachment to teaching as compared to other attachments.
CHAPTER IV

DESIGNING THE STUDY

The major purpose of the study was to explore the attachments of teachers to interactions and experiences which are directly related to their work and workplace as compared to non-work experiences. Propositions necessary to understanding the nature of interactions and the development of attachments to these encounters as well as a conceptual model of the behavioral systems within the school were derived from a review of the literature.

This chapter will summarize these propositions; review the conceptual model; list the hypotheses; describe the sampling procedures; review the development of the questionnaire; and explain the procedures used to analyze the data.

Statement of the Propositions Derived from the Literature

1. The most meaningful segment of social interaction in a Social Act is communication by significant symbols—language.

2. A role is not a predetermined set of behaviors which are simply released or acted out in direct response to
stimuli; rather, the role is continuously being made up during the enactment of the Social Act.

3. In constructing behavior during the enactment of the Social Act, participants respond to the other(s) by taking their role and in turn interpreting to self the anticipated responses of the other(s) on which self actions are based; also, actions are influenced and guided by the personal value system of the participants. The personal value system is a product of internalizing the attitudes of significant others and the development of a generalized other.

4. Social Worlds (as settings for interactions) are segmented and multitudinous.

5. The boundary around a Social Act which occurs in a Social World is not fixed by territory or formal group membership; it is fixed by what is attended to and what is ignored—the definition of the situation. It is constantly being modified during the course of the interaction.

6. Differential values are assigned to various individual Social Acts which occur in particular Social Worlds. In face-to-face interaction which takes place at a
particular time in a particular setting, the actor's internalized values of both membership and non-membership norms will in varying degrees impose influences and guides to his behavior and affect his evaluation of the encounter.

7. In the enactment of a Social Act the actor may be behaving in a fashion consistent with internalized norms or may merely be taking into account the situation in order to accomplish his purpose, with no real attachment or belief in his actions.

8. The actor's stated preference for interactions with particular others in a particular location will reveal the source of his significant others; specifically, the source and location of his personal value system—his preferred source of emotional attachment.

The Conceptual Model

The conceptual model was presented in Chapter III in Figure 1. This model dichotomized the behavioral system of the school into the Formal and Informal systems. It also delineated possible interactions which might occur in these systems by taking into account where teachers prefer to
interact, with whom they prefer to interact, and which interactions they prefer. This model makes it possible to assess the attachment of a teacher to the Formal and Informal systems of the school by observing his preferences for interactions related to school environments as compared to non-school environments when he is asked to choose one or the other environment as the setting for enacting a given Social Act.

This model, in combination with the propositions and literature reviewed, served as the basis for the development of a questionnaire which will be presented following the listing of the hypotheses.

Development of the Hypotheses

It was determined that the hypotheses of the study should be described as a major directional hypothesis, four component directional hypotheses, and ten null hypotheses classified as subordinate in order to clarify the different categories evaluated.

Since the major and component hypotheses were stated in directional rather than null forms, it seems appropriate
at this point to offer support for electing this procedure. Clarification of the concept professional and reference to other studies of work attachment are offered below as support for using directional hypotheses.

Professions and Professionals. Hughes notes that professionals and professions have the following characteristics: a professional possesses a special kind of knowledge which he controls and the application of which he determines; he has license to deviate from lay norms; the client trusts his services; he receives deference from the larger society; he is deeply committed to his work; a profession has close group solidarity; it requires extended training for entry; it carefully controls the selection and entry of new candidates; and in general professionals and professions appreciate a rather high degree of autonomy.¹

Barber supports the definition of Hughes when he writes:

Professional behavior may be defined in terms of four essential attributes: a high degree of generalized and systematic knowledge; primary

orientation to the community interest rather than to self-interest; a high degree of self-control of behavior through codes of ethics internalized in the process of work socialization and through voluntary associations organized and operated by the work specialists themselves; and a system of rewards (monetary and honorary) that is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement and thus ends in themselves, not means to some end of individual self interest.²

It is commonplace to note that studies of job satisfaction and attachment to work indicate that it is the professions which are sources of strong attachment for their memberships. Teachers would appear to lack both quantitatively and qualitatively a number of the characteristics Hughes and Barber define as being essential to obtain professional status. It would seem that a teacher might more accurately be described as a marginal professional than a professional as: he does not determine the working conditions of his group; there are controls on the content and method of dispersing his specialized knowledge and skills; he does not control and determine the qualifications of those entering his work group; his life work to a large

extent is controlled by a lay board with little of his particular knowledge, training or skills; he receives limited deference from the larger society; and his license to deviate from lay conduct is seriously limited.

These factors influenced the writer to predict a Non-Job Orientation for the secondary teacher group studied in evaluation of total attachment to teaching (tested by the major hypothesis).

Other Studies of Work Attachment. Three previous studies used instrumentation designed by Dubin to measure the extent and kind of job commitment of industrial workers, professional nurses and industrial education teachers. The details of these studies are reported in Chapter V in Table 8, along with the results of the current study.

Although the design of this study is somewhat different from the other three studies cited, the properties measured and the operational definitions for the various categories examined are almost identical in all four of the studies; thus, on the basis of the findings of the three prior research efforts and the conceptualizations developed in this study, direction was predicted for the four
component hypotheses.

The Major and Component Hypotheses

**The Major Hypothesis.** It was hypothesized that a significantly higher number of teachers studied will score as attached to Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds than to Job Oriented Social Worlds.

**The Component Hypotheses.** The two behavioral systems which formed the basis for testing the major hypothesis were the Formal and Informal systems. Each required analysis to further specify the extent and kind of attachment to teaching of secondary teachers. These systems are explained in detail in Chapter III.

1. The Formal System—Since the Formal system is composed of the Organizational and Technical subsystems, and since it was hypothesized that teachers would rate Job Oriented in these subsystems, it was hypothesized that significantly more of the teachers studied will rate Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented in the Formal system.

2. Organizational Experiences—It was hypothesized that significantly more of the teachers studied will rate
Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented for their Organizational experiences.

3. Technical Experiences—It was hypothesized that significantly more of the teachers studied will rate Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented for their Technical experiences.

4. The Informal System—It was hypothesized that significantly more of the teachers studied will rate Non-Job Oriented than Job Oriented in the Informal system.

The Subordinate Hypotheses

The reader is reminded that the study is an exploratory effort; thus, to make definitive and precise statements about within group differences is of questionable validity. It was felt, however, that some indication of the direction further research might take to determine within group differences would be of value. With this objective in mind, the following ten null hypotheses were delineated:

1. There is no significant difference between the extent of Job Orientation of male and female teachers.
2. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation between science and non-science teachers.

3. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation between married and not married teachers.

4. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation between AFT-MEA/NEA teachers.

5. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation between teachers in schools of under 1,200 students and schools over 1,200 students.

6. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation between Masters degree and Bachelors degree teachers.

7. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation among teachers of different ages.

8. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation among teachers with varying years of experience.

9. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation among teachers working in buildings wherein the physical conditions vary.
10. No significant differences exist in the extent of Job Orientation among teachers working in different age buildings.

Following the derivation of the hypotheses, the next task was to design a questionnaire which would yield data to test these hypotheses.

Questionnaire Development

The purpose of this investigation was to explore the extent and kind of attachments to teaching held by secondary teachers as compared to their non-teaching attachments. A survey of the literature was conducted, propositions were delineated, and an operational model was developed from which samples of teacher experiences and behaviors could be delineated and phrased in the form of a questionnaire. The instrument which was used for data collection went through extensive modifications which are explained below.

A first draft of a questionnaire was designed by slightly modifying the questionnaire used by Dubin to measure job orientation of industrial workers; however, during the critical evaluation of this questionnaire, it
was determined that this study required an instrument designed specifically for its theoretical orientation and the teachers' work world. Thus, the first questionnaire was rejected.

A second instrument was constructed which followed the general design of Dubin's but was designed to "fit" more closely the conceptualizations of this study and the conditions previously mentioned. This second questionnaire, which was eventually extensively modified, consisted of twenty-seven items with three items for each of the sub-categories of the conceptual model (see Figure 1). Each item had two parts: one part offered the subject a choice of school related, non-school related, or equally; the second part of the item gave the subject the opportunity to indicate the strength of his choice on a five point scale. The first step in validation of the questionnaire was its submission to eight expert judges (Professors of Education and Sociology) on the staff of Montana State University. The instrument was modified to incorporate suggested changes and it was then administered to seventeen secondary teachers in the Bozeman, Montana, public school system.
Their suggestions as to ambiguities in wording, confusion of items, and most important, their responses to individual items were analyzed. It was determined that the two part approach to each item (a preference choice and a degree of preference choice) was "leading" the respondents; further, it did not yield a refined assessment of the intensity of choice. Thus, the second part (degree of choice) was dropped. It was also determined that the "equally" option should be dropped, since the respondents tended to select this category disproportionately (even when clearly directed in the instructions that "equally" was to be avoided) when faced with making the preferential distinctions required by the nature of the study. Non-discriminating and misleading items were revised or replaced (seven items required replacement and five were slightly modified).

In view of the extensive changes which preceded the construction of the third questionnaire, it was determined that this instrument must undergo pretesting. The questionnaire was administered to fifteen secondary teachers attending summer school at Montana State University.
Analysis of the responses revealed that one item required modification. The final form adopted, which served as the instrument for the collection of data, appears in Appendix A and is described in detail below. The questionnaire was printed on two pages and contained introductory instructions, Part I and Part II. Part I had as its objective the collection of demographic data to yield an evaluation of the subordinate hypotheses; it consisted of ten items which were designed to reveal: sex, marital status, age, years of teaching experience, professional affiliation, school size, building condition, building age, discipline specialization, and degree status. Part II consisted of twenty-seven items with three items for each of the subcategories of the conceptual model (see Figure 1). Nine of the items were designed to yield a measurement of the properties of the Informal system and eighteen of the items measured properties of the Formal system. Respondents were given a choice between school related and non-school related options for each item.

The composite yield of the questionnaire was used to determine whether or not a teacher could be classified
as Job Oriented; items measuring properties of the Formal and Informal systems revealed the different kinds of teacher attachment to different facets of teaching; and the demographic data collected were used to determine the different attachments among teachers studied.

An explanation of the statistical treatment of the data will be given following the explanation of sampling procedures.

Definition of the Sample of the Study

The population for this study was public school secondary teachers (at least 3/5 time teaching in grades 9-12) in the Minnesota cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. The Directory, Minneapolis Public Schools and Directory, St. Paul Public Schools were utilized to define the population; they include 1,247 teachers employed in ten Minneapolis schools and nine St. Paul high schools.

Procedures Used in Selecting and Contacting the Subjects. All secondary teachers in the Minneapolis and St. Paul Directories were placed on a master list; superintendents, principals, coordinators, counselors, social workers,
Each subject on the master list was assigned a number 1-1,247 inclusive. A set of cards was prepared bearing numbers 1-1,247 and placed in a container from which a 50% random sample, 624, was drawn to serve as subjects of the study.

Three direct mailings to the homes of the subjects were made; the mailings included the questionnaire and a self-addressed envelope.

Response Information. Of the 624 subjects in the random sample, 354 responded to the first mailing for a 57 per cent return. Two follow-up efforts were made to obtain returns from the non-respondents, 94 responding to the first follow-up mailing and 82 responding to the second follow-up mailing. The covering letters used in the first and second follow-up appear in Appendix B.

The total number of questionnaires returned was 530 for a total return of 85 per cent. Of the questionnaires returned, 41 were discarded on discovery that the subjects failed to complete the instrument in a manner which would
allow inclusion of their responses in the data of the study. Thus, 489 respondents (78 per cent) of the 624 subjects in the random samples were utilized to derive the findings of this investigation.

The data were analyzed using the statistical procedures which follow.

The Statistical Treatment of the Data

The hypotheses of the study were categorized as a major hypothesis, four component hypotheses and ten subordinate hypotheses. These classifications were utilized to focus attention on the different categories evaluated.

The hypotheses framed in this study were developed from theoretical arguments presented earlier; presumably the theory gives direction to the major and component hypotheses. The subordinate hypotheses are framed as null hypotheses. The statistical procedures used to evaluate each of these categories of hypotheses follows.

The Directional Hypotheses. The major hypothesis and the four component hypotheses were stated as directional hypotheses. For this study there is interest only
in one direction—whether Job Orientations exceed Non-Job Orientations; conclusions will be framed in terms of whether or not these directional hypotheses are substantiated.

To test these hypotheses, each teacher was rated as Job Oriented or Non-Job Oriented on the basis of his total responses to the items on the questionnaire. The questionnaire contained two categories of items, one to evaluate the Formal system and another to evaluate the Informal system. Of the 27 total items in the questionnaire, 9 items measure properties of the Informal system and 18 items measure properties of the Formal system. Since these two systems are considered to be of equal weight in determining the extent of Job Orientation, and since each item is considered to be of equal weight to each of the other items, the values in the Informal system were double-weighted.

The responses for each subject were summed and a teacher whose responses totaled 50% or higher in a Job Oriented direction was classified as Job Oriented. Thus, teachers whose summed scores were between 18 and 36,
inclusive, were classified as Job Oriented. Teachers whose summed scores were between 0 and 17, inclusive, were classified as Non-Job Oriented. Figure 2 presents an example of the scoring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal System</th>
<th>Informal System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job</strong></td>
<td><strong>Non-Job</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oriented</strong></td>
<td><strong>Oriented</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weighted Score</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Job Orientation Score = 16

Classification: Non-Job Oriented

Figure 2. An Example of the Procedure Used in Scoring One Teacher as Job or Non-Job Oriented

The statistical procedure used to test the directional hypotheses was a chi square test, a computational procedure to compare observed frequencies with expected frequencies. The observed values consisted of numbers of teachers who were scored as being attached to Job or Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds; it was expected that by
chance the theoretical values would be split evenly be-
tween the two categories—Job Oriented and Non-Job
Oriented. According to Ferguson, the use of chi square is
based on the assumption that no actual difference exists
between observed and expected frequencies. If the cal-
culated value of chi square is equal to or greater than
3.84, required for significance at the .05 level with
1 d.f., the null hypothesis of no difference between ob-
served and expected values will be rejected. If this
rejection occurs and it is observed that more teachers
scored in the predicted direction, then the directional
hypothesis will be accepted.

The Subordinate Hypotheses. The subordinate hypoth-
eses were stated as null hypotheses. The chi square test
of independence statistic was computed as the means for
assessing the differences within teacher group attachments
to teaching as delineated by ten demographic variables used
to formulate the subordinate hypotheses.

Four of the variables studied—age, length of teaching experience, building condition and building age—were tested by comparing observed with expected frequencies. The observed values consisted of numbers of Job Oriented teachers for each demographic category of each variable. In these cases, the theoretical frequencies for individual cells used in the chi square calculations were based upon proportions of Job Oriented teachers (54 percent) in the total sample.

Six of the variables studied—male-female, science-non science, married-not married, AFT-MEA/NEA, school under 1,200-school over 1,200, and Bachelors degree-Masters degree—were used as one means of dichotomizing the subjects; the Job or Non-Job classifications were used to formulate the other dichotomy for application of chi square analyses. Since these six variables were dichotomous, the 2x2 chi square test of independence suggested by Ferguson was employed to test these hypotheses.\(^4\)

Findings for the ten subordinate null hypotheses

\(^4\)Ibid., pp. 200-204.
were termed significant at the .05 level of confidence if the calculated chi square values exceeded the rejection values of 3.84 for 1 d.f., 5.99 for 2 d.f., and 9.49 for 4 d.f.

The statistical applications to these data are reported in Chapter V, "FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS."
CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

It has been pointed out that the purpose of this study is to examine the attachments of secondary teachers to teaching. The analyses of respondents' choices between Job and Non-Job Oriented options in the Formal and Informal behavioral systems were the operational procedures used to measure teacher attachments. It was also noted that the Formal and Informal systems were considered to be of equal weight in assessing the extent of total job commitment; support for this contention was presented in Chapter III and is mentioned here to serve as a reminder that in interpreting the patterns of total Job Orientation, this fact must be kept in mind. The analyses of the individual systems, the Formal and the Informal, are not influenced by the above consideration.

This chapter will report the findings for the major directional hypothesis, the four component hypotheses, and the ten subordinate null hypotheses; draw comparisons between this study and similar studies by Dubin, Orzack and Nelson; and offer an interpretation of the findings.
The review of literature revealed that teaching seems to lack both quantitatively and qualitatively a number of the characteristics essential to professional status. It appears to be a marginal profession in that the teacher does not directly determine the working conditions of his group, there are controls imposed on the teacher's dispersion of specialized knowledge and skills, he does not control and determine the qualifications of those who enter his work group, his life work to a large extent is controlled by a lay board with little of his specialized training or knowledge, he receives limited deference from the larger society, and his license to deviate from lay conduct is seriously limited. In view of these facts, it was hypothesized that,

A significantly higher number of the teachers studied will score as attached to Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds than to Job Oriented Social Worlds.

Table 1 reveals the pattern of total Job Orientation for the subjects of the study.
TABLE 1. TOTAL JOB ORIENTATION OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Oriented</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Job Oriented</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observation of the total Job Orientation scores show that 263 secondary teachers (54 per cent) may be classified as Job Oriented, while 226 (46 per cent) scored as Non-Job Oriented.

The calculated chi square for the observed differences is 2.80. This indicates that the differences are not significant at the .05 level and calls for rejection of the directional hypothesis of Non-Job Orientation for the group.

Even though the total Job Orientation scores did not reveal a statistically significant difference in the predicted direction of Non-Job Orientation, it is equally important to note the lack of statistical support for the
opposite direction, that of Job Orientation. It should be further emphasized that 46 per cent of the subjects did score in a Non-Job Oriented direction. Also, observation of the results for the Formal and Informal systems lends support to the basic contention that teaching is a marginal profession in that teachers do not fully commit themselves to the totality of work behaviors associated with teaching.

The Component Hypotheses

The behavioral systems which formed the basis for testing the major hypothesis were the Formal and Informal systems. Examinations of these two systems will further reveal the extent and kind of secondary teacher attachment to teaching.

The Formal System. The Formal system includes (1) the relationships between an organization, its officials and its members which are prescribed by organizational rules, regulations, and procedures (in this study termed Organizational experiences), and (2) the relationships between a teacher and his actual job performance, the tasks he performs using his specialized knowledge and skills (in
this study termed Technical experiences). Based on similar studies by Dubin and others, it was hypothesized that,

A significantly higher number of secondary teachers studied will score Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented in the Formal sector.

The scores for the Formal system were derived by combining the Organizational and Technical experiences scores for each subject and scoring the subjects as either Job Oriented or Non-Job Oriented on the basis of this combined score. Table 2 presents the pattern of Job Orientation in the Formal system for the secondary teachers studied.

**TABLE 2. JOB ORIENTATION SCORES FOR THE FORMAL SYSTEM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Oriented</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Job Oriented</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2 it may be noted that 429 secondary
teachers (88 per cent) scored Job Oriented in the Formal system while 60 (12 per cent) scored Non-Job Oriented.

The calculated chi square for the differences in commitments in the Formal system amounts to 278.44 and indicates the differences are significant at the .05 level. The prediction that secondary teachers would score Job Oriented in this system was substantiated. It can be stated with some assurance that secondary teachers are very likely to prefer the school as the setting for the performance of their technical behaviors and for their organizational experiences.

The following analyses of Organizational and Technical experiences offer additional evidence that secondary teachers are Job Oriented in their Formal system attachments.

Organizational Experiences. The object of examining this system, like all other examinations conducted, was to assess the extent and kind of teacher attachment to teaching. This system was evaluated by sampling experiences involving the relationships between people and organizations. Two of the questions asked about this system were, "I would
rather be recognized for my membership in (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization," and "I would most dislike missing a meeting of (1) a school organization; (2) a non-school organization." Of the 27 items in the questionnaire, 9 measured properties of Organizational experiences.

Based on studies by Dubin, Orzack and Nelson (cited elsewhere), it was predicted that the preferred organization for teachers would be the school when judged in terms of organizational standards and typical organizational ties and bonds. It was hypothesized that,

Significantly more of the teachers studied will rate Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented for their Organizational experiences.

Table 3 reveals the pattern of Job Orientation for Organizational experiences.
TABLE 3. JOB ORIENTATION SCORES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EXPERIENCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Oriented</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Job Oriented</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observation of the observed responses reveals that 427 secondary teachers (87 per cent) scored in a Job Oriented direction while 62 (13 per cent) scored in a Non-Job Oriented direction.

The calculated chi square for the difference between teachers Job Oriented and Non-Job Oriented in Organizational experiences is 272.44, which again is significant at the .05 level. The hypothesis of homogeneity is clearly rejected and inspection reveals teacher responses were in the predicted direction of Job Orientation.

It seems clear that the school provides secondary teachers preferred opportunities for Organizational experiences. It should be mentioned that a preference for a
certain organization, in this case the school, over other organizations does not mean that teachers are deeply attached to the organization; rather, it is an indication that the school is the most meaningful context for secondary teachers when Organizational experiences are brought into focus.

**Technical Experiences.** The sampling made of Technical experiences was again designed to measure Job vs Non-Job Orientations. 9 of the 27 items in the questionnaire probed the technical aspects of teaching by giving teachers the opportunity to select between school or non-school environments for the application of their specialized knowledge and skill. Introductory phrases such as, "I/like best to work on a project with people from..." and "I find greatest satisfaction in improving my ability to do things which are related to..." were used to evaluate this system.

Table 4 reveals that the prediction secondary teachers would score Job Oriented in the application of their specialized skills and knowledge was correct.
It is probably not surprising that 425 of the subjects (87 per cent) were Job Oriented in the Technical sector while only 64 (13 per cent) scored as Non-Job Oriented. That is, the formal education of the teacher has for the most part prepared him for application of his specialized knowledge and skill. Also, it might be argued that the most obvious expectation placed on the teacher by both the school and the broader society is the application of his specialized training.

The calculated chi square for the differences in Job Orientation in relationship to Technical experiences is 266.5 and is significant at the .05 level. Observation of the responses indicates the predicted Job Orientation...
exists in the Technical sector for the secondary teacher.

The Informal System. This system includes relationships and experiences which are not directly a product of the formal organization and are not prescribed by the rules, regulations and procedures of the organization. Behaviors such as casual conversations, friendship interactions, and leisure-time activities are illustrative of Informal group experiences.

It was noted in the explanation of the design of this study that much of the previous research about the relationship between man and his work focuses almost exclusive attention on analyzing interactions which occur at work. Dubin challenged this approach in his study of industrial workers by broadening the investigation to include a comparison of work experiences with non-work experiences. This study incorporated Dubin's concept of providing an opportunity for choice between work and non-work related interactions and experiences. Questions such as, "I would prefer to discuss my most interesting hobby with...." and "In my casual conversations with others, I most often find myself talking about things related to...."
were asked to provide the teacher a choice between school and non-school Informal relationships.

9 of the 27 questionnaire items were devoted to an evaluation of the Informal system. Table 5 presents the findings for this system.

**TABLE 5. JOB ORIENTATION SCORES FOR THE INFORMAL SYSTEM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Oriented</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Job Oriented</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When teachers were given a choice between school and non-school related environments for Informal behavior, 378 (77 per cent) scored in the Non-Job Oriented direction while 111 (23 per cent) scored Job Oriented.

The calculation of chi square for the observed differences in preference indicates a value of 145.72, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. The hypothesis of homogeneity is rejected and the prediction that
132
teachers would score Non-Job Oriented in the Informal
system is accepted.

Almost eight out of ten teachers did not prefer the
school site for experiences directly related to teaching as
the focal point for their Informal relationships.

The Subordinate Hypotheses. It was noted in the
statement of hypotheses in Chapter IV that the primary
purpose for including the subordinate hypotheses was to
suggest possible directions for future research. These
hypotheses were aimed at assessing within teacher group
differences in Job Orientation and are stated in null
hypothesis form. Ten demographic characteristics were
selected for examination. In stating the subordinate
hypotheses it was pointed out that this study is an ex­
ploratory effort; thus, it is not possible to make
definitive and precise statements about within group dif­
ferences with this particular instrumentation.

None of the chi square values obtained for the ten
demographic variables were significant at the .05 level for
the appropriate degree of freedom. In a strict statisti­
cal sense, this portion of the study cannot provide the
hoped for direction for further research; however, an examination of the percentages of teachers scored as Job Oriented for the individual cells might legitimately yield meaningful suggestions for research which focuses very directly on within teacher group differences in Job Orientation.

Four of the ten variables studied—age, length of teaching experience, building condition, and building age—were tested by application of chi-square to observed and theoretical values (the explanation of the statistical procedure is given in Chapter IV). Table 6 reports the findings of these four variables.
TABLE 6. JOB ORIENTATION SCORES FOR FOUR DEMOGRAPHIC CATEGORIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable and Subcategories</th>
<th>Number of Teachers by Category</th>
<th>Number of Job Oriented Teachers</th>
<th>Per cent Job Oriented Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 56</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>264</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Experience:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1- 3</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- 8</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-15</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-25</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 26</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>260</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Condition:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>263</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0- 9</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-25</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 26</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>262</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The chi square values for teacher Age is 2.35 for 4 d.f., for Length of Experience is 1.78 for 4 d.f., for Building Condition is .94 for 4 d.f., and for Building Age is .06 for 2 d.f. None of these chi squares are significant for the appropriate degree of freedom at the .05 level.

Building age and building condition would seem to have very little influence on Job Orientation as measured in this study since the hypothesis of homogeneity is supported by both the calculated chi squares and the percentages of Job Orientation for individual cells.

Age and length of experience seem to give the appearance of a bell shaped curve when percentages are examined. Approximately half of the subjects score Job Oriented when they are "young, inexperienced" teachers. There seems to be a tendency for a higher number of teachers to score Job Oriented when they are "old, experienced" teachers.

Six of the demographic variables studied were dichotomous and were examined by the 2x2 chi square test
of independence (a more complete explanation of statistical procedure is given in Chapter IV). Again, none of the calculated chi square values for these six demographic variables is significant at the .05 level for 1 d.f. Table 7 reports the findings for these six variables.
TABLE 7. JOB ORIENTATION SCORES FOR SIX DEMOGRAPHIC CATEGORIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Number of Teachers by Category</th>
<th>Number of Job Oriented Teachers</th>
<th>Per cent Job Oriented Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>263</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Married</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>256</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFT</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEA/NEA</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>237</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1,200 Students</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 1,200 Students</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>264</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science Teachers</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Science Teachers</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>263</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors Degree</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>262</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chi square values for Male-Female is 3.75, Married-Not Married is .63, AFT-MEA/NEA is .28, 0-1,200
Students—Over 1,200 Students is 1.12, Science—Non-Science is .00, and Bachelors Degree—Masters Degree is 1.87. A chi square value of 3.84 is required to reject the null hypotheses; thus, the prediction of homogeneity cannot be denied on the basis of these findings.

Of the teachers studied, 159 males (58 per cent) were scored as Job Oriented while 104 females (49 per cent) scored in this direction. Perhaps further analysis of the differences in job commitment between the sexes might prove to be a meaningful study. Likewise, persons holding Masters degrees might prove to be more job committed than Bachelors degree holding teachers, were a more detailed analysis made. Marital status, professional affiliation, student body size, and teaching discipline seem to hold less potential for further investigation.

Comparisons of Job Orientation with Previous Studies

Three previous studies used instrumentation designed by Dubin to measure the extent and kind of job commitment of industrial workers, professional nurses and industrial
education teachers. In Table 8 the findings of these studies are reported, along with the results of the current study.

It must be pointed out that the design of this study is somewhat different from the other three studies and therefore less confidence can be placed in the comparisons between this study and the others. The properties measured and the operational definitions for the various categories examined in the four studies are almost identical; however, this study differs from the others in that a different instrument was used to collect the data and different scoring procedures were used to classify the subjects as Job Oriented or Non-Job Oriented. The similarities of purpose and design are such that comparisons can be made when these differences are kept in mind.
TABLE 8. COMPARISONS OF FOUR MEASURES OF JOB ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ind. Workers</th>
<th>Prof. Nurses</th>
<th>Ind. Ed. Teachers</th>
<th>Secondary Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DUBIN* ORZACK* NELSON* HANNA</td>
<td>N-491</td>
<td>N-150</td>
<td>N-230</td>
<td>N-489</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total Job Orientation | Job | 24% | 79% | 24% | 54% | Non-Job | 76 | 21 | 76 | 46 |
| Organizational Sector | Job | 61 | 91 | 67 | 87 | Non-Job | 39 | 9 | 33 | 13 |
| Technical Sector | Job | 63 | 87 | 69 | 87 | Non-Job | 37 | 13 | 31 | 13 |
| Informal Sector | Job | 9 | 45 | 12 | 23 | Non-Job | 91 | 55 | 88 | 77 |

*These studies have been cited in the theoretical and operational development of this investigation.
Observation of the results of the four studies reveals that the greatest dispersion of Job Orientation occurs in the measurement of total commitment. Secondary teachers are a good deal less job committed as a group than are the professional nurses, yet, both of these groups are strikingly more committed than industrial workers and industrial education teachers. A comparison of Organizational and Technical Job Orientation reveals a very close similarity between professional nurses and secondary teachers, while industrial workers and industrial education teachers are much alike. Secondary teachers and professional nurses are clearly Job Oriented in the Technical and Organizational sectors, while the other two groups studied are less committed in these areas.

A somewhat different pattern is observed in the Informal sector. Industrial workers, industrial education teachers and secondary teachers all very clearly prefer informal interactions and experiences which are centered outside of the workplace and which are not directly related to job performance, while almost half of the professional nurses score Job Oriented for the Informal sector.
The highest degree of job involvement for all subjects studied in these four investigations is in the Organizational and Technical sectors. In all cases, the lowest degree of job involvement is located in the Informal sector.

Interpretation of Study Findings

The extent and kind of secondary teacher attachment to teaching seems to have special relevance in today's society. Rapidly increasing technological sophistication, concentration of the population into metropolitan centers, the challenging of traditional values and customs, the further specialization of the labor force, racial tensions, the need and urgent demand for international perspectives, the speed and expanding scope of mass media, and other related conditions bring into sharp focus the need for improved and high level performance by teachers if education is to cope with these forces. It seems imperative that the trainers of teachers and others who function with teachers in the schools know something of teachers' dedication and attachment to their work.
The interpretations which follow are based on the assumption that a teacher lightly committed to his occupation will quite likely not expend the energies necessary to fully exploit the knowledge explosion nor will he fully learn and incorporate into his repertoire of teaching strategies new, imaginative and innovative approaches. A lightly committed teacher will tend to be a guardian of the status quo rather than a change agent, since the former requires a good deal less effort. He will tend to play out the most obvious expectations placed on his job performance rather than to constantly seek better approaches which may not be currently recognized by the broader society and may even threaten large portions of the society and thus bring a negative reaction upon the teacher. He will tend to view the school as a means to acquire ends to participate in non-school interactions which have more social meaning to him than does teaching.

Only about half of the secondary teachers studied were found to be Job Oriented in their total value commitment to teaching. Eight out of ten teachers preferred non-school related environments for their Informal human
relations; it appears their perceived primary social relationships do not take place in school or with school related activities. In the Formal dimension of social behavior teachers are Job Oriented in that nearly nine out of ten teachers are attached to the school as an organization and do prefer school related interactions for the application of their specialized knowledge and skill.

The broad generalization suggested by these findings is that the global and complete dedication of self to work assumed to be characteristic of professional occupations does not exist for teachers.

If a more complete commitment of self to teaching by the teacher is desirable and needed, then educators at all levels must examine the process and content of teacher preparation programs and the conditions of the school systems in which teachers function to find the reasons for this lack of total commitment and to inaugurate ways of increasing teacher involvement.

The following analyses of the Organizational, Technical and Informal sectors will provide additional explanations about the extent and kind of teacher
attachment to teaching.

The Organizational Sector. Almost nine out of ten secondary teachers rated Job Oriented for their Organizational experience.

This can be interpreted to mean that the school is the most significant organization in the life of the teacher and that the formalized rules, regulations and procedures of the school are more highly valued by the teacher than those of other organizations. If mere acceptance of the school as an organization were the only consideration, then the analysis of teacher Job Orientation could end at this point. However, as Dubin very clearly points out in his study of industrial workers, the acceptance of the workplace as the preferred organization for the worker should not be confused with the notion that this means workers automatically are deeply committed to the organization.¹

When the total pattern of Job Orientation of the teacher is considered, it becomes clear that the teacher

may well have decided that the school is an acceptable setting for providing self with the means to acquire ends to participate in more valued interactions and experiences in non-school related environments. The point was made in the theoretical development of this study that in the enactment of a Social Act the actor may behave in a fashion consistent with internalized norms or he may merely be taking into account the situation in order to accomplish his purpose with no real attachment or belief in his actions. A closely related consideration is made by Dubin when he states as a basic proposition of his study that, "...in situations of necessary but unimportant social participation the most direct and obvious features of the situation become bases for the individual's attachment to that situation."\(^2\)

The expected role behaviors for the teacher in the organization are made obvious by preparing institutions, colleague groups and the various publics of the school. Also, many of the expectations of the school are highly

\(^2\)Ibid., p. 137.
visible and concrete as they are stated explicitly in the formalized rules, regulations and procedures of the organization. Thus, the real possibility exists that teachers are playing out the expected behaviors without the desirable degree of affective attachment and involvement.

This by no means suggests that efforts should be made to make less clear the expectations of the school nor does it imply that acceptance of the school by teachers as the most valued organization in their lives is undesirable. The point is that this acceptance alone does not guarantee dedicated teachers and that efforts in pre- and in-service training too often do not go beyond the most direct and obvious features of the situation. The suggested direction for training is to broaden the scope of considerations so that teachers do more than commit themselves in a way that takes into account the situation in order to accomplish ends which are non-school related.

The findings for the Technical sector which follow are very similar to those for the Organizational sector and offer additional insight into the nature of Job Orientation for secondary teachers.
The Technical Sector. All four of the studies compared were designed to offer subjects the choice of applying their skills and knowledge in either Job Oriented or Non-Job Oriented settings. Nearly nine out of ten secondary teachers scored as Job Oriented in the Technical sector.

Dubin offers a somewhat unique explanation of Technical Job Orientation for industrial workers when he notes, "This kind of experience has meaning in a sociological sense because it signifies the interdependence of man with man even where there is no necessary common ground of values shared between them." He points out that even in the face of the heterogeneous urban environment, the continued specialization and division of labor and the apparent lack of consensus typical of mass society, workers do become aware of their technological interdependence. Thus, awareness of the division of labor and its resultant interdependence give social meaning to work and a worker attachment to the technological aspects of the job results. This position

3Dubin, op. cit., p. 139.
challenges the concept that specialization and division of labor result in worker indifference, alienation and personal disorganization. To the contrary, it may well be a point of anchorage and meaningful affective attachment for industrial workers.

The meaning for nearly nine out of ten secondary teachers scoring Job Oriented in the Technical sector is somewhat different than for industrial workers. (Yet, educators who propose to replace the teaching generalist with the teaching specialist might well support their position with Dubin's concept of interdependence causing social meaning and thus serving as a potential source of teacher attachment to teaching.) First, even though there is a trend toward further specialization in the secondary school, it does not resemble the kind of specialization characteristic of industrial mass production. Second, the assimilation of the knowledge and skills necessary to gain certification for teaching in the secondary schools are achieved through specialized instruction over a relatively long period of time and the scope of the behaviors related to job performance are far more extensive for the secondary
teacher than for the industrial worker. This being the case, what does attachment to the Technical sector by secondary teachers mean?

The findings of this study support the notion that teachers accept the performance of teaching behaviors prescribed for the school and that their training has instilled rather deeply-felt motivations toward commitment to their work activities. The efforts of preparing institutions and the public schools to communicate to teachers the importance of the school as an institution and to develop a sense of attachment to performing teaching tasks seem to be successful almost nine out of ten times. This fact is not surprising when the extended exposure of teachers as students to teacher-job-performance is noted. Also, much of the training process for teachers and the rules, regulations and procedures of the school are directly aimed at influencing teacher performance in the school. It must be noted that while teachers do rather deeply commit themselves to their work activities, they do not make a total commitment to all facets of the occupation.

Teachers are attached to the work activities
associated with teaching; therefore, the explicit and implicit expectations for job performance will be accepted by the teacher as normative guides for teacher behavior.

Again, the concept of attachment to the most physically and directly obvious features of a situation is brought into focus and seems to have meaning. The absence of total Job Orientation resulting from teachers' preference for primary human relations centered in non-school related environments suggests that teachers, public schools and training institutions may well select the most directly obvious and physically visible sectors of job performance as focal points. Specifically, the transmission of information, the evaluation of student performance, committee activity, enforcement of school regulations, classroom control and management, selecting and organizing content from the body of knowledge and other highly visible activities are receiving almost exclusive emphasis. Thus, a kind of impersonal environment develops around teaching and the kind of total job commitment thought to be typical of professions is not present.

The positive feature of this finding is the fact
teachers have identified and committed themselves to the activities associated with job performance. The negative factor is that most of the identification is impersonal, is related primarily to the directly obvious and visible features of job performance and in view of the lack of total Job Orientation, will tend to be change resistant.

If all that was involved in effective teaching were acceptance of the school as an institution and an attachment to work, then a very satisfying conclusion could be drawn on the basis of finding teachers Job Oriented for the Technical and Organizational sectors. However, secondary teachers, like industrial workers, can have a well-developed sense of attachment to job performance and the school without a corresponding sense of total commitment to it. This possibility and probability becomes more evident on examination of the Informal sector.

The Informal Sector. This sector deals with interactions which are concerned with the achievement of personal satisfactions in human associations and contacts. The behaviors in this system are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization and are not
prescribed by organizational rules, procedures or regulations. Involved are such things as small talk, friendship interactions, and affectional attachments.

Since Informal behavior is neither made mandatory nor is it prescribed by the organization, the Informal system serves as an important indicator of the extent to which the work situation is valued by the individual. It is a sector freed from prescribed obligations associated with job performance in an organization to earn income and it is freed to a large extent from the formal authority of the organization. In fact, in the theoretical development of this study it was contended that the Informal system was of equal value to the Formal system in determining total Job Orientation for teachers and the studies cited seem to support this notion. The studies revealed that Informal social relationships at work greatly affect both the efficiency and quality of work activity. Also, the attainment of organizational goals is influenced by the Informal relations of the members. If the teacher were to value the Informal social relations directly related to teaching, then he would have an inducement to value the teaching
situation itself. If the teacher values primary social relationships in non-school environments most highly, he is not likely to be totally committed to his work since the location of his personal significant others is centered in non-school situations and he will draw heavily upon these non-school associations in making decisions which affect both his work and non-work behavior.

The subjects of the study were given a choice between school and non-school environments for enactment of Informal behavior. Only two in ten secondary teachers chose school related interactions over non-school related interactions for their preferred Informal human relationships. Quite clearly the secondary teachers studied are not Job Oriented in the Informal sector. This factor might well determine whether or not the work activities are being accomplished on a minimal or maximal basis. It was noted in the analyses of the Technical and Organizational sectors that it was possible to accept the school as an organization and to perform the most physically obvious activities without a corresponding sense of total attachment to either the school or the tasks being performed. If
in fact the genuine, meaningful interpersonal social relationships occur for the teacher in Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds, then the likelihood is even greater that the school is a means to other ends—to provide the means necessary to participate in preferred human associations in the community, among non-school friends and in the family.
CHAPTER VI
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It was the purpose of this study to explore the extent and kind of secondary teacher attachment to teaching as compared to non-teaching attachments. The study was concerned not only with assessing what facets of teaching are able to evoke from teachers a deep sense of attachment but also to take into account the important consideration of viewing work and the workplace as a part of the total round of life. This approach was intended to reveal in a true sense whether or not secondary teachers make the kind of total commitment to teaching assumed to be characteristic of professionals.

This chapter will present a brief summary of the findings of the study, draw conclusions, and recommend what seem to be suggested actions based on these findings.

The Major Hypothesis

Total Job Attachment. It was hypothesized that a significantly higher number of teachers studied would score as attached to Non-Job Oriented Social Worlds than
to Job Oriented Social Worlds. This prediction did not occur in that only 226 (46 per cent) of the secondary teachers scored as Non-Job Oriented, while 263 subjects (54 per cent) scored as Job Oriented. The calculated chi square value of 2.80 indicates that the differences are not significant at the .05 level.

Conclusions. The lack of support for this directional hypothesis should not overshadow the significant fact that only slightly over half of the secondary teachers studied scored as Job Oriented. If in fact a lightly committed teacher is likely to play out the most obvious expectations of his role rather than wholeheartedly throw himself into it, then the kind of total dedication thought to be essential for professional level performance is lacking when secondary teachers are viewed as a group. This has special relevance when the rapidly changing society and its many, varied and complex problems are taken into account. It can be stated with some confidence that the extent of total commitment of self to teaching by the secondary teachers studied leaves a great deal to be desired.
The analyses of the Formal and Informal behavior systems which follow will reveal further the nature of secondary teacher attachment to teaching.

The Component Hypotheses

The Formal Sector. The Formal sector includes Organizational Experiences (the relationships between an organization, its officials and its members which are prescribed by organizational rules, regulations and procedures) and Technical Experiences (the relationships between a teacher and his job performance, the tasks he performs using his specialized knowledge and skill).

It was predicted that a significantly higher number of the secondary teachers studied would score Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented in the Formal sector. Only 12 percent of the teachers scored Non-Job Oriented and it appears that secondary teachers are clearly Job Oriented in the Formal sector. The calculated chi square value of 278.44 obtained indicates the differences are significant at the .05 level of confidence.
Conclusions. The school is the preferred organization for most teachers and it provides for the great majority of them the preferred setting for the application of their specialized knowledge and skills.

Further discussion of the Formal system will be offered in the analyses of the individual Organizational and Technical sectors; however, it can be stated that teachers do attach themselves to the Formal system of the school. Thus, this system provides most secondary teachers with a source of meaningful identification as one part of the relationship between worker and occupation.

Organizational Experiences. This sector includes the relationships between an organization, its officials and its members which are prescribed by organizational rules, regulations and procedures. The school appears to provide secondary teachers preferred opportunities for Organizational Experiences in that 427 subjects (87 per cent) scored as Job Oriented in this sector. The calculated chi square value of 2.72.44 indicates the hypothesis of homogeneity is clearly rejected at the .05 level of confidence and inspection revealed teachers' responses were
in the predicted direction of Job Orientation.

**Conclusions.** It has been noted several times in this study that acceptance of the school as the preferred organization cannot be interpreted to mean that all teachers are deeply committed to the organization. The possibility exists that this finding may only mean that for many teachers the school provides an acceptable setting for providing self the ends to participate in more valued social interactions in non-school related environments. However, for most secondary teachers the school is the most meaningful organization in their lives. This is an encouraging finding and educators should strive to maintain this source of teacher attachment to teaching.

**Technical Experiences.** This sector includes the relationships between a teacher and his actual job performance, the tasks he performs using his specialized knowledge and skills.

It was hypothesized that a higher number of teachers would score Job Oriented than Non-Job Oriented for their Technical Experiences. This prediction was confirmed when 425 of the subjects (87 per cent) scored in the Job
Oriented direction. The calculated chi square value of 266.5 is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Conclusions. It can be concluded that most secondary teachers do prefer the school as the setting for the application of their technical skills. It should not be surprising that most secondary teachers score Job Oriented in the Technical sector. The formal preparation of the teacher has for the most part been aimed at preparing him for the application of his specialized knowledge and skill. It might also be argued that the most obvious expectation placed on the teacher by both the school and the broader society is the application of his specialized training. The fact remains, teacher attachment to this sector is distinctly in a Job Oriented direction.

The Informal System. This system includes relationships and experiences which are not directly a product of the formal organization and are not prescribed by the rules, regulations and procedures of the organization. Behaviors such as casual conversations, friendship interactions, and leisure-time activities are illustrative of Informal group experiences.
When teachers are given a choice between school and non-school related environments for Informal behavior, 378 (77 per cent) scored Non-Job Oriented. The calculated chi square value of 145.72 obtained indicates the differences are significant at the .05 level of confidence. The prediction of Non-Job Orientation for Informal behavior is accepted.

**Conclusions.** Almost eight out of ten secondary teachers studied did not prefer school site or experiences directly related to teaching as the focal point for their Informal relationships. Quite clearly the secondary teachers studied are not Job Oriented in the Informal sector. Since Informal behavior is neither made mandatory nor is it prescribed by the organization, the Informal system serves as an important indicator of the extent to which the work situation is valued by the individual. The extent of Job involvement in this sector may well determine whether the achievement of organizational goals is on a minimal or a maximal basis. If the teacher were to value the Informal relationships directly related to teaching, then he would have an inducement to value the teaching situation itself.
If the teacher values social relationships in non-school environments most highly, he is not likely to be totally committed to his work as he will draw heavily upon these non-school associations in making decisions which affect both his work and non-work behavior.

The Subordinate Hypotheses

The primary purpose for including the subordinate hypotheses was to obtain data which might suggest possible directions for further research. These hypotheses were aimed at assessing within teacher group differences in Job Orientation and were stated in null hypothesis form. Ten demographic characteristics were selected for examination.

None of the chi square values obtained for the demographic variables were significant at the .05 level for the appropriate degrees of freedom. However, inspection of percentages indicated that there may be a tendency for a higher number of teachers to score Job Oriented in the 26-55 age range and with 4-25 years of experience. Of the teachers studied, 58 per cent of the males and 49 per cent of the females scored Job Oriented. Also, teachers holding
Masters degrees might prove to be more job committed than Bachelors degree holding teachers, were a more detailed analysis made.

Marital status, professional affiliation, student body size, teaching discipline, building age, and building condition seem to hold less potential for further investigation.

Recommendations

The extent and kind of teacher attachment to teaching should be of special interest and concern to teacher preparing institutions and the secondary schools. The lack of global commitment to teaching by secondary teachers, revealed by the findings of this study suggests that it is mandatory that action be taken to increase the attachment of teachers to their work and workplace. It is hoped the following recommendations will give direction to this action.

1. The results yielded by the test for total Job Orientation point out the necessity for educators in both colleges and the public schools to conduct investigations
to find the causes for low work commitment and to initiate changes aimed at increasing work involvement. A productive beginning point might be to alter teaching conditions in such a way that professional status characteristics become realities for teachers.

2. Almost nine out of ten secondary teachers studied prefer the Formal system of the school over non-school Formal systems. It is important that school officers identify the factors which contribute to this attachment and that they make certain these factors are retained as programs are modified.

3. The school was accepted by 87 per cent of the subjects of this study as the preferred organization in their lives. However, it has been pointed out that this cannot be interpreted to mean that teachers are deeply committed to the school and in view of the lack of commitment to the Informal system of the school, it may well mean that much pre- and in-service training is focused on the most direct and obvious features of teaching, i.e., the school's rules, regulations and prescriptions. The suggested direction for teacher preparation is to broaden the
scope of considerations so that teachers will commit themselves to more than the most visible aspects of teaching, while at the same time continuing to attach themselves to the school as an organization.

4. Since most secondary teachers are Job Oriented in the application of their technical skills, careful attention should be directed toward analysis of the repertoire of strategies which make up this set of skills and knowledge. That is, it appears that most secondary teachers will identify closely with the technical aspect of teaching; it remains then to assure the content of this facet of teaching is appropriate for the changing societal conditions and for professional level performance. It is not a matter of changing affective involvement, but rather to closely attend to what is being offered the teacher in the development of his specialized knowledge and what methods are suggested as being appropriate for application of this specialized knowledge.

5. Only about two out of ten secondary teachers studied selected the school and school related experiences for their Informal behavior; it seems clear that most.
secondary teachers prefer non-school related environments for their informal interactions.

Since the efficiency and quality of work are directly affected by informal social relationships, indeed these relationships may well determine whether institutional goals are achieved on a minimal or maximal basis, it is mandatory that teacher attachment to the informal system be increased.

The where and how to effect change are very illusive. Perhaps the appropriate beginning point is to research in some detail what attracts teachers to the informal system located outside school related environments and what seems to contribute toward alienation from the school's informal system. A study of role relationships between teachers and others in both job oriented and non-job oriented informal interactions should reveal sources of valued social interaction. Such a study should also reveal whether or not it is feasible to alter job oriented social worlds in such a way that the informal system of the school can become a source of greater attachment for teachers.
Finally, this study has led to the conclusion that the secondary teachers studied do not as a group exhibit the kind of commitment to teaching thought to be characteristic of professionals. Whether or not near total commitment by teachers to teaching is an available option can only be determined when further research findings about the relationships explored by this study are made available.
APPENDIX A

Study Questionnaire
This is a research study being conducted to provide data for a doctoral dissertation to be prepared in cooperation with Montana State University. Its purpose is to contribute to our knowledge about man and his work.

You have been selected as one member of a random sample; since the sample drawn is small, your answers are very important so that the study may draw reliable and valid scientific conclusions. Also, my advisor expects a near 100% return--HELP!

Your individual answers will be grouped with others when the results are published. You can have complete confidence your individual identity and that of your school will be kept strictly confidential. You will note that the questionnaire has been given a Code Number. The Code Reference List which corresponds to this Code Number will be destroyed as soon as questionnaires are returned and follow-up mailings are completed.

Please complete the attached questionnaire and return it as soon as possible in the stamped envelope provided for this purpose. THANK YOU!

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS CAREFULLY

The questionnaire is divided into Part I and Part II. Part I is straightforward and requires no further instruction.

Part II requires thoughtful consideration of each item. Every effort has been made to ask questions as directly as possible, yet, by the very nature of the study, there is a possibility that some of the items will seem vague to you. To assist you in responding honestly and accurately, the following clarification is given.

Every question in Part II is followed by two options; please select one option for each item.
One choice is frequently stated, PEOPLE FROM SCHOOL (these are persons who hold membership in a school—fellow teachers, administrators, counselors, students, supporting staff, etc.) or SCHOOL EXPERIENCES (these are things which can happen in any one or combination of the following ways: at school, directly related to your position in the school, or directly related to the tasks you perform as a teacher).

The other choice is often stated, NON-SCHOOL PEOPLE (these are persons who do not hold direct membership in schools) or NON-SCHOOL EXPERIENCES (these are things which can happen in any one or combination of the following ways: away from school, not directly related to your position in the school, or not directly related to the tasks you perform as a teacher. They include participations, experiences, and activities in: the home and with the family, clubs, churches, lodges, community groups, hobbies, leisure time activities, etc.).

PLEASE TEAR OFF THIS SHEET NOW; PLACE IT BESIDE THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS YOU RESPOND TO THE ITEMS SO THAT YOU MAY HAVE READY ACCESS TO THE DEFINITIONS GIVEN ABOVE.

Please answer every question. A sincere thank you for your help.

PLEASE DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE SHEETS
PART I

1. Please check the appropriate option
   _____ Female
   _____ Male

2. What is your marital status?
   _____ Married and living with husband (wife)
   _____ Husband (wife) deceased
   _____ Divorced
   _____ Separated
   _____ Never married

3. Please check your age range
   _____ 20-25
   _____ 26-35
   _____ 36-45
   _____ 46-55
   _____ 56-65
   _____ over 65

4. How many years have you been teaching (counting the year in progress as 1 full year)

5. With which one of the following organizations do you most closely identify?
   _____ AFT (American Federation of Teachers)
   _____ MEA (Minnesota Education Association) or your state organization
   _____ NEA (National Education Association)

6. What is the approximate number of students in your school in grades 10-12, inclusive?

7. How would you describe the general condition of the building in which you teach?
   _____ Excellent
   _____ Above average
   _____ Average
   _____ Below average
   _____ Poor

8. What is the approximate age of the building in which you teach?
   _____ New (Less than 10 years old)
   _____ Average (10-25 years old)
   _____ Old (Over 25 years of age)
174

9. What subject(s) do you teach (Please indicate the number of hours for each subject per day)?

10. Your last earned degree is:
   _____ Less than Bachelors
   _____ Bachelors
   _____ Masters
   _____ Doctorate

11. Your number of credits beyond your last earned degree is _____.

PART II

EXAMPLE:

0. _____ I like best taking a "coffee break" with (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.
   PLEASE NOTE: Most people do have preferences, however slight they may be; please answer each item even though your preference is slight.

1. _____ I would prefer to discuss my most interesting hobby with (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.
2. _____ If I moved to another location, I would miss most the friendships I have established (1) at school; (2) in non-school settings.
3. _____ I would get more satisfaction from helping clarify the ideas of others (1) at school; (2) in a non-school organization.
4. _____ I would rather be recognized for my membership in (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization.
5. _____ I like best to work on a project with (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.
6. _____ In my spare time, I find myself most often thinking about things which are (1) directly related to my teaching; (2) not directly related to my teaching.
7. _____ It is more important to me to receive compliments for doing a good job in (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization.
8. ___ I would most dislike being "bawled out" by (1) a school supervisor; (2) an official in a non-school organization.

9. ___ I am bothered by carelessness by people in (1) their teaching; (2) performing non-school related tasks.

10. ___ The majority of my close, personal friends are (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.

11. ___ I find greatest satisfaction in improving my ability to do things which are (1) school related; (2) non-school related.

12. ___ When I read for recreation, I most often read about (1) things directly related to my teaching; (2) things not directly related to my teaching.

13. ___ I would most dislike missing a meeting of (1) a school organization; (2) a non-school organization.

14. ___ I find myself most often worrying about (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization.

15. ___ In my casual conversations with others, I find myself most often talking about (1) my subject matter specialization; (2) topics not related to my teaching.

16. ___ I feel the most important organization to which I belong is (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization.

17. ___ The most satisfying "free time" experiences I have occur (1) at school; (2) in non-school settings.

18. ___ I derive more satisfaction from helping someone do a better job (1) of teaching; (2) with some non-related teaching task.

19. ___ I would get the greatest sense of accomplishment from improving the rules, regulations and procedures of (1) the school; (2) a non-school organization.

20. ___ I feel I do the most thorough and accurate work doing things which are (1) school related; (2) non-school related.

21. ___ I find that I am a more productive person (1) at school; (2) in non-school settings.

22. ___ I would prefer to join an organization with a membership composed mainly of (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.
23. ___ I would hope that my children or other youth whom I value highly would (1) become teachers; (2) enter some other occupation.

24. ___ I find my most enjoyable informal conversations occur (1) at school; (2) in non-school settings.

25. ___ The people I most likely would turn to for help with a personal problem are (1) people from school; (2) non-school people.

26. ___ I would most enjoy taking a class to learn more about doing things which are (1) directly related to my teaching; (2) not directly related to my teaching.

27. ___ I would find it more satisfying to be a member of a committee (1) at school; (2) in a non-school organization.
APPENDIX B

First and Second
Follow-up Letters
January 20, 1969

TO: Metropolitan Secondary Teachers

FROM: Charles C. Hanna

SUBJECT: Questionnaire - Follow-Up

On approximately January 1, 1969, I had asked for your help in gathering data for my doctoral dissertation. Since the sample drawn is quite small and my advisor insists on a rather high return, I would really appreciate your taking a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire and returning it to me in the envelope provided.

Having been a high school teacher for six years, I am well aware of your heavy work load and how unwelcome "added" jobs become. Yet, once committed to a "plan of action," I have no alternative other than to seek your assistance by asking you to complete the questionnaire.

I am encouraged by and grateful for the responses received to date (over half of them have been returned)—I expect most people will cooperate and those who have not responded are still looking for the hard-to-find minutes required to thoughtfully complete the questionnaire.

If you have not as yet found time to respond, I would deeply appreciate it if you would make a special effort to help a fellow educator "jump the last hurdle"—Thanks.

Should you have returned the questionnaire, please disregard the request and accept my most sincere thank you!
SECOND FOLLOW-UP

February 6, 1969

TO: Metropolitan Secondary Teachers

FROM: Charles C. Hanna

SUBJECT: Questionnaire - Follow-Up

I previously asked for your help in gathering data for my doctoral dissertation and in so doing pointed out that my sample size is small and that my Committee insists on a high percentage return.

A questionnaire can never reflect the time, energy and background research which has been expended in the development of a study. This is in particular true of my study. I must urge your participation on the strength of your belief that doctoral committees thoroughly satisfy themselves that a dissertation must be carefully designed and worthy of contributing to the body of educational knowledge prior to any data collection.

I am well aware that you are too often asked as a teacher to participate in "this or that worthy cause." However, since I am committed to a plan of action, since my investment in this study is very extensive, I must again sincerely ask for your help. I do not wish to be dramatic, yet, should I fail to obtain responses to the questionnaire, it could result in the loss of the study and the energies you would anticipate I have devoted to the pursuit of my degree.

If you have not as yet responded, please take a few minutes to complete and return the enclosed questionnaire. Should you have returned the questionnaire, please disregard this request and accept my most sincere thank you!
LITERATURE CONSULTED


Hanna, Charles C.
The extent and kind of attachment to teaching of metropolitan senior.