

THE DECISION BETWEEN
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHING CAREERS

by

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Abstract

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The purpose of the study was to determine the consideration given to details of the teaching occupation as practiced at the elementary and secondary levels, by those making a career decision.

Data were collected by means of a questionnaire completed by students and potential students who came to the Education Advising Centre at the University of Victoria during May and June, 1975. Factors used for weighting were selected on the basis of previous studies, personal observation and discussions with faculty members and practicing teachers at both levels. Respondents were asked to weight each factor by check-mark on a five-point scale. Analyses of data were undertaken to determine differences in the importance ascribed by respondents to the selected factors on the basis of level of teaching career chosen, whether the choice was made or still being made, or differences arising from certain experiences or relationships. Also studied was the significance of factors not considered important.

While few of the factors were considered differently by various groups to a significant degree, some differences were noted in Environment factors related to workload, and Career factors. Implications for further study of these factors were discussed.

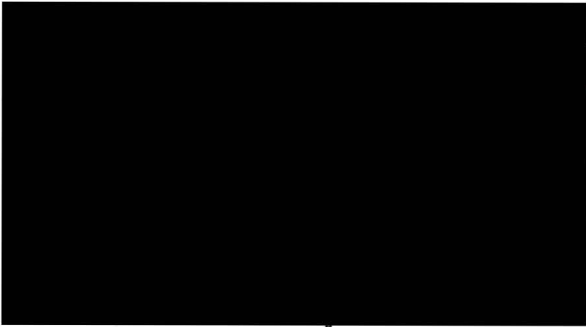


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To Ruby

Chapter 1

Decision Between Elementary and Secondary Teaching

While interviewing students and potential students as an academic advisor in the Advising Centre of the Faculty of Education of the University of Victoria, I noticed that one choice involved in entry to the teaching profession had often been overlooked. It was a recurring experience to encounter a look of dismay when it became clear that the choice to teach elementary or secondary school should be made early in the required training. Of course some had already made the choice, but it seemed that many had not suspected that the decision to become a teacher only partly resolved their career problems.

In addition to those who had not thought of the question were others who spoke as if their choice had been made casually or without investigation and consideration of the alternatives. It was not unusual to hear that the individual had just "known" he or she was to be an elementary or a secondary teacher. The choice had apparently been made without conscious attention, and the differences between the two careers were unknown or unsuspected.

Having had some experience in teaching in both school levels, I became concerned with the lack of careful choice-making that appeared to exist regarding this question. It seemed a likely possibility that someone who might become a fine secondary school teacher could fail in an elementary teaching role, or vice versa. It seemed likely, too, that a poor decision in this matter would at least contribute to a lack of career satisfaction, which in turn would tend to diminish the excellence

of the teaching and lessen the quality of the education experience of the students involved. In fact, this was shown to be the case by Ellenburg (1973) who, in writing on "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale", remarked that high morale and productivity were apparently related. In a study of 12 secondary schools in Dearborn, Michigan, "student achievement increased under teachers with high morale and decreased under teachers of low morale" (p. 5).

A student teacher may change from one career goal to the other during the process of attaining teacher qualification, but the change is usually made at some cost. At the University of Victoria there are several degree programmes by which a student can qualify, with little or no administrative hindrance in changing from one to another. However, the preparation for elementary teaching differs from that for secondary teaching, and degree requirements are quite discrete. A programme change usually results in some work already completed being unsuitable for credit in the new degree programme.

In discussing teacher candidate selection, Haberman (1974) wrote, "Ideally, procedures permit students varied direct experiences with children and youth upon which they can make suitable self-determination" (p. 234). Unfortunately, there is seldom opportunity for a student to experience the alternative career in any way, making it unlikely that he would change because he expected that he would like the other better, but rather because he might dislike it less than his earlier choice of school level.

For these reasons therefore, that this decision is often-overlooked or very casually made, the fact that it is usually costly to reverse, its implications for success and satisfaction for the teacher, and its

possible effect on quality of teaching, the purpose of this study of the decision-process utilized by prospective teachers in selecting between elementary and secondary school level is to investigate the extent to which the types of information about the alternatives are considered, and what factors other than comparison of the careers also may influence the decision.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The present study was guided by previous studies of vocational and career choices, surveys of the similarities and differences between elementary-school and secondary-school teaching careers, and on references about the influence of other factors on the decision of teaching level.

Decisions

In his book Decision Therapy, Greenwald (1973) defined decision as "a choice between alternatives of behaviour; a choice of the way one organizes information, or the way one chooses to look at the world" (p. 133). Gelatt, Varenhorst, Carey and Miller (1973a) wrote that "decision-making can be defined as a process in which a person selects from two or more possible choices" (p. 203), and that the decision is limited by the person's capabilities, his willingness, his environment and his lack of knowledge of his personal values. They differentiated between decision-making and problem-solving on the basis that in problem-solving there is a right or wrong answer, but not in decision-making.

Evaluation of Decisions

Some writers have described a good decision as one that works out well for the person making it. To this idea, Tyler (1969) added that the decision should also allow the person to mobilize resources and organize his efforts, and that he should be willing to accept the consequences of the decision. On the other hand, Gelatt et al. (1973b)

wrote that "the goodness of the decision is based on how it is made, not on how it turns out" (p. 9). Although a person cannot control the outcome, he can control whether a decision is poor or good, and by making more good decisions the likelihood of having good outcomes is increased. Although this may be a comforting thought, all decisions cannot be ranked as equal in their implications, and it is essential that careful decision-making be undertaken for those that are important and have far-reaching effects. The decision to become a teacher is obviously an important one, but it has seemed that the choice of teaching level has not been considered to be as important as its implications suggest.

Tyler (1969) wrote "if several alternative courses of action can be made visible to a person he will be in a better position to choose wisely than he would be without this awareness" (p. 78). However, we seldom know all alternatives, nor have time to find or consider them all, and of course those that remain unidentified are useless, as are those that are rejected without serious evaluation. Each decision made influences every future decision (Gelatt et al., 1973a, p. 6).

Haystead (1971) observed that although there is interplay between a person's awareness of objective facts regarding alternatives, all alternatives are seldom evaluated before a decision is made. Alternatives are usually examined sequentially, and the first apparently satisfactory one chosen. The goal of maximizing choice becomes "the goal of satisficing" or finding one that is good enough (p. 80).

Importance of Decision-making

Tyler (1969) looked upon choice-making as an important factor in the process of human development. She noted that the development of an

individual depends upon the sequence of selections from available possibilities. She wrote:

The man of 21 must build his plans for the future on what his past experience has accomplished. But because of the inconceivable complexity of the human organism, at any stage many possibilities for subsequent development remain open. They may not be immediately apparent to the person or to those who know him, and the possibilities may be much more numerous for one person than for another, but they can always be found. (p. 26)

There has been theoretical disagreement concerning the point at which a person becomes aware of the implication his present choice has on his future job choice (Haystead, 1971, p. 80). For example, in choosing courses to take in school he may with finality be closing doors on the possibility of entering certain professions or occupations. Without awareness he may be ignoring other factors such as information regarding the job itself, and be impairing his future.

Significant numbers of adolescents and young adults appear to be undecided about their choice of vocation; the assumption is that they are still in the process of deciding. Breton (1972) raised the question of whether this vocational indecision was incomplete searching and testing, or whether it reflected a failure to find adequate solutions. Then too, as Ashby, Wall and Osipow (1966) noted, it is the behavioural style of some people to have a pattern of indecision. The part played in the decision process by realistic information seems to have been neglected, though its availability might be expected to assist or inhibit the making of a decision, and will be one of the topics investigated in the present study.

Decisions about vocational choices are faced at least once by nearly everyone in our culture. Failure to find or express an occupational preference is not an infrequent phenomenon. As Super (1957) wrote,

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Decisions about vocational choices are faced at least once by nearly everyone in our culture. Failure to find or express an occupational preference is not an infrequent phenomenon. As Super (1957) wrote,

"choosing an occupation is a means of implementing a self-concept, and to do this a person must reconcile his picture of himself as he is and as he would like to be" (p. 196). O'Hara and Tiedeman (1959) defined the process of vocational choice as developing a vocational identity. They, too, agreed that concepts of identity and self are involved in motivations for choice. If there is difficulty in attitude to self and to self in relation to the future, there will probably be difficulty in vocational decision-making. Breton (1972) wrote that if work "is not a potential area for self-expression or for establishing self-esteem, it probably will be ignored, at least for as long as possible" (p. 27).

What is perhaps even more disturbing is the fact that,

There is a tendency among certain students not only to be without a career goal, but also to abandon the search for one. Vocational decision-making appears to have been given very little conscious attention, and for some adolescents indecision is a manifestation of complete withdrawal from the challenge of reaching such a decision. (Breton, 1972, p. 52)

In his study of Canadian youth, Breton (1972) reported that 28.8% expressed no preference for any type of occupation, 36.3% did not know what they expected to have as a career, and 32.2% could not even say what they felt qualified to undertake.

Decision-making, particularly when it is concerned with occupational choice, is an extremely important task, as well as being a difficult one. The examination of one specific occupational choice, the choice between elementary and secondary teaching, is intended to contribute to an understanding of one part of that sort of decision and to lead to the development of some way of assisting those who must make it.

Vocational Choice

Difficulty in choosing an occupation is not something new; Cicero

called it the most difficult problem in the world. Vocational choice has been the topic of a considerable quantity of literature and numerous theories over the past half-century. As this material is so readily available and extensive, it is proposed here only to outline the various theories as a means of establishing the basis for this study of the choice between two similar yet differing jobs. The following outline is based on the description and analysis suggested by Crites (1969).

Table 1
Theories of Vocational Choice

Non-psychological	
(a) Accidental	Choosing by chance
(b) Economic	Supply and demand; training costs
(c) Cultural, Sociological	Value of culture, community, school, family
Psychological	
(a) Trait-factor	Testing and matching (Parsons)
(b) Psychodynamic	Psychoanalytic (Brill, Bordin)
	Need themes (Roe, based on Maslow)
	Self theories (Super, Tiedeman and O'Hara)
General	
(a) Developmental	Choice as a process (Ginzberg)
	Differential and phenomenological (Super)
	Differentiation and integration (Tiedeman)
(b) Decision Theories	Strategy essential to decision (Gelatt)
	Inclusion of dissonance (Hilton)

The terms career, vocation, occupation and job have been used almost interchangeably by many writers. While there are undoubtedly many other specific definitions, the most useful for the purpose of this study for the term "occupation" is that of Hoppock (1967), "a name for a group of jobs having something in common" (p. 113). He noted that specific jobs within one occupation differ and, "because of these differences a person may be satisfied in one job and dissatisfied in another job in the same occupation, if one job meets more of his needs than the other" (p. 113). The difference between the two teaching jobs, elementary and secondary, with this implication formed the core of the present study.

Crites (1969) differentiated between vocational preference, aspiration, and choice. He defined vocational preference as the higher of two or more, ranked on a continuum of desirability, aspiration as ranked by wants and wishes, but choice as ranked on the basis of actually entering the occupation. Studies have shown that these rankings are not the same (p. 130). He reported that the only study on the subject of conscious or unconscious choice having empirical data was that of M. V. Kline and J. M. Schneck (1950) who used hypnosis on four subjects to determine this relationship, finding that three-quarters differed in actual and ideal choices. "When an individual makes a vocational choice, he considers what his probable occupation will be, not what his possible (preference) or fantasy (aspiration) occupation might be" (Crites, 1969, p. 133). The present study sought responses regarding the use of information in making a choice which had been or was being implemented by entry into that specific training process.

Super (1957) wrote that the term vocational choice

conveys a misleading notion of neatness and precision in time, of singleness and uniqueness in the life of the individual. . . Choice is, in fact, a process rather than an event. . . The term should denote a whole series of choices, generally resulting in the elimination of some alternatives and the retention of others, until in due course the narrowing down process results in what might perhaps be called an occupational choice. (p. 184)

He expressed a preference for use of the term vocational development. Super's view was supported by Hayes and Hopson (1971), who wrote that "occupational choice is a development process. It is not a snapshot event which takes place at a single point in time" (p. 54). Cosgrove and Dick (1970) also noted that decisions develop gradually and are the product of a series of choices.

On the other hand, Karl A. Menninger (1942) was reported by Hoppock (1967) as having written as follows:

Another index in our lack of scientific thinking in regard to the function of labor is our colossal ignorance and neglect of the problem of vocational choice. Here is one of the momentous decisions that cast the lives of human beings in fixed though diverse channels. Perhaps next to the choice of a marital partner, it is the most important and far-reaching decision made by the individual. (p. 101)

Zytowski (1968) compared the developmental theories of vocational choice and the nondevelopmental point-in-time choice theories which had preceded them. In the latter, the antecedents to the point-in-time choice were assumed, but not considered as integrated into the process. This perception dated back to the beginning of vocational counselling theory which developed as a result of a small study by Parsons shortly after the turn of the century (p. 119).

Parsons theorized that vocational choice was an intellectual process which relied on the three factors: understanding of self, knowledge of occupations, and the linking of these two bodies of information. Barry and Wolf (1962) pointed out that although Parsons died before his theory

could even be tried out, nevertheless it became the basis for the training of counselors and the standard procedure used in vocational counselling until the 1950's (p. 3). Parsons' "troika"-process (self-understanding, occupational knowledge and rational integration of these bodies of knowledge) led to the development of a considerable variety of interest, ability and aptitude tests, various systems of studying and cataloguing jobs and occupations, and the assumption that a successful choice could be reached intellectually. For example, as Tiedeman (1965) wrote, "adequate exercise of choice requires full use of thought, a conscious mechanism" (cited by Hoppock, 1967, p. 95).

However, Barry and Wolf (1962) classed as myths most of the concepts which support the traditional factor-trait vocational counselling process. They questioned such ideas as the validity of traditional theory, the absolute quality of measurement, the applicability of occupational classification systems, etc. In their opinion the entire traditional vocational guidance process rests on invalid assumptions, and the practices defeat rather than implement the aim of helping the student. They objected to the assumption that there is an accurate notion of what really is being measured in tests, and generalizations made from interest tests. Hewer (1963) claimed it was really not valid to construct a theory of vocational choice because of the lack of sufficient information on the effect of cultural and economic factors such as cycles in the economy. In her opinion the process of vocational choice could not be analyzed properly until empirical data was available from the viewpoints of sociology, psychology and economics.

Decision Limitations

In dealing with the question of determinism versus freedom,

Tyler (1969) directed attention to Freedom of Choice Affirmed by Lamont (1967), who wrote:

It is the ever-plural potentialities in the world and human life that give us the opportunity to make choices that count among alternatives that are real. However, possibilities, like human choices, are limited in scope. . . The respective natures of every event, object and creature set deterministic bounds to their potentialities. (Tyler, 1969, p. 28)

Martinson (1959) considered that the following factors limited one's choice: pressures of parents and friends, lack of ability, lack of money, conflicting responsibilities, lack of information and lack of experience, as well as the more familiar personality and health limitations. Greenwald (1973) too, remarked that we do not have complete and total choice, being limited by our biology, etc., and in describing his counselling methods he wrote "my real goal is awareness, an awareness in terms of the choice he has made, the content in which he has made the choice, and the payoffs" (pp. 22-23). Hoppock (1967) noted the effect of economic and sociological factors in limiting the range of occupations to which one has access (p. 103).

As Tyler (1969) wrote,

A major factor in wise choices is to know what is objectively possible and what impossible, what is fairly certain and what is faintly probable. For human freedom always operates within definite limits established by past and present circumstances. (p. 110)

However, the need for a good choice in vocational decision-making is augmented because "many potentialities must be closed out in order that a few may be actualized. . .no one uses his full potential, and to strive for such an objective is to pursue an illusion" (Tyler, 1969, p. 32).

Models for Decision-making

Kroll, Dinklage, Lee, Morley and Wilson (1970) described decision-

making as a "learned process that can be modified or improved through education" and complained that "little work has been done in teaching decision-making per se to adolescents and young adults" (p. 4).

An examination of the literature concerning stages in decision-making generally, and vocational choice in particular, evinces considerable similarity in fact and in process. A composite of the process can be developed from the procedures outlined by writers such as Cosgrove and Dick, (1970), Gelatt et al., (1973a), Levenstein, (1965), Safron et al., (1968). This would set out the steps as follows:

1. Appraisal of challenge or question.
2. Classification of the problem.
3. Assessment of personal values, abilities, interests.
4. Obtaining appropriate information, evaluating it for correctness, completeness and bias.
5. Collection of possible alternatives, including novel answers.
6. Prediction of probable outcomes of various alternatives.
7. Selection of best alternative.
8. Commitment to the decision.

This process is at variance with the older-style factor-trait method, which is still being practiced by many vocational counsellors. Further, those who seek vocational counselling are prepared to have interests, abilities, and aptitudes measured and evaluated by means of standardized tests, jobs and occupations studied and analyzed, followed by some rather magical, insightful, intellectual process which produces a match and a resulting choice of occupation. Making a choice having such far-reaching implications by this sort of one-shot method seems unnecessarily hazardous. Better that such a decision should evolve and

develop over time. Also, such decisions cannot be made successfully without reference to goals and values of the individual (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma, 1951). Careful study of alternatives and the implications of each alternative are also required.

Hayes and Hopson (1971) noted that an individual can find his work meaningful in a variety of ways. Hoppock (1967) observed that an individual is usually only vaguely aware of the emotional needs driving him toward a particular occupation. For example, some brilliant students with little interest in teaching choose this as a career because they fear to leave the classroom environment which provided success. Roe (1958) was quoted as seeing "the job as a source of satisfaction of many needs . . . not only what he does but the total setting within which he does it" (cited in Hoppock, 1967, p. 91). It is, of course, the implication of the work setting of elementary and secondary teachers which is to be explored and compared here.

Tyler (1969) noted that "even when objective probabilities do exist . . . they often do not correspond at all closely to the counselee's subjective probabilities, and it is the latter that determine his decisions" (p. 144). She saw the operation of sets and habits employed in short-range decisions such as moment-to-moment decisions on how to respond. Important long-range decisions regarding such topics as careers, education, and marriage depended more upon values, attitudes, and self-concepts, and sometimes value, or utility, colours the estimated probability. An approach to the problem of examining and clarifying motives and values and arranging them in a priority was suggested, in order to treat them realistically.

Gelatt et al. (1973a) wrote that values determine what is satisfying,

help set objectives, dictate actions to be taken to achieve objectives, influence what information is sought, its evaluation and weighting. Values are "determined on the basis of what a person prizes, cherishes or esteems. . . (are) expressed more consistently in a person's behaviour than are particular interests, beliefs, or attitudes. What a person values often determines what he does". And again, "prizing, cherishing, and esteeming lie in the affective domain, as indications of feelings and emotions" (p. 4). They also remarked that there are no right or wrong values.

In her dissertation, Holstrom (1972) reported that the individual preference ratings given occupations in the field of psychology by 30 senior students of the University of Washington were related significantly to occupational preferences and utilities for occupational outcomes, demonstrating the influence of values on occupational choice.

Brenton (1970) studied 200 elementary and secondary teachers in New York, finding that even the promise of anonymity failed to produce other than socially-acceptable reasons (values) for making their career choices.

Wilson (1973) found in his study based on Festinger's Theory of Social Comparison, that it was possible to distinguish empirically between ability evaluation and self-evaluation as separate aspects of the social comparison process. In making a career ability evaluation, which involves how one stands relative in performance of the ability, a person could become lost in self-evaluation, which involves how one ought to perform by comparing with others similar to oneself on attributes related to the ability.

Cunningham (1969) wrote that

Man can provision a desired end when faced with a problem situation; and he can also, through intelligence select methods which are most likely to produce desired ends. (p. 19)

which is in agreement with Greenwald's (1973) opinion that "all systems of decision-making deal in terms of what the payoffs are" (p. 18).

Overall satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied. The stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfillment. (Schoffer, 1953, p. 19)

In a study entitled "Motives in selecting elementary and secondary school teaching," Lang (1960) interpreted the importance of personality as a factor in vocational choice as being to a large extent an expression of basic psychological needs. He reported that studies had shown personality characteristics "which differentiate between as well as within professional groups" (p. 101). His study was designed to determine the extent that these differences are involved in the motives for choosing teaching as a career. He hypothesized that elementary teachers would emphasize motives of the "mothering" aspect, while secondary teachers would emphasize the academic and intellectual aspects.

Lang's study was made of a group of 101 elementary and 87 secondary women teachers, with teaching experience ranging from one month to ten years. The instruments he used were a scale which he had developed for measuring motives for teaching, and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. His results were as he had anticipated: to a significant degree, elementary teachers emphasized the reasons of liking to work with children and giving and receiving their love, while secondary teachers emphasized reasons of liking opportunity to learn and enjoying the intellectual interaction with fellow teachers. Also, his findings supported the assertions which he had found in previous studies that

teachers tend to choose socially-acceptable reasons for teaching.

The Lang study helped to focus my interest in decision-making on the choice situation faced by students who were about to begin years of teacher preparation. Their decision seems to be made without much opportunity to examine its implications from the practitioner's viewpoint, including such particulars as tasks, satisfactions and frustrations encountered in each of the teaching roles.

Information

According to Kroll et al. (1970), "Career decision-making involves two primary sets of data, the self and the world of work. . . a satisfactory approximation of each must be attained before the career construct can assume meaning" (p. 19). Yet the choice of first career usually must be made while the student is involved in an educational process, remote from the world of work and its realities (Caplow, 1954), and with little experience in testing himself in the working world (Warnath, 1971).

Nuckols and Banducci (1974) noted as factors in the problem of occupational choice the rate of technological change and the lack of opportunity for

young people to obtain informal exposure to a variety of occupations . . . If students are to make well-informed and carefully considered educational and vocational decisions, they must be assisted in critically examining the social and psychological aspects of work as they relate to personal assets. (p. 191)

The difficulty of determining what is personally important, together with the feeling of being isolated from most occupations, leads the adolescent to rely on the views of others. If he discovers that those whom he considers significant do not share his concept of himself, he may have even greater difficulty in the formulation of a career goal and

tends to go along with adult advice in choosing schools or jobs (Breton, 1972, and Warnath, 1971).

In the absence of genuinely meaningful data, the young person who has little confidence in himself or his own decision-making capabilities will seize on those abstract numbers, shaded bars and painted profiles as revealed truth about himself. They become him. He will read occupational literature, although most of it will bore him to tears, as if that job will remain that job six years from the date he is reading the information. Having few internal resources for making decisions, and being pressured by friends, relatives, and society to have a goal, the high school senior or college freshman seizes these few pieces of data he can see as a reflection of himself and a tangible future, and he chooses with some encouraging or discouraging interpretation of the data by his vocational counselor. (Warnath, 1971, p. 85)

Many work roles are unknown in detail except to those who perform them (Williams, 1974), and few require only one certain procedure. It is therefore reasonable to assume that there are several suitable jobs for an individual. In addition to self-knowledge, information about careers is also required to make an adequate decision. Hayes and Hopson (1971) defined such occupational information as

Information which facilitates the development of realistic expectations about an occupational role (i.e., the system of work and non-work roles normally associated with an occupation) in terms which will enable the individual to test out its congruency with his self-concept. (p. 37)

Obviously, it is far from easy to secure up-to-date accurate information about many occupations. Yet such information is essential for the discovery of "the occupation which may meet our needs or help us to anticipate how well-satisfied we may hope to be in one occupation as compared with another" (Hoppock, 1967, p. 111). Occupational information usually includes items such as training and qualifications required, work task description, and prospects of advancement, but ignores the psycho-social aspects of the occupation. The problem of large gaps in available information about occupations is compounded by

the partial assimilation and distortion in what information is available (Jackson, 1973, and Hayes & Hopson, 1971). The danger is that the individual may make up his mind wholly on the basis of the information easily perceived (Williams, 1974). As Greenleaf (1955) wrote, "choosing without knowing is merely taking a chance" (p. 78). On the other hand, to quote Williams (1974),

"Objective" rationality may be a mirage in occupational choice because completeness of information is impossible and impractical and because one person cannot establish for another what is the "correct" way for him to behave. (p. 37)

Reporting on his study of Canadian youth, Breton (1967) noted that one-half of the students in his study did not feel well enough informed about various jobs to choose, although 71.8% felt they knew their own interests and abilities well enough (p. 42).

Nuckols and Banducci (1974) reported that students in their study "who had formulated future plans had no more knowledge of the 12 occupations considered. . . than students who had not formulated future plans" (p. 195). Despite this lack of required knowledge, students are expected to make reasonable decisions. John Hayes' study, which Jackson (1973) described, indicated that senior students designated what information they felt they lacked but they proceeded to make their choices of occupations while still lacking this information even when it was available to them.

Quality Required

On the subject of information, many writers have referred to the requirement that, to be of value, it must be of good quality. For example, Cunningham (1967) noted that:

In casting about for possible ways to find an answer one makes guesses and projects provisional explanations. . . One cannot rely

upon just any body of facts. There are irrelevant and relevant facts, and the problem-solver selects those relevant facts which seem most likely to yield satisfactory answers. (p. 53)

Loughary (1961) wrote: "Each new situation is approached with some degree of ignorance. Consequently, each new decision is based to some extent on inadequate information (experience), or uncertainty" (p. 13).

Hoppock, (1967), Jackson, (1973), and Tyler, (1969), referred to the danger of information being distorted, by a teacher, by the publisher of information brochures and booklets, or by the student himself who may accept only the facts which support the course of action he wants to follow. As Jackson (1973) wrote,

Pupils are often unaware of all the important features in information to which they are responsive when they are attracted or repelled by the idea of an occupation . . . Pupils are genuinely ignorant of many features of work that will be important to them once they are launched on working life. (p. 30)

Cronbach and Gleser (1957) suggested that in evaluating the decision-making process one should not only question whether the procedure arrives at the best possible decision with the body of information being used, but also whether gathering other or additional information would permit better decisions.

To sum up, then, occupational information should be accurate, free from bias, as complete as is possible, and reliable and be available. The assumption that students have all needed information about the profession of teaching because they are recipients of teaching, might be equated to an assumption that a passenger has all the information needed to decide whether to become a bus driver, a railway engineer, an airline pilot. As my interest developed in the topic of the present study, I began a search for information that would discriminate between elementary and secondary teacher roles.

Factors in the Choice of Teaching Role

Considerable support exists for the notion that decisions play an important part in the development of the individual, that vocational choice is one of the significant and difficult decisions, and that good quality information, including self-understanding, is extremely important.

In reporting the results of a survey carried out among English and Welsh University students in 1963, Morton-Williams, Finch and Poll (1966) reported that 36% of all students surveyed wanted information about the nature of the work. For example, they wanted:

More specific information about the actual duties one is expected to do when teaching, more practical information about the situations one could expect to be in, about the differences between the different types of schools, . . . more about the different levels of teaching in the different types of schools, an analysis of the different qualities required in the different types of schools, or about the conditions of work (e.g., the size of classes; the type of building), working conditions in general. (p. 115)

Other topics such as salaries, promotion prospects, job opportunities and training were also remarked upon by these students as unclear.

Hoyt (1955) surveyed 970 pre-service teachers in 19 widely-scattered Schools of Education, selecting as subjects only those who had chosen the division in which they wanted to teach. Eighty percent of her sample was in third and fourth year of their training. The sample was surveyed by means of a specially-developed questionnaire, personal interviews and a free response sheet. Her findings can be summarized as follows:

1. Both elementary and secondary division subjects chose "desire to teach a particular age child" and "ideals, democracy, guidance and social contributions" as greatest importance in both divisions.

2. Social prestige and social contacts were minor factors in choice of either division.
3. The opportunity for subject-matter specialization at secondary level was of only moderate importance to both divisions.
4. Those in the elementary division reported less influence from elementary teachers than secondary division subjects reported from secondary teachers. More than 50% said they were not influenced by anyone in their choice of division.
5. Both divisions reported a lack of real information about salaries and employment opportunities.
6. A fairly sizable proportion (50% of the elementary and 20% of the secondary group) reported that they had visited public schools during the first two years of college.

Hoyt concluded from her study that the major reasons for choice between elementary and secondary teaching careers were idealistic. Her sample is impressive, both as to size and in its coverage of so many scattered Schools of Education. The study did not refer to school visits made before entry to professional training, and dealt in very general terms about actual details of the roles.

Hayes (1971) conducted a study on occupational perceptions, and reported that his subjects did not become aware of the psycho-social aspects of the job until they had participated in it. The choice of job was made without consideration of many satisfying and irritating aspects which later seemed important. Although Hayes' study was not of teachers, the same problem may contribute to the large turnover and dropout in the teaching force, described by Stinnett (1970).

The present study focuses on detailed information factors, both

tangible and subjective, that combine to create the role and environment of the elementary and the secondary teacher. My concern is that a blind selection of level of teaching may be made, resulting in such a mismatch between role and the needs, personality, abilities and interests of the teacher as to lead to dissatisfaction and lack of success. If the choice leads to a "wrong" job or environment, the teacher may pay the penalty of failure, his students the penalty of a poor learning experience, the school where he trained the penalty of having expended its resources unsuccessfully. The quantity and quality of available information and its use in the choice of teaching level are the basic questions to be investigated.

Questions

The purpose of this study is to seek answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent were factors about teaching at the elementary or secondary level considered in making the choice of occupation?
2. Did those who selected one level consider some factors to have greater importance than those who selected the other level of teaching?
3. Did those who were undecided about level consider some factors to have greater importance than those who had decided?
4. What factors were reported "not considered" by a significant number of respondents?
5. Was the number of factors reported as important by those selecting elementary, secondary, or who were undecided related to:

- (a) having chosen a teaching career before Grade 1, in elementary, secondary or university, or at some other time.
- (b) having made the choice of level at the same time as in (a).
- (c) discussion of teaching level with someone.
- (d) visits to at least one type of school.
- (e) having a teacher-relative in the family.
- (f) having played school as a child.
- (g) having enjoyed school as a child.

Factors were identified which are considered important, and perhaps unknown to those making the choice of teaching level. Also, the influence of other experiences upon the importance ascribed to the occupation information was examined. To paraphrase a Newfoundland saying, when we know where it's to, we can come where it's at; when the information situation concerning teaching levels is identified, planning changes for improvement can begin.

Chapter 3

Method

Design

A survey-type questionnaire was developed from discussions with Faculty of Education members including the Dean, the Coordinator and the Advising Officer of the Education Advising Centre, with the Director of the Counselling Centre of the University of Victoria, as well as with teachers at both school levels.

It was difficult to choose a population for the study. Ideally one would want to base such a study on all who were in the process of making the decision or who had just done so. Obviously, location of this group is nearly impossible as these people could be anywhere, e.g., in high schools, colleges, or at university, at the time they were making this decision. The best alternative seemed to be to secure responses from those who came to the Education Advising Centre, as this would include respondents who were undecided, were deciding then, or had only recently decided which level to prepare to teach. The month of May was selected as an appropriate period in which to secure the responses, because at that time of year career choices seemed to be more recently made, or to be more definitely under consideration, by both secondary and college or university students. Such a group does not constitute a random sample of the teaching and pre-teaching population, but instead is representative of those who, by coming to the Education Advising Centre, had demonstrated an interest in exploring a teaching career or in the development of plans and preparation for one.

Instrument

The purpose of the Questionnaire was to provide a self-report of each respondent on his weighting of physical, social and psychological factors found in teaching at the elementary and secondary levels, as well as certain personal information. The format was planned in a small four-page folder style for simple eye-appeal and ease of use. Careful attention was given this aspect for it was considered important that appearance and format should assist in securing well-considered responses from the largest possible number of respondents.

The Questionnaire was arranged in four sections: I, Preliminary Data, was designed to identify the respondent's degree plans and choice of teaching level. II, Considerations for Your Decision, comprised the factors of the teaching roles and their weighting on a five-level scale. III, Your Corner, introduced the respondent's evaluation of the usefulness that the second section might have in the choice between the two levels of teaching. IV contained the additional factors of experiences, relationships and the decision-making in the level choice of the respondent. Part V contained no questions, but invited comments.

Some questions were included in the first section (I, Preliminary Data) in order to set the pattern for responses by a checkmark in an appropriate box. Questions were worded as briefly as possible, and an attempt was made to offer as few response choices as possible while retaining the value of the information, in order to simplify the structure.

Questions were asked both about teaching level chosen, (elementary, secondary or undecided), and degree programme planned. Response of any who reported a contradiction, e.g., elementary for one but secondary for the other, were deleted as they were considered to contaminate the

discreteness of the groups. (See Appendix A for copy of Questionnaire)

Personal Data

Information was requested with the promise of anonymity, which was ensured by the absence of individual identification on the Questionnaire itself, or in the process of submission. The personal data to be sought were selected to permit study of the influence that these factors might have had on the teaching level choice of the individual. They included information on when the idea of teaching and the choice of teaching level was made, and information about discussion of level, visits to schools, teacher-relatives, and childhood experiences attending and playing school.

These topics were selected on the basis of references in literature, and on personal observation and opinion. For example, Morton-Williams et al. (1966) reported that teaching had appealed to 62% of his sample before they had entered university. Many writers referred to the influence of family and family background on choice of career (Morton-Williams et al., 1966; Osipow, 1968; Super, 1957; and Zytowski, 1968). Picou and Carter (1976) examined the effect perceived by youths of significant others on choice-making, and concluded that the influence of modeling mode or definer mode varied with community origin. Morton-Williams et al. (1966) posed the question of parent influence on choice of teaching career, and found a higher proportion influenced by having a close relative rather than a parent who was a teacher. Interest in the game of playing school led to a paper on this topic by Ross (1965) who theorized that the game sprang from the need to nurture.

Factors Considered

Factors descriptive of the careers of elementary and secondary

teaching were sorted into four groups: Pupils, Environment, Subjects, and Career. The respondent was asked to report the subjective weighting of each factor by checking one of five columns: not considered, no importance, little importance, moderate importance, and great importance.

A list of factors was developed by including those variables which were considered to constitute a difference between the two levels of teaching. One obviously different factor for elementary or secondary teachers is the age and development of the students whom they teach. Researchers such as Brenton (1970) and Olaschinde (1972) reported that the major influence on the choice of teaching itself was desire to work with children and adolescents. In choosing between levels of teaching, the liking for one or other age group was given prime importance in the Chronicle Occupational Briefs (1969), and also by Gelinas (1969), Morton-Williams et al. (1966), and Murphy (1963).

Studies of occupational information noted that the elementary teacher normally teaches a variety of subjects to one class, while the secondary teacher usually specializes in one subject or related subjects (Gelinas, 1965; Murphy, 1963; Yauch, 1955).

The location of the school as a factor did not have much support in the literature, but was included in the Questionnaire because of conversations with students. On the other hand, size of class was given considerable importance by writers such as Coverdale (1973), Dreeben (1973), and Sinnett (1968).

In studying the factors of satisfaction of teachers, Chase (1951) found that good salaries and good equipment was rated highly, and teaching equipment and facilities was therefore included.

Discipline was another prime factor for many writers, including Braga (1972), Dreeben (1973), Gelinas (1965) and Wayson (1974). Sinnett (1968) included the presence of problem children as a factor in teaching load, and Dreeben (1973) noted that "teaching in a crowd entails the possibility of disruption" (p. 462). Ellenburg (1973) reported that pupil discipline had been identified as one of the ten most significant factors that tend to lower teacher morale.

Teacher-pupil relationships are obviously a factor, and teacher-parent relationships also seemed important in the satisfaction experienced by the teacher, for as Wayson (1974) remarked, although most teachers expected to work with children, few anticipated working with adults such as parents, fellow teachers, etc., and were unprepared and unskilled. Ellenburg (1973) included these relationships among the factors which contributed to low teacher morale. This would include the relationship with specialists and teacher aides whose presence should also be considered a factor and would have an effect on workload as well.

Comparisons of workload of elementary and secondary teachers have been made, including such aspects as teaching hours, spare periods, additional hours required for lesson preparation and extra duties. Rickey (1963) depicted the hours for each teaching level as basically similar, 47 hours and 55 minutes, but allocated the hours differently. The average elementary teacher spent a larger proportion in class instruction and the secondary teacher in various activities such as meetings, coaching games, etc. Sinnett (1968) included in "teaching load" the number of teaching periods per day and amount of outside preparation, clerical work, professional and extra-curricular duties required. The

lack of relief from pupil contact was identified by Ellenburg (1973) as a cause of low teacher morale. Braga (1972) wrote that the inconsistency between ideal and actual time spent teaching vs. disciplinary and administrative duties was one of the primary sources of dissonance experienced in teacher role perception.

Perhaps the best short description of required subject competence of teachers is the following statement by Gelinas (1965),

It has been said that the high school teacher should know a whole lot about one subject (or two) and a little about every other subject. On the other hand, the teacher of elementary grades has a greater need to know much about many things and less need to be a subject-matter specialist. (pp. 65-66)

Universal agreement does not seem to exist on the effect of earnings on career choices. For example, Morton-Williams et al. (1966) noted it as a main criterion for career decisions reported by men, though not by women.

Regarding status of teachers, Reiss (1970) ranked public school teaching below building contractors and just above railroad engineers, farm owners and operators. Coverdale (1973) commented that teachers lack prestige in most Western countries. Brenton (1970), Bush (1970) and Yauch (1955) all reported that traditionally there is more prestige in secondary than in elementary teaching. Brenton (1970) referred to a "pecking order" in which he saw a whole series of status relationships between teachers of different levels. Bush (1970) laid the blame for lower status in elementary teaching to the fact that in the United States the latter "is still perceived as a career for women" (p. 128) and as such has less status. Yauch (1955) saw this variation in prestige beginning to change.

Respondents' Comments

Two sections of the Questionnaire were designed to secure some idea of reactions and suggestions of those completing it. The possibility that the Data section (II) might be developed into a device to assist those making the choice between teaching levels was one reason for including these sections.

Data Collection

Arrangements were made with the Coordinator and Advising Officer of the Education Advising Centre that for the month of May, 1975, a supply of the Questionnaires would be placed in a prominent position on the Reception Desk. Each person coming in to see an advisor or officer of the Centre was to be requested to complete the form and either leave it in the box provided or take it and an addressed, stamped envelope to mail it to me. At the end of May, it was suggested by the staff that the study be continued for a second month until the end of June, 1975, at which time the forms were removed. A few responses were received by mail in the next few weeks and were included as they had been begun within the period of the study.

Chapter 4

Results

Data were tabulated in raw form by summing the frequencies of respondents on the basis of responses to Section II. The total responses were separated into elementary, secondary and undecided groups on the basis of response to Item A. 5, and an item-by-item response count of the factors in Section II. The percentage of each group's response to each item was computed and reported in Table 2. Similar computation for the total group was used to prepare the information for Table 5.

Scoring and Data Analysis

Most of 377 forms submitted during the two months of data collection were answered fairly completely. Two which were barely begun were not included in the analyses. Four respondents indicated a contradiction between the programme in which they were registered (Questionnaire, I, 2), and the teaching level chosen (Questionnaire, I, 5), by selection of elementary for one question and secondary for the other. These forms also were removed to avoid confusing the results in any way. However, those who indicated their degree programme other than in the Faculty of Education were included, on the assumption that these respondents were intending to follow preliminary career preparation of their degree with an appropriate professional year in the Faculty of Education.

Consideration of Factors

The question of the extent to which factors about teaching are considered in choosing between elementary and secondary levels was addressed by the development of a table. (Table 2)

Table 2

Factors for Consideration in Choice of Teaching Level
(Elementary N = 198, Secondary N = 137, Undecided N = 36)

		*	Not Considered	No Importance	Little Importance	Moderate Importance	Great Importance	Not Answered
A. Pupils:								
1. Their age (prefer chosen age group, or dislike the other)	E	3.0%	3.0%	9.1%	39.9%	44.4%	0.5%	
	S	4.4	8.8	7.3	50.4	29.2	0.0	
	U	5.6	11.1	13.9	50.0	19.4	0.0	
2. Their physical development (size, coordination)	E	15.7	16.2	29.8	23.2	12.6	2.5	
	S	19.7	24.1	24.8	20.4	8.8	2.2	
	U	16.7	22.2	27.8	25.0	5.6	2.8	
3. Their mental abilities (attention span, comprehension)	E	6.1	7.1	17.7	39.4	26.8	3.0	
	S	5.1	4.4	11.0	44.5	35.0	0.0	
	U	5.6	8.3	16.7	47.2	22.2	0.0	
4. Their skills (able to dress, write, listen, etc.)	E	10.1	5.1	23.7	41.9	16.7	2.5	
	S	8.0	6.6	12.4	45.3	25.6	2.2	
	U	8.3	11.1	27.8	27.8	25.0	0.0	
5. Their personal problems	E	8.6	5.1	16.7	30.3	36.9	2.5	
	S	9.5	8.8	12.4	35.0	31.4	2.9	
	U	5.6	5.6	16.7	33.3	36.1	2.8	
B. Environment:								
1. Probable location of school	E	19.2	13.6	22.7	29.8	13.6	1.0	
	S	23.4	16.8	17.5	25.6	15.3	1.5	
	U	13.9	8.3	22.2	44.4	11.1	0.0	
2. Teaching equipment and facilities	E	13.1	7.1	21.2	39.4	18.7	0.5	
	S	11.7	6.6	15.3	45.3	19.7	1.5	
	U	5.6	2.8	25.0	47.2	19.4	0.0	
3. Number of students in a class	E	10.1	5.1	15.2	37.9	30.3	1.5	
	S	10.2	6.6	16.1	38.0	27.7	1.5	
	U	2.8	5.6	16.7	47.2	27.8	0.0	
4. Total number of students in total classes	E	20.2	8.6	24.8	30.3	13.6	2.5	
	S	16.8	10.2	24.8	32.1	14.6	1.5	
	U	0.0	13.9	19.4	47.2	19.4	0.0	
5. Discipline requirements and problems	E	5.1	3.0	10.6	43.4	32.8	5.1	
	S	4.4	3.7	19.7	45.3	21.2	5.8	
	U	2.8	5.6	13.9	47.2	30.6	0.0	

Table 2 (continued)

	*	Not Considered	No Importance	Little Importance	Moderate Importance	Great Importance	Not Answered
B. Environment (continued):							
6. Kind of relationship with pupils (substitute parent, leader, etc.)	E	5.1%	1.0%	7.6%	25.3%	58.1%	3.0%
	S	2.9	2.2	8.0	38.7	46.0	2.2
	U	2.8	5.6	5.6	22.2	61.1	2.8
7. Assistance from others (aides, specialists, etc.)	E	13.6	4.6	22.2	36.4	21.7	1.5
	S	16.1	8.8	25.6	37.2	8.8	3.7
	U	11.1	8.3	25.0	41.7	11.1	2.8
8. Contacts with parents	E	4.0	2.0	6.1	36.4	50.0	1.5
	S	8.8	3.7	18.3	35.0	31.4	2.9
	U	0.0	5.6	8.3	44.4	38.9	2.8
9. Daily teaching hours; spare periods, if any	E	16.7	14.1	23.7	33.3	10.1	2.0
	S	19.0	13.9	33.6	23.4	8.8	1.5
	U	19.4	5.6	30.6	27.8	13.9	2.8
10. Additional hours per day preparing lessons and marking students' work	E	12.1	11.1	24.8	31.8	18.7	1.5
	S	12.4	14.6	29.9	27.7	13.1	2.2
	U	8.3	5.6	30.6	38.9	13.9	2.8
11. Extra duties required (supervise recess behaviour, monitor lunchroom, coach teams, etc.)	E	15.2	10.6	30.3	27.8	13.6	2.5
	S	18.3	15.3	33.6	19.7	11.7	1.5
	U	16.7	11.1	41.7	22.2	5.6	2.8
C. Subjects:							
1. The subject competence you must achieve	E	4.0	2.0	8.1	37.9	45.5	2.5
	S	4.4	4.4	5.8	35.0	47.1	2.9
	U	2.8	0.0	5.6	33.3	55.6	2.8
2. Complexity of the subject matter	E	5.6	4.0	16.2	46.5	24.8	3.0
	S	2.9	5.1	11.7	43.1	33.6	3.7
	U	11.1	2.8	11.1	50.0	22.2	2.8
3. Teaching aids you must use or develop	E	5.6	5.6	11.6	33.8	40.9	2.5
	S	8.8	5.1	17.5	36.5	29.9	2.2
	U	8.3	2.8	13.9	19.4	47.2	8.3
4. Number of subjects you will teach	E	9.1	5.6	18.2	42.4	22.7	2.0
	S	3.7	5.8	16.8	51.8	19.7	2.2
	U	5.6	8.3	16.7	47.2	19.4	2.8

Table 2 (concluded)

	*	Not Considered	No Importance	Little Importance	Moderate Importance	Great Importance	Not Answered
D. Career:							
(Your choice of school level compared with the other)							
1. More job opportunities	E	27.8%	8.6%	17.7%	31.3%	13.1%	1.5%
	S	35.8	7.3	22.6	22.6	8.8	2.9
	U	13.9	2.8	13.9	36.1	25.0	8.3
2. Fewer years at University before teaching	E	23.7	16.7	20.2	24.8	12.6	2.0
	S	46.0	29.9	13.9	3.7	4.4	2.2
	U	22.2	13.9	30.6	11.1	11.1	11.1
3. Better use in degree programme of courses already taken	E	29.8	12.1	20.2	22.7	9.6	5.6
	S	26.3	6.6	16.1	26.3	18.3	6.6
	U	22.2	8.3	8.3	27.8	22.2	11.1
4. Higher salary scale	E	29.3	20.2	26.3	17.7	3.5	3.0
	S	24.8	20.4	19.7	27.7	2.2	5.1
	U	19.4	8.3	30.6	19.4	8.3	13.9
5. Greater status	E	39.4	26.8	22.2	7.6	1.5	2.5
	S	40.2	23.4	24.1	8.8	0.0	3.7
	U	36.1	27.8	11.1	13.9	0.0	11.1
6. Greater possibility of promotion	E	35.9	18.7	20.2	16.7	5.1	2.5
	S	38.7	17.5	19.7	17.5	2.9	3.7
	U	25.0	13.9	16.7	33.3	0.0	11.1

* E = Elementary, S = Secondary, U = Undecided

The factors selected most frequently by each group as of great importance in the decision to teach at the elementary or secondary level, were the kind of relationship with pupils, and the subject competence which the teacher must achieve. Those who had decided on elementary also gave great importance to the age of pupils, but the secondary and undecided groups rated pupils' age as having only moderate importance. The elementary and undecided groups selected as being of great importance the factors pupils' personal problems, contacts with parents, and teaching aids which must be used or developed, which were ranked only of moderate importance by the secondary group for the most part.

As expected, many chose the middle-ground response suggested by the title "moderate importance". What is surprising is that in all three groups of respondents (elementary, secondary, undecided) the largest percentage "peaked" together for 15 of the 26 factors as in this rating, in "little importance", or "great importance". A further six factors were more frequently placed in neighbouring categories. Only in the Career section were there marked differences between the three groups.

The lack of response to certain factors is also interesting. For example, discipline requirements and problems (B. 5) was reported on by every respondent of the undecided group, although 2.8% reported it as not considered, and an additional 5.6% gave it no importance. This differed from 5.1% elementary and 5.8% secondary who failed to respond, and a further 5.1% and 4.4% who had given it no consideration. This well-documented problem in the careers of teachers at both levels was considered differently after the choice of teaching level had been reached. A further divergence in this factor was the smaller size of the secondary group (21.2%) awarding it great importance, compared with 32.8% and

30.6%. These differences, while small, contribute to the whole picture.

Another factor which was unanswered in an interesting pattern was the teaching aids item (C. 3) which was left blank by 8.3% of the undecided compared with some 2% of each of the other groups. Once again the secondary group stepped away from the others in the percent rating of this as "great importance" (29.9% vs. 40.9% elementary, 47.2% undecided) and higher responses in the "little importance" column.

There were also wide variations in the omitted responses in the Career section, with considerably more of the undecided group leaving factors unrated. However, if one were to combine the not-answered and not-considered, the gap closes for the factors in this section, other than the job opportunities (D. 1) and years at university before teaching (D. 2).

A comparison of the three groups on the Pupils factor indicates reasonable agreement regarding the importance of pupils' age, physical development, and personal problems. The secondary group placed greater importance on pupils' mental abilities and skills than the other groups.

In considering the mental abilities of pupils, the undecided resembled the secondary in the majority selection of "moderate importance", but the remainder of the group was patterned more like the elementary for other values.

In the section headed Environment, the location of the school was termed moderately important to a greater extent by the undecided group. Quite a large portion of all groups indicated this factor as not having been considered at all.

The undecided group appeared to weigh the factor of teaching equipment and facilities to a greater degree than the other groups. Though

most agreed that it had only "moderate importance", fewer reported it as "not considered" or "not important".

The factors related to class size and numbers of pupils with whom there would be interaction seemed to spread the responses more than some of the other factors. The class size factor has been reported in other studies as important in teacher morale; results of the present study suggest that those who have selected the level they want to teach may have overlooked this important factor. More respondents had considered class size than had considered total pupils, which was rated of "no importance" or "not considered" by 28.8% elementary, 27% secondary, but only 13.9% undecided.

Relations with pupils and contacts with parents were factors which brought high ratings from all groups, but the secondary group gave somewhat lower ratings than did the elementary and undecided groups. The high rating given these interpersonal factors were considered encouraging in that they indicated a realistic understanding of one important facet of being a teacher. However, the lack of importance given by each group to the factor of assistance from others suggests a lack of understanding of the important role that is played by others in support of the teacher.

A large proportion of all three groups had not considered daily hours and extra duties. When one realizes that these are among the prime reasons given by other studies for dissatisfaction and low morale in teaching, this lack of consideration is disturbing. Interestingly, again the undecided group had considered the additional hours factor more than either decided group.

Contrary to my reading in the literature, factors on the "Subjects"

topic showed small differences between groups other than the undecided group's report of having not considered complexity of subject matter to a greater extent than the other groups.

The section of factors which demonstrated quite unique between-group patterns was that headed "Career". Items such as job opportunities, years of university required, use of courses in degree programme and possibilities of promotion were responded to in varying patterns by each group, with a consistently high percent reporting they had not considered or had awarded no importance to each. The incorrect factor about higher salary scale, which is not true of present salary schedules, brought forth a variety of responses and some comments as well. When its misleading nature was pointed out in the Questionnaire, there were some rather angry comments about this just not being so.

A large percentage in all three groups had not considered either career as having greater status. This is another encouraging discovery, for it would seem that the attention that has been given to the need for a good start in school has served to raise the elementary teacher to a position of importance equal to the secondary.

The responses in the "Career" section lead to the opinion that a teaching career had been selected more as a specific position, rather than as a lifetime profession. Items such as job opportunities, salary scale, promotion possibilities, suggest career planning. These factors were not important to a large percentage of all three groups.

To summarize, the factors used in the Questionnaire seem to have been suitable for study in that there was a fairly similar pattern to the manner of weighting by each of the teaching-level groups and the undecided. Some items were left unanswered or reported as not considered

which have been demonstrated in other studies to be of importance to teacher morale.

Comparison of Factor Consideration: Elementary and Secondary Groups

It was hypothesized that those who selected one level did not consider some factors to have significantly greater importance than those who selected the other level of teaching.

Respondents were separated into groups on the basis of choice of teaching level, as indicated by Question I, 5. The responses for the elementary and secondary groups on the individual items in Section II were subjected to chi-square analyses. Results appear in Table 3.

Very few of the associations between responses and teaching level reached a statistically significant level. For all but five factors, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Factors which showed significance were: age and skills of pupils, assistance from others, contacts with parents, and fewer years to begin teaching. Each of these factors was given greater importance by the elementary group, which is to a degree in agreement with results of previous studies which reported elementary teachers more concerned with age and skills of pupils than secondary teachers. The suggestion that secondary teachers place greater emphasis than elementary teachers on the subject matter taught, was not supported by the present study as there were no significant differences between groups on any of the Subjects factors.

As might be expected, the elementary group placed more importance on the factors assistance from others and length of training required before being able to begin teaching, both of which are apparent in this province. The difference in response to the factor of contact with parents contradicts references in literature, but reflects the pattern

Table 3
Comparison of Factor Consideration
Elementary and Secondary Groups

Factor	χ^2	Significance	Factor	χ^2	Significance
A 1	12.545	0.014**	C 1	2.341	0.673
2	5.094	0.278	2	4.883	0.230
3	6.515	0.165	3	5.935	0.204
4	9.609	0.048*	4	6.515	0.164
5	3.039	0.551			
			D 1	5.774	0.217
B 1	3.858	0.426	2	49.658	0.000**
2	2.579	0.631	3	8.669	0.070
3	0.552	0.968	4	5.740	0.220
4	1.382	0.847	5	3.074	0.546
5	9.377	0.052	6	1.668	0.797
6	9.017	0.061			
7	10.874	0.028*			
8	20.148	0.001**			
9	5.589	0.232			
10	2.900	0.575			
11	3.611	0.461			

df = 4

*p < .05

**p < .01

observed in the past few years.

Factor Consideration: Decided Compared with Undecided Group

A similar analysis was undertaken in comparing those who had decided teaching level with those who had not. Because of the smaller number in the undecided group, responses in the "not considered", "no importance", and "little importance" columns were combined, and the result compared with responses in the other two columns. A chi-square analysis was undertaken with results as in Table 4.

It was hypothesized that there was no significant difference between the weighting of factors by those who had decided or had not decided on teaching level. Chi-square results on most factors were not significant and the null hypothesis therefore cannot be rejected for those. Three factors which were significant were age of pupils, better use of courses taken, and greater possibility of promotion, all at .05 level, and the null hypothesis of no difference may be rejected for these factors. For each of these factors, the responses of those who had decided on teaching level placed greater importance on age of pupils than did the undecided group, and similar results were found on the Career factors mentioned. An investigation of the relationship between lack of a decision and these factors might be undertaken at a future date, to determine whether lack of information about these factors or other difficulties were contributing to this lack of decision.

That there is a significant difference between the undecided and those who have chosen teaching level, in the matter of pupils' age, might be an indication that the undecided have not yet really pictured themselves in a teaching position. The difference in factors of use of courses in degree programmes and of possibility of promotion suggests

Table 4
Comparison of Factor Consideration
Decided and Undecided Groups

Factor	χ^2	Significance	Factor	χ^2	Significance
A 1	6.176	0.046*	C 1	0.992	0.609
2	1.904	0.386	2	1.214	0.545
3	1.415	0.493	3	1.849	0.397
4	4.023	0.134	4	0.215	0.898
5	0.762	0.683			
			D 1	8.648	0.013
B 1	5.652	0.059	2	0.866	0.689
2	0.108	0.948	3	5.942	0.051*
3	0.604	0.739	4	1.302	0.522
4	4.140	0.126	5	3.467	0.177
5	0.557	0.757	6	6.608	0.037*
6	0.963	0.618			
7	1.459	0.482			
8	0.508	0.776			
9	1.526	0.466			
10	2.434	0.296			
11	2.737	0.255			

df = 2

*p < .05

a greater career orientation in the consideration of factors among those who had decided on teaching level.

Factors Not Often Considered

Responses for all respondents were combined and percentages computed for each factor according to importance reported. The percentages in the "not considered" and "no importance" columns were examined and are reported in Table 5 for those having fairly large response. Factor numbers used in the table are those used in the Questionnaire.

As mentioned earlier, the factors concerned with Career seemed to be considered unimportant or ignored. Factors 2 and 3 of the Career section may not have been fully understood by respondents who were perhaps somewhat naive about certification requirements. (In British Columbia a person may begin teaching at the end of a professional year, normally taken as the third year of the elementary degree programme, whereas the secondary degree programme requires completion of four years before entry to the professional year.) The question of courses taken and their utilization towards a degree might also have been underrated by those who were unaware of the stringent requirements of the Bachelor of Education degree programme: the requirements of each degree is so specifically organized that there is little flexibility in course selection. The status factor response may, as mentioned earlier, reflect a changing emphasis in educational philosophy. However, the lack of consideration for the job opportunities factor (D. 1) and the promotion factor (D. 6) suggests that the teaching level choice and perhaps also choice of teaching profession lacks the career impetus for advancement noticeable in many other occupations.

Only one factor of the Pupils section was among those so ignored,

Table 5
Consideration of Selected Factors

	Not Considered	No Importance	Total
	(a)	(b)	(a+b)
A. Pupils			
2. Their physical development	17.3%	19.7%	37.0%
B. Environment			
1. Probable location of school	20.2%	14.3%	34.5%
2. Teaching equipment and facilities	11.9	6.5	18.4
4. Total number of students in total classes	17.0	9.7	26.7
7. Assistance from others	14.3	6.5	20.8
9. Daily teaching hours, spare periods, if any	17.8	13.2	31.0
10. Additional hours per day preparing lessons and marking students' work	11.9	11.9	23.8
11. Extra duties required	16.4	12.4	28.8
D. Career			
1. More job opportunities	29.4%	7.6%	37.0%
2. Fewer years at University before teaching	31.8	21.3	53.1
3. Better use in degree programme of courses already taken	27.8	9.7	37.5
4. Higher salary scale	26.7	19.1	45.8
5. Greater status	39.4	25.6	65.0
6. Greater possibility of promotion	35.9	18.3	54.2

physical development, with 37% of the total respondents rating this as unconsidered or unimportant.

It was surprising to find that 34.5% rated probable location of school as so unimportant, when it appeared from conversations with students and faculty, and in various reports on unemployed teachers in this province, that many were geographically-bound. Yet 34.5% rated location of school as "not considered" or "not important".

Several of the factors relating to workload also seem to have been neglected, particularly the hours spent teaching and extra duties required (B. 9 and B. 11). Respondents seemed to be unaware of the importance given this aspect of teaching by many researchers, and the need is indicated for some action to ensure that the workload factors are more clearly understood in order that the choice of teaching level is made from a position of awareness, rather than having teachers drop out of teaching when faced with the reality.

Comparison of Groupings on Basis of Important Factors

Responses on the importance level of factors by those who had certain personal experiences were expected to provide additional information, and the data were grouped for a series of analyses. Each grouping was established by response to the appropriate question in Section IV. Responses in Section II were prepared as follows:

1. Scores for each respondent on the four sections (Pupils, Environment, Subjects and Career) were computed by assigning one point for each response entered in "moderate importance" or "great importance", and summing the number of points under each heading.
2. Questionnaires lacking any response to factors in one or more

of the above sections were deleted, leaving a total of 253 responses. By this means, those who had failed to complete the Questionnaire were removed from the analyses.

3. In each analysis, only those who had answered the criterion question were included for study.

School Level at Time of Choice

It was hypothesized that there was no significant difference in the number of factors rated important by those who had first seriously considered teaching as a career at certain stages in their own development, as follows:

1. before grade 1.
2. in elementary school.
3. in secondary school.
4. in university.
5. at some other time in their lives.

Using groups for the above categories on the basis of response to question IV 1, and the scores for the four categories of factors as described previously, the data were subjected to Analysis of Variance testing and the results appear in Table 6.

On the basis of these results, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. The level at which the individual made his decision to become a teacher was not related to the rating of importance of factors of the teaching roles.

The question of whether teaching level was selected at the same time as the choice made to teach was examined by percentage analysis of the responses to question IV 2. Of the entire group, 63.79% reported that the grade level had been chosen at the same time, 33.11% at a different

Table 6
Significance of Time of Choice
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Before Gr. 1	2.60	1.82	2.80	2.95	2.80	1.64	1.40	2.19
Elementary	3.15	1.44	4.63	3.07	3.05	1.30	1.90	1.84
Secondary	3.15	1.46	4.69	2.83	3.02	1.19	1.66	1.64
University	3.16	1.32	4.61	2.86	3.04	1.07	1.45	1.44
Other	3.20	1.38	4.42	3.30	2.91	1.31	1.85	1.65
<u>F</u>	0.21		0.56		0.16		0.75	
<u>P</u>	0.935		0.689		0.958		0.558	

time, and 3.10% did not answer the question.

Discussion with Others of Choice of Level

Responses to the question of whether or not the choice of teaching level had been discussed with anyone were used to form an affirmative response group and a group who had not discussed the choice. Scores of factors considered important were analyzed for the hypothesis that there was no significant difference between the groups with results as in Table 7.

The null hypothesis can only be rejected on the Environment section. It appears that discussion of the choice of teaching level raised the importance-rating of these factors. As other studies of teacher dropout and morale problems have shown, these factors were among the most frequently identified reasons for discontent, and importance of these factors is evident and any experiences which increase their visibility are of interest.

Visits to Schools

The hypothesis to be tested was that there was no significant difference in the scores on the four factors between those who had visited schools and those who had not done so. Scores on the factors used were those described earlier, and grouping was made on the basis of responses to question IV 4. Results of the analyses of variance are reported in Table 8.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected regarding Pupils, Subjects, or Career factors, but can be rejected for the Environment factors. Examination of the means in this section of the two groups shows that those who had visited a school had rated more factors as important than those who had not made such a visit. This would suggest that although

Table 7
Significance of Discussion of Choice
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Discussion	3.23	1.42	6.52	2.86	3.05	1.19	1.71	1.63
No discussion	2.96	1.39	5.82	3.00	2.95	1.22	1.55	1.62
<u>F</u>	2.59		4.23		0.44		0.74	
<u>p</u>	0.108		0.040		0.508		0.389	

Table 8
Significance of School Visits
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Visit	3.18	1.49	6.58	2.90	3.10	1.14	1.67	1.64
No visit	3.09	1.29	5.94	2.87	2.92	1.22	1.68	1.62
<u>F</u>	0.36		4.08		1.91		0.01	
<u>p</u>	0.547		0.044		0.168		0.941	

some of the workload and relationship factors are available for observation while in attendance as a pupil in the school, there is considerably more notice taken of these factors when the pupil role is exchanged for one of visitor or observer.

An additional analysis was made in connection with the school visit inquiry, that of grade level chosen, using groups of those who had visited or had not visited schools, and the grade level selected. The F-test result was 1.79, p 0.1824, which was not significant.

Teacher-Relative

Using for grouping the responses to question IV 5, about having a teacher in the family, and the scores on the four factors as mentioned earlier, the null hypothesis of there being no significant difference between groups in the number of factors rated as important was tested. Results are reported in Table 9.

With these results it is not possible to reject the null hypothesis. There is no significant difference in the number of factors rated important between those with relatives who were teachers or those without.

Played School

Although comments were made on some Questionnaires that the question about playing school was a "silly question", most respondents did reply, 196 yes, 143 no. The usual null hypothesis was tested with the two groups and their factor scores. Results are outlined in Table 10.

Only the Environment factors were significant. The affirmative group had the higher mean score, and this suggests that those who had played school as children had become significantly more aware of the environment factors and their importance, and weighted them higher in relation to the decision of teaching level than did those who had not

Table 9
Significance of Teacher-Relative
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Has Teacher-Relative	3.24	1.44	6.29	2.87	3.00	1.17	1.61	1.54
No Teacher-Relative	3.08	1.39	6.35	2.95	3.02	1.25	1.73	1.69
<u>F</u>	1.08		0.03		0.03		0.46	
<u>p</u>	0.299		0.858		0.858		0.496	

Table 10
Significance of Playing School as a Child
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Played School	3.14	1.39	6.71	2.82	3.06	1.17	1.73	1.68
Did not play School	2.20	1.45	5.83	3.02	2.97	1.27	1.57	1.54
<u>F</u>	0.15		7.70		0.40		0.77	
<u>p</u>	0.699		0.006		0.530		0.380	

played school, or did not report having done so.

Enjoyed School

It had not been expected that this question would bring forth very significant results, as it would have required several questions to produce meaningful information on all the variations of school level, mixed feelings, etc. Indeed, this lack of space was the subject of complaint by several respondents' comments. However, the particular purpose of the question was to provide a sense of closure to the questions. Results were analyzed on the basis of the yes or no answer and the scoring as previously described, and appear in Table 11.

One factor group (Environment) shows some significance, and in this case those who did not enjoy school had the higher mean score. Apparently these respondents had noticed the details of school and classroom routines, some of which had not contributed to pleasure for them.

Respondents' Comments

A number of respondents used the space on the Questionnaire as suggested, and made a variety of comments. Some were complimentary, saying that the Questionnaire had suggested additional consideration for their decision-making. Some stated they felt it had been a useless exercise.

The usefulness of being able to experience the classroom by acting as teacher aide or by being present as an observer was suggested by several as the recommended means of formulating a choice of teaching level. The results of the analysis suggest that this had contributed to an awareness of environment factors important to a teacher's morale.

Table 11
Significance of Enjoying School
on Importance-Rating of Factors

	Pupils		Environment		Subjects		Career	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Enjoyed School	3.15	1.42	4.46	2.89	3.03	1.20	1.63	1.52
Did not enjoy School	3.02	1.33	5.29	3.06	2.89	1.23	1.80	1.51
<u>F</u>	0.38		3.64		0.61		0.53	
<u>p</u>	0.539		0.057		0.434		0.468	

Chapter 5

Implications and Conclusions

With few exceptions the data did not support the notion that, in deciding on teaching level, those who had chosen elementary weighted various factors differently from those who had chosen secondary. Differences in weighting of suggested factors by those who were still undecided did not differ greatly from those who had already made the choice. Examination of the pattern of responses by the three groups, elementary, secondary and undecided, indicated a similar pattern for each. Certain factors were left unanswered by one group more than by another, which suggested that the one group was not able to evaluate those factors. It had been expected that in this case the response "not considered" would have been used.

Although the results indicated that there was little difference between various groups, the factors which were rated as not considered and as not important by a significant proportion of the respondents were the same factors which had been reported by Ellenburg (1973) as of primary importance by teachers who had left the profession, or had reported feeling a need for better morale. It would seem that the respondents in my study had overlooked considerations of workload, the physical development of the children, and many factors with career implications, in arriving at their choice of teaching level. This was not the case in the survey reported by Morton-Williams et al. (1966) in which their respondents were anxious to have information about conditions of work and workload.

A follow-up study to develop a method of presenting the comparison by teaching level of factual information such as how the daily hours of interaction with children are spent, additional duties required and what these duties might be, of the complex relationships with specialist teachers, teacher aides, and others whose roles involve them in the teacher's working career, should be the next step undertaken. The objective of assisting in the meaningful selection of an appropriate goal should be addressed by the development of a process which will make the comparison of the roles realistic as well as emphasizing the implications of the choice.

The lack of difference between groups in weighting of subject matter factors might tend to hide that fact that these factors were rated consistently high in importance by all respondents. This is a somewhat heavier response than reported by Hoyt (1955) who found this only of moderate importance to elementary and secondary pre-service teachers.

The finding that those who had chosen elementary teaching had placed greater importance than the secondary group on factors of age and skills of pupils suggests the concerns of those interested in younger children. Similar results had been reported by Lang (1960) who remarked on the elementary teacher's interest in the "mothering" aspect of the role. Hoyt (1955) had reported that both levels placed importance on pupil age, but the present study did not support the suggestion that this factor is given equal importance by secondary and elementary teaching groups.

Significant differences were noted in the weighting as important of the Environment factors by those who had discussed the choice of level in making the decision compared with those who had not done so, with more importance given to the Environment factors by those who had

discussed their choice of level. A similar difference was noted between those who had visited schools and those who had not. To speculate, those who had taken steps to investigate the tasks in detail, either by discussion or by personally visiting a school, were more aware of their important effect on the choice of teaching level. Comments from respondents supported the value of this experience as preparation for the decision between teaching levels, and this was also noted by Nuckols and Banducci (1974). Because of the relationship reported in other studies between Environment factors and teacher dissatisfaction, it would seem that steps should be taken to ensure that those who are considering a teaching career are aware of these factors and their implication for career satisfaction, as well as how to secure advice and information. Visits to schools should be encouraged or even be required at the commencement of teacher training to ensure that the decision of teaching level has been made with sufficient awareness.

Having a teacher related to the respondent appeared to make no particular difference to the weighting of the factors. This was interesting in that one might expect such a relationship would have led to greater weighting on some of the factors. However, previous studies have reported mixed findings on the influence of this relationship. Morton-Williams et al. (1966) and Warnath (1971) noted the influence of parents and other relatives on the choice of teaching as a career, but Hoyt (1955) reported that more than half of his study said they had not been influenced by relatives. Picou and Carter (1976) found mixed results. In my study, consideration of various factors in choice of teaching level has not noticeably been influenced by the presence of a relative-teacher.

Of interest were the results of the analysis of the effect of having played school as a child, where once again the rating of the Environment factors by those who had was significantly different from those who had not. This was the reverse of the analysis of responses based on school-enjoyment. One could argue that those who had not enjoyed school were more aware of, and remembered, the various details which contributed to their viewpoint, than those who had forgotten fewer occasions when their student days had been less than enjoyable. Although these results are interesting, they do not seem to merit further study, as the cause of the implication for the choice of teaching level is so far removed in time from the probable identification of the individual selecting elementary or secondary.

More factual aspects of the teachers' roles were the focus of the present study. Not included were attitude factors and their influence on the selection of one level of teaching rather than the other. For example, the feeling of anxiety which a person of small stature might experience when picturing the role of being teacher of tall, full-grown students could well be the deciding factor in choosing to teach smaller children. Study of factors of the affective domain, if undertaken, might also lead to ways of assisting the future teacher in making a successful choice of teaching level.

The similarities in the responses of the various groups suggests that, although respondents in the present study were not randomly selected, their responses may be taken as reflecting the consensus of those who are at similar stages in development of teaching career plans. A comparison with the importance given the various factors by those who have been teaching for varying periods of time would add to the value of

the findings of this study, and help to define specific topics for consideration in the decision process.

By raising the factors of the teaching career to the conscious consideration level, which would be needed for responding to the Questionnaire, it was hoped that some respondents would discover factors which they had overlooked. This was apparently the case, as several commented upon this happening. It is suggested that a booklet in the form of a programmed learning text, using critical incident descriptive passages, be developed and made available to assist those making their teaching-level choice. The lack of serious consideration by the respondents in this study of the very factors which have been related to teacher dissatisfaction is a warning that steps must be undertaken to make these factors more meaningful and the choice a good one, both because it has been well made and because it has a good outcome.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire Used in the Study

ELEMENTARY OR SECONDARY - AN IMPORTANT DECISION

Your assistance with the questions in this folder will contribute to the value of the survey and, it is hoped, will be helpful to you as well. This study is being undertaken with two objectives in mind. One is to determine the factors that are considered by students in choosing to become Elementary instead of Secondary School teachers, or vice versa. The other is to try to develop a quick and easy aid to help with this decision.

By contributing the information requested, you may better understand the decision you are making or have made. You may also discover comparisons you had not even considered in a decision which has a far-reaching effect on your future success and happiness. You are asked to respond anonymously, so that you can be sure of the confidential status of your personal data.

Please check mark the appropriate box or space -

I PRELIMINARY DATA: (To assist in the analysis of the survey)

1. Have you already enrolled at UVIC? ☐ Yes ☐ No
2. Do you plan to attend UVIC in S.S. 75 or 1975-76? ☐ Yes ☐ No

In what year? ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ Unclass.

Which programme? B.Ed. Elem. ☐ Dip. Elem. ☐

B.Ed. Sec. ☐ Dip. Sec. ☐

Other _____
3. Please indicate your year of birth 19_____, and sex ☐ M ☐ F
4. Have you decided to make teaching your career? ☐ Yes ☐ No
5. Have you chosen to teach ☐ Elementary ☐ Secondary ☐ Undecided
6. Have you changed from your initial choice? ☐ Yes ☐ No

When did you change? ☐ In first weeks ☐ After 1 year ☐ 2 or more years
7. Have you seriously considered changing to the other level, but have not yet done so? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If YES, when? _____

but have not because _____

- 3 -

	Not Considered	No Importance	Little Importance	Moderate Importance	Great Importance
C. Subjects:					
1. The subject competence you must achieve					
2. Complexity of the subject matter					
3. Teaching aids you must use or develop					
4. Number of subjects you will teach					
D. Career: (Your choice of school level compared with the other)					
1. More job opportunities					
2. Fewer years at University before teaching					
3. Better use in degree programme of courses already taken					
4. Higher salary scale					
5. Greater status					
6. Greater possibility of promotion					

III YOUR CORNER:

- Have these questions helped you make, or confirmed, your choice of Elementary or Secondary? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know
- Were there some factors you had not thought about which you feel are important to consider? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure
If YES, which one(s)? (Please indicate by quoting numbers, e.g., B3, D1, etc.) _____
- Sometimes decisions are based on incomplete or incorrect information. For example, one of the questions was deliberately incorrect.
Did you notice it? (II, D, 4) ☐ Yes ☐ No

- 4 -

IV DATA ON YOUR DECISION-MAKING:

1. At what school level were you when you first thought seriously of becoming a teacher?
☐ Before Gr.1 ☐ Elementary ☐ Secondary ☐ University
☐ Other (specify) _____
2. Was your choice of elementary or secondary made at the same time as your decision to become a teacher? ☐ Yes ☐ No
3. Did you discuss your choice of elementary or secondary with anyone while you were considering it? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 If YES, mostly with? ☐ Counsellor ☐ Fellow Student ☐ Mother/Father
☐ Teacher ☐ Other (specify) _____
4. Did you make visits to any school(s)? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 If YES, to? ☐ Elementary ☐ Secondary ☐ Both
 Did this help you choose your career? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know
5. Have you a relative who is a teacher? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 If YES, what relationship to you _____
 and teaching in what grade(s) _____
6. Do you remember playing "school" as a child? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 If YES, which role did you play? ☐ Teacher ☐ Pupil
☐ Other _____
7. As a student did you enjoy and look forward to going to school? ☐ Yes ☐ No

V COMMENTS:

Please use this space for your comments or suggestions that might help in the development of a "Career-Decision-Aid".

VITA

Surname: GROAT Given Names: JEAN MARGARET

Place of Birth: NIAGARA FALLS, ONT. Date of Birth: JUNE 30, 1922

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_____ to _____

_____ to _____

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Title of Thesis/Dissertation

THE DECISION BETWEEN ELEMENTARY AND

SECONDARY TEACHING CAREERS

Author



Signature

Jean Margaret Groat

Name

April 28, 1976

Date