A COMPARISON OF THE PERCEPTIONS FIRST YEAR TEACHERS, PRACTICE TEACHERS, AND SENIORS WITHOUT TEACHING EXPERIENCE HOLD OF THE PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING TEACHERS IN PUERTO RICO

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This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

A COMPARISON OF THE PERCEPTIONS FIRST YEAR TEACHERS, PRACTICE TEACHERS, AND SENIORS WITHOUT TEACHING EXPERIENCE HOLD OF THE PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING TEACHERS IN PUERTO RICO

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ABSTRACT

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by Nicolas Antolin Rodriguez

Problem

The present study was designed to assess the differential perceptions students of education at different stages of preparation hold of the problems encountered by the beginning teacher. More specifically, it purported to determine the level of agreement among; a) one year teachers, b) seniors with practice teaching, and c) seniors without teaching experience in their expectancies of degrees of difficulty involved as the new teacher functionalizes a set of basic behaviors at the hard core of his professional role.

The Sample

A group of 72 teachers who had just finished their first year of experience in the field; 72 senior students of education who were finishing their practice teaching course, and 72 seniors specializing in secondary education and were ready for, but had not taken their practice teaching course, constituted the sample in the study. The sample was further limited in that; a) all first year teachers were graduates from the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico during the

1961-62 academic year and hired by the State Department of Education in August, 1962, and b) the seniors were taking their practice teaching at the University of Puerto Rico in 1963.

Procedure

The following procedural steps were followed in the present study: (1) A 78-item, three-point scale measure instrument was designed to cover the basic professional role of the teacher, as organized into eight sections by professional behaviors. (2) The instrument was mailed to the teachers in the field and directly administered to the full-time senior students of education in the sample. (3) The collected data was coded, translated onto IBM cards, and a three-by-three cell chi-square analysis performed on all items using Michigan State University's Control Data Corporation 3600, Act II program.

Findings

A comparison among the three sub-samples by means of the chi-square technique yielded the following findings:

(1) With the exception of items 12, Table 4.2, and item 37, Table 4.4, the null hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level of significance or higher; that is,

> There is a difference in the perceptions of problems facing the beginning teacher as he faces his teaching role between; a) one year beginning teachers, b) senior students of education with practice teaching, and c) senior students of education without teaching experience.

(2) The directional hypothesis was reversed according to the findings in the analysis; that is,

> Rather than the direction of degrees of internalization and concern over the actual and potential difficulties faced by the neophyte at the outset in his professional role being from one year teachers to seniors without experience in teaching, the contrary was demonstrated by the analysis. That is, seniors without practice teaching indicated a stronger significance and possible difficulty in functionalizing the professional behaviors presented to them in the questionnaire.

(3) Beginning teachers had the tendency to withhold their responses to some basic items in the questionnaire, particularly on aspects of planning, evaluation, and methodology.

Conclusions

In his position of concern over the initial encounter with the profession, the senior student may be reacting, among other factors, to; a) difficulties of merging theory and practice, b) inadequacy of knowledge on such basic fields as psychology of learning, methodology and group dynamics in addition to his subject matter field of specialization. Such feelings and attitudes seem to be logical outcomes of preservice preparation, particularly at the stage when the student already has a broad view of the profession and its problems, but lacks his laboratory experience.

As the subject comes in contact with experience, the apprehensions of the previous stage seem to fade away rather quickly, as demonstrated by the practice teachers, Group II in the sample. When the present study was made, practice as well as beginning teachers had had some

time to acquaint themselves with the profession. Insofar as it strengthened their feelings of security and adequacy, the degree of familiarity gained through actual teaching may be a positively reasonable explanation for the wide differentiation in perceptions. However, there is sufficient empirical evidence to justify a suggestion of caution every time the practice or beginning teacher responded heavily on the third or "not felt" category, especially in such aspects as discipline, planning, methodology, evaluation, school-community relations and school-time distribution.

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By

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Preparation of teachers for present and future demands, a preparation that must aim at both qualitative and quantitative factors, has become a nationwide concern. The responsibility of preparing the necessary "number of competent teachers required to provide each elementary and secondary school pupil with a fair educational opportunity"[1] rests squarely upon the teacher training institutions. If the institutions are to fully accept their responsibilities, they must carry their commitment beyond mere practice to the realm of objectively understanding the role of their teacher graduates.

The idea of comparing the perceptions of the professional role of teachers among senior students of education, student-practice teachers and new incumbents who have finished their first year of teaching experience, emerges from that pressing necessity for preparing more and better qualified teachers. The challenges of the day in an increasingly complex, swiftly changing society, keep pressing upon the school its new and ever higher demands for better education. This claim of society for a more efficient service touches the entire institutional personnel of the school, but it is the classroom teacher who, in the last analysis, has to crystalize the commitment.

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1 "The Post-War Struggle to Provide Competent Teachers," NEA Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 3, p. 15.

Statement of the Problem

By the time the typical beginning teacher is ready to start his active career, he has formulated a frame of reference that will guide him in the observation of the various aspects of the teaching profession. He feels ready to test those basic ideas, concepts, principles and skills governing the classroom process which he learned in his general and professional university studies. It is to be expected that the degree of agreement between the neophyte teacher's internalization of the professional role on the one hand, and the actual demands of the classroom and existing conditions within his school and community on the other, will have a significant bearing upon the professional formation of the new teacher.[2] There is the common feeling, however, that this initial role perception of the beginning teacher, which is mostly positive at the outset, becomes profoundly modified as he faces actual teaching conditions.[3] Insofar as these modifications are negative, it would be worthwhile to expose and analyze them, and then judiciously use the relevant findings towards a more realistic teacher preparation program.[4]

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[2] J.J. Valenti, "Measuring Educational Leadership Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXVI, 1952, pp. 36-42.

[3] W. Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, Russell & Russell, New York, 1961, p. 41, and H. Becker, "Social Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationships," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 25, No. 8, April, 1952, p. 462

[4] S. Spector, "Another Look at Teacher Training," Ibid., Vol. 33, No. 8, April, 1960, pp. 346-353.

The present study is designed to inquire into, and appraise the effects of the teacher preparation program of the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico upon the professional perception of its students and graduates. This project purports to assess the perception which teachers at various stages of preparation and experience have of the teaching role.

Significance of the Study

The efficiency of any college preparation program is judged, in the long run, by its actual effects upon the students and by the quality of service and leadership its graduates are able to render to society.[5] In its commitment the college program also bears the prime responsibility to keep abreast of social change, and spearhead advisable innovation in the school system. Hence, a realistic orientation of teacher education to serve a dynamic society requires constant, objective self-appraisal by the training institution, based preferably on continuous assessment of its institutional impact on professional performance.

Theoretical Background

Insofar as teaching constitutes a specific, continuous, institutional,[6] and specialized task, with an "ethic" of its own and "a good-in-

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[5] N. Sanford, ed., The American College: A Psychological and Sociological Interpretation, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1962, pp. 418-444.

[6] Term used in the Malinowski frame of reference (B. Malinowski, A Scientific Theory of Culture and Other Essays, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1944).

view" for society, it is a profession.[7] Moreover, since the actor--the teacher--assumes "his functioning form" as perceived by himself-and-others, because he needs to validate his self in a social context and simultaneously provide for his various needs, the use of the term "role" is justified.[8] In other words, this definition, which includes the three basic "values--reality, subjective-symbolic and cultural-symbolic--"[9] permits the use of the expression "the professional role of teachers" instead of the suggested alternatives, "the patterns of behavior of teachers,"[10] or just "the teaching methods of teachers."[11] It logically follows that any situation which threatens the integration[12] of the three role values, i.e., the socio-cultural, the psychological and the biological, in the "hard core"[13] of the profession, in fact threatens not only the integration of the very individual incumbent, but that of the entire professional group as well.

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[7] R.M. McIver, "The Social Significance of Professional Ethics," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 297 Jan., 1955, pp. 118-24, and F.W. Terrien, "The Occupational Role of Teachers," The Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29, No. 1, Sept., 1955, pp. 14-20, and T.R. Sarbin, "Role Theory," Handbook of Social Psychology, G. Lindzey, ed., Wesley Publishing Co., Cambridge, Mass., 1954, Ch. VI.

[8] B. Solby, "The Role Concept in Job Adjustment, Sociometry, Vol. 7, 1944, pp. 222-29.

[9] Ibid., p. 223.

[10] N.E. Wallen and R.W. Travers, "Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods," Handbook of Research in Teaching, N. Gage, ed., Rand McNally, Chicago, 1963, p.448-505.

[11] Ibid.

[12] Solby, Op. cit.

[13] The point at which institutional functions are translated into action. (J.J. Valenti, op. cit.,p. 37).

As modern democratic society becomes more complex, automation competes with "man's productive necessity" thus imposing new demands on him, and a threatening world of alien ideas closes in the ring, the social institutions of free societies must gear their efforts to meet the impending challenges. The school certainly cannot be either "the museum of virtue"[14] or "the sorting machine" type of the early thirties.[15] The school ought to be the school of the masses, with professional teachers, the very opposties of "the pathetic women"[16] and "incredibly feminine men"[17] of depression times.

The necessity of defining what is good teaching on the one hand, and of clarifying the responsibility of the teacher preparation institution on the other, has produced extensive research literature on the subject during the last decade. Some authors have subdivided the teacher's role into different facets. Havighurst and Newgarten consider two broad aspects; i.e., the role of the teacher as it relates to the adults in the system and as it relates to the children in the school community. Their analysis is further divided into a variety of sub-areas under each of the two main divisions.[18] In 1952, Kinney also offered another

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[14] Waller, op.cit., p. 34.

[15] Ibid., p. 21.

[16] Ibid., p. 423.

[17] Ibid.

[18] R.J. Havighurst and B.L. Newgarten, Society and Education, Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1957, pp. 459-479.

categorization of professional behaviors of teachers which[19] combined with Fishburn's in 1955, is composed of six interrelated groups of competencies; i.e., the teacher as a) director of learning, b) guidance and counseling worker, c) mediator of culture, d) member of the school community, e) liason between the culture, the school and the community, and f) member of the profession.[20] Still a more recent assessment of the teacher's role by groups of behaviors is that by Sorenson, Husek and Yu in which the authors categorize the various aspects of the teaching role into " . . . 6 role dimensions: information giver, disciplinarian, advisor, counselor, motivator, and referee."[21]

The National Commission for Teacher Education and Professional Standards, simultaneously with the Commission on Teacher Education of California, followed the Kinney-Fishburn scheme, breaking it further into three broad areas; a) the role of the teacher as promoter of pupil's growth, b) the role of the teacher in program building, and c) the teacher's position as liaison official between the culture, community and school.[22] The present study is oriented to this latter conception of the teacher's role. In its annual meeting of 1954, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education adopted the following resolution, thus clarifying their position on the subject of teacher

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[19]L.B. Kinney, Measure of a Good Teacher, California Teachers Association, San Francisco, 1952.

[20]C.E. Fishburn, "Teacher Role Perception in the Secondary School of One Community," Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 15, 1955, pp. 1798-99.

[21]A.G. Sorenson, T.R. Husek, and C. Yu, "Divergent Concepts of Teacher Roles: An Approach to Measurement of Teacher Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 54, No. 6, December, 1963, pp. 287-294.

[22]California Teachers Association, Teacher Competence: Its Nature and Scope, Bulletin of the California Teachers Association, San Fran. 1957.

education at the national level:

> The systematic review, compilation, and extension of research in the field of teacher education is accordingly recognized as a major function of AACTE. Any program or procedure, to be accepted as valid, must have been established as contributing to the preparation of expert teachers. It is recognized that a definition of this desired product, in objective terms, such as is now under study and development by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, is a preliminary requirement for such validation.[23]

The most significant findings of researchers on problems facing the beginning teachers, and role internalization by future teachers now under preparation, tend to converge on three main areas; a) inadequate pre-service preparation, b) lack of sufficient expert supervision at both pre-service and in-service levels, and c) poor communication and integration of effort between school and community, and within the school community itself.[24] More specifically, the highest convergence point among researchers in the field is around the importance of laboratory experience in context with the ongoing academic studies prior to teaching.[25] In other words, it is felt that the teacher training institution must strive to merge theory and practice, and constantly assess its results against actual teaching efficiency shown by its graduates in the field.

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[23] Ibid., p.6.

[24] O.B. Fuglaar, "Identifying Teachers Needs for Programs of Professional Education," Dissertation Abstracts, Vol.18 , 1957, pp. 63-64.

[25] F.A. Formica, "Teaching Difficulties Encountered by Beginning Elementary Teachers," Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 23, No. 2, 1962, pp. 63-64.

Finally, recent literature on pre-service preparation of teachers clearly indicates that teacher preparation programs rest too heavily on opinion at the expense of sound theory.[26] Accordingly, more rigid application of known social-psychological theory is urged, in context with a "conceptual scheme for teacher education."[27] The present study partakes of the idea involved in the last statement in the sense that it purports to assess what the student brings into his practice teaching course, what he takes from it, and how he functionalizes his knowledge in actual experience.

Research Hypothesis

This study was designed to investigate the following hypothesis: There is a difference in the perception of problems besetting the beginning teacher as he faces his teaching role among; a) senior students of education who have not taken their laboratory experience, b) senior students who are taking their laboratory experience and c) in-service teachers with one year of experience. It is further hypothesized that experienced beginners will express a higher degree of internalization and concern over the difficulties involved in functionalizing some basic behaviors of the teaching profession.

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[26]F.N. Kerlinger, "Educational Attitudes and Perceptions of Teachers: Suggestions for Teacher Effectiveness Research," School Review, Vol. 71, No. 1, Spring 1963, pp. 1-11.

[27]E. Howard, "Needed: A Conceptual Scheme for Teacher Education," Ibid., pp. 12-26.

Definition of Terms

1. Professional behaviors refer to those series of acts the teacher is called upon to perform, the sum total of which constitutes his professional role. For the purpose of the present study the measure instrument was organized under eight groups of such behaviors.

2. A student teacher or practice teacher is any student specializing in education who is taking his professional laboratory experience at any of the practice centers.

3. By practice center it is understood any of the public schools selected by the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico in cooperation with the Insular Department of Public Instruction where student teachers practice four hours every day for one full semester. These schools, often referred to as cooperating schools, are all concentrated in the metropolitan area of San Juan, Puerto Rico.

4. The cooperating teacher is the classroom teacher selected to introduce the student teacher to actual field experience. He is responsible for coaching, supervising and helping in the evaluation of the student teacher.

5. The college supervisor is a faculty member of the College of Education charged with the responsibility of supervising, guiding, orienting and finally evaluating the work of the student teacher.

6. The terms laboratory experience and practice teaching are herewith used interchangeably.

Organization of the Study

The general plan of the study is to present in the following chapter a review of the research done in relation to the perception of professional role problems among senior education majors, as compared with internalized difficulties as reported by beginning teachers in the discharge of their professional behaviors. In the third chapter, the design of the study will be described with reference to design, sampling procedure, method of treatment, testing of hypothesis, and type of analysis. In chapter four, the results of the analysis will be reported, and in chapter five, a summary of findings and concluding statement will be made.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

The purpose of this chapter is to review selected research done in the field of role internalization by students of education at different levels of preparation through their first year of experience. Focus will be placed on the professional problems facing the new incumbent at the very beginning of his career and how these problems relate to the teacher training institution. No attempt will be made to survey the fields of role theory and criteria for the teacher competence[1] except to the extent that it will be considered indispensable for the present study.

The complex of problems facing the neophyte teacher as reported in the reviewed research falls within three broadly interrelated areas; a) teacher personality as it affects the classroom process, b) preservice and in-service preparation, and c) problems emerging from existing conditions within the school and community where the teacher works. Apparently most problematic experiences of beginning teachers constitute the rather logical outcomes of the difficult process of bringing together and integrating " . . . in their behavior the cognitive, the psychosocial and the psychomotor experiences as they move into the new role

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[1]David G. Ryans, Characteristics of Teachers, American Council on Education: Washington, D.C., 1960.

of teacher." [2] Finally, the integration aspect, as indicated in the operational definition above, (Supra, p. 3) is a crucial element in the professional role of the teacher. Without that factor it is difficult to make of the classroom "the laboratory for self-discovery." [3]

Teacher Personality and Teacher-Pupil Rapport

Few people would disagree with the principle that " . . . teaching is effective to the extent that the teacher acts in ways that are favorable to the development of basic skills, understandings, work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgments and adequate personal adjustments of pupils." [4] An answer to the question, however, on the nature and specificity of such "acts" and "ways," indispensable as it is to functionalize the more general and abstract definition, proves hazardous, indeed. A consistent theory of teacher behavior providing

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[2]Elizabeth Howard, op. cit., p. 22.

[3]Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming; A New Focus for Education; 62nd Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (NEA) Washington 6, D.C., 1962, p. 103, and Clark E. Mustakas, The Teacher and the Child: Personal Interaction in the Classroom, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1956, pp. 1-3, and Gilbert Highet, The Art of Teaching, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1954, p. 11, and C.M. Fleming, Teaching; A Psychological Analysis, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1958, p. 153, and Evans, "Education in Personal Relationships with Special Reference to Science Teaching," Researches and Studies; English University Institute of Education: Leeds, Vols. 19-23, 1959-61, pp. 84-85, and C.H. Gross, et al., School and Society: Readings in the Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education; D.C. Heath and Company, Boston 1962, pp. 3-8, 322-24.

[4]Ryans, op. cit., p. 370.

auspicious conditions under which particular learnings could be most effectively produced,[5] faces countless combinations of obstacles; a) group differentiation within the socio-cultural milieu surrounding the school, b) "grade level and subject-matter taught," and c) variability of "intellectual and personal characteristics" of the teachers and pupils.[6] In spite of all, research on teacher competence based primarily on " . . . estimation of some of the major patterns of personal and social characteristics of teachers,"[7] offers a promising step forward in the process of objectifying selection, preparation and placement of teachers.

In a comparison between education and non-education students in relation to their choice of vocational objectives, Lapidus[8] hypothesized that, "education and non-education students would manifest different interests and personality patterns, but relatively similar intellectual and scholarship characteristics." In his objective of inquiring into and comparing characteristics between college students who select teaching as their professional goal and those who choose differently, the author considered such variables as scholarship, interests, personality traits and socio-economic background.

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[5]Wallen and Travers, op. cit.

[6]Ryans, op. cit., p. 371.

[7]Ibid.

[8]George Lapidus, "A Comparison of Education and Non-Education Students with Respect to Their Choice of Vocational Objectives," (unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, New York University, 1955.)

The population sample of Lapidus' project consisted of 1300 students graduating from Brooklyn College in June, 1953. The sample was divided into two equal groups for the purpose of comparison; a) 650 education--elementary and secondary--students and b) 650 students from the humanities, social science and science departments of the Brooklyn College. The criteria used for comparison were; a) high school grade index, b) Brooklyn College Entrance Examination, c) A.C.E. Psychological Examination, d) College Grade Index, e) Thurstone Temperament Schedule, f) Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and g) Kuder Preference Record. The treatment of the data included the t-test of significance, differences between percentages and Chi-Square test.

Among other findings, Lapidus' comparisons revealed the following; a) science students showed significant superiority over education students on the high school average, b) science students performed better than elementary, but not better than secondary school students on the entrance test, c) only male science students made better grades than secondary education males. In relation to personality characteristics, elementary education students appeared to be more mature socially, more cheerful, self-possessed, relaxed and they seemed to have had healthier family relationships than the rest of their colleagues.[9] While non-education students scored higher in reflective thinking, elementary education majors scored higher in social adjustment, morale

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[9]A summary of findings on the theme is included in Ryans', op. cit., pp. 385-86.

and family relations. All education majors manifested higher positive attitudes towards salutary teacher-pupil relationships than non-education students. No appreciable differences were found between both groups in relation to socio-economic factors. In conclusion; a) the basic hypothesis was proved, b) elementary education students showed a richer potential for healthy teacher-pupil rapport,[10] and c) secondary education students resembled non-education students more than they did elementary education students.

In their effort to better study the personality of the teacher, particularly those traits which can affect more closely the interpersonal relations within the classroom setting, some researchers refer back to early childhood experiences. Certain aspects of teacher's identification with their professional role were studied by Jackson and Moscovici[11]. The authors proposed themselves to answer a set of questions; a) "What has led these people to the choice of teaching as a career?" b) "How do they view themselves and the task of education?" and c) "What are the central psychological issues they must resolve if they are to be successful in the classroom?"[12]

"Two groups of graduate students in a major university participated

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[10]See also Robert Callis, "Change in Teacher-Pupil Attitudes Related to Training and Experience," Educational and Psychological Measures, Vol. X, 1950, p. 726.

[11]Philip W. Jackson and Fela Moscovici, "The Teacher-to-Be: A Study of Embryonic Identification with Professional Role," School Review, Vol. 71, No. 1, Spring 1963, pp. 41-65.

[12]Ibid.

in the study;"[13] a) an experimental group composed of twelve females and fifteen males all holding Master's degrees in secondary school teaching, and b) a control group composed of twenty-seven students paired in every possible respect to the experimental group--age, sex, preparation, field of specialization--except that no "control" member intended to teach. Three major fields were represented in the experiment; a) languages, 10 females and 10 males, b) social science, 12 females and 12 males, and c) natural science, 5 females and 5 males. The projective technique was used with the following measure instruments; a) the Draw-a-Teacher Test as developed by Travers and others, b) the Word Association Test as modified by Goodenough for teacher application, and c) the Word Completion Form as designed by Hilton for assessing identification with teaching. The instruments were administered in sessions and the Draw-a-Teacher Test was given in the same room in order to control the factor "setting."

A comparison of both groups of students on each instrument through correlations and the t-test methods demonstrated that only the "teacher emphasis score on the Draw-a-Teacher Test successfully discriminated at the .05 level between teachers-to-be and the controls."[14] An interpretation of the drawings demonstrated; a) that the teacher-to-be projected himself into the teaching setting while the controls did

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[13] Ibid., p. 43.

[14] Ibid., p. 44.

not, b) the teacher candidate visualized a high school classroom, sometimes oversupplied with all kinds of teaching aids and ornamental details while the non-education major visualized a rather barren college classroom, and c) the would-be-teacher identified the teacher as to position in the classroom and sex, implying authority and command, while the control groups did not discriminate between teacher and pupils.

As an instrument of predictability, the Draw-a-Teacher Test seems to hold promise. However, as do most projective instruments it requires expert interpretation in order to be able to detect "infused faking." Does the teacher-to-be intend to behave like the teacher she painted in her drawing or does this happen to be an example of "reactive identification"? Does excessive detail mean lack of confidence as the authors implied or could it be the other way around? Speculations aside, "it has been shown that the drawing of the teacher-to-be gives some indication of an embryonic identification with the teacher."[15]

The verbal instruments--Word Association Test and Word Completion Form--also linked the teacher-to-be with the school and the home to a significantly higher degree than the control group. The "homemaking"[16] attitude inferred from the responses dealing with the maintenance of comfortable interpersonal and physical environments, were also significantly higher among teacher candidates than among the control group.

The crucial problem facing the embryonic teacher is latent right

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[15] Ibid., p. 60.

[16] Ibid., p. 59

in his "homemaker" role with its inherent conflicts of permissive dispenser of love and affection, understanding and patience on the one hand, and the problem of authoritative control of behavior and intellectual standards on the other. His judicious integration of the two prongs of the dilemma proves to be the professional acid test of the new teacher. Furthermore, if empirical findings realtive to teacher attitudes contain a good measure of reliability, in the sense that teacher attitudes remain relatively unchanged through experience, education and age,[17] then his vocation to teach was nurtured from early childhood, at the beginning of which was the desire to control others.[18] The "social control nurturant" factor, according to Jackson and Moscovici and Sherman, grows with the child and becomes tempered with genuine altruism and spirit of service as the youth approaches adulthood. This process Sherman describes as three basic identifications; i.e., integrative, emulative and reactive.[19] Finally the profession of teaching offers the incumbent an opportunity to validate, and thereby integrate his self through propagating the values and mores of society. From that locus of activity on behalf of his culture and society, the teacher derives his authority which, obviously a social emergent proposition, is not personal but professional role authority. It may well be concluded that this institutional authority and power rewarded him by society

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[17]R. Callis, op. cit., p. 723, and Ryans, op. cit., p. 385.

[18]Jackson and Moscovici, op. cit., p. 62, and Ryans, op. cit., p. 395.

[19]Barbara Sherman, "Teachers' Identification with Authority Figures," School Review, Vol. 71, No. 1, Spring 1963, pp. 66-78.

varies in direct proportion to his creativity, proficiency and zeal displayed in the discharge of the professional role.

Another study directed at obtaining a more definitive picture of the characteristics of the future teacher, particularly as they relate to the teacher-pupil rapport, was undertaken by Veldman and Peck at the University of Texas.[20] The measure instrument used for the purpose was the Pupil Observation Survey (POSR) developed by the Mental Health in Teacher Education project of the University of Texas. The POSR form includes 38 items purporting to measure through a four-point scale, the pupil's reactions to student teacher's professional behaviors in the classroom process. More specifically, POSR items are arranged under a five-factor continuum intended to portray teacher's personality traits functioning in context with classroom activity; a)friendly, cheerful, and admired, b) knowledgeable, c) interesting and preferred, d) strict control and e) democratic procedure. Because POSR factors combine the empathical in "a" and "e" with what could be interpreted as competence factors, "b" and "d", the instrument measures teacher-pupil rapport and highlights teacher competence.

In the course of three college semesters POSR was administered to all 7th through 12th graders composing the classes of 554 student teachers. A modified form of the same instrument was given to the student teacher group--111 males and 443 females--at the end of their laboratory

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[20]Donald J. Veldman and Robert F. Peck, "Student Teacher Characteristics From the Pupils' Viewpoint," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 54, No. 6, December, 1963, pp. 346-355.

experience by their cooperating teachers. The treatment of the data included the following; a) data reduced to item scores, b) item scores reduced to item means for each student teacher, c) factor analysis to include tests of invariance for time and sex, d) analysis of variance, e) zero-order and multiple correlations with California Psychological Inventory and the Self-Reporting Inventory--CPI and SRI--scales, and f) validation against supervisor ratings of intelligence.

Except for slight variations, the factor composition for male and female practice teachers remained essentially the same. In such factors relative to the permissive "empathic potential," females scored higher than males. This finding, which permeates in an overt or implied way the reviewed research on teacher personality, is in keeping with an accepted social value in American culture. Another interesting outcome of the research was the relatively slight importance given by the supervisor of practice teaching to the "preferred-interesting" and "democratic" teacher factors in his evaluation of teacher competence. Apparently supervisors emphasized poise, "knowledgeableness" and "task-orientedness" in their evaluation while the students emphasized the more permissive aspects. In conclusion, all the aforesaid findings might have been more meaningful had the sample used been more balanced.

Pre-Service and In-Service Preparation of Teachers

The institutional responsibility of the school grows in direct proportion to scientific and technological advances. The age of "cybernetics" demands teachers well enough prepared so they need not

" . . . fear the children's high spirits, curiosity, critical penetration and capacity for debunking."[21] To aim to produce that "professional man" who is not "mere artisan" or "mere routineer"[22] is the inescapable, difficult task of the teacher education institution. Of crucial importance in the teacher preparation program is that aspect concerned with the combination and functionalization of theory and practice--the laboratory experience. The following is a selection of research projects done in the field of pre-service and in-service education for teachers.

The need to increase teacher activities leading to continued professional growth motivated Fuglaar's study on the subject in 1957.[23] Specifically, the author intended to identify teacher needs which could lead to fruitful suggestions for the professional education programs. By means of the "critical incident" technique Fuglaar projected to examine the professional needs among elementary teachers in Rapids Parish School System and how such needs could be used as guides for future teacher preparation programs. The population sample consisted of 350 elementary teachers who were invited to write descriptions of situations demonstrative of teacher effectiveness. The "critical incident" aspect was followed by group interviews for instrument development and refinement. Of all the examples submitted, 539 incidents

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[21]Evans, op. cit., p. 85.

[22]Read Bain, "Man is the Measure," Sociometry, Vol.VII, 1944, p. 83.

[23]Fuglaar, op. cit.

were used and categorized in six major areas; a) formulating purposes of education, b) planning learning activities, c) guiding learning experiences, d) evaluating learning experiences, e) cooperating in professional improvement and f) sharing school responsibilities. A percentage frequency distribution by professional roles as highlighted throughout the "incidents" gave special emphasis--over 70 percent of the time--to those aspects at the "hard core" of the classroom process like guidance, evaluation and planning of the learning activities. Sharing institutional responsibilities of the school, cooperating for professional improvement and formulating objectives of educational programs followed in corresponding order of reported significance.

Among the most important findings by Fuglaar were the following; a) professional needs among teachers varied with experience, preparation and community background, b) opportunities for professional improvement were limited in the area under study; c) there was the tendency among teachers not to participate actively, nor to accept a due share of responsibility in professional activities; d) community resources were not adequately used for the best of the profession and the school in general, e) the beginning teacher was more ineffective and less prone to use the experience of his professionally mature colleague, f) unpedagogical practices, although admitted, were continaully used, and g) an apparent absence existed of inter-faculty cooperation and provision for adequate supervision.

Among others, the following are some of the recommendations made by Fuglaar; 1) The present problem of discontinuity between pre-service and in-service experiences faced by the beginning teacher should be

detected and remedied before he is committed to the field. This calls for a more unified or integrated sequence of the academic and the professional aspects in teacher preparation. 2) The student teacher must be made acutely conscious of the significance of his membership in the profession, both for his own good and for the good of the profession in general. 3) Some of the deficiencies shown by the beginning teachers highlight a lack of basic psychopedagogical knowledge which situation calls for the strengthening of the teacher preparation program.[24] Fuglaar further suggests that the teacher training institution should set up a follow-up program for its graduates in order to offer them constructive supervision at the same time that it serves as a means of constant evaluation of its teacher preparation program.[25]

Another study intended to establish the relationship between the problems faced by practice teachers and those characteristic of the beginning teacher, was made by Anderson in 1962.[26] More specifically, the author purported to relate such factors as college grades, supervisors ratings, teaching load and length of laboratory experience with problems faced by practice teachers first as students and later as beginning teachers. Fourteen problems common to practice and beginning teachers were identified and arranged into a five-point measure scale,

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[24]Albert W. Vogel, "Education and the Liberal Arts College," Liberal Education, Vol. 48, May 1962, p. 259.

[25]Margot Ely, "A Follow-Up Study of University of Colorado Graduates, Prepared to Teach in the Elementary School," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Colorado, 1962).

[26]Roger W. Anderson, "Relationships Between the Problems of Student Teachers and Beginning Teachers," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1962).

1 best to 5 poorest basis. The instrument was administered to 155 trainees from different Iowa institutions and to their respective secondary school students. The same process was repeated a year later with a sample of 90 beginning teachers who belonged to the original laboratory group.

Ratings by practice teachers, their students and their supervisors were compared with the equivalents in the case of the beginning teachers; i.e., ratings by the beginning teachers, their students, and their supervisors. Treatment of the data included mean ratings on; a) simple comparisons between means calculated for the different factors, b) computation for correlations between the different factors and c) z and t tests for differences between means.

Among other findings, the most generalized problems felt by both practice and beginning teachers were;[27] a) making provision for individualized instruction, b) finding effective means of classroom control and discipline, and c) coping with effective planning, time distribution and motivation. It was also indicated that practice teachers who taught full time even though for a shorter period of time, experienced less problems than those who had practiced for a longer

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[27]Similar findings have been reported by: Lucy Bachman, "Problems of a Group of Beginning Elementary Teachers as they Relate to Pre-Service Preparation and In-Service Training, (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 1952), cited in Studies in Education, Indiana University, 1952, p. 17, and Formica, op. cit., and Dwight M. Davis, "A Comparison of Certain Factors Pertaining to Pre-Service Training of Teachers and the Teaching Experience in the Secondary Schools," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1953).

period of time for half a day. Apparently practice teaching should not be combined with other courses which would compete for needed laboratory time and energy. From the findings Anderson concludes; a) good supervisors and cooperating teachers are needed in the system under study, b) teacher training institutions must be more careful in giving their teacher candidates the basic knowledge as to planning, classroom control and methodology.

In view of the recognized significance currently accorded to professional laboratory experience, Swaim undertook a project to develop "criteria for evaluating programs in professional laboratory experiences in teacher education."[28] A search of the literature and documents from twenty-four state departments of education yielded a list of 166 and 254 headings or criteria statements respectively. From a topical comparison between the two sets a single 35-item statement was developed and considered as tentative criteria for teacher education programs. Finally the list was submitted to the ten-member Committee on Standards and Performances of the Association for Student Teaching for further examination. The original 35 statements were re-written into a 21-item list of criteria for evaluating professional laboratory experiences in teacher education programs.

Among the most important points covered by Swaim's summary of criteria are the following; a) because the laboratory experience is a

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[28]Roland Quinn Swaim,"Criteria for Evaluating Programs in Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education,"(Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Kansas, 1962), Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 23, Pt. 3, Nos. 8-10, pp. 2812-2813.

joint responsibility shared by the college of education and the cooperating schools, their philosophies and operating practices should be similar, b) the cooperating schools should be of high quality and at the same time representative of the community they serve, c) both institutions must provide adequate expertness in and time for supervision, guidance and assistance of practice teachers, d) the total program must be organized in such a way that it provides for creativity, individual interests and needs of the future teachers, e) it also must provide for harmonious participation of the community in the school and vice versa, for the future teacher to work actively with parents and community agencies. In a concise way, this project summarizes most of the suggestions made by the research sample reviewed here, which in turn are based on the problems of the practice and neophyte teachers.

Problems Inherent in the School and Community Settings

The complex of problems facing the teacher in a great metropolis, where his students come from all possible origins of society, is the object of study in Becker's "Social Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationship."[29] Specifically the researcher purports to prove that in his classroom reactions toward cultural differences, the

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[29]Howard S. Becker, "Social Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationship," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 25, No. 8, April 1952, pp. 451-465.

middle-class oriented teacher often contributes to perpetuate ". . . discrimination of our educational system against the lower-class child."[30]

Although not the prime objective of this study, "feelings about social class differences among students" was reviewed because it was the subject most often referred to as an answer to the question of "problems of being a teacher." Accordingly Becker interviewed sixty teachers of the Chicago school system on three specific professional sub-areas; a) problems relative to "teaching itself," b) discipline and control, and c) "the problem of moral acceptability of the students."[31] The teachers produced their own social categorizations of "lower stratum, upper stratum and middle stratum" which Becker accepted as roughly equivalent to the classical categories.

The following results were directly or indirectly reported in relation to "teaching itself;" a) the school system under consideration is tailored after an "ideal" type of student, but is inadequate to meet the realities of the less favored groups, b) in the mind of the respondents there was an in-between group of " . . . not too brilliant . . . but . . . very nice . . . and very easy to work with" children,[32] c) differential social class origins adversely affected method and amount of subject matter to be covered, and d) as lower-class students progressed through the grades their lot became worse from year to year as

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[30] Ibid., p. 452.

[31] Ibid.

[32] Ibid., p. 455.

uncovered material accumulated, thus keeping school "D"--mainly serving the slum area--always behind school "K"--serving "a better community."

In relation to discipline and classroom control, Becker gathered the following impressions; a) the teacher spends most of his time "keeping" the children "in line" at school "D" while at school "K" they are much quieter and more docile, b) children of the "upper-class" are often referred to as "spoiled", "overindulged," or "neurotic," and their parents are often blamed for it by respondents, c) teachers are "tough" and "mean business" with the upper and lower ones, but they need not be so with the middle-class ones who are well behaved. From the moral viewpoint, lower-class children were considered; a) too lax--including even strong adjectives at times, b) words and expressions innocent to the teachers were full of obscene meanings for the lower class children, and c) such virtues as a desire to succeed and improve, thrift, and social mobility were absent to a large extent among slum children, thus straining further the moral fiber and the objectives of the teacher. In conclusion, Becker's suggestions to society and particularly to the teacher and his institution of origin, are simple; a) the sub-culture of the slum is a compelling reality, b) it must be thoroughly studied and understood and c) it must be given a great deal more effort if society means to ameliorate its negative influence over the whole of the social fabric.

The significance of a working knowledge of the community by the teacher and how its socio-economic structure impinges upon the school

is also clearly portrayed in the following study by Murfin.[33] The guiding purpose of Murfin's study was to "gain insight into" the origin of the problem relative to differences in socio-economic status between "lower" and "upper" social class children and how it affects achievement in general. It is a fairly well acknowledged trend that children of lower-class origin usually achieve lower on standardized tests and in general school work, and tend to leave school earlier than upper-class children.

As guidelines for the study, Murfin proposed a series of questions purporting to establish some bases for comparison between; a) values and attitudes towards education, b) levels of aspiration, and c) differential socio-cultural values and how they affect intellectual achievement. The population sample consisted of all the 4th, 5th and 6th grade pupils of two schools in a middle-sized Indiana city, one school for each of the social strata under consideration. The criteria used for such socio-economic division were those developed by Warner and his associates. Both groups of students were fairly homogeneous in ethnic, racial and religious background. The schools were fairly comparable in every respect. A 150-item measure scale was developed "covering five areas believed to be related to school success."[34] More specifically the instrument intended to survey "attitudes toward (1) school and teachers,

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[33]Mark Murfin,"A Study of the Expressed Attitudes of Children From Two Socio-Economic Levels and the Relationship to Intelligence and Reading Achievement,"(Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 1952), cited in Studies in Education, Abstracts of Theses, 1950-52.

[34]Ibid., p. 240.

(2) intellectual and cultural refinements, (3) ambitions and occupational goals, (4) restrictions of freedom, and (5) parental attitudes toward education."[35] The other measuring devices, i.e., achievement and intelligence test scores, were made available by the local school authorities. Attitudinal divergences and convergences between the two groups, as shown by the scale and other official scores, were tabulated and their mean variances calculated.

Among other significant findings, it was shown that in spite of certain socio-economic similarities as assessed by Warner's Index of Social Status, lower class students, "taken as a whole, expressed attitudes more detrimental to school success"[36] than the "upper" students did. In other words, lower-class children felt themselves; a) to be less part of the school than the other group did, b) considered leaving school earlier, c) were less prone to cultural refinements and more bent on hard work, d) thought of earlier marriage more often than of acquiring a sound education, e) " . . . were more liberal and nonconforming in their viewpoints toward obedience, neatness and fighting," and f) their parents in general cared less for academic achievement than those of the upper-class children. Finally such detrimental attitudes were associated with lower reading achievement."[37] It could scarcely

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[35] Ibid.

[36] Ibid., p. 241.

[37] Ibid. Also, Ruth Runke, "Teachers' Attitudes Toward Children's Behavior as it Expresses the Culture Patterns of the Lowest Social Classes in Certain Indiana Cities," (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 1953), cited in Studies in Education, Abstracts of Theses, 1953-54, pp. 189-192.

be otherwise in the case of children whose community of origin had a distaste "for the school, the books and the classroom routine." [38]

In view of the aforesaid findings, Murfin offered the following recommendations; a) because differential socio-economic statuses do make a difference in achievement, interpretation of tests should take such differences into consideration, b) the teacher must understand the child's sub-culture of origin in order to be able to judiciously guide and individualize teaching, and c) in view of the apparent indifference toward the school among the lower-class homes, the school must try to make its influence be felt particularly among the less favored echelons of society which by all means need it the most. The implication was that wherever the community lacks the feeling for the good the school stands for, it is the responsibility of the school to approach the community with the best combined leadership that it can possibly muster. The significance for teacher education of the problems portrayed in Becker's and Murfin's articles can hardly be over-emphasized.

Summary

The reviewed research pertinent to the teaching role as perceived by students of education at different levels of preparation, and the problems facing their initiation in the profession, treated the

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[38] Murfin, op. cit.

subject from three different aspects. The teacher's personality, particularly that of the elementary teacher, was characterized as "cheerful," "self-possessed," "relaxed," and with a predisposition in favor of a "homey" environment and attitudes. This set of personality traits were considered basic in achieving a salutary teacher-pupil rapport as an indispensable background for the functionalization of the teaching-learning act. The "homemaking" aspect of the profession, however, was considered a source of conflict inasmuch as it faces the incumbent with a set of structures and particularized interests that constantly threaten his attainment even of a modicum of role integration.[39]

The indispensable professional necessity of bridging in a functional way the factors of personality, knowledge, practice and reality was considered under the heading pre-service and in-service preparation of teachers. The position of the generalist and the views of the vocationalist in the field were fused into what was considered to be a reasonable set of guiding criteria for a comprehensive, reality-oriented and well-balanced teacher education program.

Another set of problems besetting the teacher, particularly as a neophyte, were those characteristic of the school and community settings where he is to work. The selections by Becker and Murfin summarize in rather dramatic ways the predicaments in which his profession puts the teacher at times. As inferred before, his judicious integration of his "homemaking" roles for the sake of culture and society in the face of such forbidding enrivonment, constitutes an acid test.

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[39] Ibid., and J.W. Getzels and E.G. Guba, "Role, Role Conflict and Effectiveness: An Empirical Study," American Sociological Review, 1954, pp. 164-175, and C. Wayne Gordon, "The Role of the Teacher in the Social Structure of the High School," The Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 29, No. 1, (September, 1955), pp. 21-29.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to analyze the priority given by two groups of senior education students at the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico during the 1962-63 academic year to a check-list of basic professional behaviors. Furthermore the study purported to compare such role internalizations by the would-be teachers as measured by the instrument with the problems faced by beginning teachers as measured by the same scale. The ultimate purpose of the study was to detect change, if any, and in what direction, as the student of education passed through the different stages in his pre-service preparation and first year of experience; and how the recorded variations related to the present teacher preparation program of the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico.

Description of the Sample

As previously stated, the sample used in the study was composed of three groups: (1) Seventy-two senior students of education at the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico during the last semester of the 1962-63 academic year who had not taken practice teaching; (2) Seventy-two seniors in the same institution and year who were presently taking practice teaching; and (3) Seventy-two graduates of the same program one year before and who were about to finish their

first year of successful teaching in the public schools of Puerto Rico. More specifically, the measure instrument was administered to 85 education majors who had taken most of the theoretical background courses and were ready to take their practice teaching course. Of the 85 candidates who answered the questionnaire, 72 were selected on the basis of completeness and definiteness in filling out the information requested in the instrument. The group was composed of 44 females and 28 males all coming from different parts of the island and falling mainly within the age bracket of from 19 to 23 years. This number was considered representative of the total population of full time students majoring in secondary education who were in their senior year but still had not taken their laboratory experience in teaching.

The second group of the sample was composed of 72 student-teachers doing their internship in different public school practice centers throughout the metropolitan area of San Juan, Puerto Rico during the second semester of the 1962-63 academic year. The questionnaire was administered to ninety student teachers, out of which only 84 were completely filled. Of this number twelve were randomly excluded to match the previous group of 72 individuals, thus leaving 45 females and 27 males. As in the case of the seniors group, the 72 student teachers were expecting to teach in the secondary schools of Puerto Rico. All of the major fields of specialization were represented, particularly Social Science, English, Spanish, Science and Math. The age composition of this group was similar to that of the previous one.

The third part of the sample was composed by a group of seventy-two beginning teachers--41 females and 31 males--all graduates of the 1961-62 academic program who were finishing their first year of field experience throughout the island of Puerto Rico. Eleven females and seven males were teaching in the senior high school while the rest--30 females and 24 males--were teaching in the junior high school. Of the latter group, fourteen and nine respectively were teaching in rural schools. Over 76 percent of the present group fell within the age bracket of between 19 and 26 years of age.

Construction of the Instrument

In preparation for the instrument the following series of steps were followed: (1) The literature related to methodology in the social sciences was surveyed in order to acquire insights in research techniques.[1] (2) Special attention was focused on inventory or check-list construction. (3) Literature devoted to concepts, traits and definitions relative to "good" teaching was emphasized.[2] (4) Periodical contacts with experienced school administrators and professors of education in the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico were maintained

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[1]Alfred C. Jensen, "Determining Critical Requirements for Teachers," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. XX, No. 1, 1951, pp. 78-85.

[2]Robert T. Osborne, "The Preferential Training Needs Record: A Study of In-Service Educational Needs of Teachers of the Atlanta Area Teacher Education Device," Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. XIX, No. 4, June 1951, pp. 271-303.

during the developing stages of the instrument. (5) Ideas and items from Michigan State University's Teacher Self Describer, were used as guidelines. (6) Finally, the definition of teacher competence and professional role as developed by The National Commission for Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS) was considered sufficiently comprehensive to serve as the primary background for developing the questionnaire of the present study.

Summary of the NCTEPS's Definition of Teacher Professional Role[3]

Inherent to the foregoing definition of the teacher's professional role is the idea that such a definition of teacher competence obviously can not be static, that on the contrary it must continually adjust itself to changing conditions and emerging needs of a dynamic society. The complex gamut of bheaviors comprising the teacher's role as promoter of pupil growth (see supra, page 4) is divided into two main aspects; a) the teacher as "director of learning," and b) the teacher as "counselor and guidance worker." In his former capacity he must, among other things; a) apply his knowledge of child growth and development in the task of planning his teaching-learning activities, b) conduct his teaching-learning activities in accord with accepted principles of learning, c) combine effective instructional procedures with adequate physical and social environments as indispensalbe assets for a healthy

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[3]California Teachers Association, Teacher Competence, op. cit., pp. 32-41.

classroom process, d) be mindful of the significance of sound evaluation for which purpose he enlists the cooperation of pupils, parents and colleagues, and e) strive to develop and keep an effective balance of freedom and direction in "the laboratory of self discovery." As a counselor and guidance worker his profession requires the teacher to; a) consider each child individually unique and treat him accordingly, b) study each child in order to detect possible difficulties and thus be able to apply the appropriate treatment, c) help the child understand, assess and validate himself in context with others, and d) to procure expert help in cases too serious for him to solve.

The second complex of professional roles of the teacher relate to his liaison position between the children and the culture of their community. This aspect of his commitment to society requires of him; a) sound knowledge, loyalty and respect for the basic cultural values of society, coped with a sincere effort to enrich it, b) the ability to combine science and art or method and skill to produce a free and challenging environment where children face, discuss and attempt solutions to contemporary problems, c) to develop in his students such values, attitudes and skills considered indispensable for effective participation and contribution to a free democratic society in constant change. Besides the mediator of culture, the teacher is also the legitimized institutional link between school and community. An effective relationship between the two basic insitutions of society is as important as the subject and responsibility they have in common, i.e., the child and his education. In this capacity the teacher; a) studies the community and participates in its life processes, b) uses

community resources in the teaching-learning activities within the classroom, c) helps to interpret the community to his students and initiates them in civic activities and responsibilities, and d) interprets the school to the community in order to draw full social support for his task.

The third set of teacher roles according to the NCTEPS's statement is organized around his "program-building" responsibilities, which fall under two main categories; i.e., the teacher as a staff member and the teacher as a member of a profession. As a faculty member the teacher; a) contributes to the definition of school aims and objectives, b) articulates his own classroom program and activities with those of the school in general, and c) shares the responsibilities of program design and its constant evaluation for the school. As a member of the profession, the teacher is committed to; a) appreciating and enhancing the social significance of his role, b) understanding and upgrading the code of ethics of his profession, c) taking active participation in the formulation of organizational policy within his profession and d) realizing that his professional growth is his own compelling responsibility. In conclusion, the NCTEPS's definition emphasizes "what the teacher must be able to do," rather than the way he is to perform it; clarifies competencies rather than characteristics of the teacher's role.[4]

Refinement and Administration of the Instrument

Taking as a basis the aforementioned resources, a 150-item, three-

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[4] Ibid., p. 32.

point scale questionnaire was developed. The resulting instrument was divided into two main parts; a) 82 items dealing with professional behaviors characteristic of all teachers at all levels, and b) 68 items covering the professional behaviors of teachers in the different specialized fields such as languages, science, and mathematics. For the purpose of the present study the first 82 items of the questionnaire, or that applicable to all teachers, was used excepting the last open-ended question and three others not of general applicability.

A rough draft of the professional inventory was circulated among educational leaders in the field for their consideration and suggestions. After some changes in wording to adjust the instrument to the informational level of the respondents,[5] and arrangement of items under appropriate behavior groups,[6] the questionnaire was considered sufficiently adequate to elicit and measure the desired information.

The 78 items composing the instrument were arranged under eight different groups of professional behaviors considered to be not only basic, but also posing the most common source of difficulties at all levels of teaching, particularly among beginning teachers. Most of the problems encountered by the beginning teacher are likely to fall within the scope of the following categories of professional competencies: (I) Discipline and classroom control; (II) Planning the unit and daily plans;

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[5] Deobold B. VanDalen, Understanding Educational Research--An Introduction, McGraw-Hill Co, Inc., New York, 1962, p. 249-274.

[6] Pauline Young, Scientific Social Surveys and Research, Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1956, p. 176-204.

(III) Evaluation of teaching-learning effectiveness; (IV) Knowledge, selection and utilization of techniques and methodology of teaching; (V) Knowledge and instrumentation of community resources in the classroom process; (VI) A more adequate distribution of time;[7] (VII) Personal adjustment to the exigencies of the profession and (VIII) Caring for the health of the students.[8]

During the second semester of the 1962-63 academic year the measure instrument was administered to a group of 452 beginning teachers throughout the island of Puerto Rico. A random sample of 72 out of this group of beginning teachers was selected for the present study. The two groups of student respondents were asked to answer each item as they viewed the problem potential each act involved for the beginning teacher. The beginning teachers were asked to react to each item as indicative of problems experienced while trying to functionalize the professional activities listed in the questionnaire. The project purported to relate the nature of the perceptions as indicated by the senior students with the difficulties reported by the new teachers.

Statistical Hypothesis

Responses to each of the 78 items were tested using the following statistical hypothesis:

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[7]Formica, op. cit., p. 22.

[8]H.L. Wellbank, "The Teacher and His Problems," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 38, December, 1952, p. 491.

Null: There is no difference in the perceptions of problems for each level of responses among senior education students without practice teaching experience, senior education students with practice teaching experience and first year teachers in the field.
Directional: There is a difference among the above three groups of teachers, with those having the most experience evidencing the most role internalization.

Analysis of Data

The responses in the questionnaire were coded and translated onto IBM cards. The statistical model employed to test the hypotheses was chi-square. All items were tested using the form illustrated in figure 3.1:

Figure 3.1

	Groups		
Response Level	First Year Experience Teachers	Seniors With Practice Teaching	Seniors Without Practice Teaching
Acutely Felt			
Moderately Felt			
Not felt at all			

The actual analysis was conducted at Michigan State University on the Control Data Corporation's 3600 electronic computer using the ACT II program for each cell. This program yields tabulations of all frequencies, chi-square values, and percentages for both vertical as well as the total chi-square values.

Summary

For the purpose of the present study three sub-samples of 72 individuals were selected; a) teachers with one year experience, b) senior education students who had had practice teaching, and c) senior education students with no practice teaching. Each participant was given a 78-item questionnaire designed to measure perceptions of problems associated with the teaching role. The directional hypothesis, that the experienced teachers would evidence more role internalization, was tested by use of the chi-square model for each of the 78 items.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

To test the difference between the responses of the three groups in the sample to the 78 items of the questionnaire, a three by three chi-square analysis[1] was used. The 78 items were organized by sub-groups of professional behaviors as described in Chapter three, to coincide with the main divisions of the questionnaire. In Tables 4.1 through 4.8, the results are presented of the chi-square analysis and the cell frequency and percentage for each group and response. The individual cell chi-square values for each item in the questionnaire per group are included in Appendix B.

Global Hypothesis Test

On the basis of the outcomes herein reported, and with the only exceptions of variables 12, Table 4.2, and 37, Table 4.4, the null hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level of significance or higher; that is:

> There is a difference in the perception of problems besetting the beginning teacher as he faces his teaching role among; a) senior students of education who

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[1]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1956, p. 110.

have not taken their laboratory experience, b) senior students of education who have taken their laboratory experience, and c) in-service teachers with one year of experience.

The directional hypothesis, however was reversed according to the findings in the analysis. Rather than the direction of degrees of internalization and concern being from teachers with experience to seniors without practice teaching as originally hypothesized, the contrary was indicated by the analysis. Seniors without either laboratory or field experience, Group III, invariably capitalized more strongly than the other two groups on the significance of and possible difficulty in functionalizing the basic professional behaviors presented to them in the instrument.

Completeness of Response

Another important observation herein demonstrated between experienced beginners and inexperienced senior students of education lies in the difference in degrees of completeness and thoroughness in their responses to the instrument. While Group III, seniors without practice teaching, responded to every question, beginning teachers, Group I, failed to express a feeling in over 5 percent of the instrument. More specifically, the beginning teacher's responses were particularly difficult to interpret because of omissions. Vital items such as 7, 15, and 23, on different aspects of planning, Table 4.2; item 26 on evaluation, Table 4.3; and most of the items on aspects of teaching methods, Table 4.4, were heavily avoided. Of the total possible cumulative number of responses, 16,848, for the three groups on the 78-item questionnaire, there were

251 no responses out of which 249 were scored by the beginning teachers. Possible explanations for the above findings will be discussed in Chapter five.

Teacher-Pupil Relationships as a Source of Difficulty

It is axiomatic that keeping the avenues of communication and understanding freely open between student and teacher is an indispensable asset in the "laboratory of self discovery" and probably among the best ways to detect, prevent, and treat behavior problems. In Table 4.1 the results of the analysis of the data on teacher-pupil relationships is presented.

Table 4.1

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between First year Teachers, Seniors with Practice Teaching And Seniors without Practice Teaching Relative To Teacher-Pupil Relationships as a Source of Problems for Beginning Teachers

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR Chi-square
1. Individualizing instruction	I	14	20	37	51	21	29	
	II	32	44	23	32	17	24	**
	III	34	47	34	47	4	6	23.85
2. Improving school-community relations	I	12	17	32	44	28	39	
	II	17	24	24	33	31	43	**
	III	34	47	29	40	9	13	26.38
3. Stimulating student in the teaching-learning process	I	18	25	33	46	21	29	
	II	25	35	21	29	26	36	**
	III	41	57	25	35	6	8	25.03

** -.01 or greater

Table 4.1 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
4. Identifying and solving student's individual Problems	I	9	13	36	50	25	35	2	
	II	27	38	24	33	21	29		**
	III	36	50	32	44	4	6		33.10
5. Improving inter-pupil relationships	I	5	7	20	28	43	60	4	
	II	19	26	27	38	26	36		**
	III	35	49	26	36	11	15		43.33
6. Dealing with problems of student's control	I	21	29	23	32	27	38	1	
	II	17	24	17	23	38	52		**
	III	37	51	22	31	13	18		22.05

** - .01 level or greater

Although first year teachers reported a high frequency of little or no problems, second and third categories, in relation to teacher-pupil relationships, Table 4.1, they scored higher on the first category, acutely felt problems, than on the other sections of the questionnaire. The question is to be raised, however, in relation to their responses given to "identifying and solving student's individual problems," item 4, and"improving inter-pupil relationship," item 5, on the one hand, and their reactions to item 6, "control problems". The close relatedness of the three questions viewed against the great difference reported felt by first year teachers may indicate invalidity of their response to the three items. Research done elsewhere on the most common problems faced by the beginning teacher in the classroom reports control and behavior

problems among the first three main sources of concern.*

The importance given to these problems by seniors without teaching experience is evident by their consistently high scoring on all items in the first category, particularly on motivation of the learner, item 3, and problems of control, item 6. Seniors with practice teaching tended to distribute their responses evenly throughout the three categories, scoring relatively high on individualization of instruction, item 1, and quite low on problems of student control, item 6.

Planning as a Source of Difficulty

Every action carries with it, among other things, an assessment of available instruments, materials, circumstances and alternatives, which together with the motive idea necessary to functionalize such factors, makes the end goal possible. As a blueprint for action, planning has essentially the same meaning and primary importance in every aspect of modern man's life. As an indispensable necessity in the teacher's role planning, together with evaluation and method, constitutes probably the hard core of teaching.

The different perceptions of planning as a source of problems for the beginning teacher by the three sub-samples of the present study are presented in Table 4.2.

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*Formica's survey of the field places problems of control and discipline in the first place, followed by becoming adapted to student's needs and interests, problems of motivation, handling teaching techniques and others relating mainly to situations related to, but outside the classroom. op. cit., p. 39.

Table 4.2

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Planning As A Source of Problems for Beginning Teachers

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
7. Planning the teaching unit	I	10	14	14	20	20	28	28	
	II	17	24	19	26	36	50		**
	III	30	42	30	42	12	16		30.41
8. Using the master unit	I	9	12	25	35	38	53		
	II	20	28	30	42	22	30		**
	III	50	70	16	22	6	8		61.73
9. Using the text-book	I	2	3	22	30	46	64	2	
	II	17	24	28	39	27	37		**
	III	36	50	29	40	7	10		61.28
10. Adequate use of reference materials	I	5	6	31	43	35	49	1	
	II	18	25	28	39	26	36		**
	III	28	39	35	49	9	12		31.39
11. Selecting and using teaching aids	I	7	10	33	46	31	43	1	
	II	24	33	22	31	26	36		**
	II	37	52	24	33	11	15		32.15
12. Using audio-visual aids	I	21	29	33	46	17	24	1	
	II	23	32	27	37	22	31		*
	III	35	49	21	29	16	22		8.16
13. Utilization of community resources in the classroom process	I	17	25	35	49	18	25	2	
	II	28	39	19	26	25	35		**
	III	56	78	9	12	7	10		50.27
14. Sharing planning tasks with the students	I	18	25	23	32	30	42	1	
	II	34	47	17	24	21	29		**
	III	50	69	18	25	4	6		35.16
15. Preparing the daily plan	I	3	4	6	8	24	33	39	
	II	33	46	25	35	14	19		**
	III	55	76	15	21	2	3		74.91

* - .05 level or greater
** - .01 level or greater

Table 4.2 (Cont.)

Variable:		Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
16.	Formulating class objectives	I	13	18	19	26	39	54	1	
		II	22	30	25	35	25	35		**
		III	38	53	29	40	5	7		40.66
17.	Selecting motivational activities	I	10	14	34	47	27	38	1	
		II	19	26	21	29	32	45		**
		III	32	44	31	43	9	13		28.19
18.	Selection and use of teaching techniques	I	14	19	40	56	18	25		
		II	22	31	24	33	26	36		**
		III	45	62	22	31	5	7		39.73
19.	Selection and use of educational resources	I	9	12	33	46	30	42		
		II	14	20	26	36	32	44		**
		III	37	51	30	42	5	7		43.40
20.	Formulating and using the assignment	I	4	6	28	39	40	55		
		II	18	25	28	39	26	36		**
		III	29	40	28	39	15	21		30.10
21.	Measuring daily learning	I	8	11	30	42	34	47		
		II	23	32	29	40	20	28		**
		III	51	71	18	25	3	4		63.68
22.	Integrating daily plan with teaching unit	I	6	8	29	40	37	52		
		II	27	38	21	29	34	33		**
		III	40	56	29	40	3	4		53.41
23.	Class development	I	3	4	14	19	25	35	30	
		II	22	31	32	44	18	25		**
		III	36	50	29	40	7	10		44.30
24.	Caring for needs and interests of the students	I	8	11	33	46	30	32	1	
		II	22	31	21	29	29	40		**
		III	44	61	25	35	3	4		52.23
25.	School time allotment	I	6	9	29	40	36	50	1	
		II	13	18	25	35	34	47		**
		III	39	54	25	35	8	11		50.46

** - .01 level or greater

The most revealing result reported in Table 4.2, is the fact that;

a) 28 (40 percent) out of the 72 beginning teachers in the sub-sample

did not respond to item 7, "planning the teaching unit," b) 39 (54 percent) out of the same sub-sample did not answer item 15, "preparing the daily plan," and c) 30 of the same group also failed to respond to item 23 on "class development." Another significant finding is the extreme contrast between first year teachers and both groups of students, particularly the seniors without practice teaching, in their responses to items 8, using the master unit; 9, using the textbook; 10, use of reference materials; 19-25, relative to such behaviors as selection and use of educational resources, formulating and using the assignment, measurement of learning, integration in planning, caring for student needs and interests, and school time allotment. Seniors with practice teaching scored fairly high in indicating problems with item 15, daily planning, but low in problems of planning the teaching unit, item 7.

Evaluation of the Teaching-Learning Experience as a Source of Difficulty

Evaluation of the teaching learning activity, like motivation, is a basic, continuous process of the classroom experience. It allows the teacher to; a) evaluate his professional efficiency as evidenced in the overall growth of the learner, b) indicates where the student's current development is, thus permitting the teacher to adapt his teaching accordingly, and c) provides objective bases for the distribution of rewards. The result of the analysis of the evaluation aspect as a source of difficulty to the beginning teacher in the present study is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Evaluation of the Teaching-Learning Experience as a Source of Problems for Beginning Teachers

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:		Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
26.	Using the various evaluating techniques	I	2	3	16	22	16	22	38	
		II	17	24	24	33	31	43		**
		III	28	39	37	51	7	10		44.83
27.	Preparation of tests	I	15	21	25	35	31	43	1	
		II	22	31	27	37	23	32		**
		III	28	39	36	50	8	11		19.45
28.	Daily observation	I	4	6	29	40	37	51	2	
		II	14	19	36	50	22	31		**
		III	32	45	34	47	6	8		47.12
29.	Interviewing, individual and groupal	I	8	11	33	46	29	40	2	
		II	14	20	26	36	32	44		**
		III	23	32	37	51	12	17		19.10
30.	Keeping students vital records	I	12	17	30	42	29	40	1	
		II	13	18	30	42	29	40		**
		III	25	35	38	53	9	12		19.54
31.	Using standardized tests	I	16	22	25	35	27	28	4	
		II	18	25	27	38	27	37		**
		III	29	40	36	50	7	10		20.13
32.	Using the results of the general abilities tests	I	15	21	26	36	28	39	3	
		II	27	37	20	28	25	35		**
		III	36	50	29	40	7	10		23.12
32.	Making adequate use of diagnostic tests	I	12	17	24	33	35	49	1	
		II	26	36	20	28	26	36		**
		III	47	65	19	26	6	9		42.31
34.	Using results of achievement tests	I	8	11	33	46	28	39	3	
		II	17	23	30	42	25	35		**
		III	47	65	21	29	4	6		55.54

** - .01 level or greater

Table 4.3 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
35. Test evaluation techniques	I	10	14	29	40	33	46		
	II	17	24	29	40	25	36	1	**
	III	29	40	33	46	10	14		22.28
36. Analysis, interpretation and use given to test results	I	12	17	30	42	30	41		
	II	17	24	23	32	32	44		**
	III	22	30	38	53	12	17		16.49

** - .01 level or greater

The two most revealing results reported in Table 4.3 are: (1) Over 50 percent of the beginning teachers did not respond to item 26, "using the various evaluating techniques." (2) These same teachers, however, reported having relatively no problems "measuring daily learning," item 21, Table 4.2; interviewing, item 29, and "using results of achievement tests," item 34, both in Table 4.3, in addition to the rest of rather low responses on the "acutely felt" category. Obviously some "Plus getting" response set is operating in the respondents. Still another noticeable result of the findings is the number of ommissions scored by the first year teachers. Except for items 33 and 34, seniors without teaching experience moved somewhat more to the middle position in comparison to their previous scoring, while practice teachers continued to score higher in the "moderately felt" and "not felt" categories.

Teaching Methods as a Source of Difficulty

A series of methods currently used by teachers to teach was presented to the sample to react to as possible sources of difficulty. In Table 4.4

the results of the analysis of the data on methodology as a source of difficulty are summarized.

Table 4.4

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III in Relation to Teaching Methods As A Source of Problems to Beginning Teachers

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:		Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
37.	Problem-solving method	I	8	11	28	39	34	47	2	
		II	14	19	28	39	30	42		**
		III	19	26	36	50	17	24		11.67
38.	Laboratory method	I	13	18	25	35	28	39	6	
		II	17	24	22	30	33	46		**
		III	31	43	30	42	11	15		21.14
39.	Project method	I	9	13	26	36	33	46	4	
		II	25	35	19	26	28	39		**
		III	46	64	23	32	3	4		51.42
40.	Socialized discussion	I	4	6	36	50	28	39	4	
		II	24	33	26	36	22	31		**
		III	38	53	27	37	7	10		40.92
41.	Directed study	I	8	11	36	50	26	36	2	
		II	23	32	21	29	28	39		**
		III	29	40	34	47	9	13		26.45
42.	Varied discussion techniques (debate, forum, panel, etc.)	I	14	19	20	28	33	46	5	
		II	16	22	25	35	31	43		**
		III	29	40	35	49	8	11		27.19
43.	Aesthetic appreciation	I	7	10	29	40	30	42	6	
		II	16	22	27	38	29	40		**
		III	32	45	21	29	19	26		21.69
44.	Working in committees	I	13	18	29	40	27	38	3	
		II	15	21	17	23	40	56		**
		III	37	51	23	32	12	17		34.41

** - .01 level or greater

Table 4.4 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
45. Demonstration	I	6	8	27	38	35	48	4	
	II	15	21	26	36	31	43		**
	III	31	43	37	51	4	6		45.35
46. Drill technique	I	6	8	20	28	40	56	6	
	II	21	29	17	24	34	47		**
	III	32	45	29	40	11	15		37.41
47. Designing and conducting the review	I	3	4	17	24	50	70	2	
	II	20	28	19	26	33	46		**
	III	35	48	25	35	12	17		51.10
48. Lecturing and exposition	I	4	6	27	38	37	51	4	
	II	22	31	23	32	27	37		**
	III	39	54	24	33	9	13		45.19
49. Effective assignments	I	4	6	20	28	45	63	3	
	II	16	22	25	35	31	43		**
	III	36	50	28	39	8	11		54.27
50. Questions and answers	I	5	7	21	29	44	61	2	
	II	28	39	17	37	27	34		**
	III	42	58	27	38	3	4		69.59
51. Within-class grouping	I	13	18	29	40	27	38	3	
	II	31	43	23	32	18	25		**
	III	50	69	21	29	1	2		46.02
52. Using realia	I	16	22	30	42	22	31	4	
	II	30	42	27	37	15	21		**
	III	46	64	24	33	2	3		31.22

** - .01 level or greater

Nearly one out of four of the included techniques was either unknown or ignored by the first year teachers judging by their omissions. Furthermore, although their consistently low scoring under the "acutely felt" category could be partly justified by the fact that those techniques of instruction are fairly commonly known and used, the degree of

expertness highlighted by such results are questionable. Practice teachers apparently consider working in committees, item 44, drill technique, item 46, and the review methods, item 47, fairly simple techniques of instruction. Seniors without practice teaching emphasized especially the importance of grouping within the classroom, item 51, using realia and direct experience, item 52, project method, item 39, and questions and answers, item 50.

School-Community Relations as a Source of Difficulty

The first five items of Table 4.5 are concerned with assessing, understanding and using community resources in the classroom process. As society grows increasingly complex and education for the masses becomes a compelling necessity, school and community need closer ties. The school as an extension of the community becomes far more than just the philosophical tenet of the experimentalist.

Table 4.5

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Knowledge and Utilization of Community Resources in the Classroom Process as a Source of Problems for the Beginning Teacher

Legend: AF - Acutely felt
MF - Moderately felt
NF - Not felt
NR - No response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
53. Means used to know the community	I	15	21	27	37	28	39	2	
	II	37	47	26	36	12	17		**
	III	49	68	22	31	1	1		45.30

** - .01 level or greater

Table 4.5 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
54. Using the community to enrich the experiences of the student and functionalize his knowledge	I	17	24	29	40	25	35	1	
	II	34	47	25	35	13	18		**
	III	29	40	40	56	3	4		27.34
55. Using community resources to enrich the school program	I	14	19	35	49	22	31	1	
	II	25	35	17	23	30	42		**
	III	48	67	19	26	5	7		46.15
56. Bringing school and community closer together	I	10	14	44	61	18	25		
	II	27	38	16	22	29	40		**
	III	48	69	20	28	3	4		64.31
57. Identifying and contributing to the solution of community problems	I	14	19	35	49	22	31	1	
	II	28	39	26	36	18	25		**
	III	54	75	14	19	4	6		46.82
58. Attitude of local supervision toward the beginning teacher	I	8	11	14	19	50	70		
	II	35	49	20	28	17	23		**
	III	51	71	19	26	2	3		83.75
59. Attitude of the faculty toward the beginning teacher	I	6	8	10	14	56	78		
	II	30	42	24	33	18	25		**
	III	53	74	16	22	3	4		101.31

** - .01 level or greater

Although still low for the beginning teachers, analysis of the data on the importance of school community relations, in Table 4.5, highlights the relatively strong preoccupation for sound community service that permeates the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico and its students. Seniors with and seniors without practice teaching scored invariably high on the five questions relating to knowledge and use of community resources in the educative process in Puerto Rico. This trend is partially demonstrated by scores on items 53, on knowing

community problems, 55, on using such insights in the classroom process, and 57, on helping or contributing to the solution or amelioration of such problems.

Items 58, on attitude of the local supervision and 59, attitude of faculty toward the beginning teacher, obviously belong to a different professional aspect--Opportunities for Professional Growth--which was deleted for the purpose of the present study. Evidently the beginning teacher is in fact well received in his initial position; however, at the pre-service stage he feels apprehensive about his acceptance.

Time Distribution as a Source of Difficulty

Among the first sources of difficulties reported by beginning teachers, particularly those who had not had laboratory experience during their pre-service preparation was effective distribution of time.[2] The problem of time apportionment in fact is one of the most serious ones in Puerto Rico, particularly in some communities where a teeming school population, coping with limited facilities, has imposed a half day of classroom experience. Results of the analysis of the data on school time distribution as a source of problems for beginning teachers are presented in Table 4.6.

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[2]Formica, op. cit., p. 105.

Table 4.6

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Apportionment of School Time as a Source of Problems for the Beginning Teacher

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
60. Using school time in a way that yields better academic achievement	I	10	14	22	31	39	54	1	
	II	31	43	18	25	23	32		**
	III	54	75	15	21	3	4		61.97
61. Activities and techniques to achieve more in less time	I	17	24	33	46	21	29	1	
	II	31	43	28	39	13	18		**
	III	43	60	28	39	1	1		29.11
62. Adequate use of recess time	I	5	7	16	22	48	67	3	
	II	20	28	20	28	32	44		**
	III	34	47	27	38	11	15		47.05
63. Using various means to enrich student's experiences in spite of time limitations	I	17	24	32	45	20	28	2	
	II	27	38	28	39	17	23		**
	III	48	67	21	29	3	4		30.92
64. How to make better use of the home-room period	I	15	21	24	33	30	42	2	
	II	25	35	23	32	24	33		**
	III	41	57	23	32	8	11		25.29
65. What to do in order to cover in the best way possible, the school program	I	13	18	31	43	28	39	3	
	II	28	39	29	40	15	21		**
	III	41	57	26	36	5	7		31.43
66. Selection of activities and materials to achieve objectives and enrich programs	I	13	18	27	38	32	44		
	II	28	39	26	36	18	25		**
	III	57	79	11	15	4	6		59.94

** - .01 level or greater

Practice teachers showed a fairly high concern over; a) "activities and techniques to achieve more in less time," item 61, and "using various means to enrich student's experiences in spite of time limitations," item 63. On these same items as well as on all others, seniors without teaching experience scored high in the "acutely felt" category. Such high scores in the "not felt" category in items 60, "using school time in a way that yields better academic achievement," and item 62, "adequate use of recess time," may well mean an oversimplified conception of these activities by the new teacher. One year experienced teachers tended to see little in the way of acutely felt problems in this area.

Problems of Personality Adjustment

Table 4.7 is composed of four items intended to elicit the feelings of the three sub-samples about personality adjustment and human relations as sources of difficulty for the beginning teacher.

Table 4.7

Chi- square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Personal Adjustment as a Source of Problems for the Beginning Teacher

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NR F	NR %	NR	Chi-square
67. Facing personal problems foreign to the teaching situation	I	4	6	10	14	57	80		
	II	25	35	19	26	28	39		**
	III	26	36	29	40	17	24		52.41

** - .01 level or greater

Table 4.7 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
68. How to derive greater satisfaction from teaching	I	7	10	21	29	43	60	1	
	II	23	32	16	22	23	46		**
	III	44	61	19	26	9	13		50.16
69. Dealing with personal frustrations	I	9	12	15	21	48	67		
	II	14	20	32	44	26	36		**
	III	36	50	29	40	7	10		58.67
70. Human relations aspect in and out of the class-room	I	7	10	12	17	57	72	1	
	II	23	32	18	25	31	43		**
	III	48	67	15	21	9	12		64.21

** - .01 level or greater

All beginning teachers, except the two omissions, scored low in the "acutely felt" category and high in the other "not felt" extreme category. This outcome appears to be in agreement with the insight gained from items 58 and 59, attitude of local supervision and faculty toward the beginning teacher, Table 4.5. The practice teacher and the senior without teaching experience, on the other hand, felt quite concerned over the human relations aspect imposed on them by their professional role, item 70, and wondered "how to derive greater job satisfaction from teaching," item 68.

Students Health as a Source of Difficulty

Taking care of the health aspect of the Puerto Rican school is one of the most serious problems affecting the island teacher in his classroom irrespective of experience. The fact that the rank and file of the teachers ignore most of the health problems of their students,

particularly in the isolated country schools, does not detract from the seriousness of the problem. The results of the analysis of the data in the present study related to student health problems facing the beginning teacher are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Chi-square Values Testing the Perceptual Differences Between Groups I, II, and III Relative to Students Health As a Source of Problems for the Beginning Teacher

Legend: AF - Acutely Felt
MF - Moderately Felt
NF - Not Felt
NR - No Response

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
71. Means of improving environmental health conditions	I	16	22	20	28	35	49	1	
	II	25	35	27	37	20	28		**
	III	49	68	19	26	4	6		45.58
72. How to make effective health observations	I	14	20	36	50	21	29	1	
	II	24	33	27	38	21	29		**
	III	43	60	28	39	1	1		36.29
73. Taking care of health problems	I	15	21	24	33	33	46		
	II	26	36	26	36	20	28		**
	III	44	61	24	33	4	6		37.45
74. Administering health tests	I	12	17	19	26	40	56	1	
	II	23	32	20	28	29	40		**
	III	43	60	20	28	9	12		38.04
75. Using the results of selective health tests	I	14	19	28	39	29	40	1	
	II	25	35	20	28	27	37		**
	III	41	57	24	33	7	10		29.26
76. Using the health services of the community	I	10	14	25	35	36	50	1	
	II	21	29	22	31	29	40		**
	III	44	61	25	35	3	4		51.02
77. How to transfer knowledge about health into good health habits	I	12	17	26	36	34	47		
	II	21	29	29	40	22	31		**
	III	48	67	20	28	4	5		50.48

** - .01 or greater

Table 4.8 (Cont.)

Variable:	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Chi-square
78. Selecting teaching aids in health education	I	9	12	35	49	28	39		
	II	22	31	27	37	22	31	1	**
	III	46	64	23	32	3	4		49.38

** - .01 or greater

Beginning teachers reported a few "acutely felt" problems in relation to "improving environmental health conditions," item 71, and "taking care of health problems," item 73, while seniors without teaching experience scored invariably high in all of the eight items covering the subject. Finally, the last item, 78, "selecting teacher aids in health education" indicates another extreme difference between Group I, one year teachers, and Group III, seniors without teaching experience, with Group II, practice teachers occupying the middle position.

Summary

The null hypothesis of the present study stating that there is no significant difference between practice teachers, senior students of education without teaching experience and one year teachers in their perceptions of basic professional behaviors of teachers as potential sources of difficulty, was rejected at the .01 level of significance or better for 76 out of the 78 items in the questionnaire. The directional hypothesis stating that the more experienced sub-sample would score higher in degree of internalization and concern relative to the difficulties involved in the functionalization of such behaviors, was also

rejected in that the response tended to be in the opposite direction. In other words, seniors and practice teachers predicted that beginners would experience far more problems than they actually reported, judging primarily from their first "acutely felt" category responses to the instrument. Failure to complete the questionnaire was encountered in the responsiveness of Group I, first year experienced teachers, which was the only sub-sample selected at random from a larger (452) group.

Cutting across tables, the following were the more salient findings of the present analysis: a) except for one item, practice teachers scored lower than seniors without teaching experience, but higher than one year teachers in the first, "acutely felt" category; b) a low incidence of problems encountered by first year neophytes, judging by their low scoring in the "acutely felt" category, and c) a tendency of the latter group to skip basic questions relative to vital aspects in their profession.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In the following chapter, the basic assumptions and purpose of the study, the procedures followed, delimitations in scope, pertinent findings, conclusions and suggestions for further research will be recapitulated.

Basic Assumptions

Among others, the following were the basic assumptions undergirding the present study: (1) Regardless of how well prepared the beginning teacher might be, much remains for him to learn in the job, and at this particular stage he is in constant " . . . need of advice, guidance and help in organizing, managing and teaching his classroom."[1] (2) The beginner faces problems characteristic of his own conditions which are likely to affect his professional effectiveness and attitude toward teaching. (3) After a full semester of classroom experience, the conscientious teacher is able to identify his difficulties in teaching, particularly those problems more closely related to the classroom process. (4) Finally, the study of such reported problems of the beginning teacher is a preemptory need for both, an efficient supervisory program for the

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[1] Formica, op. cit., p. 1, and A.S. Barr and M. Rudisill, "Inexperienced Teachers Who Fail and Why," Nation's Schools, Vol. 5, No. 2, 1930, pp. 30-34.

public school[2] as well as for the teacher preparation institution.[3]

Purpose of the Study

The study purported to investigate; a) problems facing the beginning secondary school teacher as he functionalizes his professional role, b) the perception practice teachers and seniors majoring in education have of the difficulties involved in their future professional role, and c) how the three samples compare in their percpetions of these roles.

Procedure Followed

Statistical hypothesis. Accordingly it was hypothesized that there is a significant difference among the three groups, i.e., first year teachers, practice teachers, and seniors without teaching experience, in their expressed priority given to each professional act as a potential source of difficulty. It was further hypothesized that experienced beginners would score higher in problems faced or "acutely felt" category than the other two groups.

Sample and design of the study. The study involved first the conception of the problem and the need for evaluating the teacher preparation program of the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico, particularly its practice teaching aspect. It was assumed that one of

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[2] K. Wiles, Supervision for Better Schools, New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955, p. 34.

[3] American Educational Research Association, "Report of the Committee on Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 22, No. 1, 1952, pp. 238-63, and Fuglaar, op. cit., p. 6.

the best ways to accomplish that purpose was by inquiring into the priority given by three groups of students at different levels of preparation to a checklist of basic professional behaviors. More specifically, the sample was composed of 72 senior students of education without teaching experience, 72 practice teachers and 72 beginning teachers of one year experience.

The specific limiting criteria set upon the sample were the following: (1) The sub-sample constituting Group I, was composed of secondary school teachers hired in August, 1962, who had also graduated that same year from the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico. This sub-sample was randomly selected from a larger group of respondents to the original questionnaire designed for a more comprehensive study. (2) The second sub-sample composing Group II, was made up of seniors of education taking their practice teaching at the time of the present study, April-May, 1963. (3) Group III was composed of majors in education in their last year of studies but who still had not taken their practice teaching course in secondary education. (Education 329)

The questionnaire. The measure instrument contained 78 variables organized in eight groups all of them considered basic acts in the teacher's role at the hard core of the profession.[4] Responses were elicited to a three-point scale under the headings, "acutely felt," "moderately felt," and "not felt." The second part of the questionnaire contained a series

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[4]New York State Education Department, The First Three Years of Teaching, May 1952, p. 24, and Fay Allen, "A Report on a Questionnaire Sent to First Year Teachers," The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, Vol. 22, (February, 1951), pp. 72-74, and Starr Miller, "Problems of Teachers that Can Point Up Needed Revision in Training Programs," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 41, (Jan. 1955), pp. 47-50.

of items designed for a larger study to measure problems by specializations, hence were not directly applicable to the present study.

In relation to administration procedures, both techniques of direct and mailed administration were used. Groups II, and III, who were full-time students, were given the questionnaire in their classrooms. The instrument was mailed to the teachers in the field. The great difference in response returns between Group I and the other two may well be ascribed, among other factors, to an inherent weakness in the use of the mail as a technique.

Scope and Limitations

Irrespective of how logical, reasonable or simple a stated idea may sound to its author, there is always the possibility and even the likelihood that it be differently understood by others. Such factors as shades of meaning, levels of awareness and understanding, "unconfessed ignorance," and particularized interests are often prone to interfere with language communication. It is questionable whether a measure device is always interpreted by respondents the way its author intends.

In spite of the precautions taken for the above biasing factors, like routine discussions with future teachers in their Practice Teachers Seminars, seeking expert advice, careful survey of literature prior to instrument development, and a pilot run of the finished instrument, the fact ramains that the questionnaire technique itself imposes the limiting factor of interpretation. Therefore, the instrumental limitation added to the previous delimitations of sampling, time, space and purpose must be taken carefully into consideration before attempting generaliza-

tions based upon the present findings.

Pertinent Findings

The two most important findings in the present study are; first, the revision of the second part of the research hypothesis, i.e., the directional hypothesis, and secondly, the wide differential margin between perceptions of actual and potential problems facing the neophyte in the classroom process as viewed by the three sub-samples. In other words, the directional hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level or higher for most all items, thus meaning that in fact there is a significant difference among the three groups in their professional role perceptions but the pre-service subjects expecting a wider range of problems than beginning teachers actually reported.

In Table 5.1 the rough average distribution of responses by sub-samples and categories is presented.

Table 5.1

Average Responses Rounded to Whole Numbers for the Three Groups of Teachers to Three Levels of Problem Perception

Legend: AF - Acutely felt
MF - Moderately felt
NF - Not felt
NR - No response

	Group #	AF F	AF %	MF F	MF %	NF F	NF %	NR	Sub-Sample Totals
Beginning Teachers	I	10	15	24	33	32	52	6	72
Practice Teachers	II	22	30	24	33	26	37	0	72
Senior Students	III	40	55	25	35	7	10	0	72

Obviously beginning teachers reduced their sub-sample average because of thier unresponsiveness to a considerable number of items.

As implied before, Group III, seniors without teaching experience, scored four times on the average higher than beginning teachers, and almost twice as high as practice teachers, Group II, on the "acutely felt" categories. Furthermore, the average response for the "not felt" category was almost four times larger for the beginning teachers and practice teachers as for those seniors who had no practice teaching.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The following conclusions evolved from the present study:

1. A comparison between the three sub-samples by means of the chi-square technique, demonstrated that there is a difference between Groups I, II, and III in their perceptions of difficulties facing the beginning teacher as he enters the teaching role. It further demonstrated that the direction of the difference places the senior student in the first position regarding concern over potential difficulties of teaching as he visualizes his future professional role. In his position the senior student may be reacting, among other factors, to; a) difficulties of merging theory and practice, b) adequacy of knowledge on such basic fields as psychology of learning, methodology and group dynamics in addition to his subject-matter field of specialization. Such feelings and attitudes seem to be logical outcomes of pre-service preparation particularly at the stage when the student already has a broad view of the teaching profession and the problems in the field, but lacks his laboratory experience.

2. As the subject comes in contact with experience the apprehensions of the previous stage seem to fade away rather quickly as demonstrated

by the practice teachers, Group II. When the present study was made, practice as well as beginning teachers in the sample had had some time to acquaint themselves with the teaching situation. Insofar as it strengthened their feelings of security and adequacy, the degree of familiarity gained through actual contact with the profession may be a positively reasonable explanation for the differentiation in perceptions. However, there is sufficient empirical evidence to justify a suggestion of caution every time the practice or beginning teacher responded heavily on the third or "not felt" category, especially in such aspects as discipline, planning, methodology, evaluation, school-community relations and school-time distribution.[5]

3. In view of what research studies report in relation to professional difficulties characterizing the first year of teaching,[6] factors influencing unresponsiveness and evidencing complacency among beginning teachers in this study should be carefully assessed. Two alternative explanations may accordingly be suggested; a) unconscious or "unconfessed" ignorance, and b) conscious withholding of the solicited information. Both alternatives may pinpoint degrees of inadequacies in the highly centralized public school system of Puerto Rico, especially in the supervisory aspect. The beginning teacher may not be able to recognize his mistakes and his problems in which case it is the prime responsibility of the supervisor to enlighten and guide the neophyte. Even though he recognizes his limitations at times, the beginner may feel reluctant to share his feelings because of concern about having his contract renewed.

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[5] Formica, op. cit.

[6] New York State Education Department, op. cit.

Finally, and for the purpose of future related studies, other methods of inquiry should be used. Depth interviews and direct field observation methods might provide insights with fewer distortions than encountered with methods used in this study.

In an attempt to balance information desired against time available to respond, many of the items were written to measure only broad aspects of teacher problems. Future research should be directed to more specific aspects of the problem, i.e., instead of asking about "attitude of supervisor" the attitude should be specified, such as "interfering."

Suggestions for Future Study

Finally, some ideas intent on action should be considered because there is always the possibility that excess teaching load, underpay, lack of expert supervision, high centralization of the system, tenure law of teachers, politics and nepotism in the system, among others, are factors propitiating an attitude of indifference toward sound professional achievement at a relatively early stage among Puerto Rico's teachers. Considering such limiting factors or variables, studies should be conducted jointly by the State Department of Education and the College of Education of the University of Puerto Rico with the purpose of assessing; a) existing facilities and opportunities for professional improvement, b) impact of centralization of the system in teacher's attitudes, c) community interest and cooperation in school matters, and d) social origin of teachers and their degree of efficiency among lower socio-economic groups.

Other related areas needing research are; a) social change and its impact on education; providing for the complexities of education in a society in transition, b) the drop out problem in the face of teacher shortage; c) the public school and its competition with private industry for the best personnel, and d) the social-political influences in the island school system and its general effects.

As a result of the advent of universal education, more effectively functionalized during the last eight years, the University of Puerto Rico, and more specifically its College of Education, faces the compelling responsibility to serve as a more effective professional resource agent at all levels of Puerto Rico's life.

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APPENDIX A

The Questionnaire

Instructions:

Please answer this questionnaire carefully. Read each item and indicate with a check mark ( ) the intensity or magnitude of the problem felt, in the space provided for your response.

Check under one (1) your "acutely felt" problems; under two (2) your "moderately felt" problems, and under three (3) your "non felt" problems.

Your response to this questionnaire should be based exclusively on your own experiences as a teacher during this school year. Your prompt and honest reply will be of great help to us in designing and conducting better professional experiences and opportunities for our practice teachers and even for yourself.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Supervisors of Practice Teaching
College of Education
University of Puerto Rico

Name: _____ Position: _____

Age: _____ Sex: _____ Subject taught: _____

School level: _____ elementary _____ junior high _____ senior high

Preparation: _____ Normal _____ B.A. Elem. Education _____ B.A. Second. Educa.

Specialization: _____ Spanish _____ Social Studies _____ English _____ Mathematics

_____ Science _____ Business Education _____ Physical Education

_____ Home Economics _____ Industrial Arts _____ Others

Town: _____ Zone: _____ rural _____ urban

Group I - Problems Related to Teacher-Pupil Relationships	1	2	3
1. Taking care of individual differences			
2. How to improve school-community relationships			
3. Stimulating interest in learning among the students			
4. Identifying and trying to solve student's personal problems.			
5. Improving inter-pupil relationships			
6. How to deal with student control problems			
Group II - Problems Related to Planning of Instruction			
7. Preparing the teaching unit			
8. Using the master unit			
9. Using the textbook			
10. Using reference materials			
11. Selection of teaching aids			
12. Using audio-visual resources			
13. Using community resources			
14. Sharing unit planning with the students			
15. Preparing the daily plan			

	1	2	3
16. Formulating objectives			
17. Selecting motivating activities			
18. Selection and use of effective techniques of instruction			
19. Selection and use of teaching references			
20. Formulation and use of the assignment			
21. Measuring daily learning			
22. Integration of daily plan with the teaching unit			
23. Class development			
24. Taking care of needs and interests of the students			
25. Time apportionment for the different parts of the class period			
Group III - Problems Related to the Evaluation of the Teaching-Learning Experience			
26. Utilization of the diverse techniques of evaluation			
27. Preparation of tests			
28. Observation			
29. Individual and groupal interviews			
30. Anecdoted and cummulative record of students			

	1	2	3
31. Use of standard tests for the different subjects			
32. Use given to results of achievement tests			
33. Using results of diagnostic tests			
34. Use given to results of achievement tests			
35. Means used for evaluating results of tests			
36. Analysis, interpretation and use given to rest results in general			

Group IV - Problems Relative to Knowledge, Selection and Use of the Different Methods of Teaching.

37. Problem-solving method			
38. Laboratory method			
39. Project method			
40. Socialized discussion			
41. Directed study			

	1	2	3
42. Discussion techniques (panel, forum, debate, etc.)			
43. Appreciation			
44. Committee work			
45. Demonstration			
46. Drill			
47. Review			
48. Lecture			
49. Assignment			
50. Questions and answers			
51. Grouping within classes			
52. Use of realia and direct experience			

	1	2	3
Group V - Problems Dealing with Knowledge and Usage of Community Resources			
53. What means to use in order to know the community			
54. How to use community resources to enrich the classroom process			
55. How to engage the community resources to enrich the general school program			
56. How to bring the school and the community closer together			
57. Identifying and helping to ameliorate community problems			
58. Attitude of local supervision toward the new teacher			
59. Attitude of the faculty toward the new teacher			
Group VI - Problems Relative to School Time Distribution			
60. How to better distribute the school day to attain higher academic achievement			
61. Activities and techniques used in order to attain more effective teaching in less time			
62. Making better use of free time			

	1	2	3
63. Means to use in order to best enrich the classroom experience in spite of time limitations			
64. Making the best possible use of the homeroom period			
65. What means to use in order to cover the school program for the grade in the stipulated or assigned time			
66. Selecting the appropriate materials and activities to achieve the objectives and at the same time enrich its program			
Group VII - Problems Related to Personal Adjustment 67. Satisfactorily facing personal problems outside the classroom			
68. Deriving more personal satisfaction from my work			
69. Facing and solving personal frustrations			
70. Cultivating better human relations within as well as without the school situation			
Group VIII - Problems Related to Students' Health			
71. Means to use to improve environmental health conditions			

	1	2	3
72. Making the daily health observation of the student			
73. Means used to take care of students' health problems			
74. Administration of selective health tests to students (sight, hearing, weight, height)			
75. Using the results of selective tests			
76. Using the various health services of the community in the school situation			
77. Transfering health knowledge of the students into desirable health habits			
78. Designing and using adequate teaching media to facilitate good experience in health education			

APPENDIX B

Cell Chi-Square

Table 1

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Legend:
I - First year teachers
II - Practice teachers
III - Seniors without practice teaching

1 - Acutely Felt
2 - Moderately Felt
3 - Not Felt

Question	Group	Response		
		1	2	3
1	I	2.82	.23	7.14
	II	6.02	1.02	3.50
	III	1.07	2.22	.64
2	I	8.05	.02	8.24
	II	3.86	.47	1.25
	III	.76	.66	3.06
3	I	6.04	.07	7.70
	II	3.57	1.69	.63
	III	.32	1.08	3.93
4	I	6.00	.06	9.63
	II	9.38	.93	4.17
	III	.38	1.45	1.13
5	I	11.95	.11	9.20
	II	10.94	.77	10.00
	III	.02	.29	.02
6	I	5.76	.09	6.50
	II	.64	.26	.04
	III	2.56	.65	5.54
7	I	6.37	3.86	5.02
	II	4.26	2.33	.31
	III	.21	.19	7.84

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
8	I	21.27	2.48	11.64
	II	11.41	.08	11.64
	III	1.52	1.69	.00
9	I	17.02	.27	14.50
	II	14.55	.71	14.02
	III	.10	.11	.00
10	I	7.12	.43	8.80
	II	8.47	.00	5.83
	III	.06	.35	.30
11	I	9.06	.21	6.00
	II	10.83	1.69	3.06
	III	.08	.71	.49
12	I	2.85	1.33	.30
	II	1.08	1.33	.10
	III	.42	.00	.73
13	I	14.82	6.86	5.61
	II	8.25	9.33	.11
	III	.95	.19	4.17
14	I	7.53	.09	11.21
	II	7.53	.70	7.42
	III	.00	.28	.39
15	I	20.06	.01	9.63
	II	24.63	5.68	8.53
	III	.23	6.09	.03

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response		
		1	2	3
16	I	7.68	.89	14.09
	II	5.28	1.17	11.13
	III	.22	.02	.17
17	I	6.69	.19	8.24
	II	5.25	.99	.83
	III	.09	2.05	3.84
18	I	12.00	1.55	7.86
	II	6.26	4.48	.17
	III	.93	.76	5.72
19	I	14.45	.00	13.45
	II	6.05	.37	2.63
	III	1.80	.45	4.18
20	I	8.47	.00	5.33
	II	9.94	.00	6.26
	III	.06	.00	.04
21	I	20.49	2.29	13.47
	II	13.67	.73	11.84
	III	.69	.43	.05
22	I	10.09	.27	15.76
	II	13.81	.27	11.51
	III	.29	1.08	.33
23	I	12.07	.64	5.61
	II	14.78	4.84	4.17
	III	.14	1.96	.11

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	Response 2	Response 3
24	I	15.15	.07	15.10
	II	11.26	1.69	4.22
	III	.29	1.08	3.36
25	I	20.01	.07	12.46
	II	9.20	.27	3.85
	III	2.07	.07	2.46
26	I	9.71	5.00	6.72
	II	11.92	3.64	.22
	III	.11	.11	9.39
27	I	1.85	1.52	7.76
	II	2.05	.64	5.17
	III	.01	.19	.26
28	I	14.11	.03	11.33
	II	9.63	.48	10.85
	III	.43	.27	.01
29	I	4.27	.78	6.25
	II	3.27	.03	.89
	III	.07	1.13	2.42
30	I	4.17	.87	7.96
	II	1.31	.22	1.99
	III	.81	.22	1.99
31	I	3.05	1.52	8.74
	II	1.19	.64	2.19
	III	.43	.19	2.19

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
32	I	3.85	.64	8.45
	II	4.65	.04	3.20
	III	.04	1.00	1.25
33	I	12.30	.19	11.95
	II	9.42	.43	7.18
	III	.19	.05	.60
34	I	22.04	1.75	11.84
	II	10.67	.89	4.26
	III	2.04	.14	1.89
35	I	5.72	.23	7.08
	II	4.02	.06	4.71
	III	.15	.06	.24
36	I	1.47	1.94	6.50
	II	1.47	.00	1.15
	III	.00	1.77	2.18
37	I	2.08	.93	3.70
	II	2.35	.23	1.81
	III	.01	.23	.33
38	I	5.60	.73	7.04
	II	2.64	.02	.67
	III	.55	.52	3.38
39	I	14.02	.00	15.76
	II	11.70	.49	6.38
	III	.10	.59	2.08

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
40	I	11.64	.24	7.58
	II	14.73	1.35	4.26
	III	.18	.45	.47
41	I	4.05	.44	6.86
	II	7.20	1.06	1.19
	III	.45	2.87	2.33
42	I	4.43	2.60	10.67
	II	1.63	1.67	3.38
	III	.68	.10	2.04
43	I	10.19	.85	1.88
	II	7.01	.43	.62
	III	.30	.07	.35
44	I	10.85	.00	7.80
	II	3.47	1.57	.02
	III	2.05	1.57	7.09
45	I	10.78	1.63	16.02
	II	7.41	.30	5.83
	III	.31	.53	2.52
46	I	7.73	2.23	10.60
	II	9.50	.18	4.80
	III	.09	1.14	1.13
47	I	12.70	1.07	12.21
	II	13.80	.55	10.61
	III	.02	.09	.06

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
48	I	13.87	.02	9.66
	II	14.41	.22	6.59
	III	.01	.11	.29
49	I	16.10	.55	14.29
	II	11.52	.77	10.32
	III	.38	.02	.32
50	I	11.56	.16	15.76
	II	16.00	.64	24.08
	III	.36	.16	.88
51	I	11.12	.46	13.40
	II	10.73	.89	8.88
	III	.00	.07	.46
52	I	7.67	.33	9.31
	II	7.01	.33	6.23
	III	.01	.00	.31
53	I	8.17	.36	11.74
	II	9.55	.16	15.03
	III	.05	.04	.20
54	I	.20	2.40	8.33
	II	3.50	.17	9.40
	III	2.02	1.28	.03
55	I	12.45	.92	10.32
	II	7.76	5.43	.47
	III	.55	1.88	6.37

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
56	I	14.42	1.67	11.21
	II	12.16	11.27	.11
	III	.10	4.27	9.13
57	I	15.13	4.84	7.76
	II	10.13	4.00	3.67
	III	.50	.04	.76
58	I	12.34	.10	19.17
	II	17.38	.76	31.70
	III	.43	.31	1.57
59	I	18.35	.03	20.02
	II	18.88	2.67	35.85
	III	.00	3.23	2.29
60	I	15.75	.61	16.08
	II	14.82	.73	13.87
	III	.01	.01	.08
61	I	5.29	.09	9.75
	II	5.86	.37	7.47
	III	.01	.09	.15
62	I	10.45	1.71	12.32
	II	10.94	1.19	10.29
	III	.01	.05	.09
63	I	9.59	1.38	8.07
	II	5.89	1.03	3.49
	III	.47	.03	.97

Table 1
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	Response 2	Response 3
64	I	7.26	.00	7.76
	II	5.33	.02	4.22
	III	.15	.00	.54
65	I	6.83	.25	7.56
	II	7.52	.19	9.00
	III	.02	.00	.06
66	I	18.13	5.01	10.89
	II	11.84	1.51	10.89
	III	.67	1.02	.00
67	I	3.21	4.83	8.75
	II	11.21	4.51	16.31
	III	2.42	.01	1.17
68	I	15.15	.01	13.19
	II	12.65	.29	7.59
	III	.11	.38	.77
69	I	13.56	.53	14.81
	II	5.79	4.21	16.33
	III	1.63	1.75	.04
70	I	18.62	.00	15.31
	II	13.88	.60	14.84
	III	.35	.60	.00
71	I	12.03	.41	12.48
	II	6.53	.18	11.95
	III	.83	1.14	.01

Table I
continued

Individual Chi-Square Cell Values
for all Items of the Questionnaire

Question	Group	Response 1	2	3
72	I	9.48	.18	12.40
	II	6.26	1.06	3.10
	III	.33	.37	3.10
73	I	8.66	.02	11.84
	II	6.27	.02	10.32
	III	.19	.07	.05
74	I	11.72	.01	11.12
	II	7.54	.02	7.54
	III	.35	.01	.35
75	I	7.70	.00	9.33
	II	6.02	.67	3.05
	III	.10	.67	1.71
76	I	14.44	.04	17.06
	II	9.00	.04	7.84
	III	.64	.17	1.77
77	I	16.33	1.00	12.80
	II	8.33	.04	9.80
	III	1.33	.64	.20
78	I	16.11	1.00	12.18
	II	10.82	1.57	6.04
	III	.52	.06	1.06