Reference group implications of the student-teacher's professional orientation

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The University of Montana

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REFERENCE GROUP IMPLICATIONS
OF THE
STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

by

JON JOSEPH DRIESSEN

B.A. - EASTERN WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE - 1961
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Dean - Graduate School

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J.J.D.
## CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>THEORETICAL ORIENTATION</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>SCALE CONSTRUCTION AND PROCEDURE</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>THE SAMPLES</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary of Findings</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>A FURTHER LOOK AT REFERENCE GROUP THEORY</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPENDIX A</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPENDIX B</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPENDIX C</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPENDIX D</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APPENDIX E</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>Relationship Between the Number of Professional Education Classes Taken and Professional Orientation of the Student-Teacher</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Attitude Toward Professional Education Classes and Professional Orientation</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Grade the Student-Teacher Wants to Teach and His Professional Orientation</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Grade in School the Student-Teacher Decided to Teach and His Professional Orientation</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Student-Teaching Experience and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Kind of Past Teacher Relationship and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Class in College and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Grade Point Average and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Number of the Student-Teacher's Relatives Who Teach and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Frequency of Interaction With Teaching Relatives and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Parental Attitudes Concerning Their Children's Commitment to Teach and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Marital Status and Professional Orientation of the Student-Teacher</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Spouse's Attitude Toward Teaching Commitment and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Membership in Pre-professional Teaching Organizations and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Number of Friends of the Student-Teacher Who Are Going To Teach and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Church Membership and the Student-Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Age and Professional Orientation of the Student-Teacher</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Sex and Professional Orientation of the Student-Teacher</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Attitude Toward Professional Education Classes and the Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Grade Presently Teaching and the Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXI.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Number of Years the Teacher Has Taught and His or Her Professional Orientation</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Teacher Membership in Professional Teaching Organizations and Professional Orientation</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIII.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Number of Friends Who Are Teachers and the Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIV.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Church Membership and the Teacher's Professional Orientation</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXV.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between Age and the Professional Orientation of the Teacher</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVI.</td>
<td>The Relationship Between the Sex and the Professional Orientation of the Teacher</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVII.</td>
<td>Critical Ratios for Differences Between Mean Scores of the Four Samples</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The Assumed Actor's Orientation When His Membership and Non-Membership Reference Groups Have Similar Values and Goals</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The Assumed Actors Orientation When His Membership and Non-membership Reference Groups Have Dissimilar Values and Goals (Relevantly Dissimilar)</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Mean Scores for the Four Sample Groups</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Hypothetically Possible Orientation of Members in One or Several Reference Groups Which Obtain Communal Norms That Are Not Mutually Exclusive Between the Membership and Non-membership Reference Group</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Hypothetically Possible Orientation of Members in One or Several Reference Groups Which Obtain Associational Norms That Are Mutually Exclusive From the Membership and Non-membership Reference Group</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Neal Gross, a noted sociologist in the field of education, has stated,

The sociological analysis of education may be described as a relatively underdeveloped and unfashionable subfield of sociology.... Those who work in the sociology of education are convinced that there is 'gold in them thar hills'....

One of the basic differences between the sociologist and the educator is that the educator starts with the school and expands his analysis outward, while the sociologist starts his analysis from the point of view of society as a whole. From the point of view of the school, the student-teacher has been studied by educators, but as yet no sociologist has focused his attention upon this area. As one authority notes,

Another problem on which systematic research is needed is the process of socialization to educational positions. We have little knowledge of the mechanisms involved in a student's acquisition of professional skills, values, and attitudes.

In part, the student-teacher is comparable to other student roles that sociologists have researched in the past. Like the student-physician,

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3Gross, op. cit., p. 149.


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the student-teacher is being taught a set of new skills and techniques which will earn him or her the rank of professional.

By briefly reviewing the table of contents of student-teacher handbooks, it is fairly easy to determine the general kinds of things the student-teacher is expected to learn. Three student-teacher handbooks indicate that one is first expected to develop a personal philosophy concerning the professional values and goals. It is of interest to note that of the three books reviewed, all of them contained a listing of the National Education Association code of ethics or some major part thereof. As a professional role, the student-teacher must learn to think of himself as a professional in terms of the values and goals within the profession. The student-teacher is also expected to become aware of the different kinds of people he will have to deal with as a teacher. They would include the principal, students, other teachers, non-teaching personnel such as school nurse, janitor, or others. And finally, student-teachers are expected to become familiar with the school-community relationship which is manifest in school boards, parents, and many local pressure groups.

Very generally this study will attempt to investigate the student-

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5The following three student-teacher handbooks were used to gain a greater understanding into the nature of the norms which surround the student-teacher during his formal training. Loretta Byers and Elizabeth Irish, Success in Student Teaching (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1960); John W. Devor, The Experience of Student Teaching (New York: The MacMillian Company, 1963); Harold P. Adams and Frank G. Dickey, Basic Principles of Student Teaching (New York: American Book Company, 1956).
teacher's internalization of professional values and goals—his professional orientation. Education has the necessary traits which mark any profession. It is an occupation which can only be entered after long training which is determined by the profession itself. Like medicine and law, education has state sanctioning and other legal characteristics which give the teacher a license to teach.

There are two by-products of professionalism which have importance for this study. First, each profession develops a code of ethics which arises partially out of an attempt to deal routinely with potential crises in daily work. In addition, a code of ethics is an attempt to formalize or spell out various values and goals of the profession. A second by-product of professionalism is that the profession itself must insure that its members assimilate a set of professional attitudes which act as controls on the members' behavior. The assimilated attitudes are partially reflected in the members' orientation toward the values and goals which are written down in the code of ethics. It is primarily in this area of professional attitude, that research in this study will proceed.

Student-teachers enter the training program with previously formed feelings about the values and goals of the education profession. Burton Clark has noted the importance of recruitment and how various re-

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6Hughes's description of the traits of a profession are scattered throughout his book. The interested reader should consult the index in the text. Everett C. Hughes, Men and Their Work (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958)
Recruitment practices will influence the future character of a profession. Student-teachers, prior to entering the formal teacher training program, hold certain skills, values, and perspectives which have been developed in groups other than the school of education. According to Clark, the importance of values of the new members vary inversely with the goals of the occupation. Occupations with narrow goals and routine tasks are usually not too concerned with the values of its newer members. Only their technical competence matters.\(^7\) For occupations with broad goals Clark has stated,

But to new organizations, especially to those whose goals are broad and hence somewhat unfixed, the orientation of newcomers are quite influential. The values held by recruits are most important when the organization is established to defend and develop certain values; and to some degree all schools and colleges fall in this category. Educational agencies that seek close conformity to a set of norms and values recruit very carefully, securing new members who already have the 'proper' outlook.

Because of the broad goals of education, it can thus be assumed one of the functions of the training program in education is to shape the student-teacher's professional orientation. If a student-teacher has values which do not fit the profession's expectations, the profession itself will then either screen the applicant out of the program or attempt to bring his views within an acceptable limit. Because of this function of the formal training programs, most research done by educators has been concerned with the effectiveness of the programs.


8Ibid., pp. 165-166.
in creating professional attitudes. There seems to be no research at this time as to what kinds of professional orientations students bring with them into the training programs. Also there appears to be no data as to what background factors of the student-teachers have been important in forming preprofessional orientations.

Previous Research

In order to bring the problem in this study into focus, two previous research articles will be discussed. The purpose of elaborating upon prior research is to show how previous studies by educators have neglected to investigate certain background factors in the student-teachers.

A study done by Frank Slobetz entitled, "A Study of Some Attitudes of Prospective Teachers Toward Teaching" was designed to measure the impact of professional training programs upon the student-teacher's professional orientation. Slobetz noted that the student-teacher's attitude changed toward more emphasis upon getting content across, guiding growth and development, and preparing children for the next grade level. He indicated there was a shift in emphasis from the advantages to a greater awareness of the disadvantages of the teacher role. It seems here that Slobetz was more concerned with the changes in attitudes toward the instrumental functions of the teacher rather than the overriding attitudes toward the broad goals and values of the education system.

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Another study was done by Marshall Nagle entitled, "Some Effects of Student Teaching Patterns Upon Professional Attitudes." It was again an attempt to determine the impact of teacher training programs upon the student-teacher's professional outlook. He concluded that the student-teacher's attitude changed toward that of the teacher's attitude concerning pupils, teachers, teaching, and school-community relations.

Neither Slobetz nor Nagle attempted to find where professional attitudes are initially formed prior to entering teacher training. We also have no comparative data to determine whether student-teachers have a different professional orientation from that of students who are not going to teach.

The Problem

In this study certain selected broad values and goals of the education profession will be evaluated by students who are going to teach. An attempt will be made to pinpoint how membership in various groups influence the student-teacher's professional orientation. The formal training program will be used as only one group involvement out of many which might have an impact on professional orientation. There are many other group involvements on the part of the student-teacher which may or may not influence his professional orientation. The following study will attempt to find out where the student-teacher's

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professional orientation initially comes from. In addition, it will also attempt to compare the professional educational orientations of student-teachers, teachers, laborers, and students not preparing to teach. If this information can be collected, it could have significant theoretical implications for the sociologist and perhaps practical implications for the educator.
CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

A Brief History of Reference Group Theory

The specific problem of student-teacher professional orientation relates itself logically to a contemporary social-psychological theory. Sociologists and psychologists have been attempting to develop a theoretical frame of reference which will account for individuals orienting themselves toward groups to which they do not belong. Through the utilization of reference group theory as a basic frame of reference, it will perhaps be possible to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between the student-teacher and the teaching profession. In addition, it is hoped this research will shed some new light on the recent attempt by Merton to systematically develop a reference group theory which can be used in a functional analysis of social systems.

A brief history of reference group theory will show that it can primarily be traced to the works of George H. Mead, Charles H. Cooley, and William Graham Sumner. Mead's "generalized other" and Cooley's "looking glass self were both attempts to account for the development of the self in terms of group interaction. Both of the concepts drew attention to the impact that the primary group had upon the individual's value and goal orientation. Sumner on the other hand was perhaps the first sociologist to recognize the importance of groups to which the

individual does not belong. In fact, the concepts of "in-group, out-group, and ethnocentrism" can be directly attributed to Sumner's recognition of the importance that non-membership groups have upon the individual's value and goal orientation. With this broad foundation in place, sociologists and other behavioral scientists largely ignored any attempt to systematically develop the basic concepts created by Mead, Cooley, Sumner, and others.\textsuperscript{12}

More recently, however, theorists from the behavioral sciences have been attempting to tie the related concepts together under a more comprehensive systematic theoretical system. Contemporary social-psychologists such as Hyman, Sherif, Newcomb and others have attempted to systematically develop reference group theory. Robert K. Merton, a sociologist, devoted a large section of his "classic" Social Theory and Social Structure to this theory. It is from Merton, that most of the following theoretical orientation has been taken. With respect to reference group theory, Merton has written,

That men act in a social frame of reference yielded by the groups of which they are a part is a notion undoubtedly ancient and probably sound. Were this alone the concern of reference group theory, it would merely be a new term for an old focus in sociology, which has always been centered on the group determination of behavior. There is however, the further fact that men frequently orient themselves to groups other than their own in shaping their behavior and evaluations, and it is the non-membership groups that constitutes the distinctive concern of reference group theory.\textsuperscript{13}

\textsuperscript{12}Ibid., pp. 277-278.

\textsuperscript{13}Ibid., p. 282.
Merton also states that the immediate task of reference group theory is to search out the processes through which individuals relate themselves to groups to which they do not belong. The following research will attempt to shed some new light on background factors which influence an individual to relate himself to a group to which he does not belong. In this case, the study will concentrate upon the student-teacher's orientation toward the education profession.

The Hypothesis

It can be seen here that the student-teacher constitutes a special kind of research problem which may provide insights into the process of non-membership group orientation. From the point of view of the student-teacher, the teaching profession is the non-membership reference group. From the point of view of reference group theory, non-membership must be explicitly defined in terms of an individual's orientation toward a non-membership group. Because an individual is a non-member does not necessarily mean he uses the group as a reference group. Again, according to Merton, there are only three possible types of orientation toward the non-membership group.

1. Those who aspire to belong to the non-membership group.
2. Those who are indifferent to affiliation with the non-membership group.
3. Those who are motivated not to belong to the non-membership group.

A further breakdown also indicates that of those individuals who are

\[14\text{Ibid., p. 234.}\]

\[15\text{Ibid., p. 290.}\]
aspiring to belong, there are two possible kinds of eligibility. Some of the individuals are eligible for membership and others are not. In this systematic framework, the student-teacher can be classified as an individual who is eligible and aspires to belong to the non-membership reference group of the teaching profession. By using this systematic breakdown of non-members, it is possible to locate, by anticipation, the non-members who are positively oriented toward the non-membership group. Merton states,

16 The eligible aspirant for membership who has been identified as the 'candidate' for membership is both motivated to select the non-membership groups as his reference group and apt to be rewarded by the group for doing so. 17

Part of the research to be done here will be an attempt to construct a scale which will quantitatively measure the student-teacher's orientation toward the education profession. This will partially test statistically the relationship between candidacy for membership in a non-membership reference group and positive orientation which theoretically should be present. Assuming that such a scale can be constructed, the research will then enable one to objectively investigate certain selected membership reference groups of the student-teacher and the groups' impact on the student-teacher's professional orientation toward the teaching profession. In this study, the emphasis will be upon the non-institutionalized socialization resulting from the impact of membership reference groups. However, the formal insti-
tutionalized socialization of the student-teacher will be incorporated in the study as an exploratory variable.

It is necessary at this point in the theoretical orientation, to deductively derive a researchable general hypothesis. According to reference group theory, there are various factors which influence an individual's orientation toward a non-membership reference group. One of the basic necessary conditions is a relatively open class society.\(^{18}\) In an open class society, the concept of "anticipatory socialization" becomes useful for the understanding of shifting orientations. Two conditions must be present before anticipatory socialization is functional for the individual.\(^{19}\) First, the social structure must provide for social mobility so that the individual will be rewarded for his anticipatory socialization. The second necessary condition is that the individual's membership reference groups hold as legitimate the values and goals of the non-membership reference group toward which he aspires. The individual who engages in anticipatory socialization toward a non-membership group which has values and goals much different from that of his present membership reference group, faces the possible consequence of being rejected by his membership reference group for repudiating its values. The individual would then face the situation of becoming marginal. His marginality would result because he would not be accepted by his present membership reference group and he would not yet be eligible for full membership in his non-membership reference

\(^{18}\)Ibid., p. 265.

\(^{19}\)Ibid., pp. 290-291.
It seems reasonable that if the individual's present membership reference groups held similar values and goals to that of the individual's non-membership reference group, the individual would then be able to manifest anticipatory socialization without disfunctional consequences. Therefore the following general hypothesis will be tested in this study:

The individual whose membership reference groups contain similar values and goals to those of the individual's non-membership reference group will exhibit a higher degree of positive orientation toward the values and goals of the non-membership reference group than if the individual's membership reference groups hold dissimilar values and goals to his non-membership reference group.

The same hypothesis, when attached to the student-teacher reads:

The student-teacher whose membership reference groups contain similar values and goals to those of the teaching profession will manifest a higher degree of positive orientation toward the values and goals of the teaching profession than if his membership reference groups hold dissimilar values and goals to those of the teaching profession.

At this point in the theoretical deduction, various membership reference groups of the student-teacher must be selected for study. The purpose of the following sub-hypotheses is to determine if any of the membership reference groups are related to student-teachers' professional orientation. The sub-hypotheses will be divided into two types. Type I will deal only with specifically designated reference groups. This will permit the research to contribute to the development of systematic reference group theory. Type II hypotheses

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20 Ibid., p. 291.
will primarily be concerned with exploratory variables which may or may not add information to the problem of student-teacher professional orientation.

The rationale for determining the direction that the sub-hypotheses will take has been previously determined by the general hypothesis. Therefore, the rationale will be that the following selected membership reference groups of the student teacher hold the values and goals of the education profession. However, because it is unknown what values and goals the student-teacher's membership reference groups hold, it is necessary to state the following sub-hypotheses in the null form.

**Type I sub-hypotheses (Reference Groups)**

1. The school as a Reference Group

   There is no relationship between the number of professional education classes taken and the student-teacher's resulting professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between attitude toward professional education classes and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between the grade the student-teacher aspires to teach and his professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between the grade in school of the student-teacher when he committed himself to the teaching role and his professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between the student-teacher's having completed student teaching and his professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between the kind of past teacher-relationship and the student teacher's professional orientation.

   There is no relationship between class in college and the student-teacher's professional orientation.
There is no relationship between grade point average of the student-teacher and his professional orientation.

2. The Family of Orientation as a Reference Group

There is no relationship between the number of the student-teacher's relatives who teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

There is no relationship between frequency of interaction with teaching relatives and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

There is no relationship between parents' attitudes concerning their children's commitment to teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

3. The Family of Procreation as a Reference Group

There is no relationship between marital status and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

There is no relationship between the spouse's attitude toward the husband's or wife's commitment to teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

4. Preprofessional Teaching Organizations as a Reference Group

There is no relationship between membership in preprofessional teaching organizations and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

5. Peer Group as a Reference Group

There is no relationship between the number of friends of the student-teacher who are going to teach and the professional orientation of the student-teacher.

6. The Church as a Reference Group

There is no relationship between church membership and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

**Type II sub-hypotheses (Social Categories)**

1. Age as a Social Category

There is no relationship between age and professional orientation of the student-teacher.
2. Sex as a Social Category

There is no relationship between sex and professional orientation of the student-teacher.

Definition of Terms

At this point there is need for more specific definitions of the concepts which have a special meaning in this research. According to Merton, there is another reason for being explicit in defining the concepts used in a theoretical analysis.

Research sensitive to its own needs cannot easily escape this pressure for conceptual clarification. For a basic requirement of research is that the concepts, the variables, be defined with sufficient clarity to enable the research to proceed, a requirement easily and unwittingly not met in the kind of discursive exposition which is often mis-called sociological theory.21

Further on Merton again states,

If he (the sociological researcher) is not to be blocked at the outset, he must devise indices which are observable, fairly precise and meticulously clear. The entire movement of thought which was christened "operationalism" is only one conspicuous case of the researcher demanding that concepts be defined clearly enough for him to go to work.22

Most sociologists agree that the utilization of operational definitions to a moderate extent is necessary. On the other hand, most sociologists would probably also agree that only the most important concepts should be operationalized. In this thesis only one key concept will be operationalized—that of positive and negative professional orientation. Although the operational definition of professional orientation will

21 Ibid., p. 115.
22 Ibid., p. 115.
be discussed in the next chapter on procedures of the research, there are at this time a number of concepts used in the study which require non-operationalized definitions.

Orientation

"The term 'orientation' is used in this study as a general concept to indicate tolerance for or acceptance of a particular idea on the one hand, or intolerance for or lack of acceptance of that idea on the other. It included psychological dimensions that are frequently described as predispositions, attitudes, values, or opinions." However, in this study it is not necessary to distinguish between the various meanings ascribed to these terms; consequently, the general concept "orientation" seems more appropriate.23

Reference Group

In this study reference group means, "any group with which an individual identifies himself (in) such (a way) that he tends to use the group as a standard for self-evaluation and as a source of his personal values and goals. The reference groups of the individual may include both membership groups and groups to which he aspires to belong."24


Merton feels that the concept reference group cannot only be applied to groups, but to individuals and social categories as well.\textsuperscript{25} In this research, reference group is to be defined according to both preceding usages of the term. This however, in no way changes the basic meaning of the concept; it merely extends the range of phenomena in which it can be applied.

**Non-membership Reference Group**

Non-membership reference group will refer to any group which the individual uses as a reference group, but of which he is not a member because of not satisfactorily fulfilling group requirements for entrance. All references to non-membership reference group in this study will refer to the teaching profession.

**Membership Reference Group**

Membership reference group will mean any group which the individual uses as a reference group and is presently a member of. Membership in this context has three interrelated characteristics. First, the interacting persons define themselves as members. Second, persons in interaction are defined by the others as belonging to the group. And third, the interaction is morally binding upon the members but not on those regarded as outside the group.\textsuperscript{26}

Membership reference groups referred to in this research are the family of orientation, family of procreation, student-teacher peers, the school, preprofessional teaching organizations, and the church.

\textsuperscript{25}Merton, *Social Theory*, p. 284.

\textsuperscript{26}Ibid., pp. 285-286.
Anticipatory Socialization

In this study the term anticipatory socialization will refer to socialization in one status or group that is functional for occupancy for another status in the same or in a different group. From the point of view of this study anticipatory socialization refers to the socialization process that the student-teacher is presently undergoing in order to eventually fulfill the status of teacher.

Student-Teacher

As used in this research, student-teacher is one who indicates that his major in college is education, and he states a desire to teach in high school or elementary school.

CHAPTER III

SCALE CONSTRUCTION AND PROCEDURES

Development of the Instrument

The approach selected for development of the instrument to assess student-teacher professional orientation was a posteriori. 28 The method of summated ratings, developed by Rensis Likert 29 and refined by Rundquist and Sletto 30 was employed in construction of the scale.

Collection of Scale Items

The first step in the development of the scale was to decide upon a method of securing statements or items which would reflect a student-teacher's orientation toward the teaching profession. Statements may be gathered in a number of ways. Ferguson suggests,

These statements may be taken from pre-existing scales, made up by the investigator, they may be culled from newspapers and periodicals, or they may be selected from comments and talks of appropriate authorities. 31

As suggested above by Ferguson, the statements for this scale were taken from two sources. The writer made up a number of items and


30 E.A. Rundquist and R.E. Sletto, Personality Measurement in the Depression (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1936.)

31 Ferguson, op. cit., p. 124.
secondly selected various other statements from the National Education Association code of ethics.\textsuperscript{32}

**Editing the Statements**

After all the statements were collected, editing was done to eliminate duplicates, those statements which were obviously irrelevant, and those which were too involved and lengthy to be of use. When this was done, sixty-four items remained.

The next step was to edit carefully the remaining statements and select those which seemed more likely to prove discriminating when used for assessing student-teacher's orientation toward the education profession. To accomplish this, the statements were judged and revised or eliminated if they were ambiguous, had multiple dimensions, were grammatically incorrect, were near duplicates, or were irrelevant. Only fifty-three statements remained after this step had been completed. (See Appendix A)

**Construction of the Test Schedule**

The purpose of the test was twofold: (1) to identify the scale items which most strongly discriminated between positive and negative orientation toward the education profession so the final form of the scale could be constructed, and (2) to analyze background data of the respondents and compare it with scale scores to assess the relationship

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\textsuperscript{32}Opinions of the Committee on Professional Ethics, Prepared by the National Education Association (Washington D.C.: National Education Association, 1958)
between these orientations and other selected characteristics of the individual involved.

Only those procedures relevant to the first purpose—that of the construction of the instrument—are reported in this section. The rationale for including certain background questions has previously been provided in Chapter II. However, this will be elaborated upon further in the following chapter on the findings.

The Introduction

The introduction to the scale consisted of a brief statement concerning the purpose of the scale. It also included directions for filling out the scale and a brief note directing the respondent to place an X beside vague or unclear items. (See Appendix B)

The Scale Items

The 53 items (16 negative and 37 positive) that seemed most discriminating were randomly selected for placement in the test schedule.

The response categories in a Likert type scale usually includes an "undecided" category. However, for this study it was omitted. It was reasoned that since education is not sharply defined in our society, an undecided category might simply serve as a convenient escape for those unwilling to commit themselves toward one position or another. The response categories therefore were:


A prior research also utilized the same type of response categories
and found that it presented no difficulty on the part of the respondent or in the accuracy of the data gathered.\(^{33}\)

**The Background Information**

Since one of the primary purposes of the scale was to collect background data from each respondent for later analysis, it was necessary to include a background information section in the test schedule. For example, respondents were asked to supply information concerning their age, sex, marital status, grade index, present and future occupation, class in college, number of children, number of professional education classes taken, and other information which will be used for later analysis. (See Appendix C)

**The Test Sample**

The test schedule was administered to 140 students at Montana State University enrolled in two different sociology classes. Seventy-eight of the respondents were from an upper division criminology class and 62 respondents were from two introductory sociology classes. It was reasoned this would give a sufficient cross-section of students from all grades in college. Of the 140 students used to test the schedule, only 100 were used in order to facilitate computation. After screening through the test schedules, 20 respondents failed to fill out the schedules properly and were therefore discarded. Twenty more schedules were randomly selected out and discarded thus arriving at the

\(^{33}\)Anderson, *op.cit.*, p. 30
100 necessary for statistical computation.

**Scoring of the Test Scale**

The scoring procedure for the scale was done in the following manner. If a statement indicated positive orientation toward the education profession it was scored as follows:

"Strongly Agree"—5 Points, "Agree"—4 Points, "Tend to Agree"—3 Points, "Tend to Disagree"—2 Points, "Disagree"—1 Point, and "Strongly Disagree"—0 Points.

A negatively oriented question was scored according to the same procedure but in the opposite direction. Thus, the maximum possible score for each item was five points and the lowest possible score for each item was zero.

**Comparison of Total Scores**

After each item on the scale had been scored, the total score for each respondent was computed. The theoretical score range was from zero to 265. The actual range from the test sample was from 128 to 210. The median score was 168 and the mean score was 167.74.

**Internal Consistency of Scale Items**

**Test of Internal Consistency**

The data from each schedule were coded and transferred to I.B.M. cards. The sample was then sorted and divided at the median into "high scoring" and "low scoring" categories on the basis of total scores for all respondents.

The criteria of internal consistency was used to determine which
statements most strongly discriminated between positive and negative orientation toward the education profession. The critical ratio (CR) and the scale value difference (SVD) was computed for each of the 53 items. (See Appendix D)

Criteria for Acceptance or Rejection of Scale Items

No universal standard for acceptance or rejection of a particular item is available. It is therefore necessary to follow somewhat arbitrary criteria. As near as possible, only those items which met the following standards were used:

1. Scale value difference of .50 or above.
2. Critical ratio at the .05 level of confidence or above. Of the 53 items, 33 met or exceeded the above criteria. In order to reduce the items to a working scale, it was necessary to establish additional criteria. It was decided only those items with a critical ratio of .02 or above would be used in the final test scale. Thus, without further modification, the final scale contained 20 items with a critical ratio of .02 or above. In the final scale 7 items were negative and 13 were positive.

The Split-Half Test of Reliability

A split-half test of reliability was computed for the 20 final scale items. Alternate items in the order they appear in the test schedule were designated "X" and "Y" for the computation. The resulting correlation of coefficient was .64. When the Spearman-Brown formula for attenuation was applied, the r value increased to .78 thus, indicating the scale has a sufficient degree of reliability for group com-
parison. According to one statistician, the following criteria can be used for determining the significance of a reliability check.

Where a test is intended only for use in studying groups a lower reliability coefficient (around .75) may be sufficient to make fairly accurate comparisons.\(^3\)

**Validity of the Scale**

In this study the scale will be accepted at "face validity." According to Goode and Hatt, logical validation or face validity:

\[\ldots\text{refers to either theoretical or "common sense" analysis which concludes simply that, the items being what they are, the nature of the continuum cannot be other than it is stated to be. Logical validation, or "face validity" as it is sometimes called, is almost always used because it automatically springs from the careful definition of the continuum and the selection of the items.}\]

By relying upon what Goode and Hatt have said, the scale in this study has already been subjected to logical validation.

The final form of the professional education orientation scale appears in Appendix E.

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CHAPTER IV

THE SAMPLES

The "judgmental or purposive" sample technique was used to gather all the data. Because of the practicality of such a technique, the writer was able to gather four different samples. The four groups that were utilized were student-teachers, teachers, laborers, and students who are not going to teach.

The major disadvantage of the judgmental sample is that errors and biases cannot be computed. Because of the doubt of the representativeness of the samples, this chapter will elaborate upon the profile of important group characteristics of the samples. It is hoped here, that possible biases which are present from sample error can be brought to light.

The Student-Teacher Sample

The theoretically most important sample for this study is that of the student-teachers. Student-teachers were defined here as those students who indicated on the test schedule their major in college is education, and secondly, they also expressed a desire to teach in elementary or secondary public schools. The sample was broken down into two student-teacher groups: Those student-teachers who had not student taught and those who were presently doing student teaching. There were 46 who had not student taught and 51 who were presently practic teaching, thus there was a total sample for the study of 97 student-teachers. At

the time the sample was taken (May, 1964) there was a total of 61 student-teachers performing their student teaching. However, not all of them were practice teaching in the vicinity of Missoula and were therefore excluded from the sample. Of the 61 practicing student-teachers for Spring quarter 1964, 50 were sampled for this study thus gathering 78% of the total universe.

The second important characteristic of the sample is that of sex distribution. In the sample there were 30 male and 67 female student-teachers for a 32.4 and 67.6 percent respectively. A recent study of the sex distribution of public school teachers in the United States shows that 31.3% were male and 68.7% were female. In comparing the difference between the two groups, it can be seen that the sample for this study comes near to that of a national sample of teachers.

Aside from perhaps regional or racial differences, this writer feels there are no major biases present in the student-teacher sample.

The Teacher Sample

Fifty schedules were distributed throughout the schools of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho. The principals of five grade schools, the junior high school, and the senior high school were given the schedules and were requested to distribute them to their faculty. Of the original 50 schedules distributed, a very satisfying 49 were returned.

The community of Coeur d'Alene has approximately 150 public school

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teachers. This study sampled 32% of the 150 teachers in the community, but a breakdown of the sample profile indicates there are three biases. In the sample, 20.4% taught in high school, 22.5% taught in junior high school, and 57.1% taught in elementary schools. Thus there are too many elementary school teachers represented in the sample.

A sex breakdown indicates a bias in the number of female respondents. Of the sample, 78.8% were female and 22.2% were male. This is not too surprising considering the sample has an over representation of elementary teachers. A recent study by the National Education Association showed that of the elementary teachers there were 12.1% male and 87.9% female.  

In this teacher sample there is also an age bias. Fifty percent of the sample were over 66 years of age and 20% were over 55. The same study by the NEA showed the age breakdown of public school teachers to be 29.8% under 26, 57.2% between 26-35, 29.9% between 36-45, 16.2% between 46-55, and 12.4% over 56. From the point of view of this study, perhaps a different mean scale score would have been obtained from a sample of younger teachers.

The Mill Workers Sample

The mill worker sample consisted of a night shift at a Missoula, Montana, lumber company. The night shift in total numbered 113. Of this number, 31 were sampled or 72% of the universe.

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38 Ibid., p. 48.
39 Ibid.
The age breakdown seems to be fairly representative of the total population. There were 38.7% of the sample between 20-30, 35.8% between 31-40, and 25.5% over 40 years of age. Of the sample collected, 93.5% were married and of those married 93.4% had one or more children.

In breaking down the number of years of schooling, it was found that 35.8% had not completed high school, 54.8% had completed high school, and 8.4% had completed some college.

In the profile of the mill worker sample there does not appear to be any major biases other than perhaps Missoula employees may be more educationally oriented because of the proximity of the State University and the commercial nature of the community.

The Student Sample

Students in this study are defined as those students formally enrolled in the university and who are working toward a degree other than education. They also have expressed desire not to teach in the future. Forty-nine students were selected from a criminology and an introductory sociology class. Class in college breakdown indicates that 40% were underclassmen (freshmen and sophomores) and 60% were upperclassmen (juniors and seniors). This represents a junior and senior bias in that the representative student body is usually made up of more underclassmen than upperclassmen. The sample also has a male bias in that 76.9% of the sample was male and 23.1% was female. This is to be expected along with the upperclass bias. By the time students reach upperclass standing, the ratio of male to female is more than 2 to 1.\(^{140}\)

\(^{140}\)At the time of this study campus percentages were 69.1% male and 30.9% female. Of the junior-senior population there were 70.7% males and 29.3% females.
Summary

In using the judgemental sampling technique, it can be seen that biases might easily result. However, the effects of these biases can be reduced if they are made explicit in the reporting of the data. The biases that have been listed in this study's samples do not seem to be too severe providing generalizations are not overly extended.
CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Before presenting the data and implications, certain factors should be mentioned. There are two primary problems to which the data are related. One, is an attempt to provide empirical evidence which will be helpful in determining what factors decide an individual's non-membership reference group orientation. The second problem which the data attempts to clarify is the further exploration of the concept of anticipatory socialization. It should be kept in mind the latter concept in this study is restricted to only those individuals who are candidates for membership in a non-membership reference group.

In this study the student-teacher was selected to provide the empirical data for the two problems stated above. Student-teachers are presently in the process of being formally socialized into the teaching profession. The teaching profession is what constitutes the non-membership reference group in this investigation. In recalling the major hypothesis it stated:

The student-teacher whose membership reference groups contain similar values and goals to those of the teaching professions will manifest a higher degree of positive orientation toward the values and goals of the teaching profession than if his membership reference groups hold dissimilar values and goals to those of the teaching profession.

Six membership reference groups of the student-teacher were used to test the hypothesis. They were the school, the family of orientation, the family of procreation, the preprofessional teaching organizations,
the peer groups, and the church. In addition to the reference groups just mentioned, two exploratory variables—age and sex—were used in the analysis.

High and Low Professional Orientation: An Operational Definition

The scale which was constructed was administered to both the student-teacher and a teacher sample. The student-teacher scores ranged from a low of 58 to a high of 95. Possible scores could have ranged from 0-100. Once this data was obtained, the scores were arrayed from high to low and then were split in half at the median. Every student-teacher with a score of 78 or above was designated as having a high orientation, and those with a score of 77 and below were operationally defined as being low oriented toward the teaching profession's values and goals.

Statistical Tests

1. The Chi-Square Test ($X^2$)

In this study the chi-square test was used to test the relationships between membership and non-membership reference group orientation. This test is designed to determine if two variables are statistically associated with one another. Or to put it another way, it is designed to determine if two variables are independent of one another. The null hypotheses were all calculated by the 1620 IBM computer. The level of confidence was set at .05.

2. The Critical Ratio Test (CR)

To empirically test anticipatory socialization, the critical
ratio test was used. This is a statistical test which converts the raw score of two means into a probability relationship which allows significant differences to be determined. For this test, the mean scores of student-teachers and students were submitted to the test of critical ratio on the IBM 1620. According to reference group theory, the student-teacher's mean scale score should be significantly higher than the mean score of the students who were not going to become teachers. The level of confidence was set at the .05 level.

Summary of Findings

1. The chi-Square Tests

   The major hypothesis was not substantiated by the findings of the sub-hypotheses. There were no statistically significant differences obtained in the chi-square tests. The findings indicate that no membership reference group stands out as being associated with this particular dimension of the student-teacher's professional orientation.

2. The Critical Ratio Test

   The (CR) test indicates that student-teachers do not manifest a higher degree of professional orientation than students in general. This will be elaborated upon later in the chapter.

Possible Errors in Research

   At this point in the analysis, two possible errors may account for the negative findings. First, there is a chance the scale was not discriminating enough to differentiate the respondents. Secondly, there may be a large bias in the sample which would cause all the respondents
to answer the same way. However, the possibility of these errors occurring has been minimized. Therefore, the error in the research probably lies in the theory of reference group itself. Because of this, an entire later chapter will be devoted to contingent theoretical implications.

Chi-Square Analysis of Data

In the analysis of data there will be two sections. Section I will deal with the student-teacher and reference groups which are hypothetically important to his professional orientation. Section II will deal with certain selected reference group variables of teachers. This has been done primarily to point out differences and similarities between the two groups.

For each null sub-hypothesis tested, the contingency table has been inserted. For example, marital status is the independent variable and professional orientation is the dependent variable. The dependent variable refers to the thing being acted upon; in this study professional orientation is always the dependent variable.

Section I - The Student-Teacher

The School as a Reference Group

Theoretically, the school constitutes a most important membership reference group. It is in the school that the student-teacher has primarily learned what he knows about the values and role behavior of the teacher. In addition, the student-teacher has been placed in a position, by the nature of his past student roles, to have evaluated the teacher role at every grade level. There are various involvements
on the part of the student-teacher within the school as a reference group which will be associated with professional orientation in order to determine the impact that the group experiences have had upon the student-teacher's professional orientation. Not only will the teacher training program be used as a variable, but previous school experiences will also be included as variables.

**TABLE I**

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION CLASSES TAKEN AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDENT-TEACHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Classes Completed</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 3 degrees of freedom = 3.35  \(P = .40\)

There is no relationship between the number of professional education classes taken and the student-teacher's resulting professional orientation.

The number of professional education courses which a student-teacher has completed is not associated with professional orientation. The null hypothesis must be accepted. It is interesting to note that those student-teachers who have had more than seven courses outnumber the low orientation cell by more than 3 to 1. It is nevertheless impossible to say if the tendency toward a higher orientation is due to the classes or to some other factor. For example, this may be due to the fact that the student-teacher who has taken several professional edu-
cation classes had a high professional orientation prior to entering the classes.

It would seem logical to assume that as the number of professional education classes increase, the resulting professional orientation would also increase. This, however, is not the case. Perhaps the important implication is not the absolute number of courses, but rather the kinds that are taken. Of the two general types of classes, practical and theoretical, it would be interesting to know which ones have the most significant impact upon the student-teacher's professional orientation.

**TABLE II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes Considered to Be Important</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Few of Them</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of Them</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of Them</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom= 2.49  P= .45

There is no relationship between attitude toward professional education classes and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

The findings indicate that the student-teacher's attitude toward professional education classes is not associated with his professional orientation. Again the null hypothesis must be accepted. It would seem that those student-teachers who identify most strongly with the education curriculum would have the highest professional orientation. Statistically,
however, there are far too many exceptions to permit this kind of generalization.

It should be kept in mind that at no time in this study is there an assumed relationship between professional orientation and teaching ability. The ability to teach is a different dimension than professional orientation. Also it should not be assumed that this study implies a relationship between attitude toward professional education classes and teaching ability.

Eleven student-teachers were excluded from answering items on the final schedule. The eleven student-teachers who were excluded were taken from the original sample schedule which was used to construct the scale. Once the scale was constructed, additional background information was added to a new schedule, thus omitting the eleven original respondents from the final schedule. However, there were only eight new background items included in the final schedule; thus it was concluded not to discard the eleven original student-teacher respondents. Throughout the remaining Tables, several of them will have eleven of the student-teachers missing from the total number. This however, was not considered to be significant enough to influence the overall findings.

The next hypothesis is concerned with the relationship between the grade the student-teacher wants to teach and his professional orientation. The null hypothesis only tested those student-teachers who were presently performing their student teaching. It appears the commitment to teach in either elementary or secondary grade levels has no relationship with the student-teacher's professional orientation.
TABLE III

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GRADE THE STUDENT-TEACHER WANTS TO TEACH AND HIS PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Want to Teach</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = 2.45  P = .13

There is no relationship between the grade the student-teacher aspires to teach and his professional orientation.

According to the data, the null hypothesis must be accepted.

From Table III it can be seen that those student-teachers with secondary commitments are more than two-to-one in the high orientation cell. On the other hand, those who chose elementary grade levels are divided approximately even between the high and low orientation cells. From the data, the generalization can be made that student-teachers who chose secondary teaching would be highly oriented toward the values and goals of the teaching profession. However, the statistical error of 13 times in 100 is too great to permit this statistically significant generalization.

It should be noted in passing that there appears to be no necessary relationship between professional orientation and devotion to role requirements. Additional research is needed to find out why student-teachers and teachers choose to teach at certain grade levels. Systematic research in the future should attempt to discover whether there are relationships between student-teachers' and teachers' background variables of age, sex, marital status, etc., and the choice of grade they wish to

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The next hypothesis was designed to determine if an early identification with the teacher role would result in a higher professional orientation.

**TABLE IV**

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GRADE IN SCHOOL THE STUDENT-TEACHER DECIDED TO TEACH AND HIS PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade When Decided to Teach</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 1.14, P = .48

There is no relationship between the grade in school of the student-teacher when he committed himself to the teaching role and his professional orientation.

The data substantiate the null hypothesis, and as a result it must be accepted. By glancing at contingency Table IV, the greatest difference appears for those student-teachers who became committed during secondary grade levels. Statistically, however, no generalization can be made at this time. The reasons why students choose teaching as a life's occupation need to be researched much more systematically.

The important question from the point of view of this study is, what reference groups were influential in the determination of the commitment to the teaching profession. Neal Gross has been concerned with the lack of research in the area of professional teaching commitment. He has stated:

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No sociological studies to date have investigated the factors influencing the decisions of individuals to enter the field of education. Although a heavy drop-out rate in teaching suggests marked differences among teachers in the degree of differential commitment are unavailable.\[41\]

In Table IV only 93 student-teachers filled out the schedule properly; consequently 4 were left out of the computation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER’S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Completed Student Teaching</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = 2.54, P = .12

There is no relationship between the student-teacher having completed student teaching and his professional orientation.

Student teaching experience is not statistically associated with professional orientation. Eleven student-teachers were omitted from the Table due to the two different schedules which were used in the study.

The statistical probability neared the acceptable significance level. One would be able to say that practice teaching is associated with high professional orientation and be subject to error only 12 times out of 100. Still this is not statistically significant enough to permit generalization. These data seem to indicate that as student-

\[41\] Gross, op. cit., p. 148.
teachers complete their student teaching experience their professional orientation increases. However, this may be speculation because there are no data with which to compare the same student-teachers before and after their student-teaching experience. In reference to this problem Gross has stated,

We have no studies of changes in students' conceptions of the teacher's role during various stages of their training to become teachers or of shifts in role definition before and after they assume their first educational positions. In addition to case studies of the socialization process, inquiries are needed that attempt to deal with the question: How do different types of socialization settings influence student attitudes and orientation toward education?\textsuperscript{42}

From the point of view of reference group theory, research is needed concerning the kind of student teaching experiences that tend to increase or decrease identification with the teaching profession. In addition, the relationship between the student-teacher and the master teacher needs systematic exploration. For example, if the student-teacher and master teacher possess different value orientations, it would seem to have disfunctional consequences upon the student-teacher's professional orientation. However, this kind of data is not available to make any sort of generalizations.

In the following Table it is interesting to note that 90.7\% of the student-teachers had a "good" past relationship with their teachers. It would seem logical to assume that teachers would have a significant impact upon the student-teacher's professional orientation.

However, it may be unrealistic to assume that student-teachers

\textsuperscript{42}Ibid., p. 119.
identify with all or even most of their past teachers. Perhaps the significant question is what kinds of students identify with what kinds of teachers?

TABLE VI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE KIND OF PAST TEACHER RELATIONSHIP AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER’S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Teacher Relationship</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly Well</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Very Well</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 3 degrees of freedom = 2.52  \( P = .47 \)

There is no relationship between the kind of past teacher relationship and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted.

Do teachers provide a role model for student-teachers? Is part of the student-teacher's socialization process latently performed by student-teachers' identification with past teachers or a past teacher? These questions seem to be significant if one is to understand the socialization process of the student-teacher. From the point of view of both sociology and education, this area would seem to be a most potentially fruitful area of investigation.

From the data in the next Table, it appears that class in college is not significantly associated with the professional orientation of the student-teacher. The null hypothesis reads:

There is no relationship between class in college and the student-teacher's professional orientation.
TABLE VII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLASS IN COLLEGE AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class in College</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>97</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 1.98  P = .40

The null hypothesis is accepted. As a reference group, class in college has little importance. Rarely does an entire class in college possess any social solidarity which can force compliance to a set of standards or values. There are other campus affiliated membership reference groups which are probably much more important with regard to their impact upon a student-teacher's value system. These reference groups might be fraternities, sororities, campus political organizations and so forth. Research is needed to determine how such organizations influence the student-teacher's professional orientation. The entire area of the university sub-culture will be elaborated upon later in the chapter.

TABLE VIII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE POINT AVERAGE AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Point Average</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.00-2.51</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.52-3.00</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 3.00</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>97</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 3.08  P = .25

There is no relationship between grade point average of the student-teacher and his professional orientation.
The null hypothesis is accepted. Statistically, grade point average is not associated with the student-teacher's professional orientation. It is of interest to notice that those student-teachers with a grade index over 3.00 are represented more than 2 to 1 in the high orientation cell. However, merely high grades give us no insight into why the grades tend to be associated with a high professional orientation. Home, campus organizations, peers, and other membership reference groups may play a significant role in determining the student-teacher's orientation toward grade achievement. As the statistics indicate, merely by isolating high or low grade index of the student-teacher and then trying to predict an associated professional orientation, the person doing the predicting will be on slim grounds of empirical evidence. This relationship would occur 25 times out of 100 by chance alone. About the only conclusion that can be made is that the student-teacher with low grades is statistically just as apt to fall into the high oriented cell as he is to be found in the low oriented cell.

The Family of Orientation as a Reference Group

For this study, the family through which the student-teacher is initially socialized into society constitutes a most important membership reference group. The family of orientation is perhaps the most important reference group in the life of an individual. This is where he acquires most of his early life values and goals. It would seem logical that if certain values and goals within the family of orientation were similar or different from those of the teaching profession's this orientation would show up in the student-teacher's professional orientation.
Two variables within the family of orientation were submitted to statistical analysis. They were number or relatives who teach, and parents attitudes about their children committing themselves toward the teaching role.

**TABLE IX**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do You Have Relatives Who Teach?</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = 1.03  P = .34

There is no relationship between the number of student-teacher's relatives who teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted. The data indicate that number of teaching relatives of the student-teacher has no relationship with his or her professional orientation. In this study, relatives were not limited to the nuclear family but included any relative up to first cousins. It was assumed that if an identification was created between the student-teacher and the relative's teaching role, a higher professional orientation would result. This assumption appears, however, not to be the case. Those student-teachers who do not have any relatives teaching are just as apt to fall into the high orientation cell as those student-teachers who do have teaching relatives.

It is of interest to note that 74.2% of all student-teachers have relatives who teach. A similar count was taken of the teacher sample.
and it was found 79% of them had relatives who teach. For further comparison, a count was taken of the labor sample and 45% of them had teaching relatives. This indicates that laborers have approximately 25% fewer relatives in the teaching profession. This tends to give some support to the assumption that certain roles carry over in families from generation to generation.

The research not only measured the number of the student-teacher's relatives engaged in teaching but also the frequency of interaction with these relatives.

**TABLE X**

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREQUENCY OF INTERACTION WITH TEACHING RELATIVES AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of Interaction</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 3.34  P = .18

There is no relationship between frequency of interaction with teaching relatives and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

Statistically, the frequency with which the student-teacher interacts with his relatives who teach is not associated with his professional orientation. The null hypothesis must be accepted.

By looking at Table X, one can see that those student-teachers who had daily contact with teaching relatives were split more than 2-1 in the high orientation cell. The logical assumption is that the nuclear family constitutes the group with which student-teachers have had the
most frequent contact and interaction.

Perhaps it is incorrect to assume that relatives as a whole are taken as a reference group. Future research may be more fruitful if the research design were set up to measure only the impact of the nuclear family relatives who teach. With the present predominant nuclear family in our society, perhaps the only significant family values emerge from the parents, brothers, and sisters. If we typically had the extended family in our society, perhaps research could focus upon a larger family group than the nuclear members. The extended family ties might still be important though if the student-teacher comes from a predominately rural area. Research in the future would have to be systematic in separating, if possible, the number of extended family members with whom the student-teacher maintains an identification.

TABLE XI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL ATTITUDES CONCERNING THEIR CHILDRENS' COMMITMENT TO TEACH AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Attitude</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly in Favor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Favor</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in Favor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 2.97  P=.40

There is no relationship between the parents' attitudes concerning their children's commitment to teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

In light of the data, the null hypothesis must be accepted. It was assumed that the more parents approved of their children selecting
the teaching role, the higher their children (student-teachers) would be oriented toward the values and goals of the education profession. It was also assumed that during the socialization process in the family, the favoring parents would pass their favorable orientation on to their children.

The data indicate that both these assumptions must be altered. It appears that parental approval of role choice is not related to the student-teacher's professional orientation. It is important to note from Table XI, that no parents disapproved of their children's choice to teach. Perhaps those students whose parents would disapprove of them choosing teaching as an occupation, have previously selected another college major.

A further implication for future research centers around the fact that many parents may want their children to move up into a higher social class standing. The fact that parents desire their children to move into a higher social class does not necessarily mean that the parents themselves have the same values as the class they want their children to be in. Among sociologists there is no general agreement as to the class origins of teachers; however, Brookover feels that teachers are increasingly being recruited from the lower class. 43 Because of the impact of the social class values upon the student-teacher, a study is needed to systematically differentiate occupational aspirations and reasons for entering the teaching profession with

relationship to the student-teacher's social class backgrounds.

The Family of Procreation as a Reference Group

According to the major hypothesis, the student-teacher's family of procreation, as a membership reference group, should have an impact upon the student-teacher. The values in the family of procreation should be in part expressed through the student-teacher's behavior and professional orientation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Low Orientation</th>
<th>High Orientation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = .05  P = .81

There is no relationship between marital status and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted. It appears that the student-teacher possesses a high or low orientation toward the values of the education profession independent of his or her marital status.

From Table XII, it is interesting to note that 35.1% of the student-teachers sampled were married. This number is relatively meaningless unless it is compared with other pre-professional majors in college. If it could be shown that student-teachers as a group are more apt to be married, it might provide further insights into some underlying reasons why teaching is selected as an occupation. Many questions can be raised concerning the impact marriage has upon the student-
teacher's relationship with the teaching profession. Does marriage have any effect upon promotional aspirations, desire to do graduate work in education, security factors in employment, a more liberal or conservative political philosophy, and so forth? Presently we have no information from which to draw any conclusions although data would be of interest for both the sociologist and the educator.

**TABLE XIII**

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPOUSE'S ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING COMMITMENT AND THE STUDENT-TEACHERS PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spouses Attitude</th>
<th>Low Orientation</th>
<th>High Orientation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Favor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in Favor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = .01 P = .99

There is no relationship between the spouse's attitude toward the husband's or wife's commitment to teach and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted. The findings from this chi-square do not imply that the wife or husband has no effect upon the role performance of the student-teacher. It merely indicates the spouse's attitude has no relationship with professional orientation of the student-teacher. As was discussed under Table XII, the spouse may be quite influential in the determination of aspirations within the profession.

It would be interesting to know if the married student-teacher and the single student-teacher define the teaching role differently. Perhaps one area where they might differ would be their orientation toward extra-role obligations of the teacher. It seems logical to assume that before a married student-teacher, in anticipation of becoming a teacher,
would accept community service roles he or she would be apt to consider the values of the wife or husband.

Preprofessional Teaching Organizations as a Reference Group

In this study the only preprofessional teaching organization conceptualized as a membership reference group was that of the Student National Education Association. Within the meetings of the SNEA, various values are manifest which should theoretically influence the student-teacher's professional orientation.

TABLE XIV

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEMBERSHIP IN PREPROFESSIONAL TEACHING ORGANIZATIONS AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Membership in SNEA</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Member</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom= .92 P=.32

There is no relationship between membership in preprofessional teaching organizations and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

Membership in preprofessional teaching organizations is not associated with the student-teacher's professional orientation. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Membership in the SNEA would seem to indicate a higher acceptance of some kinds of professional values. Presumably the meetings are constructed around teaching the members various attitudes and skills which can be utilized once they become teachers. It appears from these data that these organizations may indeed teach their members skills
and certain kinds of attitudes; however, what this study has operationalized as professional orientation seems not to be effected by membership. According to the data, student-teachers accept or reject professional values whether they are members or non-members of the SNEA.

**Peer Group as a Reference Group**

Probably one of the most important membership reference groups of the student-teacher is that of his peers. According to reference group theory, the values and attitudes which are manifest within the student-teacher's peer groups should have a major impact upon his professional orientation.

**TABLE XV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Student-Teacher Friends</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 2.14  P = .35

There is no relationship between the number of friends of the student-teacher who are going to teach and the professional orientation of the student-teacher.

The null hypothesis is accepted. Perhaps the significant question is not how many friends of the student-teacher are going to teach, but rather what are the attitudes, interests, values and so forth which prevail in the groups on campus to which the student-teacher belongs.

Probably a brief example will show more descriptively the importance
of membership in various "sub-cultures" on the campus.

Burton Clark in his book *Educating the Expert Society* has developed a typology describing the types of sub-cultures existing among the students on a campus. The first group is what Clark calls the "Collegiate" sub-culture. They are symbolized by the fraternity, sorority, dates, cars, drinking, and the football weekend. Opposite of this sub-culture is the sub-culture of "vocationalism" which is symbolized by the student placement office. About the only concern of these students with school is to get on to the job as quickly as possible. The third sub-culture according to Clark is the "academic" sub-culture. They are the greasy grinds in the eyes of the collegiate crowd. Their symbols are the library, laboratory, and the seminar. The members of the academic sub-culture most closely identify with the faculty and most of their friends have similar intellectual interests. The last sub-culture on a campus is the "nonconformist" sub-culture. To quote Clark directly he states,

The distinct quality of this student style is a rather aggressive nonconformism, which usually includes a critical detachment from the college administration. The symbol of the pursuit of the nonconformist is an 'identity'.

It may be true that Clark has over simplified the kinds of peer groups on a campus, but it still points up the importance of the kinds of values which are present in one's membership reference group. In future research, an attempt should be made to locate the student-teacher

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^44Clark, *op.cit.*, pp. 202-211.

in various kinds of campus sub-cultures. It would also be of interest to know if the student-teacher can be predominately placed in one of Clark's groups. It would seem that from the point of view of the education profession, membership in the various student sub-cultures could have a significant impact upon the student-teacher's future role performance as a teacher.

The Church as a Reference Group

The church constitutes the last reference group which the study will deal with. Because the church constitutes an important reference group for many individuals, it was selected as a major membership reference group.

TABLE XVI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHURCH MEMBERSHIP AND THE STUDENT-TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Church Member</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = 1.84 P = .16

There is no relationship between church membership and the student-teacher's professional orientation.

Eleven of the student-teachers were omitted from Table XVI due to the two different schedules. The data collected did not substantiate the alternative hypothesis; consequently, the null hypothesis must be accepted.

Belonging to a church seems to indicate a certain tolerance for many similar values which are attached to the teacher role. These values
can perhaps be summarized under the concept of "moderation." The church generally seems to emphasize moderation in dress, drinking, and other public involvements. Generally, however, merely belonging to a church does not allow one to predict whether a student-teacher has a high or low professional orientation.

**Type II sub-hypotheses (Social Categories)**

In this study age and sex are not considered reference groups. It is true there may be a female role or teen age role, and others, but generally most sociologists would agree that age and sex do not satisfy all the characteristics of a social group. In this study age and sex are considered social categories. A social category is defined as the "like social characteristics—-of age, sex, marital status, income, and so on---but which are not necessarily oriented toward a distinctive common body of norms"\(^6\) as are present in a membership reference group. The reasons for including these two variables lie partially in their availability and partly in the traditional aspect of utilizing the two variables in exploratory kinds of research. Sex seems to be important because of the female implications frequently attached to the teacher role. From the standpoint of simple information, it is interesting to know if males and females differ in their professional orientation.

Because there is no theoretical justification for including the variables age and sex, the findings will merely be presented along with the null hypotheses.

\(^6\) Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure*, p. 299.
TABLE XVII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGE AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDENT-TEACHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 3.12  P = .22

There is no relationship between age and professional orientation of the student-teacher.

The null hypothesis is accepted. From the data, it appears that the age of the student-teacher has no relationship with his or her professional orientation.

TABLE XIX

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEX AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDENT-TEACHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = .79  P = .40

There is no relationship between sex and professional orientation of the student-teacher.

The data indicate that the sex of the student-teacher is not associated with high or low professional orientation. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Section II - The Teacher
The School as a Reference Group

The attitude of 49 public school teachers concerning their attitude toward professional education classes was tested. This was done to determine if there was any change in attitude toward professional classes between the student-teacher and teacher sample. Also the study was interested to determine if there is any relationship between the teacher's attitude toward professional education classes and his professional orientation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes Considered</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Few of Them</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of Them</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All of Them</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = .76  P=.85

There is no relationship between attitude toward professional education classes and the teacher's professional orientation.

Like student-teachers, the data show there is no relationship between the two variables. The null hypothesis is accepted. The data also seem to indicate there is no significant attitude change toward professional education classes between the two samples. It seems as though the attitude student-teachers hold while a student carries through into their career as teachers. This, however, can not be definitely stated since this is not a true longitudinal study. Nevertheless, there does seem to be some evidence that the appreciation of professional education
classes does not change with teaching experience. To be more certain, a controlled, before-after study should be made. Perhaps attitude changes do occur, but future research must prove this to be so.

TABLE XX

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADE PRESENTLY TEACHING AND THE TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Presently Teaching</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = .20  P = .93

There is no relationship between the grade the teacher teaches and his professional orientation.

The findings indicate that the teacher's professional orientation is not associated with the grade level he or she teaches. The null hypothesis again must be accepted. The teacher with a high or low professional orientation is apt to be found scattered at random throughout the entire spectrum of grade levels. The professional orientation of teachers in relationship to the grade they teach is much less statistically significant that it was for the student-teachers. For teachers, any conclusion attempting to tie professional orientation with grade level would be subject to error 93 times out of 100. This error level is much too great to permit any kind of speculation.

From the data in the next Table, there seem to be no association between teaching experience, in terms of years, and professional orientation. The null hypothesis must be accepted. By examining Table XXI, it becomes immediately apparent there are no definite trends.
TABLE XXI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS THE TEACHER HAS TAUGHT AND HIS OR HER PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Years Taught</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 3 degrees of freedom = 5.18  P = .20

There is no relationship between the number of years of teaching experience and the teacher's professional orientation. The null hypothesis is accepted.

For future research, one of the most significant questions is to attempt to find out if the school becomes a more or less important reference group with the passing of time as a teacher. This kind of research is closely tied in with the changing self-concept of the teacher. There seem to be no systematic data available on how the teacher's image of himself changes as a result of extended interaction in the teaching profession.

Keeping reference group theory in mind, data is needed as to what groups does the teacher develop an identification with. It is important to keep in mind that the teacher's self-concept is not only a result of his teacher role, but is developed from his involvements in many reference groups such as family, church, peers, and others. It would be interesting to know to what membership reference groups the teacher belongs, and what impact these have on his teacher role. Multiple role involvements of the teacher may act as a two-way mirror. First

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how does the teacher define himself within membership reference groups, and secondly, how do other members of the groups define the teacher?

The Family of Orientation as a Reference Group

For the teacher, there was no attempt to analyze his relationship with his family of orientation. It was reasoned that by the time the individual has become a teacher, the impact of the family of orientation has lost its major significance for most individuals.

Professional Teaching Organizations as a Reference Group

It is interesting to compare student-teachers with teachers concerning the percentage who are members in preprofessional and professional organizations. In regard to the student-teacher sample, it was found that 29.1% belonged to preprofessional organizations. On the other hand, the teacher sample revealed 83.7% of them belonged to professional teaching organizations. It appears that teachers have a tendency to join professional organizations much more frequently than student-teachers.

Although there are many organizations on campus competing for the student-teacher's time and energy, a similar situation exists for the teacher within the community. The differences in membership probably lie in the emphasis placed on joining the respective organizations at the different levels.

Most educators would probably agree that pressure to join professional organizations varies with the school district. In some school systems the teacher is relatively free to choose his membership; in others he may have very little choice whether to join.
TABLE XXII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL TEACHING ORGANIZATIONS AND PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Membership in NEA</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = .33  P=.60

There is no relationship between membership in professional teaching organizations and the professional orientation of the teacher.

The null hypothesis is accepted.

It would be interesting to know if there is any relationship between the kinds of pressure placed on the teacher to join these organizations and the amount of individual involvement on the part of the members. This writer would hypothesize that teachers who voluntarily join professional organizations will have internalized the values of the organization more than those teachers who must be pressured into joining. For systematic theory concerning the relationship between organizations' compliance structures and members' involvement see Amitai Etzioni's comprehensive treatment in A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations.\(^{47}\)

Peer Group as a Reference Group

Probably one of the most important membership reference groups of the teacher is that of his teacher peers. The peers in his sense may be the most significant group in determining the teacher's values and goals as a professional.

TABLE XXIII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF FRIENDS WHO ARE TEACHERS AND THE TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Friends Who Are Teachers</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 1.65  P = .47

There is no relationship between the number of friends who are teachers and the teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted. Perhaps a more significant inquiry would be an attempt to find out what are the dominate professional values within teacher cliques within the schools.

There appears to be nothing in the professional journals which has systematically attempted to show the relationship between kinds of teacher cliques and the teacher's professional orientation. These clique formations within the schools may be one of the most important membership reference groups of the teacher. Consider how, in the following quote, the situation could possibly effect the professional orientation of the new teacher or the student-teacher performing his practice teaching.

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Typically the new teacher enters the school system with a body of knowledge that includes information about the latest teaching-learning devices. The veteran teacher, being more or less removed from the current stream of educational innovations, may see in the new teacher a threat to her own status within the school. For the new teacher, on the other hand, knowledge of the latest technical apparatus may be the vehicle for successful and efficient integration into the school system. Older teachers therefore may be more likely to reject new teaching-learning devices than younger members of the school staff. In this case rejection of some innovation may act as another barrier between the new and experienced teacher.\(^{43}\)

The Church as a Reference Group

For many teachers the church constitutes an important membership reference group. Table XXIV will determine if there is any statistical relationship between church membership and professional orientation.

**TABLE XXIV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Church Member</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom= 1.27  P=.26

There is no relationship between church membership and the teacher's professional orientation.

The null hypothesis is accepted. Like the student-teacher, the teacher's professional orientation is not associated with his or her church membership. If such a conclusion were drawn, it would be subject to error 26 times out of 100.

Type II sub-hypotheses (Social Categories)

TABLE XXV

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGE AND THE PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF THE TEACHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 3 degrees of freedom = .17  P = .99

There is no relationship between age and professional orientation of the teacher.

The null hypothesis is accepted. Teachers, like student-teachers, do not differ in their professional orientation according to their age. Professional orientation of both the teacher and the student-teacher is not statistically associated with age.

TABLE XXVI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SEX AND THE PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF THE TEACHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>LOW ORIENTATION</th>
<th>HIGH ORIENTATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom = .04  P = .99

There is no relationship between sex and professional orientation of the teacher.

The null hypothesis is accepted. Again, like the student-teacher, the sex of the teacher has no relationship with professional orientation.
Anticipatory Socialization of the Student-Teacher

One of the purposes of this study was to attempt to empirically test the concept of anticipatory socialization. It should be remembered that anticipatory socialization refers to socialization in one status or group that is functional for occupancy for another status in the same or in a different group. From the point of view of this study, anticipatory socialization refers to the socialization process that the student-teacher is presently undergoing in order to eventually fulfill the status of teacher. If such a process is taking place within the school of education, the student-teacher's mean score on the professional orientation scale should be higher than any of the other group sample scores excluding the teacher. The teacher and student-teacher should have approximately the same mean scores. However, in other studies which have compared the student score with the actual practicing role score, the students scored higher. In past studies this has usually been accounted for by the "idealism" of the student in comparison to the "realism" of the experienced veteran.

It is necessary to keep in mind that the concept of anticipatory socialization was limited in this study to that socialization taking place within the institutionalized situation of the formal training program.

In order to empirically demonstrate the process of anticipatory

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49 Bredemeier and Stephenson, op. cit., p. 105.

socialization, critical ratios were computed between the four sample groups of student-teacher, teacher, student, and laborer.

TABLE XXVII
CRITICAL RATIOS FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN SCORES OF THE FOUR SAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Samples</th>
<th>STUDENT-TEACHERS</th>
<th>TEACHERS</th>
<th>LABORERS</th>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STUDENT-TEACHERS</td>
<td>( \bar{X} = 77.8 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHERS</td>
<td>( \bar{X} = 75.3 )</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LABORERS</td>
<td>( \bar{X} = 74.1 )</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STUDENTS</td>
<td>( \bar{X} = 73.0 )</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P = .05 Must have a Critical Ratio of 1.64

There were no critical ratios which were statistically significant. However, by looking at the mean scores of the four samples, the student-teacher's mean score was 4.8 points higher than that of the student who was not going to teach. Thus it does appear that a certain amount of anticipatory socialization has occurred among the student-teachers as a group. Referring back to the theoretical orientation in the study, it was stated that by using reference group theory it would be possible to predict those individuals who would be more highly oriented toward a non-membership group. In this study it was predicted that student-teachers would be more highly oriented toward the goals and values of
the education profession than students who were not going to teach. The data tend to support this hypothesis. However, when the mean scores of the student-teachers and students are tested by critical ratio, the power of this hypothesis to generalize is substantially reduced.

The test of critical ratio between student-teachers and students is .80. This means statistically that approximately 22 times out of 100 this difference can be accounted for by chance alone. This error is too large, according to the limits of this study, to permit any extensive generalization.

Further interpretation of Table XXVII indicates that the sample group which had the next highest mean professional orientation score was that of the teachers. Not only does this finding fit what one would expect but it seems to fall in line with what was stated earlier— that the student role usually scores higher than the practicing role.

Table XXVII also shows that teachers and laborers are very similar in their orientation toward the education profession's values and goals. Their similar value orientation may be due in part to the fact that over 90% of the laborers in the sample had children in school. Also all the laborers had been in a student role at some time in their history. A highly general explanation may be that there is a close relationship between community values and values in the education profession.

The sample group with the lowest professional orientation was that of students who are not going to teach. The critical ratio between students and teachers neared the significant level. The critical ratio was 1.04 which means approximately that in only 114 times out of
100 would this difference be accounted for by chance. This finding seems to indicate that just being in the educational system is not enough to account for a high orientation toward the values and goals of the education profession. If just being in the system were the important variable, laborers would have the lowest mean score and this was not the case in this study. It would seem from the data that other reference group values such as those within the student sub-cultures must be taken into consideration to adequately explain the origins of a professional orientation.

From the findings it can be said that student-teachers do not statistically manifest a higher degree of professional orientation than those students who are not going to teach. However, it must also be pointed out that this data tend to indicate that anticipatory socialization is taking place.

The fact that the student-teacher does not manifest an excess professional orientation is primarily the concern of the education profession. However, from a functional viewpoint, there can be two interpretations of the consequences of such student-teacher professional orientation. First, the fact that the student-teacher does not appear to be overly idealistic about the values surrounding the teacher role may be more functional for the profession than if he entered the job with unrealistic idealism. It might be that the "occupational reality shock" is relatively absent in the teaching profession. Consequently it may be easy to informally socialize the new teacher to the occupational realities of a specific school. A very idealistic teacher may upset the equilibrium of a working routine in a particular school and
consequently be dysfunctional from this point of view. On the other hand, lack of idealism may have a tendency to attract students into the profession who are not exceptionally devoted to the role of teacher. Research is needed to find out recruitment factors in the field of education. Until we know the various reasons why students choose teaching as a goal, it will be difficult to know why student-teachers have different kinds of professional orientation.

Summary

The study was an attempt to focus the implications of the findings within the framework of reference group theory. Although for the most part, all the conclusions accepted the null hypotheses, the writer still feels that reference group theory can provide an excellent theoretical framework for future research.

In order that future research utilizing reference group theory may perhaps be more fruitful, the final chapter will attempt to account for the fact that the deduced general hypothesis did not stand up under the empirical investigation. If reference group theory can be systematically recast, then perhaps the research proposed in this chapter may be more beneficial for both the sociologist and the professional educator.

\footnote{For a discussion of the nature and consequences of idealistic education see: Gustav Ichheiser, "Inner Personality, Image, and Social Role," The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 55, September, 1949, pp. 62-65.}
CHAPTER VI

A FURTHER LOOK INTO THE NATURE OF REFERENCE GROUP THEORY

The Theoretical Problem

The original reason for the research, as stated in Chapter II, was to cast more light on the fact that individuals often orient themselves to groups other than their membership reference groups. For purposes of investigation, an explicit distinction was made between four kinds of groups: membership reference group, non-membership reference group, membership group, and non-membership group. A membership reference group was defined as any group to which an individual belongs and has developed an identification. This group would be different from a membership group where it is possible to belong to a group but not have an identification with the values of the group. Examples would be an individual who is drafted into the Army against his wishes, or a student who is in college because of his parents' pressure.

A non-membership reference group was defined as any group with which an individual has developed an identification but is not a member because of unsatisfactorily fulfilling group requirements for entrance. Again this group must be differentiated from non-membership groups. There are literally thousands of non-membership groups with which an actor has no identification whatsoever.

In this study, membership reference groups included the school, the family of orientation, the family of procreation, peers, the church, and preprofessional teaching organizations. The teaching profession
constituted the non-membership reference group in this study.

The education profession, like any social system, must deal with the problems of pattern maintenance and tension management. As a result, the education profession itself sets up formal socialization procedures to insure that its future teachers have effectively learned the various values and procedures necessary to perform the role of teacher within the school. This socialization task is usually ascribed to the schools of education within the universities and colleges throughout the nation.

Through the utilization of reference group theory, the attention of the researcher is drawn to groups other than those specifically included in the institutionalized socialization within the schools of education. This by no means lessens the importance of the formal training of the student-teacher. Reference group theory merely focuses the attention on other non-institutionalized group involvements of the student-teacher. The student-teacher is thus conceptualized in the broader frame of reference of his or her total environmental group interaction.

The Major Hypothesis

The hypothesis, which was deduced from reference group theory, assumed that those membership reference groups to which the student-teacher belonged would, in addition to the formal training, have a significant impact upon his orientation toward the values and goals of the education profession. The major hypothesis which the study attempted to test stated:
The individual whose membership reference groups contain similar values and goals to those of the individual's non-membership reference group will exhibit a higher degree of positive orientation toward the values and goals of the non-membership reference group than if the individual's membership reference groups hold dissimilar values and goals from his non-membership reference group.

The same hypothesis, when attached to the student-teacher reads:

The student-teacher whose membership reference groups contain similar values and goals to those of the teaching professions' will manifest a higher degree of positive orientation toward the values and goals of the teaching profession than if his membership reference groups hold dissimilar values and goals from those of the teaching profession.

Graphically the hypothesis would appear as in Figures 1 and 2.

**FIGURE 1**

THE ASSUMED ACTOR'S ORIENTATION WHEN HIS MEMBERSHIP AND NON-MEMBERSHIP REFERENCE GROUPS HAVE SIMILAR VALUES AND GOALS

Actors' Orientation in Membership Reference Group is Established as: Actors Assumed Orientation Toward NMRG Will Be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR 1</th>
<th>ACTOR 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>X-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X-------</td>
<td>X-------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 2**

THE ASSUMED ACTORS ORIENTATION WHEN HIS MEMBERSHIP AND NON-MEMBERSHIP REFERENCE GROUPS HAVE DISSIMILAR VALUES AND GOALS (RELEVANTLY DISSIMILAR)

Actors Orientation in Membership Reference Group is Established as: Actors Assumed Orientation Toward NMRG Will Be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR 1</th>
<th>ACTOR 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>X-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X-------</td>
<td>X-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X-------</td>
<td>X-------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The empirical evidence from the study indicates that the values and goals of the education profession are not mutually exclusive from one membership reference group to another. All of the groups sampled had mean scores which were not statistically different. In other words, as professional orientation was operationalized in this study, laborers, teachers, college students who were not education majors, and student-teachers had approximately the same degree of orientation toward the education profession. The mean scores for the four sample groups appear in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3
MEAN SCORES FOR THE FOUR SAMPLE GROUPS

- COLLEGE STUDENTS (NON EDUCATION MAJORS) -- X 73.0
- LABORERS ---------------------------------------- X 74.1
- TEACHERS --------------------------------------- X 75.3
- STUDENT-TEACHERS ------------------------------- X 77.8

It appears from the data these four groups have some values in common. On the basis of these common values it is impossible to separate membership reference groups analytically according to the degree of orientation present within the group. All of the groups in this study had equal orientation to the operationally defined values and goals of the education profession. Since all groups identified with the values and goals which the scale was measuring, no individual predictions based on different orientation can be calculated.
Communal and Associational Norms in Reference Group Theory

Bierstedt defines norms which pervade an entire society as communal norms. Those norms which prevail only in a certain group he calls associational norms. Before one can use reference group analysis, it is important to recognize that some similarity of group characteristic must be perceived or imagined among the members of different membership reference groups. This similarity must be perceived or imagined in relationship to the orientation toward the non-membership reference group.

Further, it is necessary to determine what are the similar group characteristics or structures which permit the researcher to uncover empirical differences and at the same time permit comparison to occur. From the data in this study, it appears that the similar group characteristic may be the communal norms which tie the various membership reference groups together into a social system. From this, it seems that communal norms may be present in social systems of smaller size or sub-social systems. From the data in this study, it appears that if one measures responses to only those communal norms which transcend all membership

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54 Ibid., pp. 40-105.
reference groups, it is impossible to differentiate them systematically according to their various orientations. Due to this problem, one must also consider the associational norms which are shared by different statuses or groups but are not shared among all the membership reference groups that one wants to investigate. It would seemingly be impossible to determine the different group origins of specific actors' orientations unless researchers systematically account for orientations to both communal and associational norms which cut across all the groups under investigation. In other words, in order to differentiate between high and low degrees of orientation on the part of the various actors in various membership reference groups toward a given non-membership reference group, it is necessary to distinguish between norms that are common to all groups and norms that are distinctive of specific groups.

**A Methodological Dilemma in Reference Group Theory**

A major problem of the sociologist who works out of reference group theory can be briefly summarized. If one attempts to differentiate actors according to communal norms, it will appear as if there is near total agreement among all membership reference groups under investigation. However, it seems that it is logically impossible to utilize associational norms which are unique to specific membership reference groups. The researcher cannot expect to gather responses from members of various membership reference groups if most of the actors under investigation have no knowledge of other distinctive group norms. Consequently, unique associational norms within a specific group cannot be
Mutually Exclusive Associational Norms Within Social Systems Which Are Tied Together by Communal Norms

For purposes of locating an actor's identification and the membership reference groups which have caused such an orientation, the researcher must utilize both communal and associational norms. Within any membership reference group, actors orient themselves simultaneously to both a set of associational and also to certain communal norms which tie the specific groups together into a social system. Not until membership reference groups and non-membership reference groups are systematically differentiated according to their orientation toward both communal and associational norms will it be possible to determine what non-membership reference groups an actor is most apt to be oriented toward and with what kinds of orientation. Here it is assumed that actors within membership reference groups will differ in their orientation toward various communal and associational norms. If research bears out this assumption and establishes systematic relationships between certain types of associational normative systems, then we should be in a position to predict those actors who will be most likely to identify with a given non-membership reference group. It is now possible to tentatively chart for future research the possible orientations of actors toward non-membership reference groups. It is important to keep in mind that the actor's orientation is determined by membership within one or several reference groups all acting simultaneously to influence the actor's orientation.
Figures 4 and 5 will be four hypotheses attempting to deal with the systematic relationship between actors' orientations and reference group theory.

**FIGURE 4**

HYPOTHETICALLY POSSIBLE ORIENTATION OF MEMBERS IN ONE OR SEVERAL REFERENCE GROUPS WHICH OBTAIN COMMUNAL NORMS THAT ARE NOT MUTUALLY EXCLUSIVE BETWEEN THE MEMBERSHIP AND NON-MEMBERSHIP REFERENCE GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Membership Reference Group</th>
<th>The Resulting Non-Membership Reference Group Orientation of Actor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td><strong>Orientation of Actor</strong></td>
<td><strong>Orientation of Actor</strong></td>
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<td>HIGH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTOR 1</td>
<td>X---&gt;X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTOR 2</td>
<td>X---&gt;X</td>
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**FIGURE 5**

HYPOTHETICALLY POSSIBLE ORIENTATION OF MEMBERS IN ONE OR SEVERAL REFERENCE GROUPS WHICH OBTAIN ASSOCIATIONAL NORMS THAT ARE MUTUALLY EXCLUSIVE FROM THE MEMBERSHIP AND NON-MEMBERSHIP REFERENCE GROUP

<table>
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<th>Membership Reference Group</th>
<th>The Resulting Non-Membership Reference Group Orientation of Actor</th>
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Figures 4 and 5 actually graphically describe four hypotheses which can be empirically tested in future research. Although symbolically cumbersome, these four hypothetical propositions can be qualitatively stated. At this point in sociological analysis one realizes the importance of the need for some type of shorthand symbols. Unfortunately,
however, we have none at this time for reference group theory.

The Original Hypothesis Reconceptualized

The original hypothesis was not explicit enough in its guidelines for the researcher to follow. It should be sub-divided into the following four hypotheses:

1. When membership and non-membership reference groups are analyzed according to the communal norms which are not mutually exclusive between the groups, an actor who is highly oriented in his membership reference groups will also manifest a high orientation toward the non-membership reference group. (Figure 4, Actor 1.)

2. When membership and non-membership reference groups are analyzed according to the communal norms which are not mutually exclusive between the groups, an actor who is low oriented in his membership reference groups will also manifest a low orientation toward the non-membership reference group. (Figure 4, Actor 2.)

3. When membership and non-membership reference groups are analyzed according to associational norms which are mutually exclusive, an actor who is highly oriented in his membership reference group will manifest a low orientation toward the non-membership reference group. (Figure 5, Actor 1.)

4. When membership and non-membership reference groups are analyzed according to associational norms which are mutually exclusive, an actor who is low oriented toward his membership reference group will manifest either a low or high orientation toward the non-membership reference group. (Figure 5, Actor 2.)

The preceding four hypotheses provide only the logical possibilities which an actor's orientation can take between the membership groups and the non-membership reference group. The reasons why actors orient themselves to a non-membership reference group may be many. However, the reasons or causes must still be sought within the normative
structure of the actor's membership reference groups.

A Reconceptualized Hypothesis Applied to This Study

The desire on the part of the student to become a teacher was used in this study as the reason the student-teacher would be oriented to the norms of the teaching profession. The research was designed to determine empirically what membership reference groups of the student-teacher were instrumental in determining a high or low orientation to the non-membership reference group (from the point of view of the student-teacher) of the teaching profession.

No distinction was made between communal and associational norms in the operational definition of the sub-cultures of groups. The norms of the teaching profession were deductively derived and scaled. The scale was then given to four groups: student-teachers, teachers, students (non-education majors), and laborers. A critical ratio test revealed no differences in the orientation toward the education profession of the four groups.

Hypothetically, it can be said that the norms of the teaching profession that were used in the scale were communal norms which all reference groups held within their own value systems. Consequently the research only tested a part of the original hypothesis. By recasting the original hypothesis into the four earlier stated hypotheses, it is now possible to understand why there were no significant statistical differences between the various selected membership reference groups of the study. In this study it appears the following hypothesis has been tentatively substantiated:
When membership and non-membership reference groups are analyzed according to the communal norms which are not mutually exclusive between the groups, an actor who is highly oriented in his membership reference groups will also manifest a high orientation toward the non-membership reference group.

Because the operationalized definition of professional orientation is measured by communal norms which transcend all membership reference groups, no membership reference group in this context could exert anything but a positive influence on the student-teacher's professional orientation.

Hypothetically, there are associational norms which exist in the various membership reference groups which should permit research in the future to test the remaining three hypotheses.

The Application of Reference Group Theory to Predict Student-Teacher Probable Teaching Success.

The school as a social system is composed of various sub-groups. Theoretically the separate sub-groups (separate schools) are connected to the abstract larger social system "the school" by their adherence to various functionally derived communal and associational norms. However, the separate schools within the larger system have their own associational normative structures due to meeting different system-determined needs. For example, consider the different needs encountered by a middle class city school, a wealthy suburban school, and a slum school. Theoretically each separate school is a distinct social system which is comprised of associational norms resulting from unique needs. Not only do goals differ in part but the means for goal attainment differ. For example, discipline practices accepted in one school may be completely
rejected in another.

While the student-teacher is being formally socialized into the teacher role, he is predominantly being taught those goals and means which will permit him or her to function within any school. In this sense student-teachers are being socialized in communal norms of "The School" as an abstract social system. For the most part, it is assumed in schools of education, that the student-teachers will learn the specific associational norms in their "on the job socialization." Consider the immense problems involved if schools of education attempted to prepare their student-teachers for all different possible types of schools.

From the point of view of the sociologists, the "group" is the starting point of all investigation. By using the group premise, the prediction of the student-teacher's teaching success must originate within the group he will teach in and not within his personality. A student-teacher, and eventually teacher, is defined as good (functional) or bad (disfunctional) according to the normative structure of the social system in which he or she teaches. In fact it seems quite logical to assume that a teacher may be quite functional in one kind of school and yet be quite disfunctional in another.

It appears to be true that there are various communal norms which tie all schools together. However, these in themselves will not allow one to predict the success of a teacher in a particular school. In connection with these communal norms, associational norms must be systematically integrated into the analysis.

If it is granted that separate schools have separate social
systems based upon associational norms, then it becomes theoretically possible to predict the student-teacher's probable teaching success prior to his entering a particular school and teaching situation.

Research of this kind must however, not deductively arrive at the normative structure of the various schools. The researcher must utilize, as it appears from this study, inductively derived norms in the final scales.

Summary

In this final chapter some major methodological problems of reference group theory have been discussed. Whether these problems are surmountable or insurmountable remains for future research. However, we shall never know unless we try. For until reference group theory gains the attention of many sociologists with systematic inclinations, perhaps it will remain an empty theory leading research down blind alleys. What has been reconceptualized in this final chapter requires empirical testing before we will know if reference group theory will be fruitful for a greater understanding of the social world.


-85-


ORIGINAL 53 ITEMS OF THE PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION SCALE

1. A teacher should not engage in supplementary non-teaching work to increase his or her income.

2. If the National Education Association is conducting an investigation of another teacher, each teacher has an obligation to cooperate.

3. It is improper for a teacher to seek employment by circulation of mimeographed applications to schoolboards.

4. It is fine for a teacher to supplement his income by tending bar at night.

5. Teachers should not tutor their own pupils for a fee.

6. Tutoring arrangements between a teacher and a student do not require the approval of the school authority.

7. The teacher has the right to go directly to the school board with a view concerning the way the school in which he is teaching should be run.

8. Teachers have the right to augment teaching income by outside employment.

9. If a student has emotional problems, the teacher should tell the other students about his problems.

10. Teachers should withhold information about a student's personal background unless required by law to provide it.

11. Teachers should not urge the public to support a school bond issue.

12. Teachers may openly support a school board member for reelection.

13. Teachers must be careful in their participation in political campaigns.

14. In the classroom, the teacher should discuss controversial issues free from partisan opinion.

15. Interschool sports have an important place within the school system.

16. Teachers do not have to keep parents informed about the progress of their children in school.

17. It is improper for teachers on school time to distribute campaign literature supporting a school bond drive.

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18. The school should teach information concerning the communist ideology.

19. A teacher should not be expected to take part in community activities other than teaching.

20. A teacher can resign even if the board of education refuses to release him.

21. Superintendents should make the teaching profession so attractive that all young people will consider entering it.

22. Teachers should not solicit for encyclopedias or any other educational materials.

23. In most cases a teacher should circumvent the superintendent in resolving a conflict with a parent.

24. A teacher should be willing to accept minor modifications in his or her contract.

25. Teachers have the right to confer with other teachers concerning personal information about students.

26. Teachers should express their negative views concerning the school board in the local newspaper and radio.

27. Before a teacher initiates a contract with another school district, he should first obtain the consent of the district to which he is obligated.

28. A teacher can express his own point of view in the classroom, but in doing so must assume full responsibility.

29. Some transfers of teachers within the school district must be made without prior notice.

30. In most cases, the teacher may circumvent the superintendent to speak directly to the board of education.

31. The superintendent should not take a parent's complaint directly to the school board without first consulting the teacher involved.

32. The principal has the right to listen in on a teacher in the classroom with the school intercom system.

33. In letters of reference, an administrator must not withhold information about past difficulties of a teacher even if it does not effect his present ability to teach.

34. Teachers should not refuse to devote time to community affairs.
35. Teachers should accept minor contract modifications even if at times it imposes hardships upon his own family.

36. A teacher may properly resign if an administrator makes major changes in his contract.

37. Driver education is a waste of time in the school curriculum.

38. Teaching good citizenship is a responsibility of the school.

39. It is not necessary to teach respect in the school curriculum.

40. It is not necessary to teach creativity within the school.

41. It is important to teach a course in marital adjustment in the high school.

42. It is improper for teachers on school time to distribute campaign literature supporting a school board election.

43. Debate is an important high school activity.

44. Art is an important course in school.

45. The school is not responsible for teaching attitudes concerning racial equality.

46. The school should teach information concerning radical organizations.

47. Sex education should not be taught in the school.

48. Attitudes about proper drinking habits should be taught in school.

49. These new courses on social adjustment are worthless in the school curriculum.

50. The school psychologist is very necessary.

51. Information on the dangers of smoking should be taught in the school.

52. The school should teach proper physical hygiene.

53. The school counselor is important in the high school.
APPENDIX B
INTRODUCTION TO THE SCALE

Would you please tell what you think about the following statements. You will not need to identify yourself by writing your name. We are only interested in your opinion concerning various areas within the education profession.

DIRECTIONS

Read sentence number 1 below. See if you agree or disagree with it. Then circle the letters after it that tell how you feel. The letters mean:

SA - Strongly Agree
A - Agree
TA - Tend to Agree
TD - Tend to Disagree
D - Disagree
SD - Strongly Disagree

NOTE

If any of the statements are unclear to you, please answer them anyway but place a small X at the beginning of the statement.
APPENDIX C
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

INSTRUCTIONS

The following information is necessary for the analysis of the data obtained from the preceding questions. It will not be used in any other way. Please fill in all questions except those enclosed in the box at the end.

1. What is your age?  
   (1) 17-19
   (2) 20-21
   (3) 22-25
   (4) 26-35
   (5) 36-45
   (6) 46-55
   (7) Older

2. What is your sex?  
   (1) Male
   (2) Female

3. What is your marital status?  
   (1) Single
   (2) Married
   (3) Separated
   (4) Divorced
   (5) Widowed

4. What is your present overall grade point average?  
   (1) Under 2.00
   (2) 2.00-2.50
   (3) 2.51-3.00
   (4) Over 3.00
   (5) Not in School

5. Present Occupation (Job Title) 

6. Future Occupation:  
   (1) I plan on teaching in grade school or high school.
   (2) I might teach in the future in high school or grade school but right now I am undecided.
   (3) I plan on teaching in college or a university.
   (4) I definitely do not plan on teaching.
7. Class in college (0) Not in college
   (1) Freshman
   (2) Sophomore
   (3) Junior
   (4) Senior
   (5) Graduate

8. How many children do you have? (1) None
   (2) 1-3
   (3) 4-7
   (4) More

9. How many professional education classes have you taken? (1) None
   (2) 1-3
   (3) 4-7
   (4) More

10. Have you ever taught in a public school under a contract?
    (1) No
    (2) Yes

11. As a student in grade school and high school, how well did you get
    along with your teachers?
    (1) Very poorly with most of them
    (2) I got along with some well, but most of them I got along with poorly
    (3) I got along with most of them fairly well
    (4) I got along with most of them quite well

12. How many of your close friends are teachers or are going to be teachers?
    (1) None
    (2) 1-3
    (3) 4-7
    (4) More

13. Do you have any relatives who are or have been grade school or high
    school teachers? (1) Yes (If Yes, please list)
    (2) No

NOTE

Some of the following questions may not apply to everyone. If a
particular question does not apply to you please check DNA (Does not apply)
14. If yes to #13, how often did you associate with them?
(1) Daily
(2) Weekly
(3) Monthly
(4) Very rarely
(5) Never
(6) DNA

15. If you are going to teach, have you done your practice teaching?
(1) Yes
(2) No
(3) DNA

16. My husband or wife is
(1) Strongly in favor of my choice of occupation.
(2) In favor of ...
(3) Indifferent to ...
(4) Slightly opposed to ...
(5) Strongly opposed to ...
(6) DNA

17. My parents are
(1) Strongly in favor of my being a teacher
(2) In favor of ...
(3) Indifferent to ...
(4) Slightly opposed to ...
(5) Strongly opposed to ...
(6) DNA

18. Please list the preprofessional or professional teaching organizations to which you belong. (If you belong to none, skip to #21)

19. How often do you attend the meeting of your preprofessional or professional teaching organizations?
(1) Almost always
(2) Occasionally
(3) Infrequently
(4) Never

20. Do you hold any officer positions within your professional or preprofessional teaching organizations?
(1) Yes (Include your history in your response)
(2) No

21. What grade in school were you when you decided to teach?
(1) 1-6
(2) 7-12
(3) College
(4) DNA
22. Please check the grade you have taught most:  
(1) Not Teaching  
(2) 1-3  
(3) 4-6  
(4) 7-9  
(5) 10-12

23. How many years have you taught?  
(1) Not Ever  
(2) 1-5  
(3) 6-10  
(4) 11-15  
(5) 16--20  
(6) More

24. How many years of schooling have you had?  
(1) 1-12  
(2) Some College  
(3) Completed College  
(4) Graduate School  
(5) Less than 12

25. How much do you enjoy teaching?  
(1) Not teaching  
(2) I dislike teaching  
(3) Sometimes I like teaching  
(4) Most of the time I like teaching  
(5) I like teaching all the time

26. How proud are you about being a teacher?  
(1) Not teaching  
(2) Not very proud at all  
(3) Somewhat proud  
(4) Very proud

27. Why do you Teach: (Rank your three choices by writing 1, 2, & 3 beside your choice.)  
Supplemental income  
Economic necessity  
Because I like to teach  
The social status it brings  
Other-please specify  
Don't teach  
Keeps me busy

28. How beneficial do you feel preprofessional education courses are in creating a professional attitude about the education profession?  
(1) Not important at all  
(2) Some are important, but most are not important  
(3) Most of them are important but some are not  
(4) Most of them are important

29. How long have you lived in this community?  
(1) 1-5 years  
(2) 6-10 years  
(3) 11-15 years  
(4) More
30. What church do you belong to? (1) None________ (2) Please specify_________________

31. How often do you attend church? (1) Never_______ (3) Almost always________ (2) Occasionally________ (4) Always________

32. What do you do during your summer vacation? (1) No vacation_______ (2) Go to school_______ (3) Travel_______ (4) Stay at home and relax_______ (5) Work on other employment_______

NOTE

Thank you for your time and patience in answering the above questions.
ITEM ANALYSIS OF TEST SCALE

Item Analysis by the Internal Consistency Method. Pre-test of a Scale to Assess Orientation Toward Education Profession

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*Significant at .05 Level
**Significant at .02 Level
***Significant at .01 or Greater

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FINAL FORM OF THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION ORIENTATION SCALE

DIRECTIONS

Read sentence number 1 below. See if you agree or disagree with it. Then circle the letters after it that tell how you feel. The letters mean: SA - Strongly Agree, A - Agree, TA - Tend to Agree, TD - Tend to Disagree, D - Disagree, SD - Strongly Disagree.

Do all the rest of the sentences the same way.

1. Teachers should not tutor their own pupils for a fee. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
2. Teachers should not urge the public to support a school bond issue. 0 1 2 3 4 5 SA A TA TD D SD
3. Teachers may openly support a school board member for reelection. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
4. Teachers must be careful in their participation in political campaigns. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
5. In the classroom, the teacher should discuss controversial issues free from partisan opinion. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
6. Interschool sports have an important place within the school system. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
7. Teachers should express their negative views concerning the school board in the local newspaper and radio. 0 1 2 3 4 5 SA A TA TD D SD
8. A teacher can express his own point of view in the classroom, but in doing so must assume full responsibility. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
9. Driver education is a waste of time in the school curriculum. 0 1 2 3 4 5 SA A TA TD D SD
10. Teaching good citizenship is a responsibility of the school. 5 4 3 2 1 0 SA A TA TD D SD
11. It is not necessary to teach respect in the school curriculum. 0 1 2 3 4 5 SA A TA TD D SD

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12. It is not necessary to teach creativity within the school.  

0 1 2 3 4 5  
SA A TA TD D SD

13. It is important to teach a course in marital adjustment in the high school.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD

14. Debate is an important high school activity.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD

15. The school is not responsible for teaching attitudes concerning racial equality.  

0 1 2 3 4 5  
SA A TA TD D SD

16. Attitudes about proper drinking habits should be taught in the school.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD

17. These new courses on social adjustment are worthless in the school curriculum.  

0 1 2 3 4 5  
SA A TA TD D SD

18. The school psychologist is very necessary.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD

19. The school should teach proper physical hygiene.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD

20. The school counselor is important in the high school.  

5 4 3 2 1 0  
SA A TA TD D SD