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The occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers

Park, Myoung Gee, Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1993

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THE OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALIZATION OF KOREAN SECONDARY

SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

by

MYOUNG GEE PARK

A dissertation submitted to
the faculty of the Graduate School at
the University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in partial fulfillment
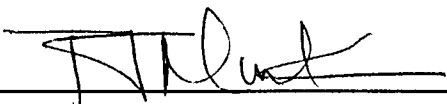of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro
1993

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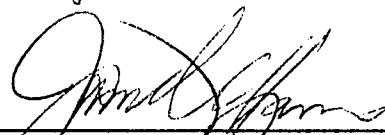
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This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the

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Date of Acceptance by Committee

___3/30/93___
Date of Final Oral Examination

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MYOUNG GEE PARK, Ph.D. The Occupational Socialization of Korean Secondary School Physical Education Teachers. (1993) Directed by Dr. Thomas J. Martinek. 250 pp.
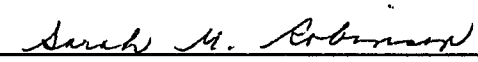
The purpose of this study was to investigate the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. Specifically, teachers' role performances in schools, their teaching perspectives, their satisfaction with the profession, their perceptions and interactions with school contextual factors, their socio-political orientations, and the influence of selected demographic variables (gender, years of teaching experience, location of schools, level of schools, and type of schools) on their occupational socialization were examined. Data were gathered from two sources: a questionnaire survey of 507 Korean secondary school physical education teachers and interviews of 24 additional teachers.

The occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical educators occurred mainly on the basis of interactions with various school contextual factors such as school culture, teaching conditions, administrators, colleagues, and students. These factors affected significantly, but differently, the ways in which teachers taught, perceived, and behaved in schools. Compliance with the forces of these institutional factors was evident and pervasive. This occupational socialization had somewhat negative connotations. The poor teaching conditions and the low status of physical education in and out of the schools were the most conspicuous factors related to the negligent teaching practices of teachers. Nonetheless, the grip of these contextual factors on the occupational socialization of teachers appeared to be incomplete. With the considerable influence of their anticipatory socialization, teacher education, and personal

traits, the teachers strived to find and create their own meaning in the process of occupational socialization. The results indicated that the occupational socialization of physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools had much similarity to that of teachers in Western countries. It was also shown, however, that the occupational socialization of Korean physical education teachers had some characteristics of its own, mainly due to Korean cultural values and different working conditions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is dedicated to

my late grandmother and my late brother,

whose love is forever alive in me.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The success of a school depends on the maximum mobilization of teachers' abilities. In this context, people have long tried to find the ways in which teachers think, perceive, and act in schools. This has lead researchers to investigate the processes of occupational socialization of teachers.

Since Willard Waller's (1932) *The Sociology of Teaching* began an analysis of the role of a teacher and its effects on personality and social status, researchers have broadened the focus of study to various issues concerning teachers. These issues have been related to social class origins of teachers, personality and attitude indicators of teachers, role expectations, teaching performances, and role conflicts, and so on.

Research in the socialization of physical education teachers has in the past been relatively neglected as an academic area of study. However, within the last two decades, significant progress in the study of the socialization of physical education teachers has been made (Dewar, 1983, 1984, 1989; Dewar & Lawson, 1984; Graber, 1989, 1991; Graham, 1991; Hutchinson, 1990; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b, 1986, 1988, 1989, 1991; Mulling, 1981; Pooley, 1971, 1972, 1975; Schempp, 1983, 1985, 1986, 1989; Schempp & Graber, 1992; Steen, 1985; Templin, 1979, 1981; Templin &

Schempp, 1989; Templin, Woodford, & Mulling, 1982; Woodford, 1977).

In spite of a great amount of research on the socialization of physical

education teachers conducted in many western countries in recent years, research in

the socialization of physical education teachers in Korea is still scant. This is mainly

due to the lack of understanding of the importance of teacher socialization studies as

well as the extremely small number of researchers in the pedagogy area.

Encouraged by the need for a comprehensive investigation into this issue in

Korea, this study was designed to explore the characteristics of the occupational

socialization of Korean physical education teachers. Given the unique socio-cultural

contexts which might affect the process of Korean teacher socialization, this study

will provide valuable indirect cross-cultural comparison of physical education teacher

socialization between Korea and western countries.

A Definition of Socialization

Traditionally, socialization has been defined as "learning a given role-

orientation" (Parsons, 1951, p. 205). In other words, socialization would be the

learning and internalization of norms, values, attitudes, and skills associated with

societal roles, or "a process of becoming alike, of taking on similar characteristics,

roles and behaviors of the establishment, group or bureaucracy" (Crase, 1979, p. 10).

These functionalist definitions are representative of socialization as the learning of

role-orientation. People are generally seen as passive conformists to the

organizational roles and values. Therefore, any failure to follow the established

norms and practices of an institution is viewed as dysfunctional. This view resides in a perspective that sees individuals as the products of society and historical social structures (Wenworth, 1980).

In contrast, socialization can be defined from a dialectical viewpoint. People do not always conform to the role-expectations and norms of their workplace. They interact with workplace conditions and even change them in a significant way. From this perspective, people are constrained by social structural limitations, but at the same time play an active role in shaping their identities, often acting in ways that contradict the norms and values that pervade a social setting (Templin & Schempp, 1989). Teacher socialization, in this view, is "a dialectical process involving a continual interplay between individuals and the institution into which they are socialized" (Zeichner, 1979, p. 1).

Research in the socialization of teachers conducted over the last two decades illustrates a shift from a functionalist perspective to dialectical one (Templin & Schempp, 1989). It shows how teachers can play an active role in the formulation of their values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors relative to the institutional requirements and constraints. Current theory and research on teacher socialization emphasize the necessity of studies which not only recognize individuals as active agents in their decision making but also view socialization as a complex interaction between the teachers and the institution (Crow, 1987; Tabachnich & Zeichner, 1985). In these contexts, the current study will concentrate on the interaction between the teacher and school contextual factors, as well as on the influence of social-cultural contexts.

Research on the Socialization of Korean

Physical Education Teachers

Korean teachers seem to hold a unique position. On the one hand, they enjoy widespread respect from all walks of life. On the other hand, they suffer not only from poor working conditions but also from the lack of autonomy and relatively low economic rewards. This might cause many of them to feel uneasy or dissatisfied with their profession.

The respect for teachers in Korea is mainly due to the Confucian tradition in which a teacher is regarded as a highly respectable person in society. For example, there is an important Confucian teaching which has long guided societal attitudes toward teachers: the king (or ruler), teacher, and father are equal in importance. Meanwhile, the reasons for which they feel uneasy with their profession can include factors such as relatively low salary, the lack of autonomy, poor teaching conditions, and undemocratic and irrational workplace practices which have evolved during the past authoritative regimes.

Korean cultural norms, mainly derived from Confucianism (Cho Oakla, 1987; Chong Won-shick, 1986; Hoare & Pares, 1988; Kim Shinil, 1987), have some characteristics: (a) family ties are emphasized, making the individual a part of a family collectivity; (b) men's authority is emphasized in most aspects of society, maintaining the low status of women in society; (c) a hierarchial pattern of relationships in which people are superior or inferior to one another is maintained, calling for respect for the elders; (d) social collectivism is valued more than

individualism; and (e) scholarship and education are highly stressed. Given the close

relationship between an individual and his or her culture, it can be assumed that the

thoughts and behaviors of Korean teachers are largely bounded by these cultural

norms.

Meanwhile, physical education teachers in Korea seem to be in an even more

peculiar position than other subject teachers. They not only suffer from the poor

working conditions and low economic rewards, but do not receive the same high

respect as other discipline teachers. This, too, is due to the dichotomous viewpoints

of Confucian ideology in which academic achievements are viewed as more

important than physical prowess. In these contexts, the socialization process of

Korean physical education teachers may have characteristics which are considerably

different from that of western countries.

Although a significant thrust in research on teacher socialization has taken

place in many Western countries during the last two decades, the research on this

issue in Korea has been almost neglected. This situation can be explained not only

from limited understanding about the importance of this area, but also from the small

number of researchers in sport pedagogy. Although physical education is beginning

to be accepted as a valid discipline in Korea, sport pedagogy is still receiving little

attention in the physical education field. There exists no systematic research on the

biographies and subjective warrants of the prospective teachers, the impact of teacher

preparation programs on the school work of teachers, and the process of teachers'

occupational socialization. The lack of research on these areas has long served as a

serious constraint to the success of teacher education programs. Consequently, there arises critical need in Korea for research on the socialization of physical education teachers.

Physical education in Korean schools is usually carried out on the basis of traditional practice. Changes are proposed and initiated without a clear understanding of both the teachers and the instructional settings they presume to improve. Since teachers perform their jobs within the organizational frame of schools and the degree of teaching success is greatly affected by the various forces in and out of schools, systematic research on the occupational socialization of physical education teachers is greatly needed.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the characteristics of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. In order to accomplish the purpose of the study the following questions have been addressed:

I. What are the actual roles of Korean secondary school physical education teachers in schools and their perceptions of them?

II. What are the teaching perspectives of Korean secondary school physical education teachers? What factors are significantly related to the changes in their teaching perspectives?

III. How satisfied are Korean secondary school physical education teachers

with their profession and what factors are related to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction?

IV.   How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive and/or interact with school contextual factors?

   A. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive school environment and/or school culture?

   B. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive workplace conditions such as instructional facilities, support from school, job responsibility, relationships with other persons in school, the nature of curriculum, and so on?

   C. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive and/or interact with administrators and/or school board?

   D. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive and/or interact with their colleagues?

   E. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive and/or interact with their students?

   F. How do Korean secondary school physical education teachers perceive and/or interact with the parents?

   G. What kind of workplace conflicts do Korean secondary school physical education teachers have and how do they deal with perplexing circumstances in which their teaching philosophies conflict with workplace requirements?

V.   What are the attitudes of Korean secondary school physical education

teachers toward socio-political issues related to education reform?

A. What are the attitudes of Korean secondary school physical

education teachers toward education reform?

B. What are the attitudes of Korean secondary school physical

education teachers toward socio-political issues in society at large?

C. What are the attitudes of Korean secondary school physical

education teachers toward a teachers' union?

VI.   How do the demographic variables of gender, years of teaching

experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school,

relate to the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school

physical education teachers?

Definition of Terms

Since in the literature there is disagreement or interchangeability regarding

terminology, it is important to clarify some terms which are pertinent to this study.

The following terms are defined as they have been used in this study:

Socialization: refers to the process by which people learn and internalize the norms,

values, attitudes, knowledge, and skills associated with societal roles given, as well as

react toward them.

Occupational socialization: refers to the process by which people learn and internalize

the norms, values, attitudes, knowledge, and skills associated with the occupation in

which he or she has selected to work, as well as react toward them.

<u>Secondary school</u>: refers to both junior high schools which consist of 7th, 8th, and 9th grade and senior high schools which consist of 10th, 11th, and 12th grade.

<u>Subjective warrant</u>: refers to a person's perception of the requirements and benefits of work in the occupation.

<u>Organizational culture</u>: refers to long-standing "rules of thumb", a somewhat special language, an ideology that helps edit a member's everyday experience, shared standards of relevance as to the critical aspects of the work, matter-of-fact prejudices, models for social etiquette and demeanor, certain customs and rituals which exist in an organization such as a school.

<u>Professional preparation program</u>: refers to the former teacher education program in which people had participated at university teacher certificate coursework.

<u>Teaching information source</u>: refers to the source on which people rely when they need information assistance concerning teaching.

<u>Confucian ideology</u>: refers to a set of traditional East-asian ideas which teaches that one should be loyal to one's family, friends, rulers, superiors, and the elderly and treat others as one would like to be treated. In this tradition, scholarship and academic achievements are highly stressed and women are relegated to a relatively low status in society.

<u>Years of teaching experience</u>: refers to the years which an individual teacher has spent in teaching as a full-time teacher.

<u>Location of school</u>: refers to the geographical distinction of large city (population of

more than 300,000), small city (population of 50,000 to 300,000), and rural region

(population of less than 50,000) where a school is located.

Level of school: refers to the distinction between junior high school and senior high

school.

Type of school: refers to the distinction between public school and private school. In

Korea, public schools are run and strictly controlled by the state; private schools are

run by individuals or private organizations but are still controlled by the state.

Secondary school students in both types of schools pay almost the same tuition.

Underlying Assumptions

The following assumptions are fundamental to this study. They reflect

accepted premises and, therefore, were not examined as part of the investigation.

1. Physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools possess

characteristics that can be defined as descriptive features.

2. The combination of questionnaire and interview methods can be a valid and

reliable approach for investigating the characteristics of the occupational socialization

of Korean secondary school physical education teachers.

3. The subjects in this study will provide accurate information on their

perceptions of their occupational socialization.

4. The sample in this study is homogeneous and representative of Korean

secondary school physical education teachers.

Limitations

Several factors may influence or limit the accuracy of the results of this study. The findings of the study should be interpreted with consideration of the following points.

1. This study was conducted with Korean secondary school physical education teachers. Therefore, there are limitations in generalizing the results of the study to the contents of teachers who teach physical education in other countries as well as at elementary schools and universities/colleges in Korea.

2. There would be limitations inherent in the use of selected research techniques. Even though questionnaire and interview techniques were assumed to be valid and appropriate instruments for investigating the profile of the teachers' occupational socialization in Korean secondary school physical education settings, there are limitations in interpreting the results because they were based simply on what people said or described. In other words, this study did not use an observational method to investigate the actual teaching conditions, role performances, and the pattern of interaction of teachers with various school contextual factors. Therefore, the data from this study provide the perceptions and/or opinions of teachers about various factors related to their occupational socialization.

Significance of the Study

The characteristics of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers were of major significance to investigate in this

study. The various aspects of the teachers' occupational socialization were studied in relation to the variables of gender, the years of teaching experience, the location of school, the level of school, and the type of school.

This study is descriptive and exploratory in nature, using questionnaire and interview techniques. Given the lack of research on the socialization of Korean physical education teachers, this study would be important in many aspects. The knowledge revealed by the present study would be useful in understanding the identity of Korean secondary school physical education teachers as well as the ways in which teachers teach, think, and act in school organizations. Thus, results from this study can provide baseline information for improving professional preparation programs and secondary school physical education practice in Korea.

Another possibility is that the results of this study can be indirectly compared with those of other countries to draw meaningful implications for the improvement of Korean physical education teacher preservice and inservice program. If there is no significant difference between them, the established works of other countries can be used in Korea to improve its teacher preparation programs and school practices. If there are significant differences between them, however, considerable work may be needed to accommodate the unique needs of Korean teacher preparation programs. Furthermore, this study can be a catalyst to facilitate subsequent studies on teacher socialization in Korean physical education.

By presenting additional data on physical education teacher socialization, this study is also expected to help physical educators and teachers to understand and gain

insight into the complex processes involved in the development of physical education

teachers. In addition, because this study will provide information about physical

education teacher socialization relative to the unique Eastern socio-cultural context,

the findings will help to draw a more global picture of the dynamics of occupational

socialization in the physical education field.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of selected literature and research pertinent to the process of teacher socialization. The review provides a theoretical basis for this study, background information for the research design and instrumentation, and insights into the interpretation of the findings.

Teacher socialization research is the field of scholarship that seeks to understand the process whereby the individual becomes a participating member of the society of teachers (Danziger, 1971). Since Lortie's (1975) highly influential work *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study* appeared, a considerable amount of research has provided congruent or competing explanations of teacher socialization.

The research on socialization into physical education indicates a three-stage socialization process: anticipatory socialization (recruitment into physical education), teacher education (professional preparation), and occupational socialization (inservice entry) (Dewar, 1989; Templin & Schempp, 1989). This three-stage model for teacher socialization is borrowed from the literature on socialization into medicine and law. This model proceeds on the basis of interaction and learning and includes interplay among humans, their socializing experiences, agents, and settings (Pooley, 1975).

Anticipatory Socialization

The first stage is the anticipatory socialization in which individuals develop

perceptions about a profession before entering programs of professional education.

This stage (recruitment into physical education) is assumed to be important because

of its relationship to the rest of the socialization process; that is, its relationship to

the impact of professional education (the second stage of the process) and entry into

the workplace (the final stage) on individuals' professional identities and practices

(Dewar, 1989).

According to Lortie (1975), an individual is attracted to or repelled by an

occupation as a result of the recruitment resources that are offered to potential

recruits. He broke down these recruitment resources into attractors and facilitators.

Attractors are the comparative benefits that are offered to potential recruits, including

both material benefits such things as money, job security, social mobility, and

psychic or symbolic benefits such things as prestige, power, and satisfaction.

Facilitators are the social mechanisms that ease an individual's entry into a specific

occupation. These include factors such as success and interest in sport or physical

activities, the influence of significant others (i.e., teachers, parents, family, and

friends, etc.), the absence of occupational alternatives, and the perceptions of the

requirements for entry into an occupation.

The data from the earlier studies on recruitment (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b;

Mulling, 1981; Pooley, 1971; Templin, 1979; Woodford, 1977) show that individuals

are attracted to careers in physical education teaching because of the following

reasons: the occupation is perceived as providing opportunities to work with and help others (the interpersonal theme), to serve society (the service theme), and to continue associations with sports and physical activity which are viewed as rewarding and enjoyable (the continuation theme) (Templin, Woodford, & Mulling, 1982; Lawson, 1984). Recent studies have shown that the continuation theme and service theme (which is closely related with the interpersonal theme) are more dominant reasons for majoring in physical education than other attractors such as material benefits and time compatibility (Belka, Lawson, & Lipnickey, 1991; Dodds, Placek, Doolittle, Pinkham, Ratliffe, & Portman, 1991).

The data also suggest that physical education teaching may be one of the few alternatives open to recruits because it requires less rigorous academic ability than other subjects (Dewar, 1989). Templin, Woodford and Mulling (1982) report that physical education attracts and admits students who are the lowest in academic achievement. The studies on recruitment into physical education also suggest that various factors such as the academic rigor of the program, the years spent in training, and the financial resources required to complete the training, are all important when career choices are being made.

Lawson (1983a, 1983b) attempted to locate recruitment within a large social context, focusing on the subjective warrant. The subjective warrant is "an individual's perceptions of the skills and abilities necessary for entry into, and performance of work in a specific occupation" (Dewar & Lawson, 1984, p. 15). In other words, it is a person's perception of the requirements and benefits of work in a

given profession, weighed against self-assessment of aspiration and competence. The subjective warrant is formed through direct observation of members of the occupations and through information provided by others in one's social environment. The choice of occupation is made by comparing one's interests, aspirations, and abilities with the subjective warrant held for the occupation being considered. Lawson's analysis of the subjective warrant and its importance in recruitment into physical education teaching marked a step forward in this area of research and scholarship (Dewar, 1989).

Based on Lawson's works, Dewar (1983, 1984, 1989) examined students' subjective warrants prior to their entry into physical education programs. She focused on high school students, and developed a theoretical framework for the subjective warrant. According to her, "the dominant view, held by the majority of students who were attracted to or decided upon careers in physical education, was one in which physical education was seen as primarily skill oriented, involving learning how to play games and how to teach them to others" (1989, p. 47).

Through the use of interviews and role-playing activities with 10 high school students who intended to be physical education teachers, Hutchinson (1990) found that these students had well-developed but firm beliefs about teaching physical education. For example, they believed that student fun and interest should be emphasized in physical education classes, and that instruction would be unnecessary because all students should be able to perform skills if they try hard enough. But their perspectives are limiting because "what students learn about teaching, then, is

intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles" (p. 62).

Prospective physical education teachers were influenced by physical education teachers, coaches, family members, and peers. Research shows that physical education teachers play the most important role in the formulation of students' ideas about the profession (Dewar, 1989; Graber, 1989, 1991; Graham, 1991; Mulling, 1981, Schempp, 1989; Schempp & Graber, 1992). Students' experiences in physical education programs and their exposure to the teachers associated with these programs were influential in their early socialization. In these contexts, "the ways in which physical education teachers think about and execute their work is extremely important in the process of socialization into physical education teaching" (Dewar, 1989, p. 54).

In line with Dewar's (1989) study, Schempp (1989) explored the impact of being a student on learning teaching tasks, identification with teachers, teaching assessment, and the development of teachers' professional perspectives. He concludes that the "apprenticeship of observation" serves as an important socializing experience in the development of teachers. According to this view, anticipatory teacher socialization occurs largely through the internalization of teaching models during the time spent as junior high or high school students in close contacts with physical education teachers. The learning and internalization of this stage are influential in shaping teachers' conceptions of teaching and role performance. It was also revealed that students enter teacher education programs believing that they already know what occurs in schools and have little more to learn (Lanier & Little,

1986). Therefore, formal teacher education may have little ability to alter the cumulative effects of this anticipatory socialization.

Other researchers also found that biographical factors continue to influence the development of teaching perspectives and role performances of beginning teachers (Crow, 1987; Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Lortie, 1975; Petty & Hogben, 1980; Zeichner & Grant, 1981). Crow (1987), for example, argues that instead of relying on the informed judgment of professionals, beginning teachers employ perceptions formed as a lay person to direct teaching practice.

In summary, anticipatory socialization is very important and thus has received considerable attention by researchers. This is because the understanding of the dynamics of this recruitment process serves as the starting point to gain insight into the whole process of professional socialization, that is, the impact of teacher education and entry into the workplace on individuals' professional identities and practices. People are attracted to careers in physical education teaching mainly on the basis of their subjective warrants, and are greatly influenced by their physical education teachers.

Teacher Education

The second stage is defined as teacher education or professional preparation. Through this process, would-be teachers acquire the knowledge, values, sensitivities, and skills endorsed by the profession. For teachers, such knowledge and skills comprise Lortie's (1975) "shared technical culture" (i.e., technologies and

vocabularies for the work of teaching), and the values and sensitivities tend to promote a humanistic ideology (Templin, 1979).

According to Zeichner and Gore (1990), there are three major components in preservice teacher education programs that can potentially exert influence on the socialization of teachers: (a) general education and academic specialization courses, completed outside schools, departments, and colleges of education; (b) methods and foundations courses, usually completed within education units; and (c) field-based experiences, usually completed in elementary and secondary school classrooms. Meanwhile, Graham (1991) identified four features of teacher education that appeared to positively influence the development of preservice students' perspectives toward teaching. They were: (a) program personnel and a programmatic vision of teaching, (b) the promotion of an inquiry-centered approach to teaching, (c) carefully constructed and implemented practicums, and (d) the promotion of a critical approach and the rejection of an ends-means model of curriculum design in schools.

Though people believe that professional education courses have a strong impact on teacher education students, many researchers in the more general field of education have concluded that teacher education has a weak impact on at least some of the values, beliefs, and attitudes that students bring with them into their teacher education programs (Britzman, 1986; Bullough, 1989; Connell, 1985; Crow, 1987; Ginsberg & Newman, 1985; Knowles, 1988; Ross, 1987). For example, there is a great deal of debate in the literature over the role that the student teaching experience plays in the development of teachers and over the relative contribution of various

individual and institutional factors to the socialization process. It is evident that most people, such as educators, lay persons, and students alike, consider student teaching as being the most influential component of their program (Koehler, 1984). However, there also arises skepticism about the effectiveness of student teaching. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) analyzed the impact of student teaching experience on the development of teacher perspectives. They found that student teaching plays little part in altering the course set by anticipatory socialization which had occurred largely through the internalization of teacher models experienced as pupils. In some cases, "student teachers appear to adopt attitudes and values which often disagree with those inherent in training programs thereby compromising both motivations and opportunity to accomplish transfer" (Hull, Baker, Kyle, & Goad, 1982, p. 5).

Researchers investigating the biographies of recruits have suggested that dispositions, past experiences, and reasons for entering the field of teaching may influence what recruits learn during preservice preparation and later believe when they become certified teachers (Dewar, 1983, 1984, 1989; Graber, 1989; Lawson, 1989; Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). In this context, it's possible for recruits to resist efforts by teacher educators to change them, thus lowering the effects of teacher education programs.

It is also documented that students enter the formal teacher education program with well-established Teacher Role Identities (TRIs) and that they use their TRIs as filters through which they judge their experiences (Crow, 1987). Solmon, Worthy, Lee, and Carter (1991) examined the teaching perspectives of six physical education

student teachers and the interplay between their TRIs and teaching contexts. They found that teachers with well-defined TRIs were able to negotiate challenging settings and to more closely approximate the role of a teacher by implementing their own teaching styles. But teachers with less clearly defined TRIs relied heavily on their cooperating teachers through the imitation of their cooperating teacher's teaching styles.

Many researchers in education (Bullough, 1987; Crow, 1987; Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Knowles, 1988; Lortie, 1975; Petty & Hogben, 1980; Zeichner & Grant, 1981) and physical education (Dewar, 1989; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b; Pooley, 1972; Schempp, 1989) have found that the biographies of recruits have a strong influence on the development of teaching perspectives, values, ideas, and behaviors. Therefore, the impact of teacher education programs is limited. For example, Crow (1987) investigated the context of the socialization process and found that would-be teachers' backgrounds were important in the formation of the beginning teachers' role identities. She continued to argue that instead of relying on the informed judgment of professionals, the beginning teachers employed perceptions formed as a lay person to direct teaching practice.

Also, the recruits' expectations and perspectives about a profession, teaching, and teacher education program exert an impact on the socialization process. Some researchers examined how specific program expectations interact with the expectations of students (Chu, 1984; Graber, 1989, 1990; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). According to Graber (1989), most recruits enter training programs with program

expectations, training expectations, curriculum expectations, teacher expectations, and college expectations. Meanwhile, teacher educators have their own expectations toward recruits. When the expectations of the two groups differ markedly, socialization does not occur in a desirable way. Therefore, if the preservice experience is to encourage significant progress toward assumption of the professional role, training programs must work to either meet some student's expectations or at the least, to acknowledge that these expectations do exist and must be subject to open discussion and negotiation with students (Graber, 1989). In fact, students are not passive individuals who willingly submit to all expectations and demands of the teacher education faculty or its programs. When students feel that faculty expectations are unreasonable or the demands of training programs are difficult for them, they use various strategies called 'studentship' (Graber, 1989).

According to Graber (1989), studentship is "a set of behaviors students may employ to progress through a training program with greater ease, more success, and less effort" (p. 66). It consists of a variety of behaviors such as psyching-out, fronting and image projection, cheating, and short cuts. Psyching-out is a student behavior which happens when a student continually tries to get information from the instructor about what he or she should know for an examination. On the other hand, fronting and image projection are student behaviors which portray him or her in a favorable ways to those who control evaluation (Graber, 1989). "Studentship is a means of reacting to the forces of socialization, empowering students with strategies for progressing through a training program with greater ease and increased chance of

success" (pp. 76-77). Therefore, the varied effects of teacher education programs on recruits can be partly attributed to the mechanism of studentship in either accepting or rejecting the contents of teacher education programs.

There are other factors responsible for the differential effects of teacher education programs. They can include the absence of a shared technical culture, the failure of teacher educators to synthesize knowledge and skills resulting from research on teaching and school practices, and the conflicting views of teacher educators on physical education. Lawson (1986, 1989) suggests, for example, that the absence of a shared technical culture has created problems for school physical education and teacher education, and that improved teacher education programs require more uniform professional beliefs among physical educators.

In summary, recruits bring various program expectations resulting from their own ideas about teacher education. Meanwhile, teacher education programs do not exert as much influence on recruits as expected, and there exists a gap between the expectations of teacher education programs and those of would-be teachers. Therefore, if a preservice program is to be successful, it not only must work to infuse recruits with the orientations, the sensitivities, the knowledge, and the skills fundamental for teaching physical education in schools, but it must also try to accommodate students' predispositions, expectations, and studentship behaviors in a thoughtful way.

Occupational Socialization

The final stage in the teacher socialization processes is occupational socialization. This is the process by which new teachers learn the knowledge, values, sensitivities, and skills endorsed by the workplace when they leave professional education programs and enter schools.

Occupational socialization occurs on the basis of learning and interaction. Veteran status is gained when novice teachers successfully cross three invisible, organizational boundaries (Lawson, 1991). They are "(a) a functional boundary, marked by work responsibilities; (b) an inclusionary boundary, marked by the acquisition of a culture and group acceptance; and (c) a hierarchical boundary, marked by formal titles and status recognition" (p. 29).

It is, however, important to understand that occupational socialization starts early in the student teaching experience (Templin, 1981). During the student teaching period, the would-be teachers begin to get a sense of the school culture through exposure to the cooperating teacher or other faculty viewpoints on teaching, school policies, and student behaviors.

Although most traditional studies of teacher socialization have portrayed teachers as the passive recipients of institutional values and norms, current theory and research overwhelmingly support an interpretive, dialectic view of teacher socialization (Blase, 1985, 1986; Crow, 1986, 1987; Graber, 1989; Lacey, 1987; Schempp, 1989; Schempp & Graber, 1992; Tisher, 1982; Zeichner, 1979, 1986; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). For example, Schempp and Graber (1992) argue that

a dialectical process exists during all four selected period of professional socialization (pretraining, preservice, field experiences, and induction).

Induction Problems in the Schools

New teachers' entry into the workplace can be a process of conformity, internalization of school norms and tradition, and imitation of the experienced teachers around them. The transition from professional preparation to the workplace may be thought to be easy. In practice, it is frequently not. When new teachers enter the workplace, they encounter "reality shock" (Lawson, 1989, p. 148). They recognize a sudden and dramatic role transition. Overwhelmed by the heavy requirements of the workplace, they experience psychological stress. Upon encountering differences between teacher education and school practice, they quickly recognize that their teacher preparation in universities is not matched perfectly with the workplace requirements. As a result, new teachers begin to learn strategies necessary for their survival in schools by trial and error.

It also has been argued that the first year is the critical year of teaching, determining whether a new teacher will stay in the teaching profession and what type of teacher he or she will become. According to Huberman (1989), the induction phase is a period of survival and discovery. New teachers confront the pressures of surviving the complexity of instructional management and noninstructional responsibility; at the same time, they discover the identity of oneself as a teacher and a member of the school. He stated that the differences between easy induction and

difficult induction are closely related with positive relationship with the students and colleagues, instructional mastery, and enthusiasm.

Several researchers have also indicated that beginning teachers are subjected to encounter several problems and/or limitations during the induction period, particularly during the first year of teaching (Burden, 1981; Johnston & Ryan, 1980; McDonald, 1980; Ryan et al., 1980; Veenman, 1984). For example, Burden (1981) identified seven limitations common to most first-year teachers: limited knowledge of teaching activities, limited knowledge about the teaching environments, conformity to an authoritarian image of teacher, subject-centered approach to curriculum and teaching, limited professional insights and perceptions, feelings of uncertainty, confusion, and insecurity, and hesitancy to try new teaching methods.

Veenman (1984) identified eight of the most highly rated problems for beginning teachers: classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, relationships with parents, organization of classwork, insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. He concluded that the more problems that a beginning teacher encounters, the more likely he/she is to leave the profession.

However, beginning teachers are not passive victims to workplace problems. They actively adopt various strategies to cope with such problems. Lacey (1977) identified three social strategies used by student teachers: (a) internalized adjustment, in which the teacher fully conforms to the values and norms of the workplace and believes these values and practices to be necessary; (b) strategic compliance, in which

the teacher tries to acquiesce to the demands of the situation while retaining

oppositional beliefs; and (c) strategic redefinition, in which the teacher struggles with

the constraints of the situation and tries to change it to his or her preference.

Bureaucratic Socialization

Most physical education teachers are hired in large, bureaucratic school

organizations and bureaucratic norms of the school result in "bureaucratic

socialization" (Lawson, 1988). Bureaucratic norms are different from those learned

in the teacher education program. They have a hierarchical pattern of relationships,

in which people are rarely equal in power. Typically, the principal controls most of

the policy decisions such as scheduling, faculty evaluation, fund allocation, and

evaluation. The principal's evaluation criteria for teaching effectiveness has been

largely based on how well order and control of the class have been maintained. In

these contexts, bureaucratic socialization usually conflicts with its professional

counterpart (Lawson, 1988). It results in "a custodial, rather than humanistic,

ideology, together with a cognitive style that competes with norms of

professionalism" (p. 267).

After entering schools, most new teachers realize the contradictions and

differences between teacher education and workplace requirements. Thus, they begin

to discard the perspectives of teacher education and to follow the school traditions or

norms: progressive and liberal views that they adopted during college shift toward

conservative and authoritarian ones. They also start taking their cues from

experienced teachers around them. All these situations may result in either an immediate or delayed 'wash-out' of the effects of professional preparation (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b).

Role Conflict

Most physical education teachers share two roles: a teacher and a coach. Researchers have verified that there are conflicts over the expectations of these two roles (Bain, 1978; Bain & Wendt, 1983; Chu, 1981; Locke & Massengale, 1978; Sage, 1989; Segrave, 1981). The uniqueness of the teacher/coach occupational roles and the expectations of the school place physical education teachers in inevitable conflict situations, thus hampering their teaching efforts. According to Segrave (1981), teachers/coaches fulfilling these dual roles usually perceive their primary responsibilities as coaching and winning, and sometimes perceive coaching and winning as the only real responsibility. This perception is perpetuated by aspiring teacher/coaches who often view the two roles as distinct and prefer coaching because it seems to provide greater rewards within an unequal reward system. Segrave (1981) reported that 62% of the prospective physical education teachers preferred coaching to teaching.

Locke and Massengale (1978) differentiated two types of role conflicts. One may arise when a person occupies several different roles that demand incompatible behaviors (inter-role conflict). Another may arise when a person occupies a single role for which different groups or individuals expect incompatible behaviors (intra-

role conflict). Given that most teachers assume the positions of coach, physical education teacher, and classroom teacher simultaneously, it is evident that they are subject to both the intra- and inter-role conflicts (Locke & Massengale, 1978). These role conflicts, in turn, make the physical education teachers' jobs stressful and so may have a negative bearing on teaching effectiveness and satisfaction.

Meanwhile, Kneer (1987) identified various strategies to resolve the teacher/coach role conflict: (a) make coaching part of the teaching load, (b) continue to combine teacher and coach roles but reduce practice time and game schedules, (c) separate the teaching and coaching jobs and employ full-time coaches in the school, and (d) separate teaching and coaching as occupations and remove athletics from the school.

Organizational Culture of the Workplace

Each school is an organization. It, therefore, has its own organizational culture. School organization culture refers to shared, established rules and customs in a school. This organizational culture plays an important role in the occupational socialization of physical education teachers. Organizational culture can be defined as follows:

> Any organizational culture consists broadly of long-standing rules of thumb, a somewhat special language, an ideology that helps edit a member's everyday experience, shared standards of relevance as to the critical aspects of the work that is being accomplished, matter-of-fact prejudices, models for social etiquette and demeanor, certain customs and rituals suggestive of how members are to relate to colleagues, subordinates, superiors and outsiders, and a sort of residual

category of some rather plain "horse sense" regarding what is
appropriate and "smart" behavior within the organization and what is
not. All of these cultural modes of thinking, feeling and doing are, of
course, fragmented to some degree, giving rise within large
organizations to various "subcultures" or "organizational segments."
Such cultural forms are so rooted in ... common experiences of the
membership ... that once learned they become viewed by insiders as
perfectly "natural" responses to the world of work they inhabit (Van
Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 210).

"A school's organizational culture is largely unwritten, and consists primarily

of deeply embedded assumptions, which are accepted and professed by veteran and

powerful school personnel, about the school and its functions" (Lawson, 1989, p.

152). This organizational culture has two functions. It helps the school and its

members meet external environmental demands, and it facilitates the internal

integration of diverse school workers (Schein, 1986).

Organizational culture is learned and internalized by new teachers. However,

it is clear that while most teachers may learn this culture, some will not accept it

totally or partially. Many researchers (Bullough, 1987; Crow, 1987, 1988; Etheridge,

1989; Knowles, 1988; Lacey, 1977: Tabachnick & Zeichhner, 1985) have found that

beginning teachers are rather resistant to institutional norms. Such acts of rejection

are common in schools, as in all work organizations. Then, modified or entirely new

versions of organizational culture appear among groups of teachers. This is the basis

for organizational sub-cultures (Lawson, 1989). These sub-cultures conflict with the

dominant organizational culture espoused by the school's administration. As a result,

teachers' occupational communities are formed around such sub-cultures. School

organization cultures and sub-cultures, then, become an important component of

teachers' workplace conditions.

Workplace Conditions

There is evidence that workplace conditions play an important role in the occupational socialization of teachers. There is a considerable variance among schools in terms of workplace conditions. This variability might explain the diversity in teacher socialization since different workplace conditions would influence teachers in different ways. In particular, it has been shown that workplace conditions greatly influence teachers' commitment to teaching, teaching effectiveness, and eventually retention in the profession (Goodlad, 1983, 1984; Little, 1987; Lortie, 1975).

Many aspects of workplace conditions can be attributed to the maladjustment of teachers. The lack of adequate facilities and equipment, the large class sizes, and the lack of time for instruction are common problems (Locke, Griffin, & Templin, 1986). These problems might reflect the lack of public support for physical education (Dodds & Locke, 1984) and its marginal status in the school (Bell, 1986; Hendry, 1975). The expectation that most physical education teachers should coach varsity teams leads to the physical and psychological overburdening and frequently interferes with teaching responsibilities (Chu, 1981; Earls, 1981; Sage, 1989).

According to Lawson (1989), workplace conditions include variables such as personal-social factors (administrators, colleagues, students, parents and community, the nature of interpersonal relationships, the degree of student's or teacher's enthusiasm, etc.), situational factors (students' sub-cultures, teachers' occupational

communities, the nature of the physical education curriculum, the amount of teaching loads, racial composition of a school, etc.), organizational factors (bureaucratic norms, goal system, resource allocation system, evaluation system, prestige and reward system, etc.), and political-economic factors.

These factors interact with each other, both within and across the categories. They may facilitate, constrain, or prevent effective work practices. In other words, working conditions which surround the teachers can influence significantly the degree of commitment to teaching, teacher effectiveness, and even retention in the profession. Yet, it is also true that teachers, with their students, can influence and even create their workplace conditions (Lawson, 1989).

Personal-social Factors

It is reasonable to assume that teachers' thoughts and behaviors are influenced by persons surrounding schools and by the nature of the social relationships with them. In particular, school administrators, colleagues, students, and parents and community play an important role in the occupational socialization of teachers.

Administrators. Administrators are believed to influence the occupational socialization of a teacher because their decisions can vitally affect the teacher's working conditions and career advancement. Therefore, the principal and the principal-teacher relationship can be key factors in deciding teachers' satisfaction with their school work (Goodlad, 1984).

Edgar and Warren (1969) argue that significant evaluators such as the

principals, with the ability to potentially apply organizational sanctions, play a more important role in teacher socialization than colleagues do. Meanwhile, there is evidence that teachers generally receive very little direct assistance and advice from their superior (Zeichner, 1983) and that teachers can insulate themselves from some of the directives and sanctions of significant evaluators if they try to do so (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). In other words, the formal powers of the school administrators are limited. For this reason, the relationship between teachers and school administrators can be described as mutually independent.

To physical education teachers, a lack of clear role definition and expectation on teacher/coach by school administrators can add confusion and stress (Chu, 1980; Massengale, 1981). "Administrators ... occasionally do not differentiate teaching from coaching while expecting competent performance in both" (Massengale, 1981, p. 23). This results in the teacher's confusion about which role should be his or her priority. Sometimes it serves as a source of conflicts between the school administrators and the teacher.

There is also a great deal of variation both among and within schools in the degree to which administrators influence teachers' work (Connel, 1985; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). In either case, it can be said that "mutual trust between principal and teachers, considerable support for teachers by the principal, and respect for each other as professionals are important elements in the healthy school workplace" (Goodlad, 1983, p. 52). When support from the school administrators are insufficient, teachers either feel frustrated and withdraw their commitment to teaching

or try to convince the principal to provide appropriate support for effective teaching.

Colleagues. It was well-documented that the presence of collegiality exerts

an important influence on school cultures and structures (Barth, 1990; Johnson,

1989). It was also found that collegiality works as an important source for intrinsic

reward for teachers, and as a way to gain a sense of pedagogical unity with others

(Little, 1987). Therefore, a teacher's colleagues can serve as a very important

support network. On the other hand, if one works in isolation from colleagues, one's

work experience may become conflict ridden (Templin, 1989).

For beginning teachers, the influence of colleagues, especially the influence of

experienced teachers in the same or similar schools, is enormous (Lawson, 1989).

Beginning teachers learn the knack of surviving in the workplace through the

observations of and discussion with their colleagues. Thus, experienced teachers

serve as guides who facilitate the beginning teacher's induction into the workplace.

"Given that teachers in a given school work under generally similar conditions,

collegial influence is probably closely tied to the common circumstances that teachers

face in the structural characteristics of schools and in the ecological conditions of

classrooms" (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p. 339). Thus collegiality becomes an

important source for teaching and problem-solving for teachers.

However, it is also true that several different teacher cultures often exist, even

in a single school, and that teachers often face conflicting pressures by colleagues to

influence them (Carew and Lightfoot, 1979; Mets, 1978). In these cases, the role

performance of a teacher can be seriously constrained by either conflicting teaching

perspectives or uncomfortable pressures from peers. For example, Sarah, an experienced physical education teacher in Templin's (1989) study, was frustrated by the fact that the majority of her colleagues did not share her high commitment to teaching. Unlike Sarah, most other physical education teachers prioritized playing over teaching and learning. This eventually hampered Sarah's teaching because students were so accustomed to the play type of teaching that they could not adjust well to Sarah's teaching philosophy.

It is widely believed that an ethos of privacy and individualism exists within many schools (Lortie, 1975). A teacher teaches alone and the major psychic rewards of teachers are earned in isolation from other teachers. "Teachers rarely engage in activities whereby personal and professional support for one another is given or whereby pedagogical problems may be solved" (Templin, 1988, p. 197). In particular, "the cellular form of school organization, and the attendant time and space ecology, puts interactions between teachers at the margin of their daily work" (Lortie, 1975, p. 192).

Students. The influence of students on the occupational socialization of teachers is well documented by many researchers (Baumrind, 1980; Blase, 1985, 1986; Brophy & Evertson, 1981; Doyle, 1979; Drietzel, 1973; Haller, 1967; McNeil, 1983; Riseborough, 1988). Blase (1986) states, for example, that students have the most significant impact in inducing shifts in teachers' work perspectives. He argues that a significant change in teachers' work perspectives occurs from an initial emphasis on instruction and concern with self to the active pursuit of relational,

moral, and counseling outcomes with students. He also argues that the influence of students on teacher socialization is more powerful than that of others such as school administrators, colleagues, and parents.

It is well known that students' success and acceptance serve as a source of teacher satisfaction. Teachers identify students' success as a main source of psychic reward. For example, Lortie (1975) found that the majority of teachers in his study experienced gratification when they felt they had influenced students.

However, though acceptance and enthusiasm by students are the desired norms, student apathy and even rejection of physical education content are very common, reducing the teacher's teaching efforts (Lawson, 1989). Sometimes teacher-student conflicts arise due to the mismatched expectations of each other. Especially when a teacher has high expectations for student learning but students are not willing to meet them, a teacher-student conflict is inevitable. In addition, student discipline problems constantly constrain the work of teachers. For example, the physical education teacher (Sarah) in Templin's (1989) study had to constantly struggle to resolve student misbehavior in her classes. This not only strained her relationship with students, but also became a source of her dissatisfaction with teaching physical education. There is also an indication that inexperienced teachers tend to blame students, not teachers, when student misbehavior arises. For example, Fernandez-Balboa (1991) examined the beliefs and interactive thoughts of fifteen preservice physical education teachers regarding pupil misbehavior and found that they blamed students for the occurrence of most misbehavior.

The explanations for the great influence of students on teacher socialization are mostly sought from the typical isolation of teachers from their colleagues and supervisors as well as from the transitory and invisible nature of the learning process (Doyle, 1979; Haller, 1967). The influence of students ranges from effects on the general teaching approach and patterns of language used by teachers in classrooms to the type and frequency of specific teaching methods utilized by teachers (Doyle, 1979). It is also found that the effects of students on teacher socialization increase as teachers get experienced and become more aware of and concerned with their students (Larson, 1986).

Parent and community. There is little question that parents and community influence the socialization of teachers. This is because the school conditions, which influence the occupational socialization of teachers, are dependent on support from the parents and the local community surrounding the school.

There is a suggestion that the positive and enthusiastic involvement of parents and other citizens of the school community is a trademark of good schools (Goodlad, 1983, 1984; Tangri & Moles, 1987). However, undue and excessive parental interventions can hinder the work of the teacher. Request from a parent for special treatment for his or her child puts the teacher in a conflict situation, since the teacher has to "choose between parental initiations and his own rules" (Lortie, 1975, p. 189). Especially when several parents make contradictory requests, the situation may "make the teacher fear that his social order is beginning to unravel" (p. 189).

Communities vary in the degree of influence on and support for schools.

According to Arfwedson (1979) and Zeichner and Gore (1990), schools that serve

high and low socioeconomic populations provide quite different working situations

for teachers, and parents of these schools also exert different (direct or indirect)

influence on teachers. In schools that serve high socioeconomic populations, many

parents directly intervened in school affairs. But in low-status schools, the influence

of parents was seen to be exerted frequently through the agency of the students as

representatives of their families and their social class. After all, parental influence

serves as "a basic mechanism for the socialization of teachers into the traditions of a

school community" (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). In addition, the degree and the nature

of parental involvement in school affairs significantly influence curricular and

instructional effectiveness in a school.

It should be noted, however, that teachers are not passive recipients of

parental pressure and intervention. According to Lortie (1975), teachers retain a

clear sense of "territorial priorities" in this regard. They think that "there is 'teacher

territory' and 'parental territory', and leadership on school affairs rests with the

teacher" (p. 191). They want the parent to remain as a distant assistant. Thus, when

they see excessive parental pressure or intervention, they turn to the principal for

help.

Organizational Factors

When a beginning teacher starts to work in a school, the bureaucratic norms

of the school often conflicts with professional norms offered in teacher education

(Lawson, 1983b; Templin, 1979). According to Lawson (1989), each school has at

least four kinds of systems which are necessary for its successful operation as an organization. First, there is a goal system, which orients the school toward singular or multiple purposes. Second, there is an allocation system, which is designed and employed for the allocation of resources such as equipment, facilities, and funds for professional development and staffing assistance. Third, there is an evaluation system, which is for the control, supervision, and evaluation of teachers' work performances. Finally, there is another system: the prestige and reward system. This is invisible but is an integral part of the dominant organizational culture.

These four systems are closely related, and they significantly influence workplace conditions in physical education (Lawson, 1989). Physical education teachers are more vulnerable to the influences of these factors than those of other subject areas. For example, physical education teachers have relatively low prestige in a school organization when compared to other subject teachers. Thus, they seldom receive a high priority of resource allocation. This results in loss of enjoyment for the job, and can even cause teachers to eventually leave the field with disillusionment. In these contexts, it can be said that "organizational factors have a major bearing on teachers' work and their longevity in teaching" (Lawson, 1989, p. 157).

Situational Factors

Interacting with broader organizational factors are situational factors. Among these situational factors are student sub-cultures, occupational communities, and the nature of physical education curriculum (Lawson, 1989).

Student sub-cultures. Sub-culture refers to "patterns of culture characteristic of certain kinds of groups within a society" (Harris, 1985, p. 114). Sub-cultures are important because individuals live and function mainly within the boundary of these sub-cultures. Students have special styles of behavior, thought, dress, and a private vocabulary which adults can scarcely translate. These patterns of students' thoughts and behaviors within a school can be called student sub-cultures.

There is a growing amount of evidence that student sub-cultures have a bearing on both the effectiveness of physical education programs and the work of teachers (Griffin, 1983; Tindall, 1975; Wang, 1977). For example, Wang (1977) found that even when the purpose of the teacher's explicit curriculum was to promote integrated and nondiscriminatory participation in physical education classes, students subverted this intention within their hidden curriculum related to sex, race, and skill. In the analysis of coed middle school gymnastics classes, Griffin (1983) found that sex-stereotyped student interaction and participation patterns seriously limited the opportunities to learn gymnastics skills in several ways. It is also known that groups of students frequently contest and reject traditional sports and games instruction (Corrigan, 1982; Hendry, 1978; Willis, 1977).

Teacher occupational community. Teachers also form work groups called occupational communities. According to Van Maanen and Barley (1984), occupational communities have four related characteristics: (a) each member of the group believes he/she performs the same kind of work; (b) each member identifies more or less positively with his/her work; (c) each member believes that group

members share the same kinds of values, perspectives, and problems; and (d) the activities of group members blend the realms of work and leisure.

These occupational communities influence the ways in which physical education teachers think and act in schools. "They may facilitate or constrain teachers' work, and, in both cases, there are attendant effects upon a teacher's enthusiasm, morale, and commitment" (Lawson, 1989, p. 160). For example, Doug, a beginning teacher in the above study, felt that gaining respect from other teachers was slow and his school work was difficult. But the interaction with other teachers through various activities such as staff games at noon hour, afterschool softball games, and week-end and summer hiking trips facilitated his acceptance in the occupational community. And he found that his membership in the teacher occupational community, in turn, was very helpful in his work.

The curriculum. It is widely recognized that the physical education curriculum affects teachers' work. Templin (1989) suggests that a curriculum, whether it is overt, hidden, or both, may have a significant impact on teacher effectiveness, satisfaction, collegiality, and the image that physical education projects to students, administrators, teachers, parents, and the community. "Not every school has an agreed-upon formal curriculum and not every teacher views learning as a necessary and important outcome of physical education" (Lawson, 1989, p. 158). Consequently, the difference in the contents of physical education curriculum among schools will be partially responsible for the variability of teachers' occupational socialization.

Meanwhile, there is criticism that physical education curriculum is centered on the reproduction and maintenance of sports and games (Lawson, 1988; Goodlad, 1984). Learning often appears to be a secondary focus as the structure of the curriculum is primarily introductory and recreational in nature. This curricular structure is apt to cause the deskilling of teachers (Templin, 1989). Most physical education programs and instructions revolve around play or supervised recreation, therefore it is almost impossible for teachers to maintain their skills as pedagogically competent teachers.

It is also suggested that because physical education curriculum implementation is not examinable, physical education teachers are placed in a marginalized position in the school. This seriously constrains physical education teachers' work in the school. For example, the physical education teacher (Sarah) in Templin's (1989) study was frustrated by the fact that the physical education program at her school was classified as 'non-academic' thus the structure of curriculum and teaching schedule were arranged in a way which seriously constrained her teaching efforts. The perceived marginality of physical education teachers in schools can also force them to seek status through their coaching responsibilities (Hendry, 1978).

Teaching workload and role. A teacher may experience satisfaction or conflict depending on the tasks expected of the teacher. This is because "institutional and personal expectations may reflect either congruence or conflict" (Templin, 1989, p. 174). Role expectations from administrators, colleagues, students, and parents and community will greatly influence the actual role performances of teachers in schools.

According to Templin (1989), physical education teachers' roles would be defined as: "lesson and unit planning; effective teaching (establishing sound climate, instructional, and management practices); evaluation of instruction and curriculum; service through curricular and extracurricular roles; maintaining positive relations with administrators, teaching colleagues, students, and parents; and engaging in professional development activities" (p. 175). A physical education teacher's role may include all or some of them. Therefore, it can be assumed that these multiple roles will make the teachers' workload more demanding. Chu (1981) reports that the teacher/coach in secondary schools spends 68 hours per week in both duties. If the amount of workload is perceived as too demanding by the teacher, it will adversely affect the quality of his or her teaching.

Templin's (1989) Sarah taught six periods a day with one preparation period. In addition, she coached one spring sport which ran from February through May. She started the school day at 7:30 and was usually home between 5:00 and 9:00 at night, depending on her coaching responsibilities. In these contexts, she perceived the pace and routine of her job as very demanding and stressful.

Political and Economic Factors

Though the schools are not themselves political institutions, they are products of political processes (Brembeck & Grandstaff, 1969). Thus, it is evident that political and economic factors have a significant bearing upon the work of teachers. In response to the influence of politics on their teaching conditions, teachers have organized teacher unions. In the United States, 88% of the nation's teachers belong

to either the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) or the National Education Association (NEA), and over 60% are covered by collective bargaining agreements (McDonnell, 1992). These teacher unions have concentrated their efforts on improving teacher's wages and working conditions or on raising the status of teaching as a profession. Though there has been controversy about the appropriate role of a teacher union, these unions have pursued their dual roles of a voluntary organization and a political interest group by using two strategies of collective bargaining and political action.

Physical education is also not free from the influence of politics. Legislative decisions made at state and local levels directly influence the conditions of physical education in schools. Consequently, every state in the United States varies in its requirements for physical education (Mitchell & Earls, 1987). For example, there are differences in the number of grades in which physical education is required, and the number of days, hours, and minutes allocated for physical education instruction among states in America. In addition, the specificity of the content of the physical education and the resources that states allocate specifically to physical education vary considerably (Lawson, 1989).

The impact of these political and economic factors is profound on the condition of physical education in schools. The status of physical education and physical education teachers both in the schools and in society at large has an inextricable relationship with political and economic factors. Therefore, "changing the status of physical education in the schools requires political activism by physical

education teachers and others concerned with physical education programs" (Lawson, 1989, p. 154).

Socio-cultural Influences

A school is a social system. It operates within the mechanism of society. Though schools influence society to some degree, they are also affected by social forces. In these contexts, some scholars have studied the influence of the broader society and culture on teacher socialization. Apple (1983, 1987), Gitlin (1983), and Wise (1979) have explored how practices and policy initiatives outside of the school have affected the material resources available to teachers and the character of the teachers' work. Their studies found that teachers generally responded actively and creatively to the constraints of society and institutions. Other studies (Ball & Goodson, 1985; Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986) showed that societal factors such as the bureaucratization of work, the social division of labor, and the stereotypes and discrimination against women had also affected the role performances of teachers.

Attempts were also made to examine the relationship between culture and teacher socialization. Some scholars have attempted "to link the perspectives of individual teachers to the forms of meaning and rationality that are dominant in a society" (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p. 340). Dale (1977a, 1977b) related the perspectives of teachers to development of a cognitive style of liberal individualism. Giroux (1980) analyzed the development of teaching perspectives which were in line with a technical rationality. Meanwhile, Popkewitz (1985) found that the

professionalization of knowledge and the ideology of professionalism in society at large influenced the work of teachers.

In summary, occupational socialization is marked by diversity. And, it often results in an immediate or delayed "wash-out" of the effects of professional education. Organizational culture, workplace conditions, and all concerned people within and outside of schools play important roles in the occupational socialization of new teachers. Teachers, however, are not passive recipients of norms or practices of the workplace. They are active in the socialization process through their resistance to institutional norms as well as their influence on workplace conditions. In these contexts, it can be said that occupational socialization occurs on the basis of interaction and learning.

Implications of Teacher Socialization Research
on Teacher Education Programs

Previous research on teacher socialization provided valuable information for better understanding the ways in which physical education teachers are socialized into the profession. Given that the ultimate purpose of teacher socialization studies is to improve the quality of physical education through the understanding of teachers and their role performance in schools, it is important to draw implications of this research on teacher education programs.

Unified Professional Orientations

In terms of professional orientations and philosophies, there is considerable disparity not only between teacher education programs and schools, but also among recruits, teachers, and university teacher educators. The disagreement on the content of physical education programs as well as strategies to implement them has inevitably resulted in incongruous socialization of physical education teachers.

In order to resolve this incongruity, it is necessary to create more unified professional orientations and competencies among concerned parties, specifically between university programs and schools (Lawson, 1986). One way to do this is by developing strong collaborative training models between university and school programs (Goodlad, 1984; Martinek & Schempp, 1988). Such partnerships can elicit consensus on the content of preservice and inservice training programs because they will include joint planning sessions in which teachers and university faculty work together to design teacher training programs (Martinek, 1991).

As an effort to facilitate the success of induction and to establish the standards of professionalism, Lawson (1991) recently suggested that we should establish occupational norms which could inform recruitment, selection, retention, education and training, and actual work practices of physical education teachers. He said that "the normative order for physical education should include three categories of norms: moral, aesthetic, and procedural" (p. 30).

Explicit Educational Design in Professional Training Programs

It was found that varied predispositions and perceptions with which the recruits brought served as a constraint to the efforts of teacher education programs to prepare qualified teachers who are eager to improve professional practice. This finding prompts us not only to re-examine the subjective warrants of would-be teachers but also to find a way to diminish them.

As one way to reduce the influence of recruits' subject warrants on their later socialization processes, Lawson (1986) suggests that we should first establish uniform and explicit teacher preparation programs. By creating greater consensus about the design, contents, conduct, and evaluation of teacher education programs among physical educators, we can clearly and effectively communicate to the would-be teachers the program's expectations. This enables new recruits to assess whether their personal motives for going into teaching are compatible with the program's goal, thus ensuring greater potency of the undergraduate's learning experiences (Martinek, 1991).

Accommodating Recruits' Expectations

Research on preservice teacher education shows that recruits bring various program expectations, and there exist some gaps between the expectation of teacher education program and that of recruits. When students feel the demands of training programs are too difficult to comply with, they use studentship behaviors (Graber, 1989). Thus, the disparity of expectations works as a constraint to the physical

educators' efforts to socialize students into adopting the philosophy of teacher education program. Based on these findings, Graber (1989) suggested that teacher educators re-examine teacher education program in order to accommodate students' program expectations and studentship behaviors in thoughtful ways.

Increasing Accreditation Standards

As one way to guarantee the successful professional socialization of future teachers, Goodlad (1984) has recommended extensions of the training period and increased number of clinical experiences required for certification.

Specifically, he has suggested that would-be teachers go through a two-year program of professional studies and clinical experiences, followed by a period of residency. The residency period would require the would-be teacher to experiment with various teaching methods in selected schools under the supervision of specially trained teachers. During the residency period, would-be teachers will be required to demonstrate a full repertoire of teaching procedures that parallel those advocated in the professional program. Lawson (1986) has recommended not only to make accreditation and certificate standards more stringent, but also to implement these more faithfully.

Special Programs to Facilitate Induction

Research on inservice entry shows that beginning teachers confront the pressures of surviving the complexity of workplace requirements. They tend to make

practical, surviving kinds of decisions to ease the anxieties of their early years in schools. Specifically, it has been shown that the first year is critical in determining the survival of new teachers. These findings prompted both physical educators and policy decision makers not only to pay more attention to the mechanism of induction, but also to provide beginning teachers with special programs to help them make a successful transition from undergraduates to full time teachers.

As a result, state regulations that mandate beginning teacher assistance programs are now evident in at least thirty-six states (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1988). These state mandates have several characteristics in common. Most state-level programs require that all beginning teachers become engaged in district-level assistance programs; districts assume primary responsibility for arranging a veteran teacher mentor for each beginning teacher. Furthermore, districts are expected to resolve related issues such as the amount of time the mentor spends with the inductee, special stipends for service, and associated selection criteria (Zimpher and Grossman, 1992).

Another approach has also arisen -"peer assistance and review" (PAR) programs. First designed by the Toledo Public Schools in 1981 (Toledo Public Schools, 1988), these programs have been developed in Rochester, New York (Gillet and Halkett, 1989), and in two other Ohio cities, Columbus (Foster, 1985) and Cincinnati (Johnson, 1988). These PAR programs provide initial assistance to beginning teachers through consultant teachers, who also make recommendations to a review panel regarding contract continuation for beginning teachers (Zimpher and

Grossman, 1992).

Summary

Research on teacher socialization conducted in Western countries over the last two decades shows a shift from a functionalist to an interpretive or a dialectical perspective. The studies from a dialectical perspective helped confirm and understand the important fact that teachers can play an active role in the formulation of their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors in relation to institutional requirements and constraints. Given that understanding what teachers really do and why they do it is a prerequisite for improving physical education in schools, these studies seem to have great value.

Research on socialization into physical education indicates a three-stage process. However, these three phases are not separate entities, instead, they are closely related to each other. The data from the previous research on this topic show that the first year is important because it determines whether a new teacher will stay in the teaching profession and what type of teacher he or she will be. This prompts physical educators not only to pay more attention to the mechanism of induction but also to provide beginning teachers with special programs to help make a successful transition from neophytes to effective veteran teachers. Research also shows that occupational socialization results in an immediate or delayed 'wash-out' of the effects of professional education. This finding leads us to the examination of the mechanism of school organization which sometimes seems to be incompatible with the efforts of

teacher education in some ways. In order to effectively solve the problems of inservice entry, it is essential to understand fully the various features of school cultures and workplace conditions. Knowing both student and situational factors as they relate to teacher role performances seems to be important for determining a more holistic picture of occupational socialization.

It also appears that organizational culture and workplace conditions play important roles in the occupational socialization of new teachers. They include variables such as personal-social factors, situational factors, organizational factors, and political-economic factors. These factors interact with each other, both within and across the categories. Needless to say, teachers acquire and internalize school norms and culture. However, research also confirms the active role of teachers in the formulation or revision of organizational culture through their resistance to institutional norms and their influence on workplace conditions. Zeichner (1979) denied the dominance of institution over individual and portrayed teacher socialization as "a dialectical process involving a continual interplay between individuals and the institutions into which they are socialized" (p. 1). In these contexts, it can be said that occupational socialization occurs on the basis of interaction and learning.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Introduction

As stated before, the purpose of this study was to investigate the characteristics of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. Accordingly, physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools were chosen as the population for this study. The findings from this study are expected to be helpful in the improvement of Korean physical education programs.

The review of literature on teacher socialization (Chapter II) provided the theoretical framework for this study. However, the task to identify the most appropriate means for collecting data was left. After consideration of a variety of research designs and methods, it was decided that the most appropriate design for this exploratory study would be a combination of questionnaire and interview techniques to gather the data to develop a sound picture of the occupational socialization of Korean physical education teachers.

This chapter describes the subjects of the study, the instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis. In addition, the procedures for developing the instruments and establishing validity and reliability for them are explained.

Subjects

The entire Korean secondary school physical education teachers of about 13,000 were the target population for this study. The theoretically appropriate sample size for this study, which was determined by using the formula for "determination of required sample size" (Jaeger, 1984, p. 59), was 373. This sample size was computed based on the use of a simple random sample to meet established precision criteria. (In this case, sample estimate is accurate to within five percentile points with 95 percent confidence). This basic estimate of sample size was then increased by about one-third to compensate for both the no-response rate and the expected loss in efficiency due to concentrating the sample in a relatively small number of schools.

As a result, a total of 507 Korean secondary school physical education teachers was selected as the subjects for this study. The selection of the subjects was done by using a "stratified cluster sampling" technique. In this case the subjects were divided (stratified) according to the proportion of target population in 14 regions of Korea. And then, within each stratum the selection of a cluster sample (schools) was made with the consideration of level (junior high or high school), type (public or private school), and location (large city, small city, and rural area) of schools. Therefore, the sample represents proportionally the various regions of Korea as well as level and type of schools. The final sample consisted of 507 physical education teachers from 134 schools in 14 regions. Table 1 shows both the numbers and proportions of target population, sample, and respondents in each region. From the

table, it is clear that the sample is representative of the whole country.

Table 1. Numbers and Proportions of Target Population, Sample, and Respondents by Region

Region	N of Target Population[1] (Percent)	N of Sample (Percent)	N of Respondents (Response Rate)
1. Seoul	2863 (22.1%)	118 (23.3%)	113 (95.8%)
2. Pusan	1041 (8.0%)	42 (8.3%)	41 (97.6%)
3. Taegu	609 (5.0%)	25 (4.9%)	23 (92.0%)
4. Inchon	419 (3.2%)	21 (4.1%)	21 (100%)
5. Kwangju	398 (3.1%)	20 (3.9%)	20 (100%)
6. Taejon	326 (2.5%)	13 (2.6%)	11 (84.0%)
7. Kyonggi	1419 (10.9%)	50 (9.9%)	45 (90.0%)
8. Kangwon	611 (4.7%)	19 (3.7%)	16 (84.2%)
9. Chungbuk	480 (3.7%)	22 (4.3%)	20 (90.9%)
10. Chungnam	720 (5.6%)	29 (5.7%)	26 (89.7%)
11. Chonbuk	791 (6.1%)	27 (5.3%)	26 (96.3%)
12. Chonnam	904 (7.0%)	36 (7.1%)	34 (94.4%)
13. Kyongbuk	1067 (8.2%)	44 (8.7%)	44 (100%)
14. Kyongnam	1138 (8.8%)	41 (8.1%)	39 (95.0%)
15. Cheju[2]	101 (1.4%)	0	0
Total	12970 (100%)	507 (100%)	479 (94.5%)

Note. [1] The statistics of secondary school physical education teachers were used from Statistical Yearbook of Education (1991), Ministry of Education, Korea.

[2] The region of "Cheju" was excluded in sampling because it is a remote island from mainland. The exclusion of "Cheju" in the sampling of a survey study is very common in Korea.

Of the 479 questionnaires received, 463 were available for final analysis.

Sixteen questionnaires which did not provide answers to more than 3 question items

were excluded from data analysis. Of the various demographic data obtained in this

study, data on the level of school and the type of school were available from state

records. The chi-square test of association was calculated on these two variables to

determine if the sample (strictly speaking, the available responses) differed

significantly in this regard from the population.

Of the 463 physical education teachers, 264 (57.0%) taught at the junior high

school level and 199 (43.0%) taught at the high school level. As shown in Table 2,

the calculated value for a chi-square test of association is very small (X^2 = .42, p >

.05). This indicates that differences in the responses by level of school were not

significant at the .05 level. In other words, the responses in the sample represent the

responses to the survey in the population.

Table 2. Comparison of the Population and the Sample by Level of School

	Population	Sample	Total
Junior High School	7,591 (58.5%)	264 (57.0%)	7,855
High School	5,379 (41.5%)	199 (43.0%)	5,578
Total	12,970 (100%)	463 (100%)	13,433

X^2 = .42, df = 1, p > .05

Of the 463 physical education teachers, 291 (62.9%) taught in public schools

and 172 (37.1%) taught in private schools. As shown in Table 3, the calculated

value for a chi-square test of association is extremely small (X^2 = .09, p > .05). This indicates that differences in the responses by type of school were not significant at the .05 level. In other words, the responses in the sample represent the responses to the survey in the population.

Table 3. Comparison of the Population and the Sample by Type of School

	Population	Sample	Total
Public School	8,244 (63.6%)	291 (62.9%)	8,535
Private School	4,726 (36.4%)	172 (37.1%)	4,898
Total	12,970 (100%)	463 (100%)	13,433

X^2 = .09, df = 1, p > .05

For the personal interview, 24 teachers of the sample were purposefully selected with the consideration of their demographic variables such as gender, years of teaching experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school. The twenty four interviewees were composed of 14 males and 10 females; 4 less than five-year experienced teachers, 10 five-to-twelve-year experienced teachers, 6 thirteen to twenty-year experienced teachers, and 4 over twenty-year experienced teachers; 13 large city school teachers, 7 small city school teachers, and 4 rural area school teachers; 13 junior high school teachers and 11 high school teachers; and 14 public school teachers and 10 private school teachers (See Table 4).

Table 4. Demographic Characteristics of Interviewees

Interviewee		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Sex	Male	*	*	*	*	*			*		*		
	Female						*	*		*		*	*
Years	0 - 4								*	*		*	
	5 - 12	*			*	*					*		
	13 - 20		*	*			*						
	Over 20							*			*		
Location	Large City	*	*	*					*	*			
	Small City				*	*	*						*
	Rural Area									*	*	*	
Level	Middle S.			*	*			*		*	*	*	
	High S.	*	*			*	*		*				*
Type	Public S.		*	*				*	*	*	*		
	Private S.	*			*	*	*					*	*

-Continued.

Interviewee		13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Sex	Male			*	*	*			*	*	*		*
	Female	*	*				*	*				*	
Years	0 - 4								*				
	5 - 12		*		*	*	*	*			*		
	13 - 20			*								*	*
	Over 20	*								*			
Location	Large City		*	*	*			*		*	*	*	*
	Small City	*				*	*						
	Rural Area								*				
Level	Middle S.	*	*				*	*	*		*	*	
	High S.			*	*	*				*			*
Type	Public S.	*	*		*	*		*	*	*	*		
	Private S.			*			*					*	*

Instrument

In order to fulfill the purpose of this study, both a questionnaire and interview technique were used. It was expected that they would complement each other and could provide a clearer and richer description of the characteristics of occupational socialization of physical education teachers.

Questionnaire

A self-report questionnaire was used to gather primary data about occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. The questionnaire format is used very frequently in educational research. Despite the several recognized drawbacks of the questionnaire survey (e.g., low response rates, lack of control over the survey administration, and inability to probe ambiguous responses), it still has many compelling benefits: it requires relatively low cost; it can be easily and effectively administered for a large sample of respondents; it can provide an anonymous atmosphere for more frank responses; and it gives respondents more time and flexibility to complete questionnaires, reducing pressure for an immediate reply (Jaeger, 1988; Berdie et al., 1986). More importantly, the use of a questionnaire makes it possible to collect standardized, quantifiable information from the sample.

Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire which was used in this study had been developed by the

researcher from existing literature on teacher socialization. The questionnaire construction guidelines by Jaeger (1988) were used to construct appropriate question items that can elicit valuable information about the occupational socialization of Korean physical education teachers.

The questionnaire was designed to get as much information as possible about all research questions. That is, it has been designed to investigate Korean secondary school physical education teachers' role performances in schools (Research Question I), their teaching perspectives (Research Question II), their satisfaction with the profession (Research Question III), their perceptions and interactions with school contextual factors (Research Question IV), their socio-political orientations (Research Question V), and the influence of selected demographic variables on their occupational socialization (Research Question VI). In addition, the questionnaire was designed to include questions which seek information about their anticipatory socialization and evaluation of their undergraduate teacher education programs.

The questionnaire was composed of items that incorporated various response formats: multiple categorical variables, dichotomous variables, Likert-style scales, and open-ended form. When needed, an exploratory type of question was added to some of the questions. The final draft of the questionnaire consisted of 30 question items and an additional demographic section of 7 items. Some question items also included sub-question(s) (see Appendix A).

Content of the questionnaire. The first five questions sought information about the subjective warrants and factors which might have had a significant bearing

on the anticipatory socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. Question #1 asked teachers how much they liked sports or physical activities before entering university. Question #2 was related to teachers' level of sports skills before entering the university program. Question #3 sought information about teachers' participation in varsity teams during junior or senior high school years. Question #4 was concerned with recruitment resources, that is, both the most important factors and persons that influenced teachers' entry into physical education field. Question #5 was concerned with the time when teachers decided to major in physical education.

Four questions were prepared to find information about the impact of teacher education programs on their teaching performances. Question #6 was concerned with teachers' evaluation of their undergraduate physical education program. Question #7 was related to the teachers' perceptions of the effect of undergraduate programs on their teaching performances at school as well as on their identities as physical education teachers. Question #8 asked teachers how often they experienced differences between what they were doing in the workplace and what they had learned in the teacher education program. Question #9 was concerned with teachers' evaluation of their student teaching experience during undergraduate physical education programs.

The remaining 21 questions (from Question #10 to #30) sought information about the occupational socialization of physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools. Questions #10 to #13 were prepared to seek information about

both the degree of Korean secondary school physical education teachers' role

performances in schools and their perceptions of it. These were specifically about

teaching load and their satisfaction with the teaching load and schedules (#10),

administrative duties and their satisfaction with them (#11), additional coaching

responsibilities and the degree of teaching-coaching conflicts (#12), and the role of a

homeroom teacher (#13).

The next four questions sought information about their teaching perspectives.

Question #14 was related to the teachers' opinions about the most important aspect of

their job performances. Question #15 asked teachers' opinions about both the need

for academic punishment and the need for "physical punishment" in maintaining

classroom discipline. Question #16 was prepared to ask teachers what kinds of

information sources they used in relation to their teaching. Question #17 sought

teachers' opinions about the best criterion for gauging the effectiveness of teaching.

Question #18 which had an open-ended format asked teachers what they thought was

the most desirable physical education teacher. Question #19 was concerned with the

degree of teachers' satisfaction with their profession and the reasons for their

satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the profession. Question #20 asked teachers'

opinions about the aspects of teaching conditions which should be first improved.

The following seven questions sought information on teachers' perceptions

and reactions toward internal and external forces surrounding their workplace.

Question #21 asked for the teachers' perceptions of school culture and/or

environment. Question #22 which consisted of three sub-questions asked teachers

whether they had received sufficient support from school administrators to teach physical education, how frequently they had consulted with or received feedback from school administrators, and if they wanted to get feedback more often from the principal or vice-principal in the future. Questions #23 to #25 sought information about both the degree of feedback from colleagues, students, and parents and teachers' desire to seek feedback or opinions from them in the future. Question #26 which included four sub-questions asked teachers how frequently they had felt uncomfortable pressure from school administrators, colleagues, students, and parents. Question #27 was related to both the degree of role conflicts and the strategies to meet them.

The final three questions sought information about teachers' socio-political orientations. Question #28 was concerned with teachers' opinions about both the general education reform and the preferred approach to it. Question #29 was concerned with teachers' attitude toward social and political issues. Finally, question #30 asked teachers' opinions about the need for a teachers' union.

In addition, there was a separate demographic section which consisted of seven questions. They sought demographic information of the subjects: gender, years of teaching experience, location of school (large city, small city or rural region), level of school (junior high school or senior high school), type of school (public school or private school), educational background (undergraduate degree, graduate degree or other), and type of professional preparation institution (public university or private university).

Establishing Validity of the Questionnaire

The two central issues that have to be carefully considered during the

instrument construction process are validity and reliability. Reliability concerns

consistency and stability of the instrument whereas validity refers to the

correspondence between the instrument and research construct. In other words,

"while reliability focuses on a particular property of empirical indicators, validity

concerns the crucial relationship between concept and indicator" (Carmines & Zeller,

1979).

The highly exploratory nature of this research did not allow the researcher

much control over reliability and validity. Particularly, the assessment of validity

was not easy because much was not known about the nature of the research variables

and their relationship in Korean contexts. The researcher is fully aware of this

limitation and is hopeful that more research on the socialization of Korean physical

education teachers will eventually eliminate this limitation as more knowledge

becomes available. The researcher, however, examined the validity of the

questionnaire instrument as it pertains to the context of American literature on

teacher socialization.

"The validity of a measure is how well it fulfills the function for which it is

being used" (Hopkins & Stanley, 1981, P. 76). Meanwhile, Gay (1987) simply

defined validity by stating "that it is the degree to which a test measures what it is

supposed to measure" (p. 128).

Since tests are designed for a variety of purposes, there are also several

different types of validity: logical, content, construct, and criterion. However, some

scholars consider logical validity as a special case of content validity.

At the outset, it had been decided that the questionnaire would be subjected to

four phases of pilot tests not only to test the appropriateness of its content and

expression, but also to enhance its validity and reliability. Especially, the first three

phases of pilot tests were expected to establish a sufficient level of validity (logical,

content, and construct validity) of the questionnaire. Meanwhile, the final phase that

applied a test-retest method was intended to measure its reliability.

The first phase of pilot tests. The first phase consisted of simply asking some

pedagogy specialists both in the United States of America and Korea to review the

questionnaire and provide information about the format, content, expression of items,

and so on. Dr. Thomas Martinek, an expert in the pedagogical area of physical

education, was asked to provide critiques of the first draft of the instrument. The

second draft of the instrument which had resulted from both his comments and the

researcher's further scrutiny was submitted to Dr. Diane Gill as a part of her research

method course project for review.

The second phase of pilot tests. The second phase of pilot study was

conducted during the researcher's visit to Korea in the Summer of 1991 using the

first version of the questionnaire which was translated into Korean by the researcher.

In order to ensure a correct translation of the questionnaire into Korean as well as to

attain feedback about the appropriateness of its content, a draft of the questionnaire

was reviewed by several Korean sport pedagogy specialists: four Korean physical

educators and three Korean secondary school physical education teachers reviewed the questionnaire under the guidance of Dr. Sin Bok Kang of the Teachers' College, Seoul National University. Then, the questionnaire was administered to 43 junior and senior high school physical education teachers in Seoul. They were a part of the intended population but not participating in the study. Feedback was also solicited from the teachers who responded to the questionnaire pilot study.

A thorough examination and analysis of the results of the pilot study showed that the content validity of the questionnaire was well-established. The format and wording were found to be appropriate. However, as a result of the second phase of the pilot test, some changes to the questionnaire were made: the sequence of some question items were rearranged; several sub-questions and probing open-ended questions were added; one "double barreled" question which sought the information about the experience of pressure from the students and their parents together in a question was revised to form two new separate questions; and one new question which seeks information about feedback from students was added.

The third phase of pilot tests. The third phase of the pilot test consisted of submitting the revised questionnaire to some pedagogy specialists in Korea and the United States of America for another review. The purpose was to ensure the appropriateness of the content and expression of the questionnaire which went through a revision as a result of the second phase of pilot study. Two Korean sport pedagogy specialists, Jae Yong Lee and Eui Chang Choi, reviewed the revised questionnaire and provided feedback. In addition, three American sport pedagogy

experts (Dr. Thomas Martinek, Dr. Sarah Robinson, and Dr. Mary L. Veal of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro) were asked to review the questionnaire.

Logical validity. Logical validity is sometimes referred to as 'face validity.' "Logical validity is the degree to which a test appears to measure what it purports to measure" (Gay, 1987, P. 130). Hopkins and Stanley (1981) stated that face validity is important for the audience whom the measure addresses. Helmstadter (1970) also stated that face validity has some importance in gaining rapport and maintaining good public relations with the subjects. Logical validity is usually determined through judgement.

The questionnaire used in this pilot study can be said to have good logical validity for two reasons. First, it was clear from the results of the pilot survey that the questionnaire could be used to investigate the characteristics of Korean secondary school physical education teachers' socialization, as it had been designed to do. The questionnaire provided rich information about Korean physical education teachers' attitudes, perceptions, opinions, strategies, job conditions, interaction with others, and reactions to external forces. Findings showed that: (a) the subjects were predominantly male, implying women's low status in society as well as their limited sport socialization opportunities, (b) a considerably large proportion of teachers expressed dissatisfaction with their working loads, (c) about two-thirds of the teachers reported they had felt uncomfortable pressure from administrators, colleagues, students, or parents, (d) the majority of teachers accepted the need for academic punishment, reflecting the prevalence of custodial teaching perspectives,

and (e) the majority accepted the need for general education reform.

Second, when feedback was solicited, many respondents expressed their satisfaction with the questionnaire in terms of its appropriateness of measuring Korean physical educators' occupational socialization. In addition, many subjects felt that the format and wording of the questionnaire had been appropriately constructed enough to elicit needed information with little confusion. This further confirmed the logical validity of the questionnaire.

Content Validity. "Content validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended content area" (Gay, 1987, p. 129). Fundamentally, it focuses on the extent to which the content of an indicant corresponds to the content of the theoretical concept it is designed to measure. According to Gay (1987), content validity requires item validity and sampling validity. Item validity is concerned with whether the test items represent measurement in the intended content area, and sampling validity is concerned with how well the test samples the total content area.

As one necessary step for establishing good content validity, the researcher thoroughly explored the available literature on teacher socialization to understand the theoretical concept of the phenomenon. As a result, the researcher came to realize that teacher socialization could be conceived of in terms of a three-stage process: anticipatory socialization, professional preparation, and occupational socialization. Though the purpose of the study was to investigate the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers, it was decided that the questionnaire should include some aspects of anticipatory socialization and

professional preparation. That is because these two stages have close relations with the third stage. Based on this theoretical framework, the questionnaire was designed to include items representing several content areas of teacher socialization as described by Dewar (1983, 1984, 1989), Graber (1989), Hutchinson (1990), Lawson (1983a, 1983b, 1986, 1988, 1989), Lortie (1975), Pooley (1975), Schempp (1989), Templin (1979, 1981, 1989), and Templin and Schempp (1989). Furthermore, because of the vast range of content within teacher socialization and the length limitations of a questionnaire, careful decisions were made about the most appropriate question items to include. Therefore, it is believed that this effort helped establish the sampling validity of the questionnaire.

As another effort to establish good content validity, the questionnaire instrument was again given to several experts in the physical education pedagogical area three times. These experts were asked to provide opinion about the appropriateness of content validity. As a result, they confirmed the relatively well-established content validity of the questionnaire. It was verified that the items of the questionnaire not only represented most relevant content areas, but they were adequately sampled from all the areas. Through these two steps, the content validity of the questionnaire was viewed as well established and acceptable.

Construct Validity. "Construct validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct" (Gay, 1987, p. 131). Fundamentally, "construct validity is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the concepts (or

constructs) that are being measured" (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 23). A construct

is a non-observable trait, but it is used to explain behavior. Construct validity is

usually established by relating the test results to some behaviors.

The data of the pilot study which had used the questionnaire partially verified

the theoretical hypotheses that occupational socialization of teachers is marked by

diversity (Lawson, 1989), that there are "wash-out effects" of occupational

socialization on professional training programs (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b), and that

workplace conditions are an important factor in molding teachers' perception of the

profession and in their actual role performances (Lawson, 1989; Templin, 1989). It

was also shown that teachers play active roles in shaping their identities while

conforming to the role expectations and norms of their workplace (Templin &

Schempp, 1989). In other words, the results from the pilot study were found to be

mostly consistent with the theoretical hypotheses about teacher socialization. In these

contexts, the construct validity of the questionnaire can be viewed as satisfactory.

Establishing Reliability of the Questionnaire

"Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it

measures ... High reliability indicates less error variance; if a test has high reliability,

then the effect of errors of measurement has been reduced" (Gay, 1987, P. 135).

There are various types of reliability: intra-rater reliability, inter-rater

reliability, and internal consistency. Each deals with different kinds of consistency

and is determined by different methods such as test-retest, equivalent forms, split-

half, etc. Test-retest reliability measures response consistency (stability) over a

specific period of time. It "indicates score variation that occurs from testing session to testing session as a result of errors of measurement" (Gay, 1987, P. 136). Equivalent forms measure stability over item samples, and split-half method measures internal consistency (in other words, stability of items).

Because many of the questionnaire items contained varying response choices, calculating internal consistency reliability of the instrument was not appropriate. Instead, the researcher decided to measure test-retest reliability. The final version of the questionnaire was administered on two different dates to selected physical education teachers in Seoul.

Twenty-three physical education teachers from 5 junior high schools in Seoul completed the initial questionnaire during May 20 and May 22, 1992. During the questionnaire administration, the purpose of the process was explained and the fact that the instrument would be administered at a later date was not mentioned. However, each individual was requested to mark personally the instrument with an identifying code for "future returning." One week later, each of the subjects again completed an identical second questionnaire. At that point, the teachers received an explanation regarding the nature of the test-retest process and the significance of their cooperation. As in the initial survey administration, each individual was requested to mark the second instrument with the identical code used on the first instrument.

Of the 23 questionnaires initially completed, only 21 were available for final analysis. Two teachers were unable to complete the second questionnaire due to personal reasons. The 21 questionnaires were compared by determining percent

agreement per item between the first and second test administrations. In addition, the percentage was calculated for the total items.

The results revealed an overall 89.2% agreement between the first and second test administrations for the questionnaire (Table 5). Based on the results, it was concluded that the reliability of the questionnaire has been well established. A review of the results, however, showed a considerable discrepancy of response agreement among both items and teachers. Some questions which request the individual to make a judgement received a lower response agreement between test administrations, while questions which sought factual information received a higher agreement. The response agreement of items ranged from 66.7% to 100%. On the other hand, the response agreement of individuals ranged from 71.4% to 100%.

Interview

One limitation of a questionnaire is that respondents can answer only the questions they are asked. They cannot discuss the inevitable exceptions to the rules or reasons behind their answers.

In order to address these limitations as well as to augment the data generated from the questionnaire, a semi-structured open-ended interview was implemented. This type of interview helps the investigator to remain free to word questions spontaneously and to establish a conversational style while maintaining the focus of the interview on the subjects in question (Patton, 1990). In addition, the interview

Table 5. Item Agreement from Test-retest Administration of the Questionnaire to 21 Korean Middle School Physical Education Teachers

Questions	Item Agreement[1] (Percent)	Questions	Item Agreement (Percent)
1	90.5	20	n/a[2]
2	85.7	21	85.7
3	100.0	22(a)	90.5
4(a)	100.0	22(b)	85.7
4(b)	100.0	22(c)	85.7
5	100.0	23(a)	76.2
6	81.0	23(b)	81.0
7	90.5	24(a)	95.2
8	95.2	24(b)	95.2
9	100.0	25(a)	76.2
10	90.5	25(b)	71.4
11(a)	71.4	26(a)	95.2
11(b)	71.4	26(b)	90.5
12(a)	100.0	26(c)	81.0
12(b)	66.7	26(d)	81.0
13(a)	100.0	26(e)	n/a
13(b)	90.5	27(a)	85.7
14	100.0	27(b)	n/a
15(a)	95.2	27(c)	100.0
15(b)	100.0	28(a)	95.2
16	81.0	28(b)	n/a
17	95.2	28(c)	100.0
18	n/a	29	90.5
19(a)	95.2	30	85.7
19(b)	85.7		
19(c)	83.3		
	Total Agreement	89.2%	

Note. [1] Item agreement indicates identical answers between test- and re-test administrations for the subject.

[2] n/a indicates that the question item can not be applied to the analysis of response agreement because it is open-ended question.

method appeared to be the most appropriate approach for obtaining insights into the socialization process of physical education teachers.

Development of the Interview Guide

The information solicited in the interview was primarily focused on Korean secondary school physical education teachers' role performances in schools (Research Question I), teaching perspectives (Research Question II), teachers' perceptions and interactions with school contextual factors (Question IV), teachers' socio-political orientations (Question V), and the influence of selected demographic variables on teachers' occupational socialization (Question VI).

The interview guidelines by Patton (1990), together with Lortie's (1975) and Stillman's (1987) interview protocols, were used to construct appropriate questions that could elicit the teachers' perspectives and help to understand the interaction between physical education teachers' perspectives and the contextual factors of schools. The final draft of the interview guide consisted of 25 questions carefully worded and arranged for the purpose of both expanding upon the questionnaire items and going a step further in examining the mechanism of occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers.

The interview study was aimed at gathering supplementary or in-depth information about the characteristics of teachers' occupational socialization. Therefore, many questions used in the interview corresponded to the questionnaire questions in terms of their content (see Appendix B).

Content of the interview guide. As previously pointed out, the statements of the interview guide were all open-ended and semi-structured. The interviewer asked the same questions of all subjects, but the order of the questions, the exact wording, and the type and the degree of follow-up questions varied considerably.

The first five questions (Questions #1 to #5) sought in-depth information about the physical educators' roles in schools and their perceptions of them. Question #6 was related to their teaching perspectives. Questions #7 to #17 sought in-depth information about the interactions between teachers and school contextual factors. Contextual factors included administrators, other physical education teachers, other subject matter teachers, students, parents, curriculum, in-service teacher education programs, school culture, and social-cultural values. Questions #18 to #22 were related to the degree of the influence of selected demographic variables such as gender, years of teaching experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school on their role performances.

The final three questions (#23 to #25) were related to the socio-political orientations of the physical education teachers. These included their opinions on general education reform, their attitude toward social and political issues, and their opinions about the need for a teachers' union and the desired roles of it.

Establishing Validity of the Interview Guide

At the outset, it had been decided that the interview guide would be subjected to three phases of pilot tests to test the appropriateness of it as well as to enhance the validity of the data collection process. The first phase consisted of asking a few

pedagogy specialists both in the United States and Korea to review the interview guide and provide information about the format, content, expression of items, and so on. Then, as a part of the second phase which was undertaken in Korea in the summer of 1991, the researcher conducted pilot interviews with two Korean secondary school physical education teachers.

The researcher audiotaped the interviews while listening to answers and taking notes. The interview guide was used both to initiate a topic and to ensure inclusion of all topics which pertain to the occupational socialization of the interviewees. However, the interview was not limited to these questions. The investigator remained free to word questions spontaneously in order to probe for details, reasons, perceptions, and opinions while maintaining the focus of the interview on the subjects in question. The researcher tried to use neutral probing questions so as not to influence, guide or threaten the interviewee. It took about 40 to 60 minutes to complete an interview.

The results of the interview pilot study confirmed that the protocol not only could provide supplementary information on teacher socialization, but it could provide important information about the processes and dynamics of occupational socialization in physical education settings. In addition, valuable information was gained about taping procedures, note-taking procedures, the length of interview time, the appropriateness of wording and sequence, and so on.

The interview pilot study also proved that there should be some changes made in the interview guide. Two questions which had been used separately in the pilot

study were incorporated into one question. Some other questions were added. A new question which asks teachers to provide information about whether there are generation gaps between older physical educators and younger physical educators in Korean secondary schools was added. Five new questions were also added. They were included to gain information about the influence of variables such as gender, the years of experience, the location of school, the level of school, and the type of school on their role performance in schools. Thus, the revised draft of the interview guide consisted of 25 question items.

In the final phase of the pilot test, the revised interview guide was submitted to the same pedagogy experts who initially reviewed the questionnaire. Based on their feedback, minor changes were made and the final draft was completed.

Data Collection

After getting the approval of the study by the Human Subjects Review Committee of the School of Health and Human Performance at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, the researcher went back to Korea to administer the questionnaire and conduct interviews during the summer of 1992. A draft of the questionnaire was again reviewed by both Dr. Sin Bok Kang of the Teachers' College, Seoul National University and three physical education teachers in order to ensure a correct translation of the questionnaire into Korean. (The Korean version of questionnaire is presented in Appendix E).

Then, the survey was given to 507 Korean junior and senior high school

physical education teachers during July and August of 1992. The researcher first stratified subjects into 14 regions, then selected a cluster sample (schools) within each stratum with the help of one or two "cooperating" physical education teachers who had lived in each selected area and volunteered to assist in the data collecting in that area.

After selecting schools in each region, the researcher first contacted either cooperating teachers or the heads of physical education divisions at the selected schools by telephone, and then mailed the necessary number of packets of information to them. Each packet included the necessary number of invitation letters, copies of the questionnaire form, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. Included in the invitation letter were: (a) an explanation of both the purpose of the study and the importance of their participation, (b) an assurance of anonymity of their identity and that of the school they worked at, (c) and encouragement to contact the researcher regarding any questions.

Approximately two weeks after mailing, several follow-up letters and phone-calls were made to ensure a return rate of at least 80 percent. When necessary, the researcher visited specific schools and collected the completed questionnaires. A total of 479 responses were finally garnered. This represented a response rate of 94.5 percent. The extraordinarily high response rate was mainly due to the cooperative interpersonal network characteristic of Korean society.

The interview process was done by first contacting each subject via telephone or personal meeting. The subjects were then re-contacted at the established time and

interviews were conducted in a quiet, secluded location that was convenient for the teacher. The interview protocol served as a guide for the interview. But when necessary, additional exploring questionings were made. At the beginning of the interview, the subject was asked to fill out both a consent form and the demographic section of the questionnaire. These procedures served as an indication that consent was granted to do the interview. The latter helped facilitate the interview process. The interviews ranged from 40 to 90 minutes. All interviews were audiotaped.

Data Analysis

The completed questionnaires were carefully checked for stray marks, multiple responses to single questions, and omission of responses. If no response was given for a particular question, efforts were made to determine if the response could be ascertained through an association with a response to some other questions. If no association could be made, the teacher' response to the question was omitted from the survey. If an excess number of responses (more than 3) were omitted, the answer sheet was not included in the data analysis. By this criterion, sixteen questionnaires were excluded from data analysis, leaving a total of 463 responses available.

Responses from the usable 463 questionnaires were compiled to a computer spread sheet, and then upgraded for the analysis. The data were analyzed by a VAX 8700 computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences in the Academic Computer Center at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

For each question, frequencies and percentages were computed to capture an overall picture of the data. Percentage reflects the number of responses in one category of a variable divided by the total number of responses for the variable.

Chi-square values were computed to determine if statistically significant differences by five demographic variables such as sex, years of teaching experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school could be found on selected aspects of Korean secondary school physical education teachers' socialization. A chi-square analysis was performed on the data with the significance level set at .05. Chi-square is an appropriate, non-parametric test of significance when the data are in the form of frequency counts occurring in two or more mutually exclusive categories (Gay, 1987). In those cases with a degree of freedom of one, the chi-squares values were computed after a Yate's correction for continuity was applied. According to Elzey (1971), the Yate's correction for continuity needs only to be applied in cases where we have only one degree of freedom.

Interview data were transcribed from the audiotapes recorded at each session. All information regarding each specific question or topic was then identified and organized.

In the analysis of qualitative data there are concerns about potential investigator biases that may unconsciously lead the researcher to simply prove his or her thesis. As an effort to protect potential investigator biases, the researcher continually checked and rechecked the data to ensure that the interpretation of themes identified would be consistent. Special endeavors to capture the subtleties of the

socialization process as well as to find the holistic meaning of the teacher

socialization were made. Also, continual efforts were made to ensure that the

richness in individual meaning and context was not lost in the data analysis (Locke,

1989). Furthermore, an inductive data analysis on raw data themes was conducted to

sum up all relevant themes, providing an in-depth profile of occupational

socialization of the teachers in this study.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the characteristics of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. To accomplish the purpose of the study, data were collected from a survey of 507 subjects, which resulted in 463 usable responses. In addition, 24 other subjects were interviewed to obtain supplementary or in-depth information about the occupational socialization in Korean secondary school physical education settings.

This chapter presents the analyses of data from both the survey study and an interview study. It also provides discussion and interpretations of findings in light of previous studies conducted in Western countries as well as current practices of physical education in Korea. Because most questions in both studies sought the same information about various aspects related to teacher socialization, findings from both studies were incorporated and presented together under the same sub-titles rather than separately.

The findings of data analysis are reported in the following sections: (a) background information of the respondents, (b) role performance in schools (Research Question I), (c) teaching perspectives (Research Question II), (d) job satisfaction (Research Question III), (e) interaction with school contextual factors

(Research Question IV), and (f) socio-political orientations (Research Question V).

The influence of five demographic variables (gender, years of teaching experience,

location of school, level of school, and type of school) on various aspects of

teachers' occupational socialization (Research Question VI) was addressed together

with the findings of the other research themes in each section.

Background Information of the Respondents

The following section presents the background information of the respondents.

Research questions did not formally include the investigation of the teachers'

background. But it was decided, at the outset, to examine the demographics of the

subjects, factors related to their recruitment into the physical education field, and

their evaluation of the teacher education program. This was done because

anticipatory socialization (the first stage of teacher socialization) and teacher

education (the second stage) were assumed to have a significant bearing on the

occupational socialization of teachers (the third stage). Thus, the background

information presented in this chapter section is expected to provide valuable insight

into the understanding of teachers' occupational socialization.

Demographics

The Korean secondary school physical education teachers who participated in

the questionnaire survey were predominantly male. Of a total of 463 subjects, 89.8%

were male and 10.2% were female. This finding is not surprising given that Korean

society is male dominated and the society does not encourage women's sport participation.

The respondents had varied teaching experience. About twenty percent (20.1%) of them had 0-4 years of experience; 46.9% had 5-12 years of experience; 21.6% had 13-20 years of experience; and 11.4% had over 20 years of experience.

The largest percent of the respondents were working in a large city school. About 61% of the respondents were working in schools located in large cities; 24.6% were working in schools located in small cities; and remaining 14.3% were working in rural area schools.

As for the level of school, 57% of the respondents were affiliated with junior high schools, whereas 43% were affiliated with high schools. As for the type of school, 62.9% of the respondents were working in public schools and 37.1% were working in private schools.

As to the academic background, more than two-thirds of the respondents (70.6%) reported they had a bachelor's degree; 27.2% reported they had a master's degree; and only 2.2% reported they had other kind of degree. As for the teacher education institutions, 54% of the respondents reported they had graduated from a public university; 45.8% reported they had graduated from a private university.

Anticipatory Socialization

The stage of recruitment into physical education (anticipatory socialization) is assumed to be important because understanding the factors related to the recruitment

process serves as the starting point to gain insight into the whole process of professional socialization. Especially given that the Korean educational system does not allow the change of majors or schools after a student's admission into a college/university, understanding the subjects' anticipatory socialization appears to have great significance. Of the various factors which might have a bearing on the recruitment of Korean secondary school physical education teachers, this section attempts to provide an explanation for some conspicuous factors. An additional investigation was made to find whether there was a significant relation between gender and those factors.

Interest in Sports

The majority of the physical education teachers who had participated in the questionnaire survey expressed their liking for sports or physical education activities before entering the university. About 84% of the respondents reported that they had liked sports ("very much": 50.3%, "much": 33.3%), whereas only 4.7% answered negatively (see Figure 1). Given the nature of physical education which revolves around sport activities, it is very natural that most physical education teachers had liked sports prior to their recruitment.

A chi-square test of association found that liking for sports before entering the university were significantly related to gender (X^2 = 32.7, df = 4, p < .001). Male teachers liked sports significantly more than their female counterparts. About 87% of male respondents said they had liked sports before entering teacher education program, whereas only 55% of female teachers responded they had.
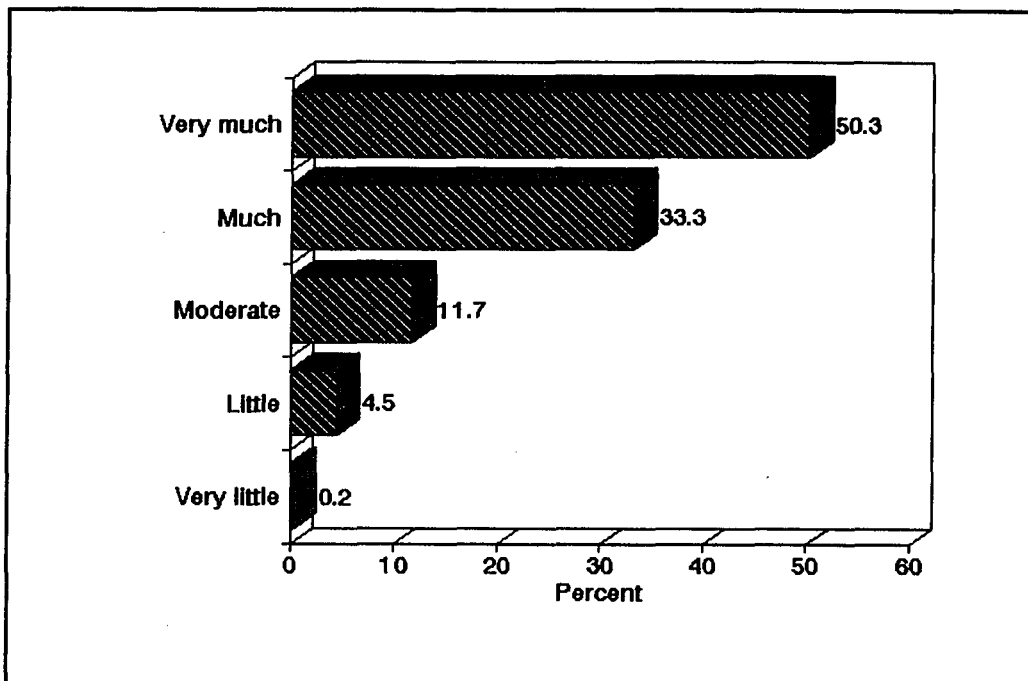
Figure 1. Interest in Sports before Entering University

Sports Skills

The levels of sports skill of the physical education teachers before entering

teacher education programs seem to be varied, but more than two thirds of the

respondents said they had been good at one or more sports. About 37% of the

respondents said that they had been skilled at various sports; 30.9% said they had

been skilled at one or two sports; about 29% reported they had not been skilled at

any specific sport but they had been reasonably skilled at various sports; and 3.9%

reported they had been generally low skilled at sports before entering teacher

education program. Summaries of responses to this question are shown in Figure 2.

The results show that the majority of teachers had good or somewhat good

sports skills prior to their recruitment into physical education programs. Given the
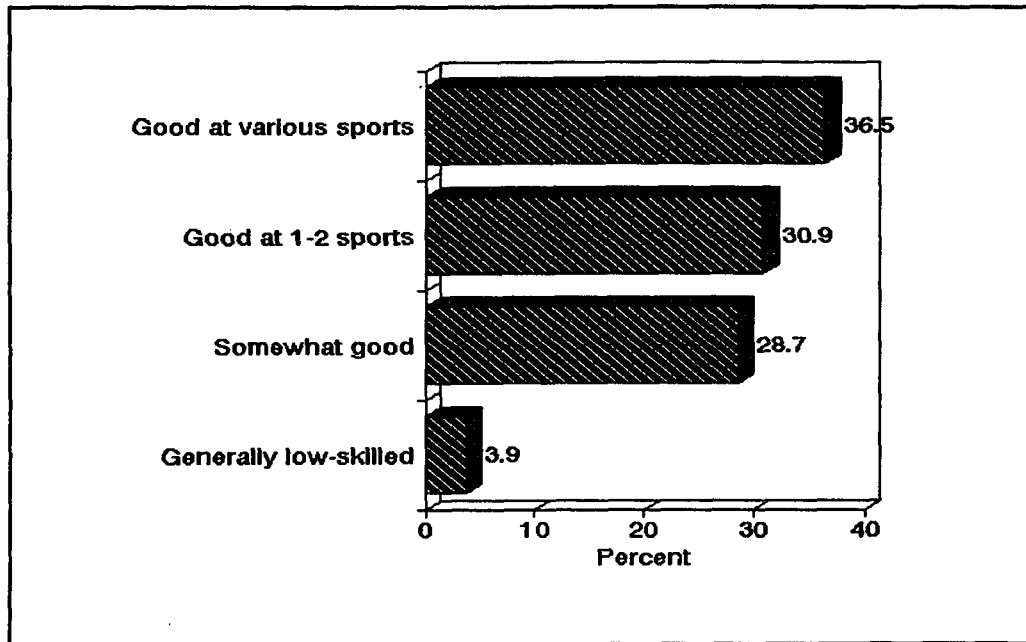
Figure 2. Level of Sports Skills before Entering University

requirements of entrance examinations in which sport skill tests are an integral part,

it is not at all surprising that persons who had been skilled at some sport(s) were

attracted and recruited to the physical education field. These results are in line with

Dewar's (1989) study in the United States which found that the majority of recruits

in physical education see the profession as primarily skill oriented.

A chi-square test of association found that male physical education teachers

were more likely to have been skilled at sports before entering a teacher education

program than female physical education teachers (X^2 = 33.1, df = 3, p < .001). For

example, about 70% of male respondents said that they had possessed good skills in

at least one sport, whereas about 40% of females responded the same way.

Participation in Varsity Teams

Approximately 77% of the respondents reported that they had participated in some varsity team(s) during junior or senior high school years. But the remaining 23.1% said they had no such experience (see Figure 3).
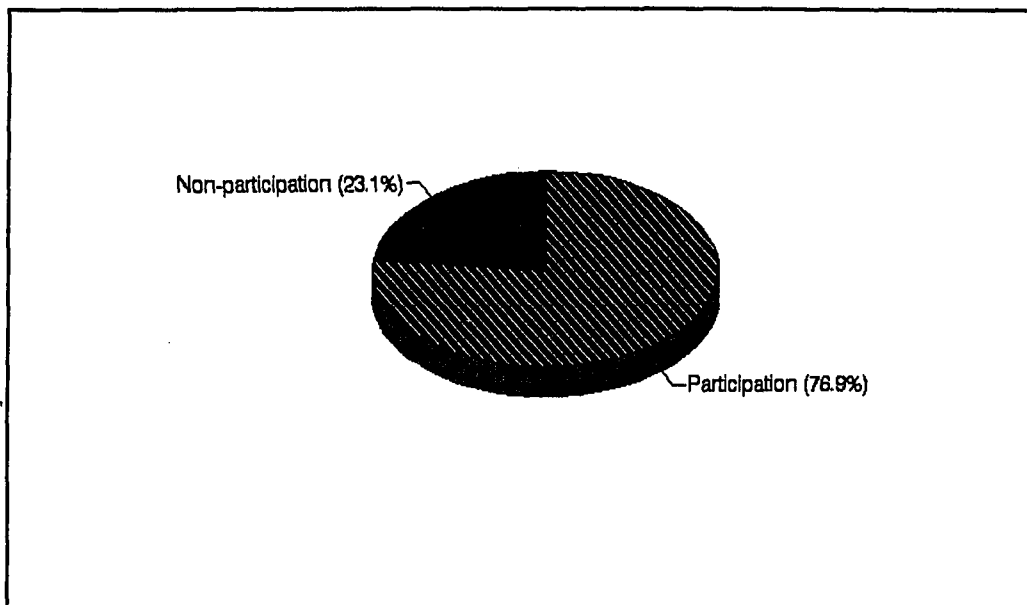
Figure 3. Participation in Varsity Teams during School Years

While varsity sports have some importance in Korea, they are not as prestigious as those in the United States. The intensity of varsity team training is usually high. Thus, most academically excellent students do not want to play organized school sports because they could not get sufficient psychological or material reward from varsity team participation, and also because they fear varsity team membership would hamper their academic performance. It is a common belief that those who are not academically excellent but have athletic prowess choose to participate in varsity sports. From the above results which showed that many

teachers had been affiliated with school varsity teams during their school years, we can infer that many Korean physical education teachers had not been academically oriented. The results also indicate that participation in organized sports during school years served as an influential factor for the teachers' anticipatory socialization into physical education.

The type of participation activities were widely varied, but the most popular was track and field (19.4% of the 356 participants), followed by soccer (17.4%), volleyball (10.7%), basketball (9.8%), judo (8.1%), Taekwondo (7.6%), and gymnastics (6.7%). Also, popular were activities such as tennis, team handball, baseball, table tennis, rugby football, swimming, dancing, lifting, boxing, fencing, and field hockey. Of 356 teachers who reported they had participated in varsity team(s) during their school years, 44 (12.4%) said they had been affiliated with more than two different sports.

It was found that male physical education teachers had participated more actively in some of the varsity teams than their female counterparts ($X^2 = 32.6$, df = 1, p < .001). While 80.8% of males had been affiliated with varsity team(s) during their school years, only 42.6% of females indicated they had been affiliated with school sports team(s).

Recruitment Resources

The studies on recruitment into physical education suggest that the decision to enter a university physical education program is made as a result of the interplay of recruits' subjective warrants with recruitment resources. Recruitment resources

include not only the comparative benefits that are offered to potential recruits, but

also the social mechanism that eases an individual's entry into an occupation.

Teachers were asked to indicate their recruitment resource. The largest

percent (41.3%) of them reported interest in sports as the most important factor

affecting their decision to major in physical education; 22.9% said interest in

teaching; 16.6% referred to the influences of specific individuals; 11.0% mentioned

the easy standard of entry; and remaining 8.1% reported other factors (see Figure 4).
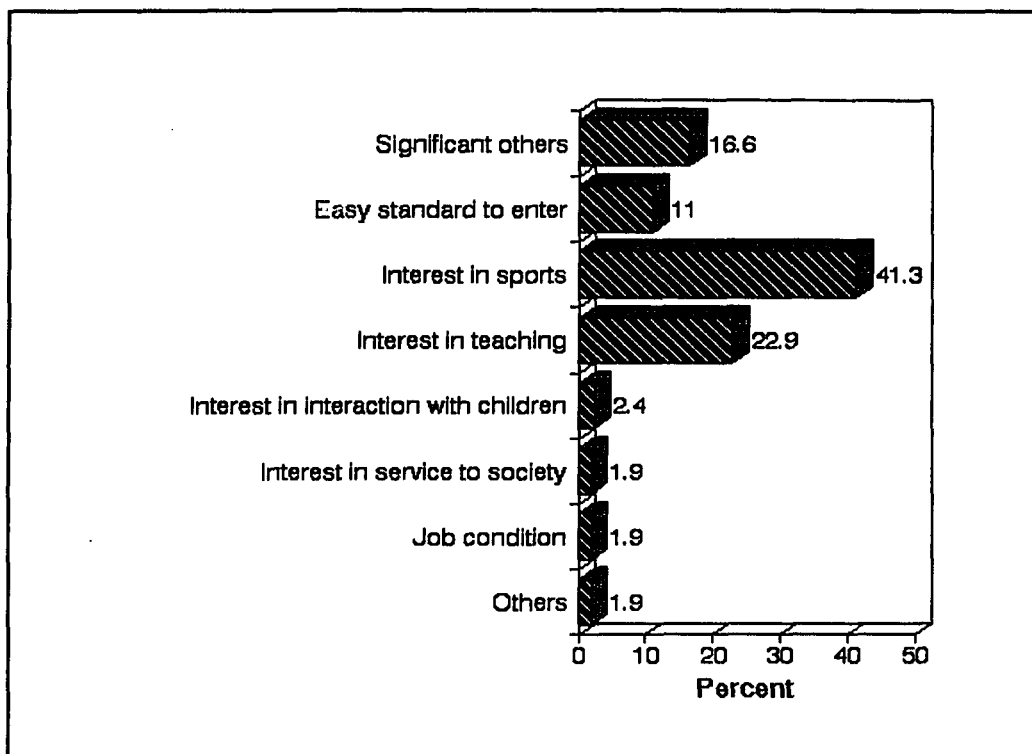
Figure 4. Influential Factors in Deciding to Major in Physical
Education

The results show that many Korean physical education teachers decided to

major in physical education mainly because they liked sports participation or had

deep interest in teaching sports skills. This finding strongly supports a "continuation theme" of the previous studies which argues that individuals are attracted to careers in physical education teaching because the occupation is perceived as providing opportunities to continue associations with sports and physical activities (Belka, Lawson, & Lipnickey, 1991; Dodds, Placek, Doolittle, Pinkham, Ratliffe, & Portman, 1991, Lawson, 1984).

An interesting aspect of Korean physical education teachers' recruitment is the fact that "other persons" played a decisive role in the decision of a considerable proportion of recruits (16.6%). This might be due to Korean cultural norms which espouse collective decision-making in people's career choices. The data also shows that more than one-tenth of the respondents decided to enter the physical education program because it was easier to enter than other subject matter areas. This result partially supports the studies of Dewar (1989) and Templin, Woodford, and Mulling (1982) which suggested that physical education teaching might be one of the few alternatives open to recruits because it requires less rigorous academic ability than other subjects. A chi-square test of association found no significant relation between recruitment resources and gender.

Significant Others

Of those who indicated specific individuals (in other words, "significant others") as the most important factor which affected their decision to major in physical education, 32.5% pointed to their physical education teachers; 19.5% referred to their parents; 15.6% indicated their coaches; 13% pointed to their 12th

grade homeroom teachers; 7.8% referred to their friends; and 11.6 % indicated others

(see Figure 5).
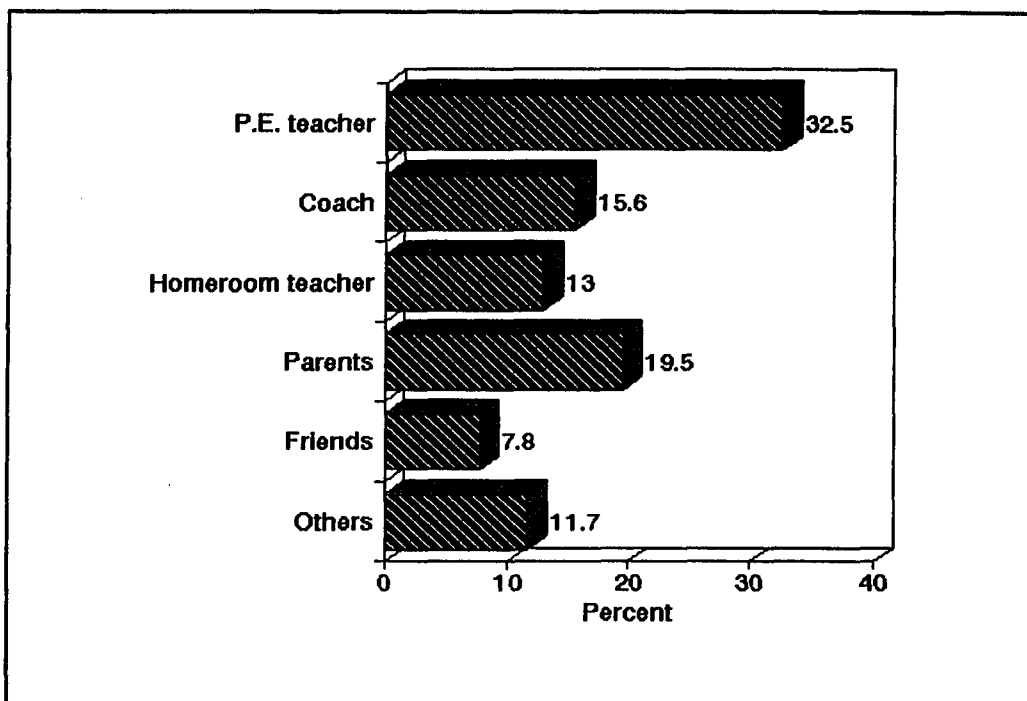
Figure 5. Significant Others

These results are in line with the findings of the previous studies in Western

countries (Dewar, 1989; Graber, 1989, 1991; Graham, 1991; Mulling, 1981,

Schempp, 1989; Schempp & Graber, 1992), which documented that the former

physical education teachers of the recruits were the most influential persons in their

decision to enter the physical education field. The above results indicate that the

physical education teacher is not only an important anticipatory socializing agent for

prospective physical education teachers, but also a potent guide for their actual

recruitment into the physical education field. Given the large amount of time

prospective teachers spend with their physical education teachers as well as their long exposure to school physical education settings, this finding is not surprising.

Another interesting finding from the data was that many teachers were affected by either their parents or homeroom teachers in deciding to enter the physical education program. This may be due to the hierarchical nature of Korean society in which teachers and parents are entitled to exercise significant influence over young people in deciding on career choices. A chi-square test of association found that significant others who influenced the subjects' decision to enter physical education field were not related to gender.

Decision Time

When asked about decision time, 36.7% of the subjects replied that they had decided to major in physical education during the 2nd half year of the 12th grade, 25.1% during the 10th or 11th year, 21.2% during the 1st half year of the 12th grade, and 14.7% during junior high school years (see Figure 6). Responses to this question were varied among teachers, but a chi-square test of association found no significant relation between decision time and gender.

The results reveal that, though many respondents attributed their decision to enter the physical education program to interest in sports or teaching sports skills, more than half of them made that decision during the 12th grade, the largest percent of them during the 2nd half year of the 12th grade (36.7%). The following comments by one male teacher partially explain the logic behind their late decision:

Second half year of 12th grade — 36.7
First half year of 12th grade — 21.2
Tenth or 11th grade — 25.1
Junior high school years — 14.7
Elementary school years — 1.7
Others — 0.6

Percent
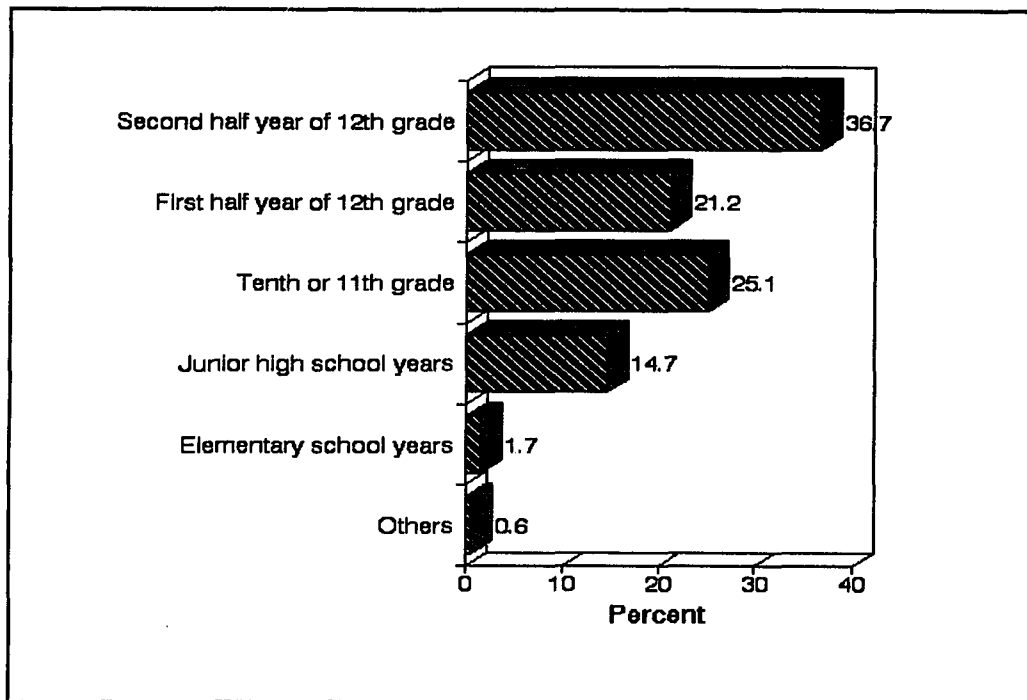
Figure 6. Decision Time to Major in Physical Education

Though I enjoyed participating in sports activities very much and had good skills at various sports such as soccer, basketball, volleyball, etc., I had not first wanted or prepared to enter the physical education field ... But when the time for me to apply for a university arrived, I realized I was not entitled to enter the business program at K University that I had long aspired to enter. My parents, who originally had hoped to see my entry into the Business Department at K university, started to persuade me to choose another department at that University. My 12th grade homeroom teacher cooperated with them in persuading me. They reiterated the urgency to enter any program citing hectic college entrance competition. The physical education program became one of the few alternatives open to me because its admission standards were relatively easy and I had considerably good sports skills.

It is difficult to draw implications from these results because late decision of college major is not uncommon in other areas in Korea. However, the fact that many teachers had been "late deciders" suggests they might have lacked commitment

to teaching physical education prior to recruitment. Previous findings in the section

of "recruitment resources" support this interpretation; that is, about 11% of the

respondents reported the easy standard of entrance as the most important factor

affecting their decision to major in physical education.

Impact of Teacher Education Programs

Teacher education programs aim at preparing recruits to be good physical

education teachers by providing professional education courses for them. It is "a

major capital resource of teachers" (Lortie, 1975, p. 67). Many researchers in the

general field of education, however, have concluded that teacher education in

Western countries has a weak impact on at least some of the values, beliefs, and

attitudes that students bring with them into their teacher education programs

(Britzman, 1986; Bullough, 1989; Connell, 1985; Crow, 1987; Ginsberg & Newman,

1985; Knowles, 1988; Lortie, 1975; Ross, 1987). The following sections provide

information about Korean physical education teachers' perceptions on the impact of

their teacher education programs. Additional investigations were made to find

whether demographic variables such as sex, years of teaching experience, location of

school, level of school, and type of school were related to the degree of the subjects'

perceptions on the influence of their teacher education programs.

Evaluation of Teacher Education Programs

Teachers' evaluations of their undergraduate teacher preparation program were

varied. When teachers were asked to evaluate their undergraduate physical education

program, 5.2% said "very good," 35.9% "good," 42.1% "moderate," 14.3% "poor,"

and 2.6% "very poor" (see Figure 7). These results indicate that the quality of some

teacher education programs was not high enough.
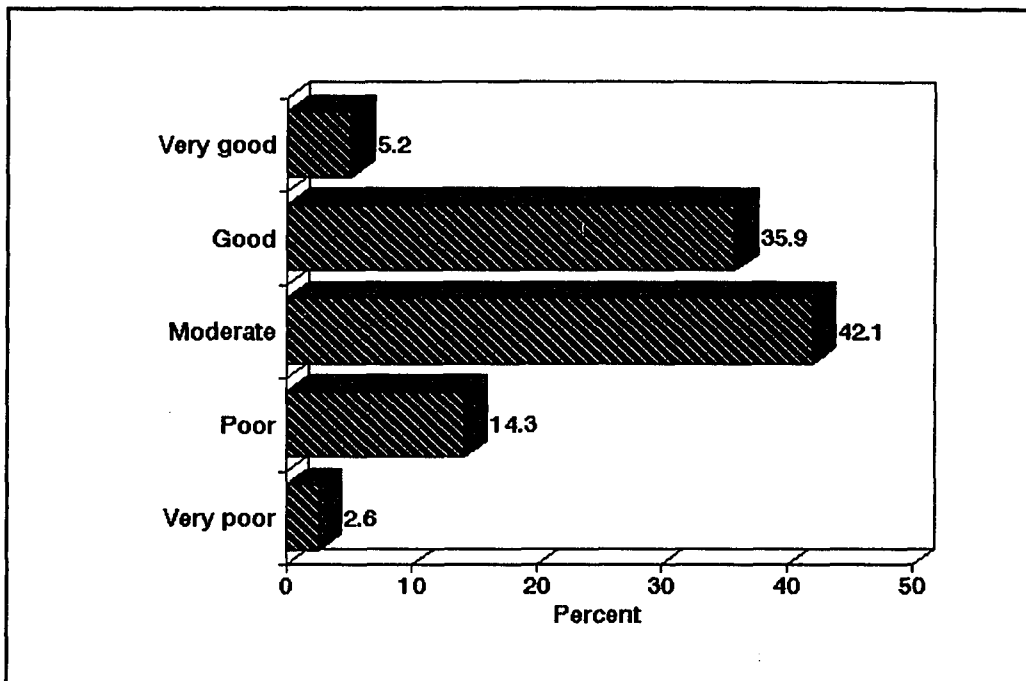
Figure 7. Evaluation of Teacher Education Programs

A series of chi-square tests of association found that only years of experience

made a difference in the evaluation of their teacher education program. Both

beginning (less than 5-year experienced) teachers and very experienced (over 20-year

experienced) teachers were found to be more positive on their evaluation about

teacher education programs than teachers who had 5-20 years of experience (X^2 =

23.9, df = 12, p < .05). For example, about 49% of the beginning teachers and

50.1% of the very experienced teachers evaluated their teacher education program

positively, as opposed to 37.3% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers and 36% of

the 13-20 year experienced teachers.

Perceived Influence of Teacher Education Programs

The subjects were asked to provide their perception of the effect of the

teacher education program on their teaching performances at school and the

construction of their identity as a physical education teacher. Of a total of 463

respondents, 9.1% reported that they felt their undergraduate program had exerted

"very much" influence; 41.9% reported "much" influence; 35.9% reported "moderate"

influence; 12.5% reported a "little" influence; and 0.6% reported "very little"

influence (see Figure 8).
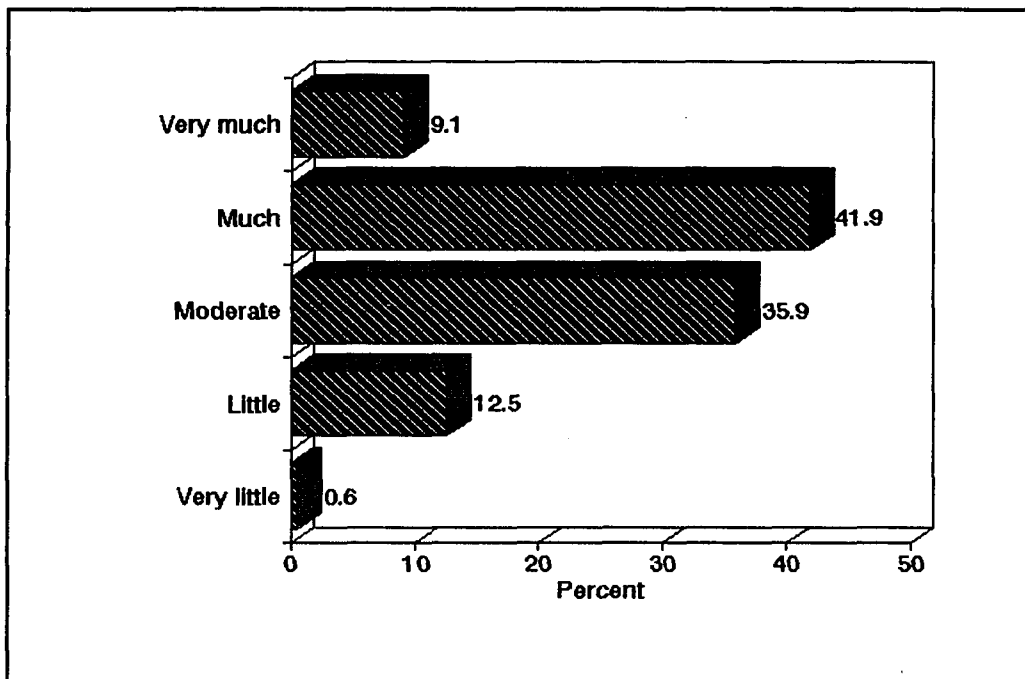
Figure 8. Perceived Influence of Teacher Education Programs

These results indicate that about half of the respondents approved of the effectiveness of their teacher education program on their teaching performances at school and the construction of their identity as a physical education teacher. But, the other half of the respondents showed reserved approval. This result is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Dewar, 1989; Graber, 1989; Graham, 1991; Schempp & Graber, 1992) that found that formal teacher education programs were limited in shaping teachers' occupational socialization as well as in helping their role performances at school.

The reasons for their responses to this question were varied. Those who responded positively cited reasons such as the introduction of exercise principles, learning of teaching skills, understanding of teaching roles, development of commitment to teaching, construction of sound teaching perspectives, and the build-up of identity as a physical education teacher. One high school teacher commented:

> The university program provided me with an opportunity to acquire
> various sport skills and relevant knowledge. You must have sufficient
> sport skills and fundamental knowledge to be a teacher, because they
> are the basis for teaching physical education. The university
> [program] taught me all of them. In addition, it helped me to
> internalize the value of teaching physical education.

Those who responded negatively cited reasons such as the lack of applicability of knowledge learned into real school settings, over-emphasis on theories and too little focus on the development of instructional skills, lack of diversity in the teacher education curriculum, failure to provide sufficient teaching experience, and incompetency and the lack of enthusiasm of faculty members. In addition, many

complained they had too little preparation in classroom management and discipline.

A series of chi-square tests of association found that female teachers were less likely to approve of the effect of their teacher education program, as compared with their male counterparts (X^2 = 24.8, df = 4, p < .001). For example, only 29.8% of female teachers said that their teacher education program exerted much influence on their teaching performances at school, whereas about 53.4% of male teachers responded the same way. The reason for this difference between male and female teachers might be explained by the following facts. Gender segregation in Korean secondary school physical education classes is prevalent. Many Korean female physical education teachers who did not major in dance at university are assigned to teach dance either entirely or partly. Consequently, female teachers were more likely to feel that their teacher education program had little influence on their teaching performances at school, as well as on establishing their identity as a physical education teacher.

Perceived Gap between Teacher Education Programs and the Workplace

Teachers appeared to find much discrepancy between their teacher education program and the workplace. When teachers were asked how often they experienced differences between what they had learned in teacher education programs and what they were doing in the workplace, almost 58% of teachers said they often felt a gap between their teacher education programs and the workplace realities: 10.4% said "very frequently"; and 47.1% said "frequently." Only 36.9% said "somewhat" and

5.6% said "little" (see Figure 9). A series of chi-square tests of association found no

significant relation between the degree of perceived gap and any of five demographic

variables. However, it was again found that female teachers were more likely than

male teachers to perceive a gap between teacher education programs and the

workplace (70.2% of female teachers and 56.1% of males said they felt a gap).
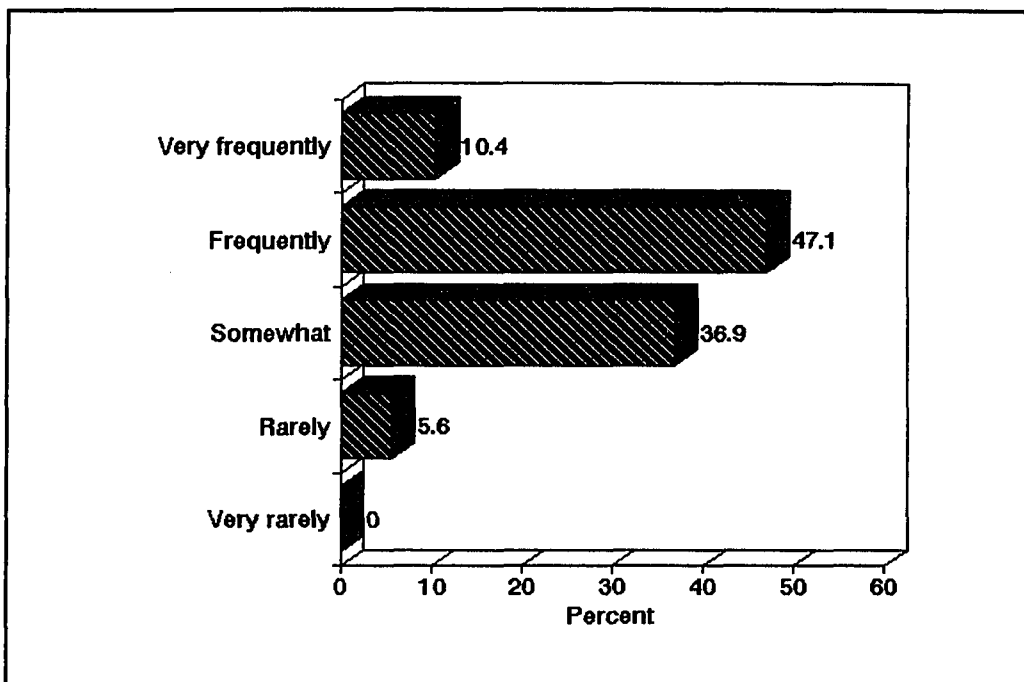
Figure 9. Perceived Gap between Teacher Education Programs and
the Workplace

The results indicate that Korean teacher education programs, in general, lack

practical applicability into school physical education settings. "The university teacher

education program is very much isolated from the realities of schools ... It has

become a commonly accepted truth that we [physical education teachers] learn how

to teach by teaching students at the workplace" (a junior high school teacher). The

following comments from another junior high school physical education teacher are

very suggestive in this regard:

> We learned a lot of things about biomechanics, exercise physiology,
> sport psychology, physical fitness, sport sociology, and so on. We
> were forced to memorize lots of principles and theories at that time to
> get passed in those courses. But now, I've forgotten everything. I
> don't use those theories in my teaching. Then, what's the use of
> them? ... I would be happy if they had taught me real things about
> how to teach various sport skills to kids.

Another female junior high school teacher criticized her former teacher

education program for its lack of connection with her school work like this:

> When I was assigned to a school right after graduation,
> I was really concerned about how to teach students. Though I
> practiced many sport skills ... learned the theories of teaching at
> university, I had no idea about how to apply those skills and
> knowledge to my teaching. Teaching theories seemed to make sense
> to me in the university classroom, but not in my workplace ... I felt
> frustrated when it turned out that I could not make use of the
> knowledge in my head. They [university professors] had diligently
> taught us nice theories, but I couldn't tie them to my workplace
> situation with ease, because they didn't concretely show me how those
> theories could be applied to my classes. Strange to say, but I was not
> well prepared to teach students after getting a teacher certificate.

Meanwhile, some teachers reported the existence of a perspective gap. One

junior high school teacher with five years of teaching experience commented in this

regard:

> When I had been a college student, I had developed a sort of
> humanistic view toward students and teaching mainly due to the
> influence of liberal art courses and progressive college culture ... Right
> after starting teaching in a junior high school, I realized that most

teachers in our [physical education] department held very authoritarian
teaching perspectives. It seemed that student control was their first
motto in physical education classes. But as I kept struggling with
student controls, I began to understand and take their positions ... Kids
are wild in nature. Unless you behave strictly toward them, they
easily mess up your class.

As evidenced in the above example, the idealistic views developed in
university programs were frequently challenged by the widespread custodial and
utilitarian ideology of the workplace. This inevitably resulted in either acceptance or
rejection of bureaucratic workplace norms. In many cases, compliance with school
bureaucratic norms which reflect custodial teaching perspectives was obvious.

Evaluation of Student Teaching

Student teaching is considered to be a vital link between teacher education
programs and schools. It provides opportunities in which theories learned in the
university classroom can be tested in the reality of the school.

Student teaching practicum appeared to be a crucial part of the socialization
of prospective teachers into the teaching profession. As one teacher succinctly
commented, "It [student teaching] taught me who students are, who teachers are,
what the school is like, and more importantly, what teaching really involves." This
response reflects that the occupational socialization of teachers starts early in the
student teaching experience (Templin, 1981).

Of the 463 respondents, 23.1% evaluated their student teaching experience as
"very good," 53.6% "good," 17.5% "moderate," and 5.8% "poor" (see Figure 10).
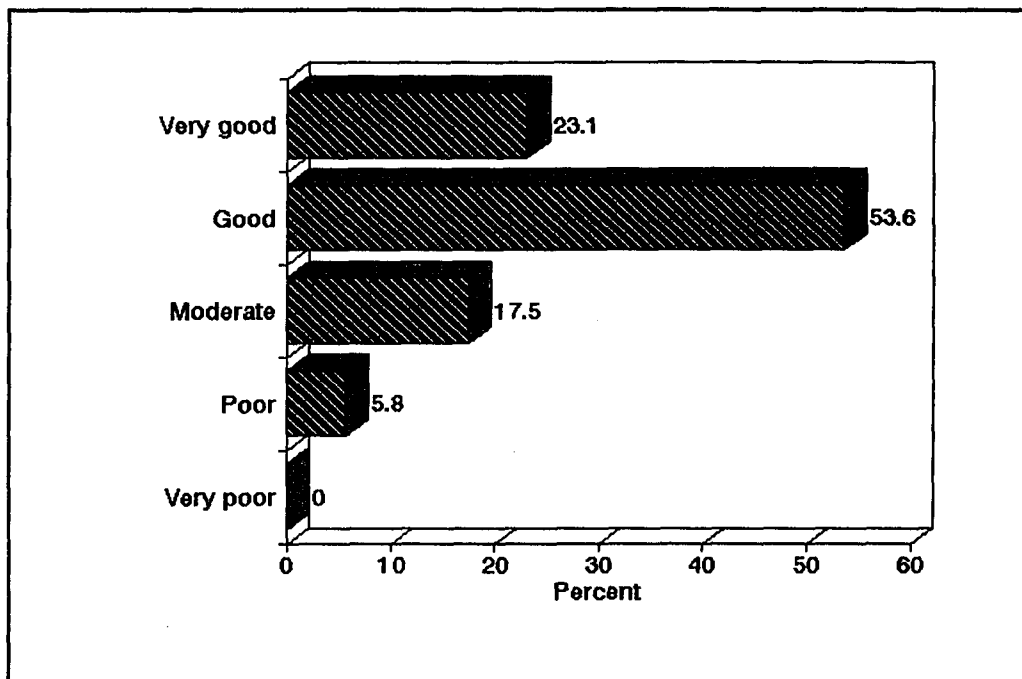
Figure 10. Evaluation of Student Teaching

The majority of the respondents said that the student teaching experience was helpful in practicing teaching and understanding the school contexts. They provided various reasons for this, but the most common reason was the opportunity to have practical teaching experience. A teacher commented on the usefulness of student teaching experience in the following way:

> The five-week student teaching practicum was really good experience to me. Above all, it provided me with the opportunity to practice teaching in real physical education classes. It helped me learn how to prepare lesson plans and how to control students ... Through that practicum, I could review what the physical education class is and who the physical education teacher is from a new standpoint. This, in turn, helped me to establish my own teaching perspective ... I think the student teaching practicum was, though done in a very short time period, the most valuable and useful course I had ever taken in my teacher education program. It was truly an essential part of it [teacher

education program].

Those who responded negatively toward the student teaching experience pointed to the lack of systematic preparation on the part of both the teacher education program and the cooperating teacher, the short length of practicum period, the lack of enthusiasm of the cooperating teacher, the lack of rapport with the cooperating teacher and/or other physical education teachers, insufficient opportunities to teach classes, and the poor teaching conditions. Many teachers complained about the insufficient opportunities to teach physical education classes during the practicum. The following comments from a junior high school teacher who graduated from a prestigious national university illustrate this point:

> Seventeen of us [student teachers] were assigned to a male junior high school attached to our teachers' college. There were only three cooperating teachers available in that school. I, together with six other student teachers, was assigned to a male cooperating teacher. Because many student teachers were assigned to him, he could not provide all of us with sufficient opportunities to teach. I think I taught only three classes throughout the whole practicum period. To make bad worse, he was proved to be not very "cooperative" with us in terms of providing feedback related to teaching. He only showed us how to control students effectively with the use of physical punishment.

This response was indicative of the lack of accountability for training quality teachers found in most teacher education programs in Korea. As several teachers commented, it was generally viewed as "a rite of passage" to obtaining a teaching certificate by many student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university faculty members. A series of chi-square tests of association, however, found no significant

relation between the evaluation of student teaching and any of five demographic variables.

In short, the above results show that teacher education programs did not exert as much influence on recruits as expected, and that there is a gap between the teacher education program and the workplace. These findings are consistent with most of studies conducted in Western countries.

Role Performances in Schools

Many physical education teachers assume the positions of physical education teacher, coach, and classroom teacher simultaneously. Each of these roles requires a discrete responsibility and accompanies a specific role expectation from school administrators, colleagues, students, and/or parents. Therefore, knowing what kinds of roles the teacher take in the school, how the teacher performs given roles and how he or she perceives these roles would be helpful in understanding the complexity of teachers' occupational socialization.

Teaching Load

The data analysis shows that the mean weekly teaching load of those sampled was 17.9 hours. The teaching load was varied among teachers, ranging from 9 to 27 hours. The largest proportion of teachers (41.5%) said they were teaching 17 to 20 hours a week (see Figure 11). These results show that teachers had a fairly reasonable teaching load.
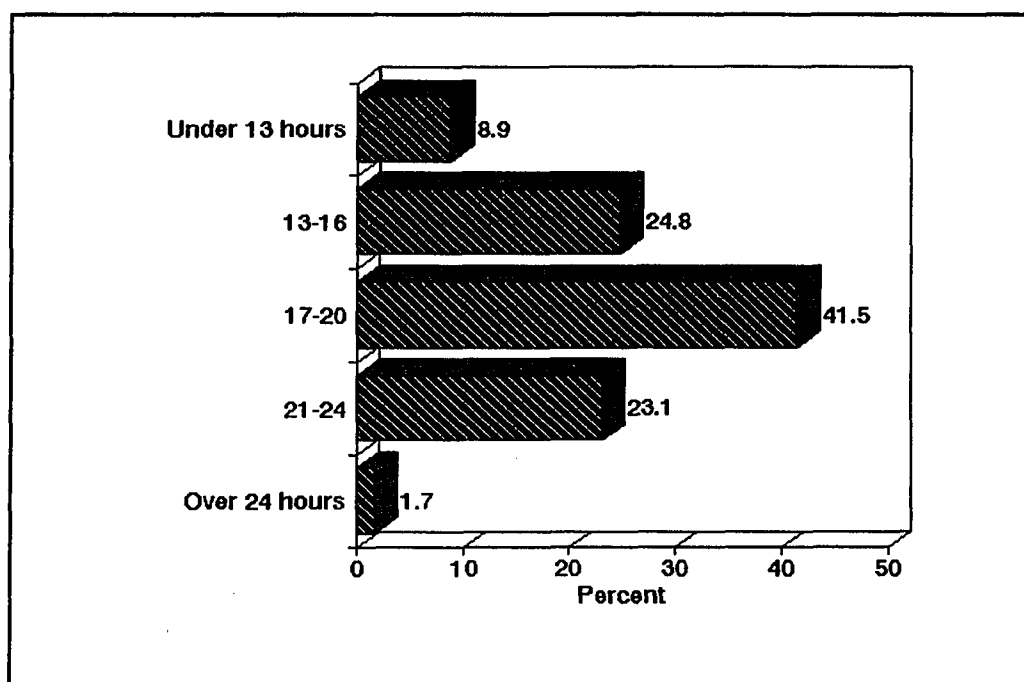
Figure 11. Weekly Teaching Load

A series of chi-square tests of association revealed that teaching load was

significantly related to gender (X^2 = 11.2, df = 4, p < .05), years of teaching

experience (X^2 = 67.9, df = 12, p < .001), location of school (X^2 = 74.5, df = 8, p <

.001), level of school (X^2 = 65.1, df = 4, p < .001), and type of school (X^2 = 43.5, df

= 4, p < .001).

Female teachers had significantly greater weekly teaching load than males.

For example, slightly over 40% of females were teaching more than 20 hours a

week, while only 23.1% of males were doing the same. Only 21.2% of female

respondents were teaching less than 17 hours a week, while 35.1% of males were

doing the same. This result can be explained by the fact that many female teachers

were relatively young thus only a small proportion of them could occupy the position

of physical education division head which has a relatively light teaching load.

The less experienced the teacher was, the more classes he or she was teaching. For example, 36.6% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers and 30.4% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers were teaching more than 20 hours a week, while only 11% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers and 7.5% of the over 20 year experienced teachers were doing the same. Only 21.5% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers and 26.3% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers were teaching less than 17 hours a week, whereas 42% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers and 69.8% of the over 20 year experienced teachers were doing the same. The result is quite natural given that the seniority system is well established in Korean society.

Physical education teachers working in large city schools had significantly greater weekly teaching load than their counterparts in small city and rural area schools. For example, about 35% of the large city teachers were teaching more than 20 hours a week, while 10.5% of the small city teachers and 6.1 of the rural region teachers were doing the same. Only 21.6% of the large city teachers were teaching less than 17 hours a week, whereas 45.6% of the small city teachers and 65.5% of the rural region teachers were doing the same. These results can be attributed to the following fact. The total number of students and classes in many rural area schools were considerably reduced as a result of the population influx into large cities. But the number of teachers was not proportionally reduced because the Korean educational system guarantees the job security of teachers employed and the teachers were not allowed to teach more than one subject.

Junior high school physical education teachers had significantly greater weekly teaching load than high school teachers. For example, 33.7% of the junior high school teachers were teaching more than 21 classes a week, while only 13.1% of the high school teachers were doing the same. Only 23.5% of the junior high school teachers were teaching less than 17 hours a week, while 47.2% of the high school teachers had weekly teaching load of less than 17 hours. These results are due to two factors. First, the length of a junior high school physical education class (45 minutes per class) is shorter than that of a high school class (50 minutes per class). Secondly, the number of weekly hours allocated for physical education in most high schools was reduced from three to two after the Ministry of Education allowed high schools more flexibility in deciding school curriculum requirements in 1988. The number of weekly physical education hours in the junior high school level, however, remained the same (3 hours per week). Because of the perceived importance of the college entrance examination, many schools reduced weekly hours of physical education in order to provide more instructions on basic subjects.

Physical education teachers working in private schools had significantly greater weekly teaching load than teachers working in public schools. For example, 80.8% of the private school teachers were teaching more than 17 physical education classes a week, while 57.7% of the public school teachers were doing the same. This provides some evidence for the widely accepted notion that private school teachers in Korea work in a poorer workplace condition than their counterparts in public schools.

When asked about their satisfaction with the teaching load, 4.5% of

respondents said "very much satisfied"; the largest percent of them (44.3%) said

"much satisfied"; 24.4% said "somewhat satisfied"; 19.7% said "little satisfied"; and

7.1% said "very little satisfied" (see Figure 12). The results show that Korean

secondary school physical education teachers were generally satisfied with them.

A series of chi-square tests of association showed that the subjects'

satisfaction with teaching load was significantly related to location of school (X^2 =
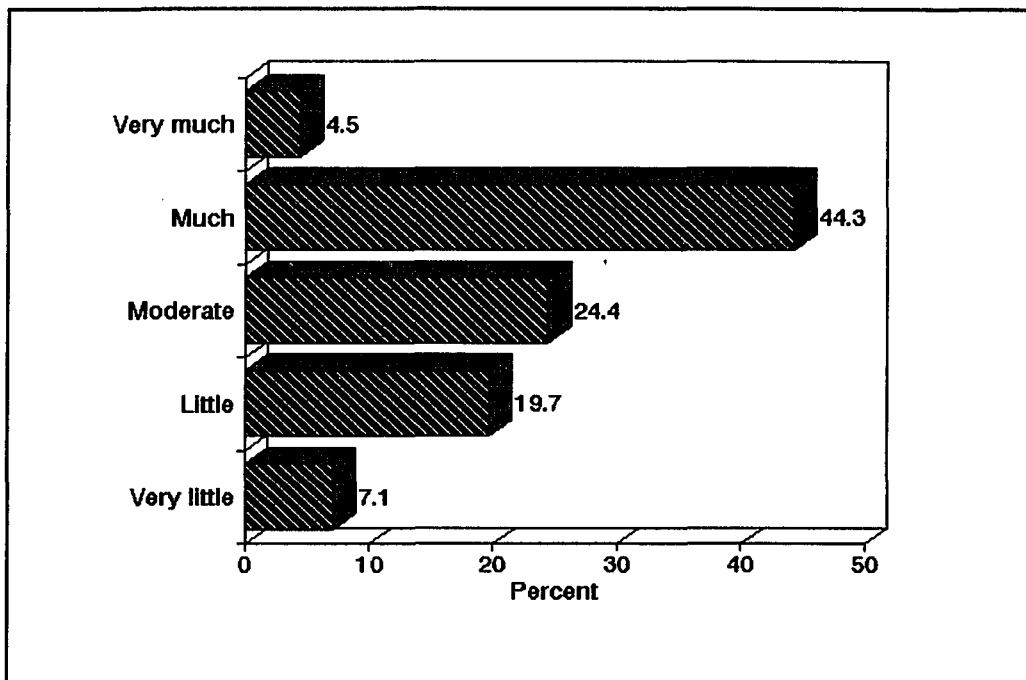
Figure 12. Satisfaction with Weekly Teaching Load

21.7, df = 8, p < .05), level of school (X^2 = 21.8, df = 4, p < .001), and type of

school (X^2 = 15.7, df = 4, p < .005). Teachers working in large cities expressed

significantly lower satisfaction with their teaching load than their counterparts both in

small cities and rural areas. For example, 42.4% of the large city school teachers

said they were satisfied with their teaching load, while 56.2 of the small city school

teachers and 63.6% of the rural area school teachers responded the same way.

The high school physical education teachers expressed significantly greater satisfaction with their teaching load than the junior high school teachers. For example, 57.8% of the high school teachers said they were satisfied with their teaching load, while 42% of the junior high school teachers indicated satisfaction with their teaching load. Physical education teachers working in public schools expressed significantly greater satisfaction with their teaching load than teachers working in private schools. For example, 52.2% of the public school teachers said they were satisfied with their teaching load, while 43% of the private school teachers expressed their satisfaction.

Administrative Duties

It was found that Korean secondary school physical education teachers spent much of their work time doing administrative duties. About 9.3% of the respondents reported that they spent more than 50% of their work time on administrative duties; 24.7% reported they spent 36-50%; 31% said they spent 21-35%; 29.9% reported they spent 6-20%; and only 5.2% said they spent less than 5% (see Figure 13). The results show that paperwork consumed much of the teacher's time, constraining their school work. As one teacher sarcastically said; "We [teachers] are overwhelmed with papers in schools. It looks like we come to school for papers, not for students."

A series of chi-square tests of association revealed that gender was significantly related to the amount of time used for administrative duties ($X^2 = 16.4$,
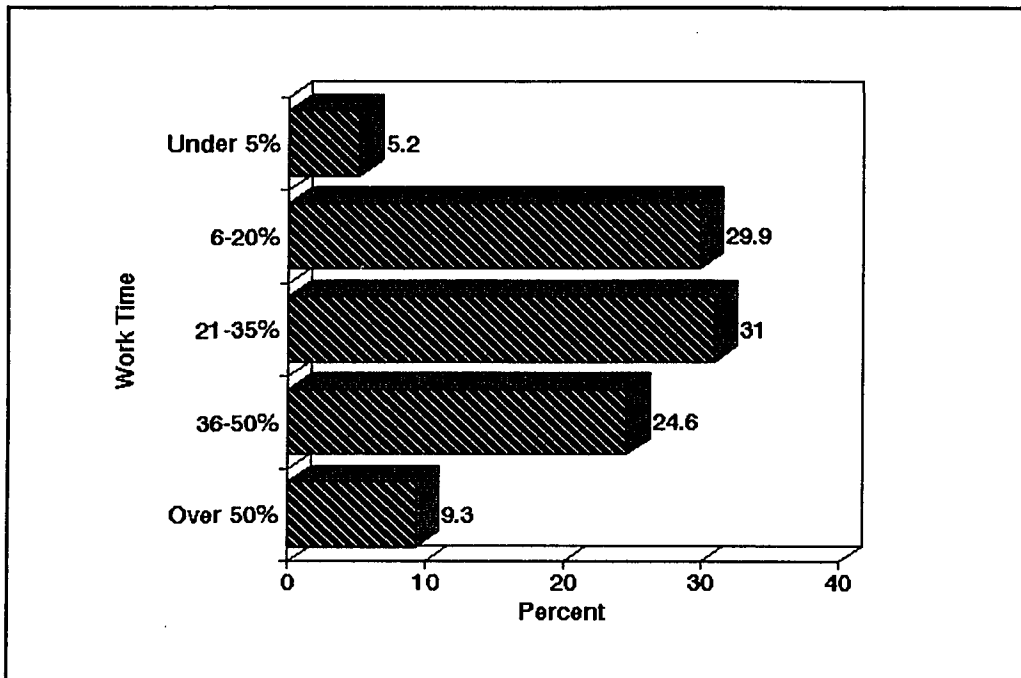
Figure 13. Time Used for Administrative Duties

df = 4, p < .005). Male teachers spent more time on administrative duties than

females. Specifically, 34.5% of males spent more than 35% of their work time on

administrative duties, as compared to 21.3% of females. The reason for this might

be traced to the fact that male teachers are more likely to occupy the position of head

and/or schedule planner of the physical education division because the structure of

Korean secondary schools is mainly patriarchal in nature.

When asked about their satisfaction with the administrative duties, 0.4% of

respondents said "very much satisfied"; 20.5% said "much satisfied"; 39.7% said

"somewhat satisfied"; 32.4% said "little satisfied"; and 6.9% said "very little

satisfied." These results again indicate that many physical education teachers in

Korea suffer from heavy administrative duties. As one teacher said: "Too much

paper work not directly related to teaching consumed my work time."

Coaching

Many Korean physical education teachers assumed the roles of teacher and

coach together, and most of them appeared to experience some kind of role conflict.

As for the question of coaching responsibility, 43.8% of the respondents said they

had a coaching responsibility; 56.2% reported non-coaching responsibility (see Figure

14).
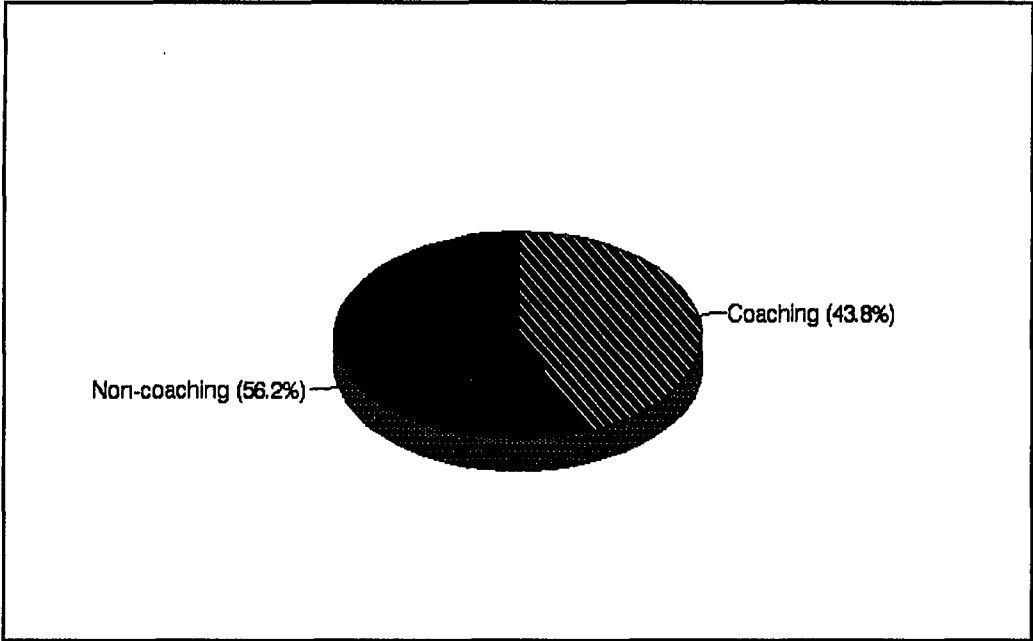
Figure 14. Coaching Responsibility

It was found that the coaching responsibility of the respondents was

significantly related to gender (X^2 = 8.0, df = 1, p < .005) and location of school (X^2

= 12.7, df = 2, p < .005). A significantly higher proportion of male teachers had

coaching responsibility. While 46.2% of male teachers coached varsity team(s), only 23.4 % of females had the same responsibility. This result is not surprising given that the Korean physical education field is mostly male-dominated. In addition, the Confucian cultural ideology works as a barrier to the establishment of women's leadership in organized sports.

Physical education teachers working in either small city or rural area secondary schools were more likely to coach a varsity team than their counterparts in large city schools. Approximately 56.1% of the small city teachers and 50% of the rural area teachers had a coaching responsibility, whereas only 37.5% of the large city teachers had one. The relatively small proportion of coaching responsibility given to the large city school teachers is attributable to this: while most large city schools have none or one school varsity team due to the lack of budget and facilities, they have several physical education teachers (usually 5 to 8).

Of those who had a coaching responsibility, more than two thirds reported they experienced teaching-coaching role conflicts (29.9% "very much" and 41.8% "much"). About 11% reported they experienced teaching-coaching conflicts "moderately." And 15.9% and 1.5% of the respondents reported "little" and "very little" role conflicts, respectively. Summaries of responses to the teaching-coaching conflicts are presented in Figure 15. These findings, together with the data from personal interviews, show that most teachers who had an additional coaching responsibility inevitably experience teacher-coach role conflicts. The sources of conflicts can be traced to "the uniqueness of the teacher/coach occupational role and
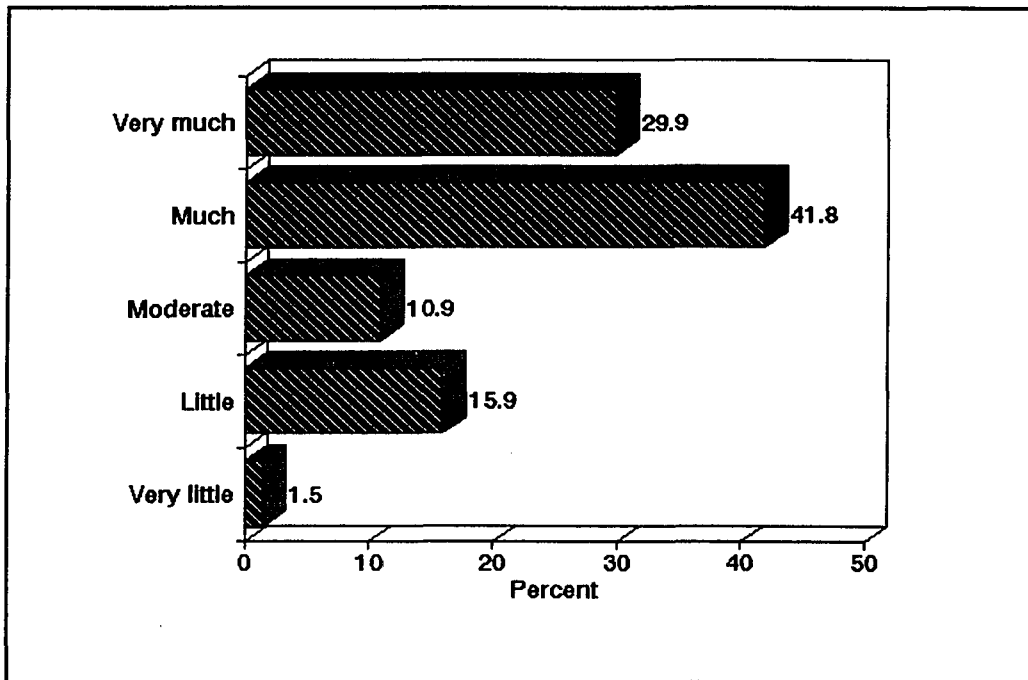
Figure 15. Teaching-coaching Conflicts

the expectations of the school" (Massengale, 1981, p. 23). One high school teacher

who had been coaching soccer teams for eight years expressed the seriousness of

stress resulting from teacher/coach role conflicts in the following way:

> I value teaching and coaching equally much. More precisely speaking,
> I think teaching should be a priority. But, when it comes to a match,
> only winning is important. Everybody wants to see good results ...
> My team has been successful for the past few years. This puts a lot of
> pressure on me. We have to keep winning. I cannot betray the
> expectations of the school, the parents, and the players, thus I pay
> more attention to coaching my soccer team ... Especially when the
> game season arrives, not only my head is filled with the idea of
> matches, but I have to miss my classes in order to participate in the
> competitions ... However, I cannot erase the feelings of guilt since I
> neglect my teaching duty. I always feel sorry for my students and
> other physical education teachers.

The above example shows that most teachers/coaches inevitably experience role conflicts and that, when faced with time constraints, they are more likely to see coaching as their main role. This finding is consistent with the previous studies by Segrave (1981) and Massengale (1981) which found that teacher/coaches or recruits often viewed the two roles as distinct and preferred coaching. A response from another teacher/coach clearly illustrates this point: "It is too much for a person to have three roles together--teaching, coaching, and performing administrative duties. The outcome of this situation is negligence in teaching because it does not produce a clear result."

Another teacher/coach complained about the lack of clear role definitions: "I can't tell if I am a physical education teacher or coach. How can I be a good teacher and at the same time good coach, as the principal expects?" The above comments show that the lack of clear role differentiation by school administrators and other teachers appeared to complicate the role performances of Korean physical education teachers. This result is also in line with the findings of previous studies in the United States (Chu, 1981; Massengale, 1981).

In addition to these teacher/coach role conflicts, other sources appeared to compound teachers' coach-role performances. Commonly mentioned were time constraints, insufficiency of financial support for varsity teams from the school, lack of understanding and support from other teachers and players' parents, difficulty of scouting or locating good players, difficulty in helping players to enter higher levels of schools, lack of facilities and equipment, and paperwork related to varsity team

operation.

It was also found that there was wide spread criticism for the practice of coaching varsity teams. One non-coach teacher expressed his concerns about school varsity teams by pointing to the fact that they "promoted the elitism of sports in schools at the expense of school physical education." He continued to say: "Given the large amount of physical education classes cut by teacher/coaches and financial resources allocated, their educational effect is highly questionable ... It should be abolished."

From these findings, it is apparent that there are teacher/coach role conflicts in Korean secondary school settings. Most teachers who had an additional coaching responsibility were facing various kinds of difficulties. This conclusion is generally in line with the findings of the previous studies in the United States (Bain, 1978; Bain & Wendt, 1983; Chu, 1981; Locke & Massengale, 1978; Sage, 1989; Segrave, 1981). A series of chi-square tests of association, however, found no significant relations between the degree of teaching-coaching conflicts and any of five demographic variables.

Homeroom Teacher Responsibility

About 33.8% of the respondents reported they had additional homeroom responsibilities, whereas 66.2% of them reported they did not (see figure 16). The results show that only one-third of Korean physical education teachers had homeroom responsibilities. In most Korean schools, a homeroom teacher takes charge of the

school lives of about fifty students assigned to a class. He or she plays a "parent-like role" for their students. Thus the role of homeroom-teacher means many responsibilities to accomplish in addition to teaching. But it is also a symbol, recognized by school administrators and others, of being a "competent" teacher. Given that the homeroom teacher role in Korean schools has considerable significance and prestige as well as that most other basic subject teachers assume homeroom responsibilities, the finding indicates the marginal status of physical education teachers in schools.
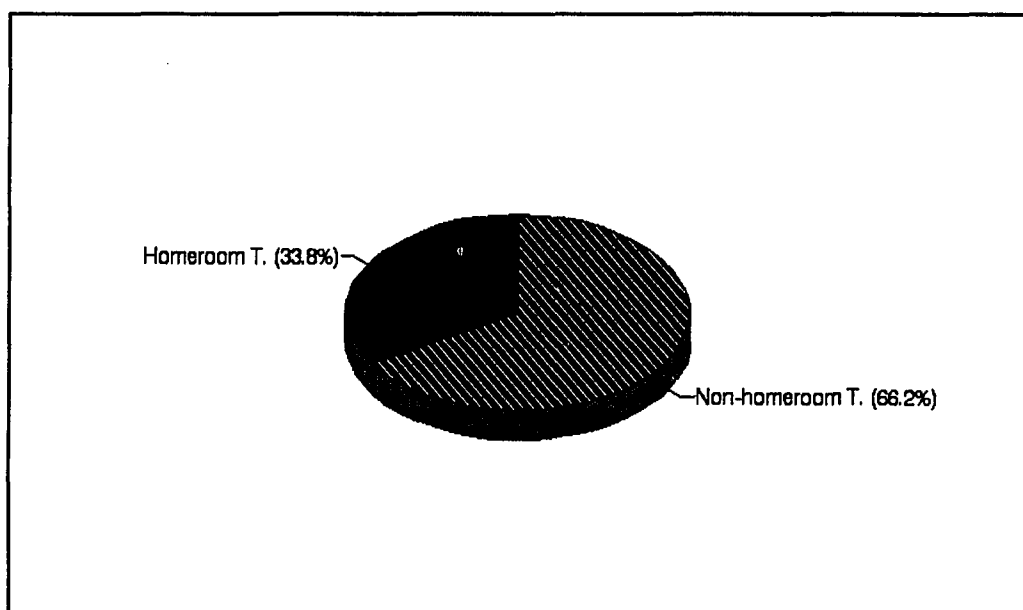
Figure 16. Homeroom Teacher Responsibility

A series of chi-square tests of association revealed that the role of the homeroom teacher was significantly related to years of teaching experience (X^2 = 40.2, df = 3, p < .001) and location of school (X^2 = 27.3, df = 2, p < .001). The less experienced group of teachers were more likely to have homeroom responsibilities.

While about 49.5% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers and 40.1% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers were in charge of a class, only 19% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers and 7.5% of the teachers with over 20 years of experience were homeroom teachers. The finding that younger teachers were more likely than older teachers to have a homeroom responsibility can be understood in the following contexts. Most young teachers were not holding school administrative positions such as head of the physical education division, head of the counseling division, or head of the student affairs and discipline division. In addition, because the role of a homeroom teacher requires a lot of energy and extra-commitment, principals were more likely to assign it to young teachers.

Teachers working in large city schools had significantly higher rates of homeroom teacher responsibility than their counterparts in both small city schools and rural area schools. About 42.8% of the large city school teachers said they were homeroom teachers, whereas only 17.5% of the small city school teachers and 22.7% of the rural region school teachers took charge of homeroom responsibility. This can also be explained by an imbalance in the number of teachers relative to the number of classes among schools in the three different regions.

When asked about their desire to work as a homeroom teacher in the near future, irrespective of whether they were working as a homeroom teacher or not, a large proportion of the respondents expressed their desire to do so. According to the results of data analysis, 10.6% of the respondents said "definitely yes"; 34.6% said "yes"; 23.3% said "undecided"; 20.1% said "no"; and only 11.4% said "definitely no."

Many Korean physical education teachers appeared to value the role of homeroom teacher, probably because it played an important part in the confirmation of their identities as a teacher. Comments from one very experienced teacher reflect this point: "You have to be a homeroom teacher if you want to know what a teacher really means. You can be a teacher of any subject, but you are not a 'real teacher' unless you work as a homeroom teacher."

A response from a female high school teacher reveals the frustration of physical education teachers with the practice of homeroom teacher allotment, as well provides a clue to the understanding of the ethos of teachers regarding the homeroom teacher issue in Korean schools.

> There are five physical education teachers in our school. But only one could take charge of a class as a homeroom teacher. The principal does not trust the physical education teachers' ability to assume a homeroom teacher role ... Furthermore, parents are unhappy with the idea of a physical education teacher becoming their kids' homeroom teacher. They just want to have a math teacher or an English teacher as their kids' homeroom teacher because they believe only those guys can best help their kids to prepare for the college entrance exam ... The lack of recognition, by the principal and parents, of physical education teachers as 'able' homeroom teachers really depresses our morale. It makes me frustrated ... Am I an inferior teacher to other subject teachers?

The above example again reflects the marginal status of physical education teachers in schools. Especially in college-bound high schools, it has almost become an unwritten rule that "a teacher who teaches a non-academic subject such as music or physical education cannot be a homeroom teacher for twelfth graders, no matter how excellent he or she might be."

A series of chi-square tests of association were conducted to find if any of five demographic variables made a difference in the degree of teachers' desire to work as a homeroom teacher. It was found that the desire to work as a homeroom teacher was significantly related to years of teaching experience (X^2 = 33, df = 12, p < .001) and location of school (X^2 = 15.9, df = 8, p < .05).

Except for the group of teachers who had over 21 years of teaching experience, a large proportion of all other groups of teachers expressed their desire to work as homeroom teachers in the near future. About 56% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers, 43.8% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 47% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers replied they wanted to work as a homeroom teacher in the future. But only 28.3% of the over 20 year experienced teachers responded the same. A slightly higher proportion (48.7%) of teachers working in large city schools expressed their desire to work as homeroom teachers, compared with teachers either in small city schools (40.4%) or in rural area schools (37.9%).

Teaching Perspectives

Teaching perspectives are "a coordinated set of ideas and actions" (Becker, 1970, p. 34) a teacher uses in relation to his or her role performance. They are believed to be formed as a result of an interplay among individual biographies, the ideology of teacher education, and perceived socio-cultural values. Though teacher education programs strive to mold a uniform humanistic teaching perspective in the prospective teachers' minds, teaching perspectives vary from teacher to teacher.

They are also open to changes as the teacher continuously interacts with the contexts of the workplace.

It is highly possible to assume that teachers' actions in schools are mainly guided by their teaching perspectives. There is also evidence of a connection between what teachers think and how they behave in a teaching situation (Shulman & Lanier, 1977). In these contexts, information about Korean physical education teachers' teaching perspectives would provide a useful basis for a better understanding of their occupational socialization.

Important Aspects Concerning the Job

Most Korean physical education teachers appeared to believe that teaching should have priority over other things. When teachers were asked to provide their opinions about the most important aspect of their job, the majority (76%) pointed to teaching; 15.6% referred to the counseling of students; 5.8% pointed to public relations with colleagues, and 1.7% indicated administrative duties (see Figure 17).

Many teachers expressed their strong belief in the importance of teaching. One junior high school teacher provided her opinions about this:

> Nothing can precede teaching in the importance of our job. I see
> many teachers around me bother with their administrative chores ...
> But, a teacher is a person who teaches students. Therefore, we should
> give priority to teaching ... I think a teacher must be judged by the
> degree of his or her teaching ability and commitment to teaching.
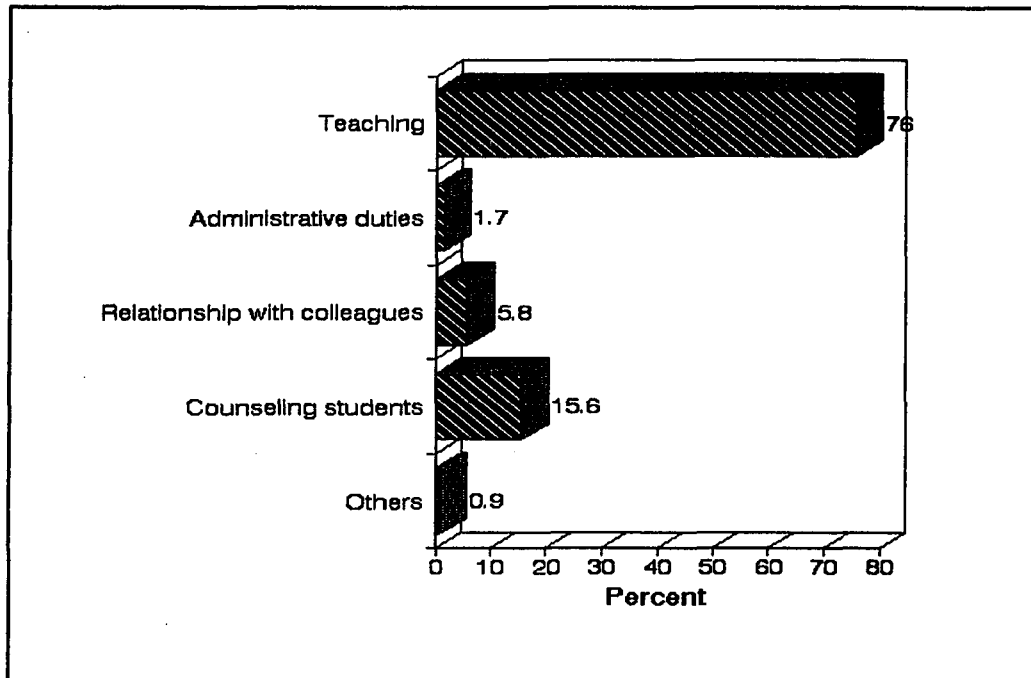
Figure 17. The Most Important Aspects concerning the Job

A further analysis found that teachers' opinions about the most important

aspect of their job were significantly related to years of teaching experience (X^2 = 23,

df = 12, p < .05). On the one hand, a slightly greater proportion of other groups of

teachers regarded teaching as the most important aspect of their job than the most

experienced group of teachers did. Eighty-one percent of the 0-4 year experienced

teachers, 76% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 77% of the 13-20 year

experienced teachers saw teaching as the most important aspect of their job, whereas

66% of the teachers with over 20 years of experience felt the same way. On the

other hand, a significantly greater proportion of the most experienced group of

teachers regarded public relations with other teachers as the most important aspect of

their job, compared with the less experienced groups of teachers. Seventeen percent

of the over 20 year experienced teachers saw interpersonal relationship as the most important aspect of their job, whereas only 2.2% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers, 3.7% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 8% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers felt the same way.

The results show that many teachers believed teaching to be the most important role of their job. However, whether their belief in teaching matches the reality is questionable. Some teachers who responded to the interviews criticized the present teaching practices of physical education teachers by pointing to the lack of teacher commitment to teaching. The following comments by a young teacher poignantly reveal the regrettable reality of teaching in Korean secondary school physical education settings:

> Many physical education teachers are kinds of "ball-rollers." They just check the attendance and let students play by themselves. Then they either walk around the playground or take a rest in the shade of a trees. Some 'good' teachers introduce students to basic skill concepts and demonstrate in front of the students. But they rarely provide individual feedback ... I think many teachers believe their responsibility as a teacher is just to oversee student activities during the class. They are serious about maintaining a good control of students and preventing accidents during the class ... Unfortunately, many of them do not care about student learning.

The above example indicates that there might be a discrepancy between teachers' perspectives and their actual behaviors. Though many teachers said they believed teaching to be the most important responsibility of their job, in reality their teaching did not always concur with their belief.

Academic Punishment for Classroom Discipline

When asked to provide opinions about the need for academic punishment

(e.g., verbal reprimand, time-out, removal from the class for a specified days or

weeks, etc.) for maintaining classroom discipline, the overwhelming majority of

teachers expressed the need for it. Almost 20% of the respondents said "strongly

agree" and 67.4% said "agree." Only 9.3% and 1.3% said "disagree" and "strongly

disagree," respectively (see Figure 18).
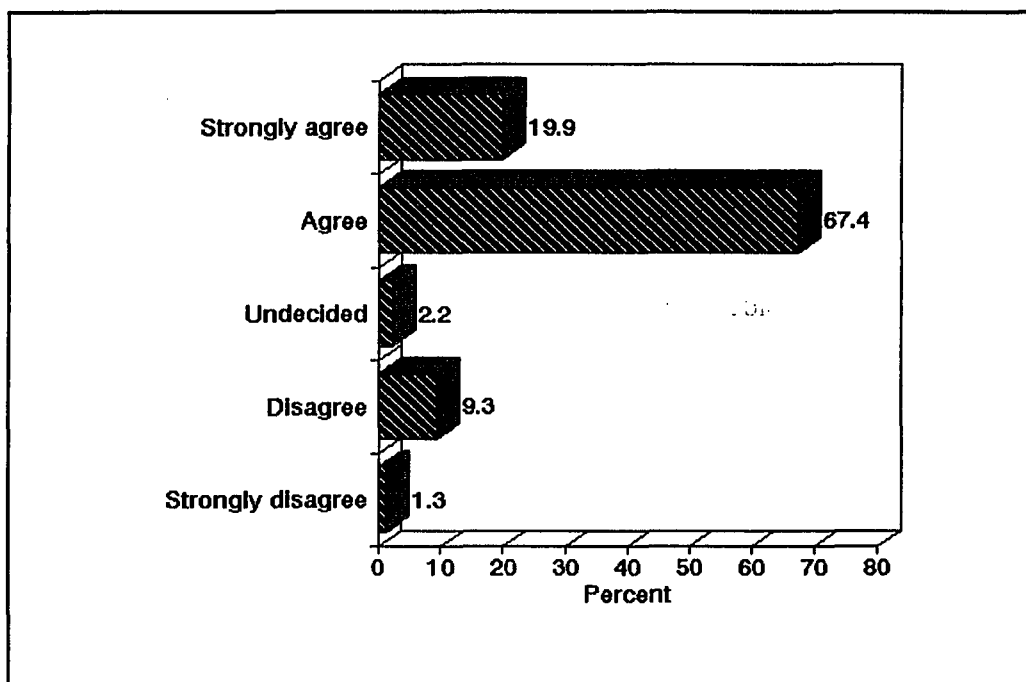
Figure 18. Opinions about the Need for Academic Punishment

The results clearly show that many Korean physical education teachers

believed in the need for academic punishment as a means of controlling students.

One teacher justified the use of academic punishment by saying: "If teachers are not

allowed to use academic punishment such as time out, teaching will not be done properly. Learning requires discipline." A series of chi-square tests of association, however, found no significant relation between the opinions about the need of academic punishment and any of five demographic variables.

When they were asked to provide their opinions about the need for "physical punishment" to maintain classroom discipline, the majority (92.3%) said they would use it because they regarded it as an effective educational means in controlling student misbehavior. About 1.3% indicated they were "undecided." Only 5% said they would not use physical punishment at any time because it was not thought to be an effective educational means. Summaries of responses to this question are shown in Figure 19.

Given that Korean society in general endorses the use of physical punishment in education, this finding is not surprising. The teachers who participated in this study grew up in a society where physical violence was easily accepted if it had good intention. Their parents and their former teachers, especially their former physical education teachers, had used physical punishment against them on the pretext of good educational practice. As a result, they were well socialized into the cultural code of physical punishment. There also lies a pertinent logic behind the common use of physical punishment in physical education classes:

> The nature of the physical education class is very different from other subject areas. Students are more apt to be distractive and noisy in the playground than in the classroom. They easily become wild and overexcited outside. Thus unless they are well controlled by the teacher, the class becomes messy and, more importantly, they are
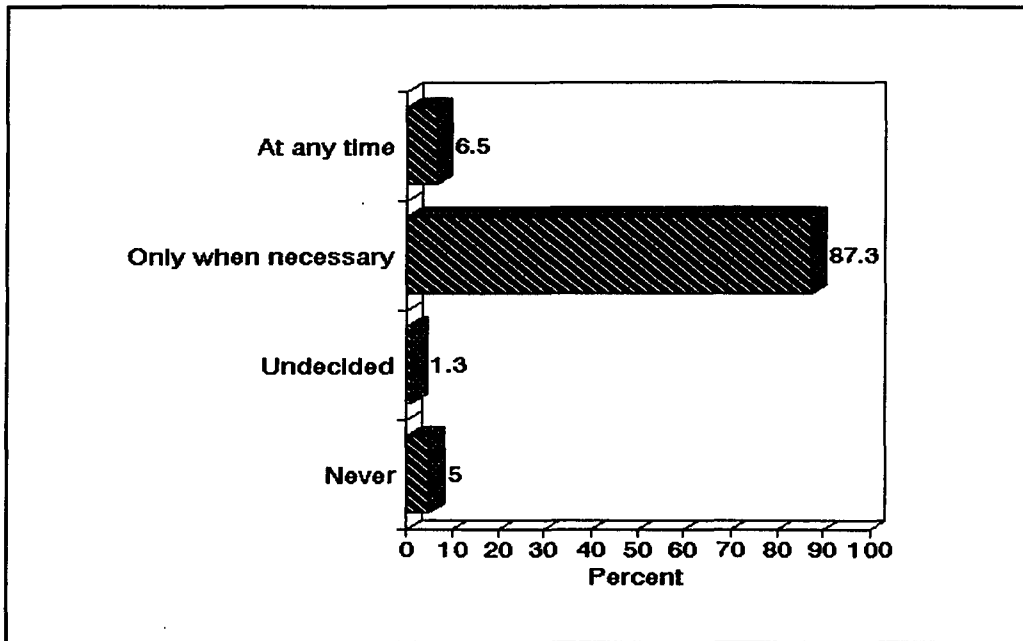
Figure 19. Opinions about the Need for Physical Punishment

> subject to accidents. That's why I cannot help using physical
> punishment whenever they do not follow my directions well. I think
> it's a 'necessary evil' in teaching physical education. (A junior high
> school teacher)

The above example shows that some teachers believed the nature of physical

education inevitably forced them to use physical punishment. This, in turn, indicates

that some teachers themselves had a distorted view of physical education. A series

of chi-square tests of association were conducted. However, it was found that there

were no significant relations between opinions about the need for academic

punishment and any of five demographic variables.

Criteria for Effective Teaching

For many Korean physical education teachers, their students served as a barometer of their teaching effectiveness. When teachers were asked to provide their opinions about the best indicator for gauging the effectiveness of teaching, about half (49%) of the respondents pointed to the students' observable behavioral change in light of the teacher's educational philosophy or conception of what should be learned. Approximately 35% indicated the students' opinions. About 9.3% pointed to the evaluation of colleagues. Only very small proportion of teachers referred to the assessment by the principal or a special supervisor, parents, or objective tests (see Figure 20).

These findings indicate that many teachers believed the effectiveness of physical education teaching should be judged by the observable behavioral change or response of the students, not by the assessment of the principal or a special supervisor. This finding is in line with previous studies (Arrighi, 1983; Arrighi & Young, 1987) which found that teachers overwhelmingly defined success in terms of their students' behaviors rather than their own behaviors, others' reactions, or administrative assessment. This also reflects the individualistic position of teachers. In other words, "the principle of bureaucratic control" (Lortie, 1975, p. 74) which is carried out through supervision by the principal or supervisor was not well accepted by the teachers.

A series of chi-square tests of association found that teachers' opinions about the best criterion for gauging the effectiveness of teaching were significantly related
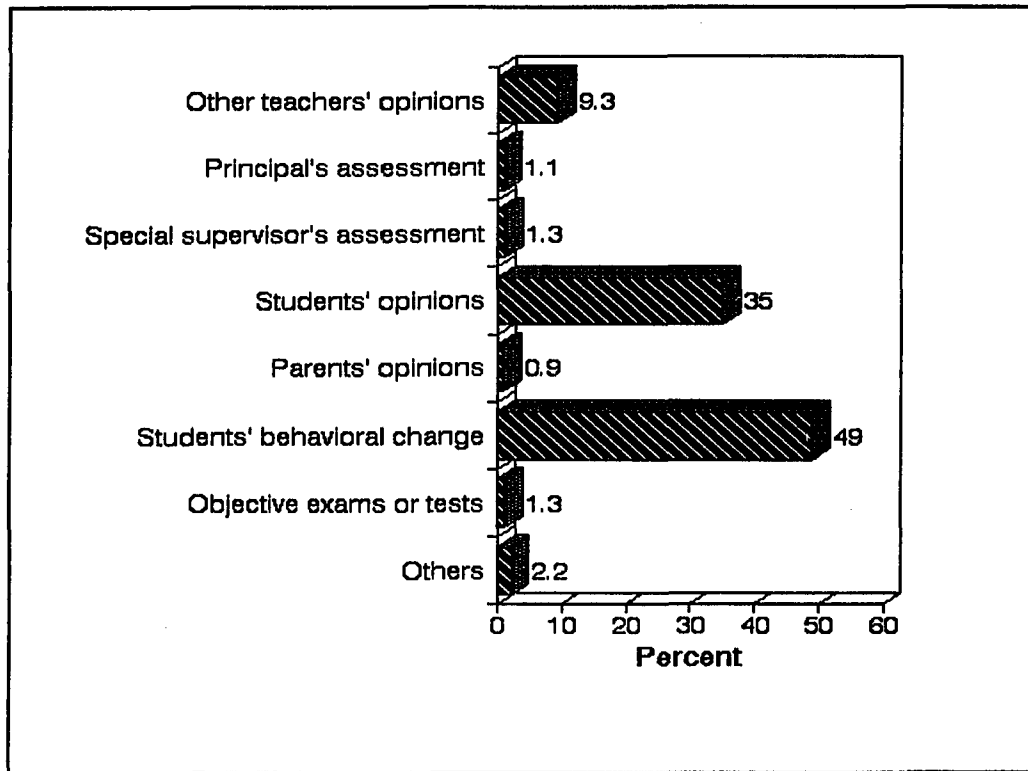
Figure 20. Criteria for Gauging Teaching Effectiveness

to gender (X^2 = 17.2, df = 7, p < .05) and years of teaching experience (X^2 = 33.9, df

= 21, p < .05). Female physical education teachers appeared more likely than male

teachers to see the students' behavioral change as the best criterion. Sixty-six percent

of females said that they believed that the students' behavioral change should be the

best criterion, whereas 47.1% of males said it should be. But as for the students'

opinions, a significantly smaller proportion (21.3%) of females than males (36.5%)

regarded it as the best criterion.

The less experienced groups of teachers were more likely than the most

experienced teacher group to believe that students' behavioral change should be the

best criterion. Fifty-seven percent of the beginning teachers, 54.8% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 42% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers thought students' behavioral change as the best criterion for measuring teaching effectiveness, whereas only 24.5% of teachers with over 20 years of experience felt the same way. Conversely, 52.8% of the over 20 year experienced teachers saw the students' opinions should be the best criterion, whereas 30.1% of the 0-4 year experienced, 32.3% of the 5-12 year experienced, and 36% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers felt the same way. These results imply that female teachers and young teachers had more student-centered teaching perspectives.

Traits of a Quality Physical Education Teacher

The majority of Korean physical education teachers viewed both teaching competence and the ability to enhance students' morality as primary traits of a good physical education teacher. When teachers were asked to provide their opinions about the most desirable traits of a physical education teacher, most of them indicated such traits as having good skills at various sports, strong knowledge base, good pedagogical ability, good organization of lessons, enthusiasm for and commitment to teaching, love and understanding of students, and dedication to the development of student personality and morality.

From these findings, we can assume that many teachers have skill or competency-oriented perspectives of their profession. This is well reflected in the following comments by a junior high school teacher.

I think a quality physical education teacher should have good sports skills because he should be able to demonstrate good skills in front of students. Unless he gives an appropriate demonstration, students will not accept his explanation, no matter how logical it is. In addition, a good teacher should possess the ability to transform his knowledge into real teaching. This is because knowing is one thing and teaching is another ... I think that the possession of good sports skills and solid pedagogical knowledge is a necessary condition for effective teaching.

It was also shown that many teachers believed that "the physical education teacher should strive to cultivate moral character of the students" (an experienced high school teacher). They thought they had a responsibility to foster the moral character of students both in and out of the class. In some cases, it appeared that the role of moral disciplining was valued more than the role of teaching itself. This was well reflected in the following comments by one high school department head:

I believe our subject [physical education] has great potential to develop student character. Therefore, I try to utilize this potential at its maximum when I teach my classes. I frequently emphasize the development of good sportsmanship along with etiquette, discipline, cooperation, endurance, and sacrifice ... I think disciplining should be a priority in physical education classes. I never let my students have their own way in the class. They must behave within the class rules. I strictly punish any off-task behavior ... Though they have nicknamed me "Bulldog" and are now afraid of me, I believe they will later remember me as a good teacher dedicated to the development of their character ... Teaching sports skills is important, but you must first teach students to be responsible and well-disciplined.

This example strongly indicates that many Korean physical education teachers identify themselves as a moral disciplinarian of their students. They appeared to have been socialized into the role of disciplinarian not only through the observation of their former physical education teachers who had usually assumed the role of

disciplinarian in the school, but also by the ethos of sports participation in which

moral development was an overtly defined objective.

Change in Teaching Perspectives

The analysis of interview data shows that teaching perspectives were not

stable. Many teachers said that their views had changed as a result of their

interaction with various contextual factors. The influence of interpersonal

relationships was especially powerful in reshaping the nature of teaching perspectives,

and the change usually occurred in the negative direction. The following comments

from two teachers illustrate this point:

> When I was a beginning teacher, I believed that the teacher's
> commitment to students' achievement should be a priority. So I
> worked very hard at that time to teach them various sport skills.
> Sometimes I taught the kids after-school hours. But as time went on, I
> realized my intention and efforts were not always accepted positively
> by others. Other physical education teachers held me in respect but
> grudgingly because their teaching practices were a sharp contrast to
> my own. That led to my isolation from them. Unfortunately, one of
> my students had his arm broken while practicing soccer shooting.
> Since then, probably afraid of another safety accident in my class, the
> principal repeatedly advised me to calm my students down during
> classes ... Though most students liked my teaching efforts, it also
> appeared that some students did not like my insistence on skill
> acquisition. All these situations led me to rethink my teaching
> philosophy. Now I believe in the adage which reads: "Do not
> overstrain yourself. Just be moderate in all domains." (A junior high
> school teacher)

> Entering the teaching profession, I made up my mind not to use
> physical punishment toward students in any circumstance. But the
> expectation of the school administrators were opposite to mine. Both
> the principal and the vice-principal asked and pressured us [physical
> education teachers] to discipline students' misbehavior. They even

subtly encouraged us to use physical punishment within moderate
limits, saying that "physical education teachers should be strict toward
students." Many other subject teachers also had the same expectation
for us. Sometimes some of them asked me to discipline troublesome
kids in their classes. At first I strongly resisted these expectations ... I
can not entirely deny the influence of other people's expectations, but
it was the students themselves who forced me to abandon my
resolution. If you are generous, then the students become very wild
and uncontrollable. If minimal punishment can lead to effective
teaching, there is no reason to hesitate to use it. (A third year
beginning teacher)

The above examples clearly show that teachers experienced bureaucratic

socialization. Their humanistic ideology was transformed to a more custodial one as

a result of the bureaucratic norms of the school. This finding is consistent with the

studies of Lawson (1988) and Templin (1979, 1989), which reported that most

beginning teachers began to discard the progressive and liberal perspectives when

faced with the bureaucratic norms and requirements of the schools.

Whereas many teachers admitted a change in teaching perspective from a

positive to a negative one, some teachers also reported positive experiences. One

very experienced teacher said: "I started my career without much commitment to

teaching. But the interaction with children for over twenty years stimulated me to be

a more dedicated teacher."

Job Satisfaction

The degree of satisfaction which teachers get from work varies considerably.

This is due to the difference in and the complexity of teacher values, reward

expectations, and working conditions. It is very probable, however, that a higher

commitment to teaching is associated with higher satisfaction. In this context, the question of "how satisfied are Korean physical education teachers with the profession, and what factors are related to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction?" could give us valuable insight into the understanding of their occupational socialization.

As to the question of satisfaction with their profession, approximately 14% of the respondents said they were "very much" satisfied; 48.8% were "much" satisfied; 27.6% were "somewhat" satisfied; 8.4% were "little" satisfied; and 1.3% were "very little" satisfied. Summaries of responses to the question of satisfaction with the profession are presented in Figure 21. A series of chi-square tests of association, however, found no significant relation between the degree of satisfaction with the profession and any of five demographic variables.

These results show that many teachers, irrespective of their demographic background, felt satisfied with their profession. This finding is quite surprising given the relatively low social status and prestige of physical education teachers in schools and society.

When the subjects were asked to provide the reasons for their satisfaction with the profession, the answers varied widely. About 35% of the respondents attributed their satisfaction to their interest in teaching; 29.3% valued the opportunity to interact with children; 14.1% indicated high autonomy in the classroom; 12.4% referred to job security; and 5.9% pointed out much free time and long vacations (See Figure 22). A series of chi-square tests of association found no significant relation between the factors responsible for teachers' satisfaction with the profession and any of five
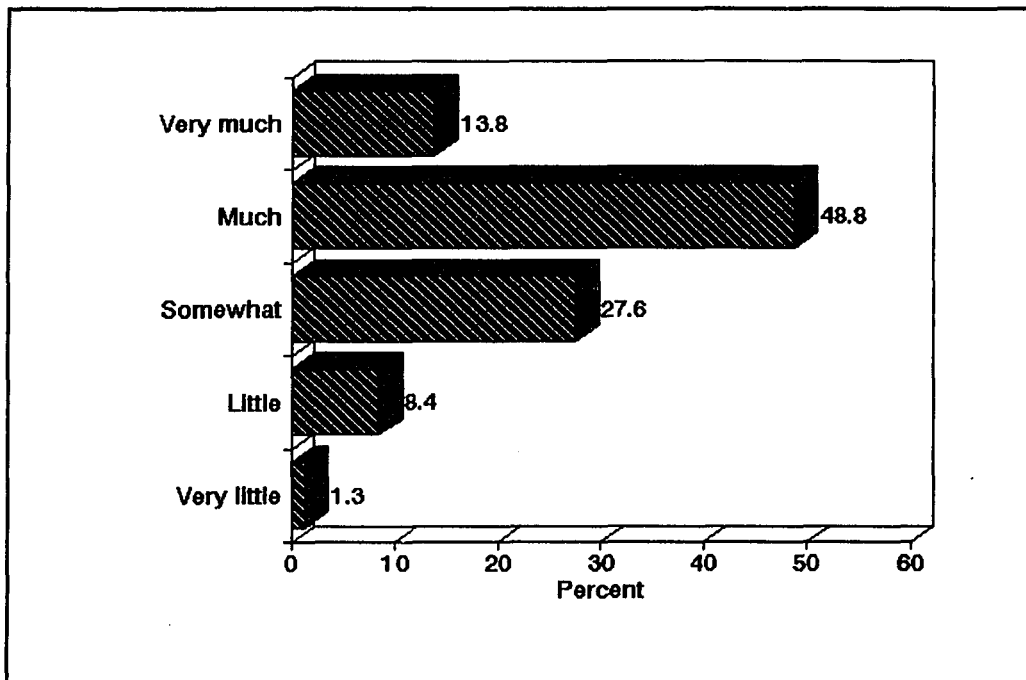
Figure 21. Degree of Satisfaction with the Profession

demographic variables.

Many teachers said that they were satisfied with their profession because teaching physical education was what they liked to do. The following comments from a high school teacher with 17 years of experience pertain to this:

> I like my job because I like teaching. Teaching kids sports activities, which is what I really like and can do well, is always pleasant and stimulating. The most important thing in this job is the opportunity to work with kids and motivate them for learning. I feel proud whenever I see my students' growth ... I feel like I become young again while interacting with young kids ... This profession, though underpaid, is the one worthwhile to pursue in one's life.

Another public high school teacher related his satisfaction to perceived job security in the following way:
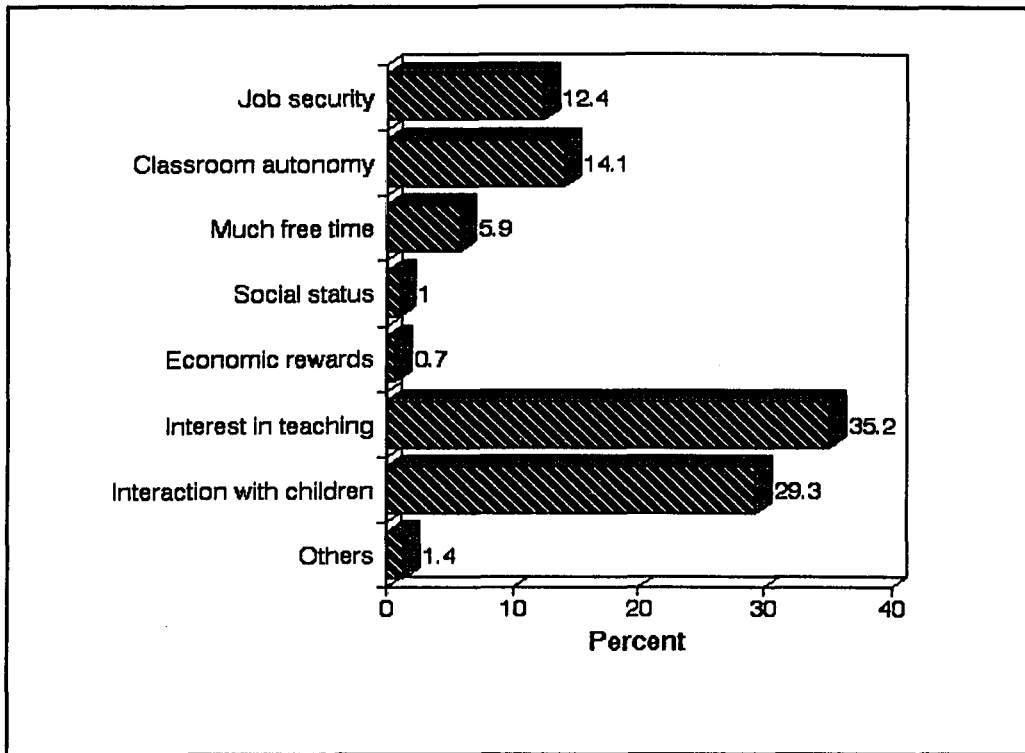
Figure 22. Reasons for Satisfaction with the Profession

> Though the salary of teachers is not high enough, this profession
> guarantees that I will continue to teach until 65 unless I cause a big
> problem. I like this job, mainly because here I do not need to worry
> about the job security ... Furthermore, we can enjoy a considerable
> degree of love and respect from our students and society at large.

Of those who expressed dissatisfaction with the profession, 34.8% indicated

poor teaching conditions as a main reason; 30.4% pointed out low economic rewards;

26.1% indicated low social status; and 6.5% indicated administrative constraints (see

Figure 23). A series of chi-square tests of association found no significant relation

between the factors responsible for teachers' dissatisfaction with the profession and

any of five demographic variables.
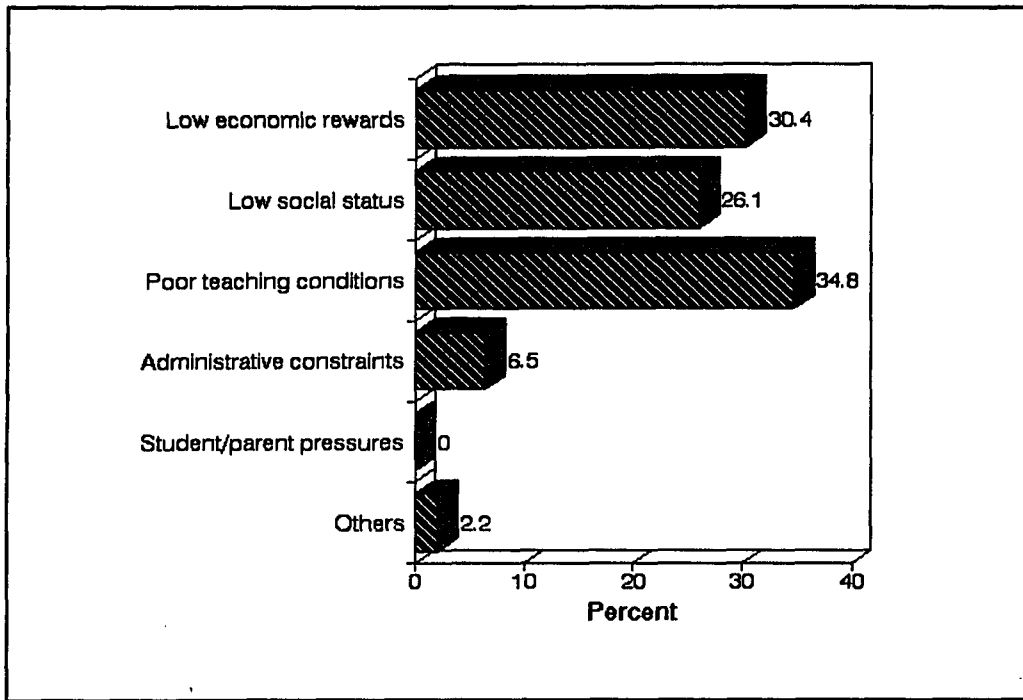
Figure 23. Reasons for Dissatisfaction with the Profession

These results indicate that some teachers were not content with their

profession because of its poor teaching conditions, insufficient material benefits and

low social prestige. One female teacher sarcastically noted: "A gym is to us

[physical education teacher] what a gun is to soldiers. Therefore, asking us to teach

physical education without a gym is like asking soldiers to fight a battle without a

gun." Low economic reward also contributed to teachers' dissatisfaction with their

profession. Another junior high school teacher also illustrated this point:

> Considering our [teachers'] academic career, we are relatively
> underpaid. Most of my friends in other professions get higher salaries
> than me ... Though everybody talks of the importance of education,
> nobody cares about giving better treatment to us. My family is always
> pressed for money. With an insufficient salary, I can't be a good

husband and father.

A male teacher expressed his frustration with the low social status of physical education teachers in the following way:

> Now, teachers generally receive less respect from society than before.
> With the development of the economy, people put more value on
> money. Accordingly, they do not respect us [teachers] much because
> we are not highly paid people. Teachers have become the second class
> citizens in our society ... Furthermore, as you know, we physical
> education teachers are not treated on the same footing with other
> subject teachers. Many people in our society still think we [physical
> education teachers] are kinds of 'villain' teachers who are ignorant and
> too often use violence toward students. I get angry whenever people
> give me a second look just because I am a physical education teacher.

As with any other profession, there was a significant variation in the degree of teachers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the job. But the finding that a greater percent of teachers expressed their satisfaction with the job raises a hope that teachers, in spite of all concerns and limitations surrounding Korean secondary school physical education, could take a lead in improving the practices of teaching physical education.

Interactions with School Contextual Factors

Teachers work in a school system which operates within a unique context. Therefore, the teachers' work is inextricably affected by the various contextual factors surrounding the school. It was found that, among various school contextual factors, the most salient were school environment and/or school culture, and

workplace conditions. These factors played significant roles as teachers performed

various school tasks, facilitating or constraining their work practices. In particular,

workplace conditions were found to have a close bearing on the role performances of

teachers. Workplace conditions included a wide variety of variables, with both

teaching conditions (e.g., facilities, gym, playground, etc.) and personal factors (e.g.,

administrators, colleagues, students) exerting much influence on the role

performances and eventually the occupational socialization of teachers.

School Environment and Culture

It is well known that school environment and culture influence the work of

teachers in either a positive or negative manner. When teachers were asked how they

perceived their school environment, the largest percent (39.7%) of the respondents

said that they perceived their school environment as "self-constrained." Meanwhile,

23.8% said they were "undecided"; 18.6% and 17.9% indicated that they perceived

their school environment as "open or liberal" and "closed or authoritarian",

respectively (see Figure 24).

The results show that many Korean physical education teachers perceived

their overall school environment as self-constrained. This finding indicates that many

Korean secondary schools were operating within the atmosphere of self-regulation.

In addition, it shows many physical education teachers held an individualistic

position. They appeared to believe that they were doing their own work without the

interference of others. One female junior high school teacher aptly expressed the
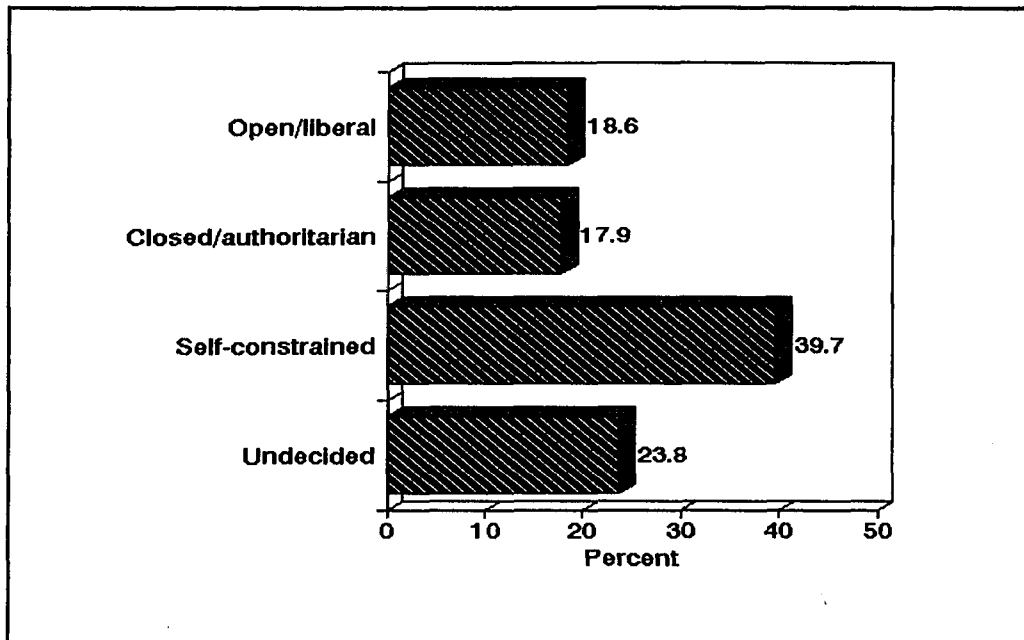
Figure 24. Perceived School Environment

teachers' individualism like this: "You teach alone. You take care of everything

regarding your class. Nobody cares when you fulfill your responsibility."

It was found that gender was significantly related to the degree of teachers'

perception of school environment (X^2 = 18, df = 3, p < .001). Female physical

education teachers were more likely than male teachers to perceive their school

environment in a negative way. For example, 38.3% of females saw their school

environment as a closed or authoritarian one, whereas only 15.6% of male teachers

viewed it the same way. This finding implies that females in schools not only have a

relatively low status, but also are isolated from the mainstream school community.

Females might have felt their school environment was closed or authoritarian because

most administrative superiors were males and the structure of school organization

was patriarchal.

School culture appeared to have a significant influence on the role performance of physical education teachers. Every school had its unique school culture; however, school culture in Korean secondary schools was best characterized by three distinct features. The first might be summed up as "college entrance-oriented" schooling. The second feature was the existence of tensions among teachers. The third key feature could be attributed to a mandated four year rotation of public school teachers among different schools.

College entrance-oriented schooling has its origin both in the traditional Confucian ideology which highly values academic achievement and in the relatively small number of colleges. In Korea, the entrance examinations are a crucial means of selecting students for the higher level of education. There are the High School and College Entrance Examinations charged by the Ministry of Education. The High School Entrance Examination is relatively easy, thus most junior high school students can go to high schools. But in the College Entrance Examination, only a third can pass it successfully and be admitted into colleges. Many students even start their preparation for it early in junior high school years. Because of the social values attached to higher education, almost all students, pressed by their parents, want to go college. Even the success of a school is judged by the total number of students who successfully enter a higher level of school.

All these practices inevitably force the schools to mobilize their whole resources for the preparation of the College or High School Entrance Examinations.

School life largely revolves around preparing to take the College Entrance Examination. One of the significant effects of entrance-oriented school culture is the prominent role of the homeroom teacher. Homeroom teachers drill their students to excel. They take charge of every aspect of students' school lives. Thus, a high level of respect and obedience from students and parents is conveyed to the homeroom teacher both in and out of the classroom. Another important effect of the entrance-oriented school culture is an over-emphasis on basic subjects such as Korean, English, Mathematics, and Science. As a result, physical education, one of the non-academic subjects, is inevitably de-emphasized in the school. Most teachers interviewed expressed their concerns and frustration about this. Time and again, it was found that the college entrance-oriented school culture seriously hampered the work of physical education teachers both in and outside of class. It not only marginalized physical education teachers in terms of both resource allocation systems and reward systems, but also helped to lower the status of physical education in schools.

Another salient Korean school feature was the existence of tensions among teachers. Many teachers interviewed reported that their school included a teacher group which had different value orientations from the mainstream school community and therefore sought education reforms. Because a strong loyalty to tradition among school administrators and teachers was prevalent in the school culture, tensions constantly arose between conservative people and a reform-minded teacher group. As one teacher said:

Occasionally quarrels arise between the principal and them [reform-minded teachers] during joint teacher meetings. Both sides have their own beliefs about how to teach and how to run the school ... There are tensions between them. These situations sometimes make me uneasy. I cannot tell who is right ... I hate it ... Many silent teachers become sandwitched between them.

This example shows that, in many cases, constant debate or quarrels between those who want to try new approaches and those who advocate tradition has created a very tense climate in many schools. This, in turn, appears to have served as a source of teachers' psychological stress.

Researchers (Bullough, 1987; Crow, 1987, 1988; Etheridge, 1989; Knowles, 1988; Lacey, 1977: Tabachnick & Zeichhner, 1985) have documented that the acceptance of school culture by teachers was not complete: some teachers might learn this culture, some would not accept it totally or partially. Teachers are rather resistant to institutional norms, creating organizational sub-cultures. The finding that there were teacher sub-groups with different value orientations from the mainstream school community lends support to the findings of the previous researches in Western countries.

Finally, it was found that a mandated four year rotation of public school teachers among schools also affected the teachers' school work. The rotation system was intended to create fairness and reduce tensions. But many teachers reported that it not only created heightened instability in terms of teachers' role performances and their status in the school, but also helped the school administrators to better control reform-minded or resistant teachers. In short, these salient features of school culture

appeared to have a negative effect on the role performances of physical education teachers and their occupational socialization.

Teaching Conditions

It was revealed that teaching conditions significantly influenced teaching effectiveness and the degree of commitment to teaching. In Korean secondary school physical education settings, poor teaching conditions hampered or at least constrained the effective role performances of teachers, and eventually helped them to be socialized into "ballroller" teachers. Most teachers responded that they were teaching physical education classes in a small playground covered with sand and gravel, with insufficient facilities and equipment. The following comments from teachers reveal the stark realities of teaching conditions in Korean secondary school settings.

> Gym? No! How many schools do you think have a gym in this country? My school has a playground which is barely over a hundred meters in its diagonal distance. It's regarded as a rather big playground compared to other schools', though. Every school day, three to five classes have to share it at the same time. Each class [which is composed of about fifty students] can occupy only one corner of the playground. With so many students packed in such a small area, you can't do real teaching. (A large city junior high school teacher)

> Not to mention the rainy or snowy days, even when it turns out to be hot or windy, it's almost impossible for me to teach the class in a proper manner ... The only reasonable alternative open to me on these days is to let the students play soccer or basketball and supervise their play. (A junior high school teacher)

> I hate summer physical education classes. I cannot endure glaring sunshine in summer ... You get drenched with sweat in just ten minutes on the playground ... The hot weather also makes the students

feel listless. Many of them do not want to move around in the heat of the day. Thus I made it a rule, in the summer season, to teach motor skills about twenty minutes and let the students have their way in the remaining time. It worked quite well. The students paid more attention to my teaching because they could enjoy the freedom of the remaining half of the period. (A female teacher)

These examples show how seriously poor teaching conditions serve as an obstacle to effective teaching and how they force teachers to be socialized into negligent teaching practices. As the following response from a high school teacher attests, poor teaching conditions also contributed to the change of the teacher's teaching perspectives:

When I was first assigned to a junior high school, I was eager to teach the students as many things as possible. I had long disliked the way in which most of my former physical education teachers had taught. However, I discarded my intention in a few months after realizing the realities of the teaching conditions in my school. I could not help but follow the routines of the other senior teachers ... I became the same kind of teacher that I once held in contempt ... Now I can understand why they just used to roll out the ball in physical education classes.

As shown in the above example, many teachers expressed strong sentiments to justify the practice of their lukewarm teaching on the grounds that they did not have sufficient teaching conditions such as a gym or a spacious playground. In short, the lack of adequate facilities and equipment had a seriously negative influence on the work of teachers. The poor teaching conditions might reflect the lack of public support for physical education (Dodds & Locke, 1984) and its marginal status in the school (Bell, 1986; Hendry, 1975).

Information Sources for Teaching

Given the unique role of the physical education teacher as a transmitter or adapter of both knowledge and skills, the investigation of teachers' use of information sources for their teaching would add an important dimension to the understanding of their occupational socialization. Teachers reported that the most important teaching information source was sports reference books (33.5%), teacher resource books/textbooks (29.8%), colleagues (26.3%), workshops/conferences (6.7%), academic/professional journals (2.6%), or others (1.1%) (see Figure 25).
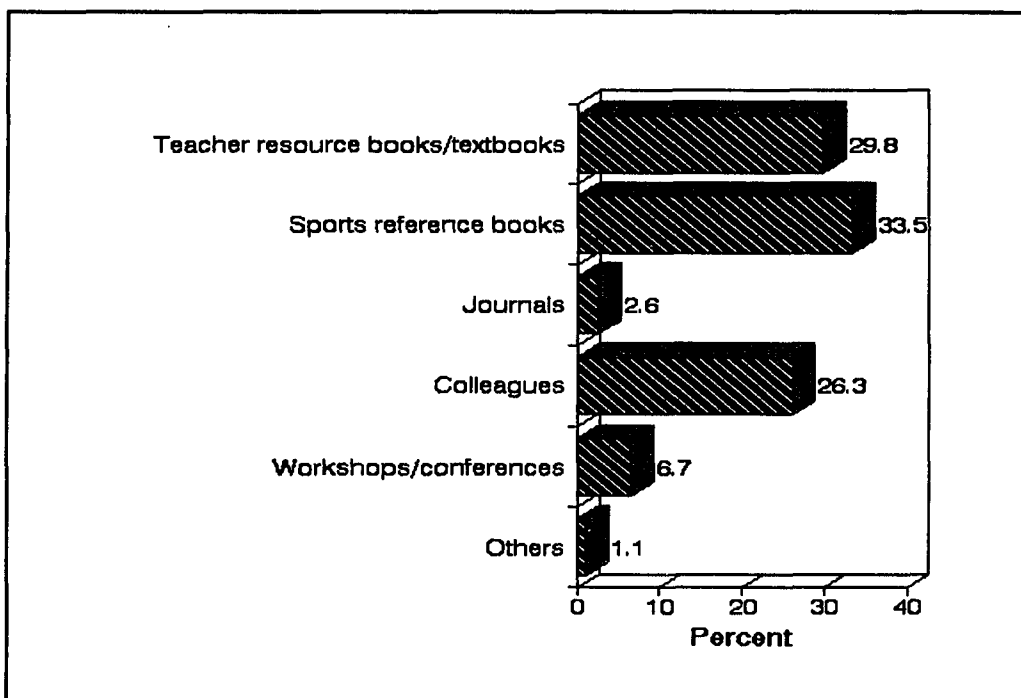
Figure 25. Information Sources for Teaching

The results show that teachers used a variety of information sources. The most frequently used ones were sports reference books from their university classes,

teacher resource books/textbooks, which had been provided by the Ministry of Education, and advice from other physical education teachers. A teacher provided the reason why they preferred sports reference books to teacher resource books/textbooks as a teaching information source:

> Teacher resource books or textbooks are shallow in terms of content covered and too abstract in description. They are not as useful as they were expected to be ... They only include introductory materials. But professional sports reference books usually contain richer information about sports skills, rules, and practice methods; thus they are helpful in my teaching. (A high school teacher)

Workshops/conferences were not regarded as an important information source. This implies that inservice programs were insufficient for or ineffective in the development of teachers' professionalism. Journals were rarely mentioned as a useful teaching information source. This can be explained by the lack of journals which have a focus on teaching in physical education.

A series of chi-square tests of association found that the information source for teaching was significantly related to gender ($X^2 = 11.2$, df = 5, p < .05), years of teaching experience ($X^2 = 28.5$, df = 15, p < .05), location of school ($X^2 = 35$, df = 10, p < .001), and level of school ($X^2 = 18.7$, df = 5, p < .005). Male teachers (36.4%) were more likely than female teachers (23.4%) to place a significant value on sport reference books as the main teaching information source. But females valued workshops (17%) more significantly than males (5.5%).

Beginning teachers were more likely than the groups of more experienced teachers to regard colleagues as the main information source for their teaching.

About 33% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers saw colleagues as the main

information source for their teaching, whereas 26.3% of the 5-12 year experienced

teachers, 21% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers, and 24.5% of the over 20 year

experienced teachers thought the same way. But beginning teachers were less likely

to view sports reference books as the main teaching information source than the more

experienced groups of teachers. About 25.8% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers

saw sports reference books as the main information source for their teaching, while

37.3% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, 32% of the 13-20 year experienced

teachers, and 34% of the over 20 year experienced teachers regarded them to be the

main information source.

This finding can be explained by the following reasons. Beginning teachers

generally lack the practical knowledge of teaching, therefore they are apt to turn to

other experienced teachers for help. But they have a relatively strong base of

theoretical knowledge since they have just finished their college courses. This might

be why they did not value sports reference books as the most important teaching

information as other experienced teachers did. A junior high school teacher with

three years of experience explained the importance of other teachers as the main

teaching information source in the following way:

> At the beginning of my teaching career, I had difficulty presenting and
> organizing classes effectively ... I often felt powerless whenever I
> realized that the knowledge learned in university cannot be
> satisfactorily used in my lessons ... Especially, students' lukewarm
> responses to my teaching and their frequent off-task behavior in
> classes made me frustrated ... However, after starting to observe other
> experienced teachers' classes and to discuss my problems with them, I

began to gain confidence in my teaching and in controlling student
behaviors. Their experience of teaching appeared to have every answer
to my problems ... Because they had valuable practical knowledge
which I could not find in the textbooks, their opinions and advice were
very helpful. Without their help, I might be still struggling to teach.

The teachers working in large city schools were more likely than teachers in other area schools to consider their colleagues as the main information source. About 30% of the large city school teachers said that colleagues were the main information source for their teaching, whereas 17.5% and 13.6% of the small city and rural area school teachers responded so, respectively. On the other hand, the large city school teachers were less likely than teachers in other area schools to regard teacher resource books/textbooks and sports reference books as the main teaching information source. About 57.9% of the large city school teachers regarded either teacher resource books/textbooks or sport reference books as the main information sources for their teaching, whereas 68.4% and 77.2% of the small city and rural area school teachers felt the same way, respectively.

The junior high school teachers attached slightly more importance than high school teachers to having colleagues as the main information source for their teaching. About 28.8% of the junior high school teachers said that colleagues were the main information source for their teaching, whereas 23.1% of the high school teachers felt the same way. But, more high school teachers used sports reference books as a teaching information source than junior high school teachers. While only 26.2% of the junior high school teachers mentioned sports reference books as the main teaching source, 42.7% of high school teachers responded the same way.

Curriculum

Curriculum is a systematic sequence of courses prescribed for student learning. Thus it is believed to affect the work of teachers. When it comes to Korean physical education settings, this assumption was only partially true.

According to interview data, physical education teaching basically evolved around activities which were convenient to teach within the limits of the school facilities and equipment. The state curriculum guide served as the basis of the school physical education curriculum. However, the state curriculum appeared not to regulate the school curriculum and teachers' instruction much. To many teachers, the state curriculum was seen as a matter of "form." They did not bother to pay much attention to the state curriculum regarding their teaching. The most important factor influencing the selection of activities was not curriculum, but teaching conditions. The following comments by a junior high school teacher illustrate this point:

> Curriculum does not matter to my teaching. Though the Ministry of Education revises state curriculum every five years and asks the schools to implement it, it does not make any difference in our teaching. Because we do not have sufficient facilities, it's almost impossible for us to follow the guidelines of the state curriculum. We have just taught the same things for several years. No change ... I mean ... in terms of both activities covered and methodologies used. We have taught a few fundamental activities such as soccer, basketball, volleyball, team handball, running, long jump, and basic gymnastics, not because they were the only activities prescribed in curriculum, but because they were convenient to teach within the limitations of the school conditions.

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Mainly because of the lack of sufficient teaching conditions, and partially

because of the lack of supervision by school administrators, most school physical

education curriculum appeared to be introductory in nature and to be limited in the

number of activities covered. It is quite possible, therefore, to assume that the nature

and practice of the school curriculum, together with the lack of facilities in which the

curriculum is applied, resulted in recreational physical education classes. This might

have, in turn, led to deskilling of teachers. A junior high school teachers illustrated

this point in the following way:

> Textbooks include a variety of physical activities, but the content is
> mainly introductory ... Teachers are not expected to teach advanced
> skills ... The [poor] teaching conditions also prevent me from teaching
> students more difficult skills. I mean ... I had been a volleyball
> player, but I can't teach them such skills as spike or blocking to my
> satisfaction .... [Because of my inability to teach such skills] I feel my
> volleyball skills also deteriorated a lot.

This response is similar to the one in Templin's (1989) study, in which an

experienced teacher (Sarah) felt she was "deskilled" after years of teaching in the

school. Furthermore, the nature and the practices of the current school physical

education curriculum indicate that physical education in Korean secondary schools

lacks professionalization as well as accountability for systematic teaching.

Interactions with School Administrators

It is generally assumed that school administrators, especially principals, exert

a great influence on the role performances of teachers. This assumption was true in

Korean secondary school physical education settings. It was found that the

principals' understanding of the importance of physical education and their support significantly affected the quality of the teacher's working conditions.

It is also generally assumed that school administrators serve teachers' interests by providing support and consultations. This assumption was not entirely true when it came to Korean physical education settings. It was found that many teachers did not receive sufficient support from school administrators, and that consultations with and feedback from them were very infrequent.

When asked whether they received sufficient support from school administrators, 1.9% of the respondents said "definitely yes"; 19% said "yes"; 24.6% said "no"; and 6% said "definitely no." The largest percent of them (48.4%), however, reserved judgment (see Figure 26).

The results specifically revealed that a large percent of teachers felt they did not receive sufficient support from their principal or vice-principal. As to the lack of support from the school, many teachers directed their complaints toward their principal, because they thought the principal had the authority and responsibility to provide them with support. In addition, the fact that the largest percent of the subjects reserved judgment to this question implies that many teachers had not established and maintained a close relationship with their administrative staff. The following responses from a high school teacher suggest this point:

> The principal does not understand the real value of physical education. He just thinks physical education to be a kind of play or recreation. He never bothers to support physical education teaching of his own will. Whenever we [physical education teachers] ask him to buy some teaching equipment, he interrogatingly asks us why we need such
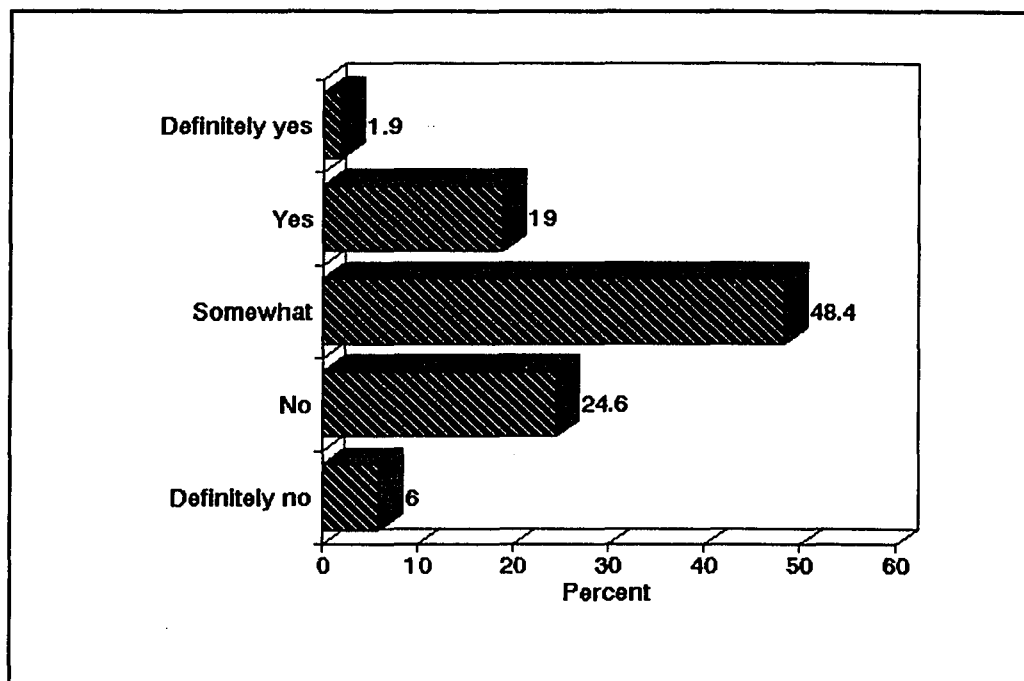
Figure 26. Perceived Support from the School

equipment and why we use up so many balls in a semester, and so on, before giving an unwilling consent ... Because of this, none of us like to ask him to provide equipment ... We have long been shunning him.

Most concerns focused on the lack of material support. However, some teachers also complained of the lack of psychological support from their school administrators. A teacher commented: "The principal seldom praises us with regard to our teaching. He seems to think that his only responsibility is just to buy us teaching equipment. But, I would be glad if he sometimes pats me on the back."

A series of chi-square tests found that teachers' opinions about support from the school administrators were significantly related to gender ($X^2 = 14.5$, df = 4, p < .05). Female teachers responded more negatively to the question than males. About

42.5% of females said they did not receive sufficient support from the school

administrators, whereas only 29.3% of males responded the same way. This indicates

that female teachers could not establish or maintain as close a relationship with their

school administrators as male teachers could.

Teachers reported that, in relation to their teaching, they had consulted with

or received feedback from their principal or vice-principal "very frequently" (1.1%),

"frequently" (9.9%), "somewhat" (29.6%), "rarely" (41.3%), and "very rarely"

(18.1%) (see Figure 27).
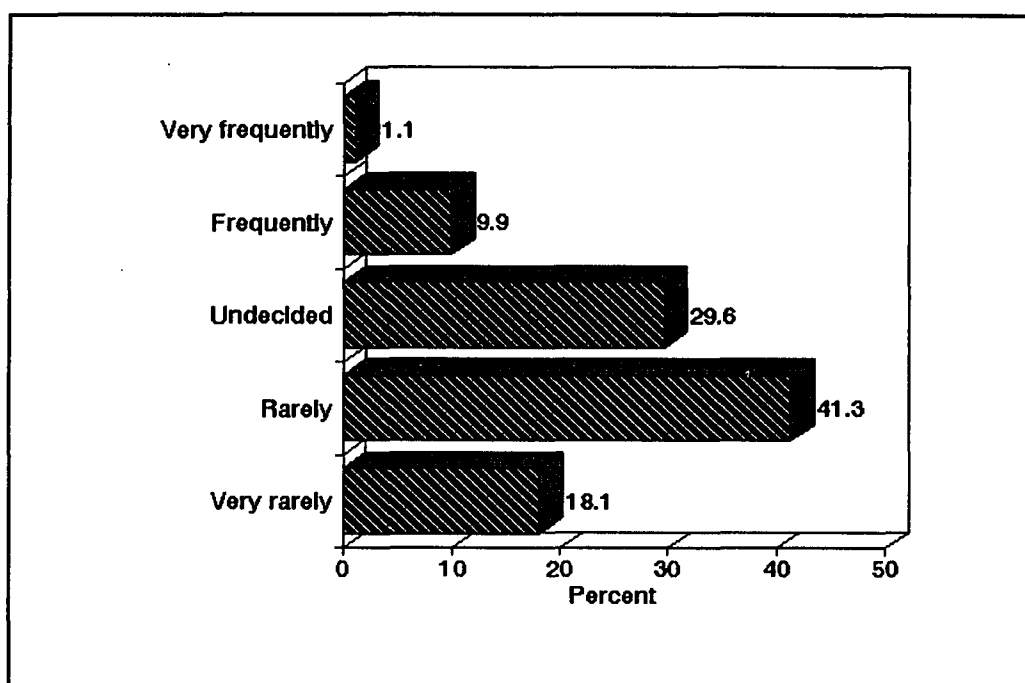
Figure 27. Consultations with School Administrators

The results show that a large percent (59.4%) of the subjects had "rarely" or

"very rarely" consulted with or received feedback from the principal and vice-

principal in relation to their teaching. This attests to the fact that teachers'

interactions with their administrative superiors were very limited, as well as to the

fact that supervision of physical education by principals was being largely neglected.

A series of chi-square tests of association found that the frequency of

teachers' interactions with school administrators was significantly related to gender

(X^2 = 10.8, df = 4, p < .05) and years of teaching experience (X^2 = 23.6, df = 12, p <

.05). Female physical education teachers appeared to interact less frequently than

male teachers with school administrators. For example, 74.4% of females said they

had "rarely" or "very rarely" consulted with or received feedback from their principal

or vice-principal, whereas 57.6% of males responded the same way. The beginning

teachers' group appeared to have interacted less frequently than other groups of

teachers with school administrators. For example, 69.4% of the 0-4 year experienced

teachers said they had "rarely" or "very rarely" consulted with or received feedback

from their principal or vice-principal, whereas 59.5% of the 5-12 year experienced

teachers, 52% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers, and 54.7% of the teachers with

over 20 years of teaching experience said they did. These results indicate that the

relationships of female teachers and beginning teachers with their administrative

superiors were not as close or intimate as those of other teachers.

When teachers were asked whether they want to seek school administrators'

opinions about their teaching, 2.6% of them said "definitely yes"; 23% said "yes";

28.6% said "undecided"; 33.2% said "no"; and 12.6% said "definitely no."

Summaries of responses to this question are presented in Figure 28. These results

indicate that teachers either did not believe feedback from the principal to be useful

in their teaching, or disliked and thus rejected close supervision by administrative

superiors.
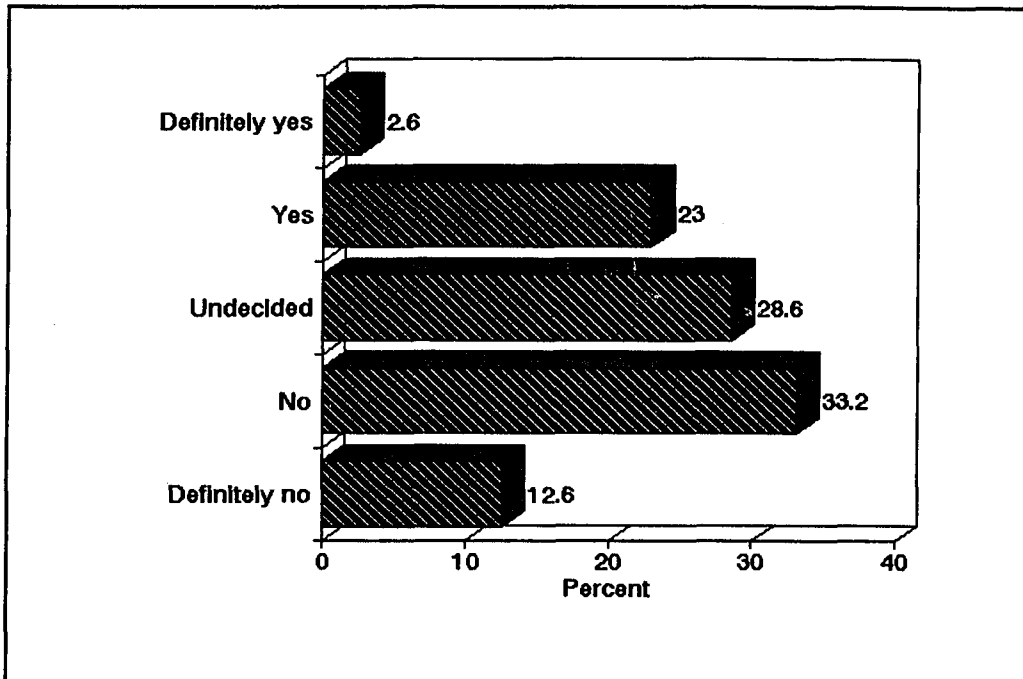
Figure 28. Desire to Seek School Administrators' Opinions

When asked how frequently they felt pressure from administrators, a large

proportion of the subjects said they had hardly experienced pressure from their

principal or vice-principal. Teachers reported that they experienced pressure from

their school administrators in the following way: "very frequently" (1.3%),

"frequently" (9.9%), "somewhat" (32.4%), "rarely" (42.3%), or "very rarely " (14%)

(see Figure 29).

These results imply that the supervision practices of physical education by

administrative superiors were rarely felt in Korean secondary schools. Many teachers

said that the principal and vice-principal usually did not care about physical
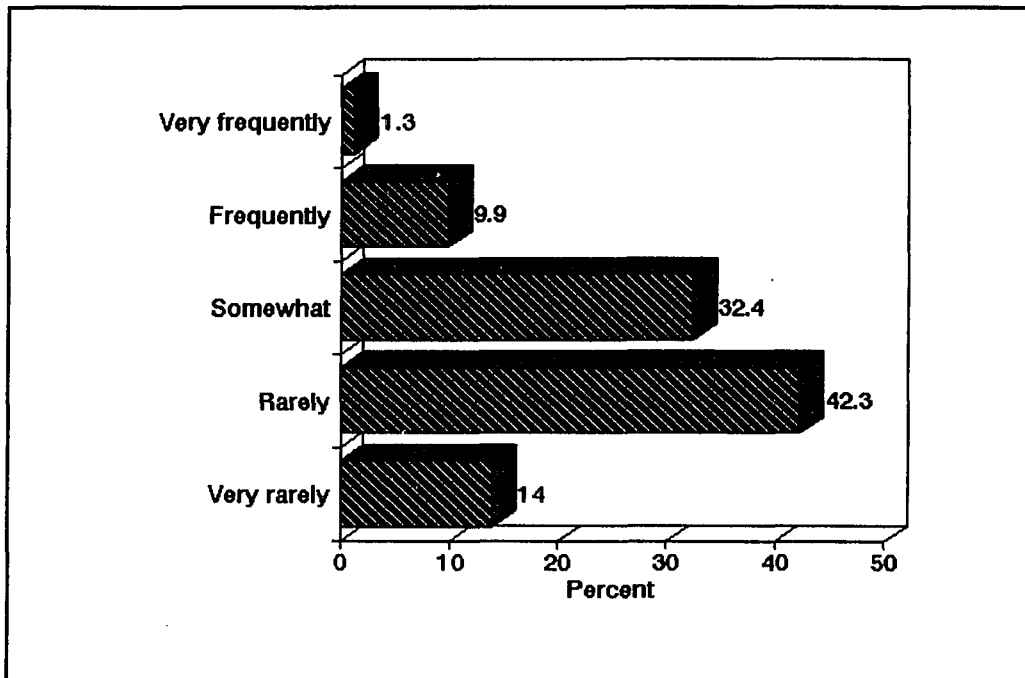
Figure 29. Pressure from School Administrators

education teaching unless they caused big problems. The following comments from a

high school teacher illustrate this point:

> We [physical education teachers] work in a self-constrained
> atmosphere. We select teaching content and follow our own [teaching]
> schedule ... I mean ... we decide everything concerning physical
> education lessons on our own initiative ... I have not felt any
> noticeable pressure from the principal or vice principal. If you do not
> cause trouble, they don't care about your teaching.

Though the questionnaire data showed that many teachers were working

without feeling pressure from the school administrators, a considerable number of

teachers interviewed reported their experience of pressure from school administrators.

This pressure was mostly related to student control and grading. One female teacher

provided an example of pressure from the principal in this regard:

> The principal likes to see physical education classes run in an orderly
> fashion. He believes in the orderliness and tight control of students ...
> He repeatedly asks us [physical education teachers] to hold the
> students under tight control during the class. This puts high pressure
> on me. Whenever he shows up on the playground, I have to read his
> face to see if he feels unhappy with my class.

Another high school teacher complained about unreasonable pressure from the

vice-principal regarding the evaluation of students:

> One day the vice-principal walked to my desk and asked me to give a
> good grade to some academically excellent students. He said, "Those
> kids really need your consideration to successfully enter a prestigious
> university, because GPA is an important criterion for college
> admission." I felt hurt because this kind of pressure is totally
> unwarrantable, and because it showed his disregard for physical
> education. I wonder if he could would make the same request to other
> subject teachers.

In some cases, severe pressure and undue interruptions by school

administrators led to the weakening of teachers' commitment. One second-year

teacher said:

> I tried to do my best as a teacher in the beginning. But, as the school
> administrators' interruptions got in the way too often, I changed my
> mind and decided to "go with the flow" by doing only the minimum
> amount of work assigned to me.

It appears that school administrators generally did not provide physical

education teachers with sufficient support or feedback for quality teaching. They

seemed indifferent to the role performances of physical education teachers. Given

that "mutual trust between the principal and teachers, considerable support for teachers by the principal ... are important elements in the healthy school workplace" (Goodlad, 1983, p. 52), it is apparent that the lack of support from and interactions with school administrators seriously constrained the role performances of Korean physical education teachers.

Interactions with Colleagues

The analysis of data show that colleagues served as an influential agent for teachers' occupational socialization. The nature of a teacher's relationships with other teachers played a significant part in his or her role performances in the school. It either facilitated or constrained the teacher's school work. It was found that teachers frequently interacted with each other for the purpose of seeking consultations or feedback. They saw their colleagues as a source of technical assistance for their instruction. Though they have, in part, an individualistic tendency, they still actively sought the help of other physical education teachers.

When asked about how frequently they consulted with or sought feedback from their colleagues, more than half of the respondents showed a positive response. Teachers reported they had consulted with or received feedback from other teachers "very frequently" (3.7%), "frequently" (48.2%), "somewhat" (26.3%), "rarely" (17.7%), and "very rarely" (4.1%) (see Figure 30).

These results are in sharp contrast with the amount of interaction they had with their school administrators. In particular, the division heads or experienced
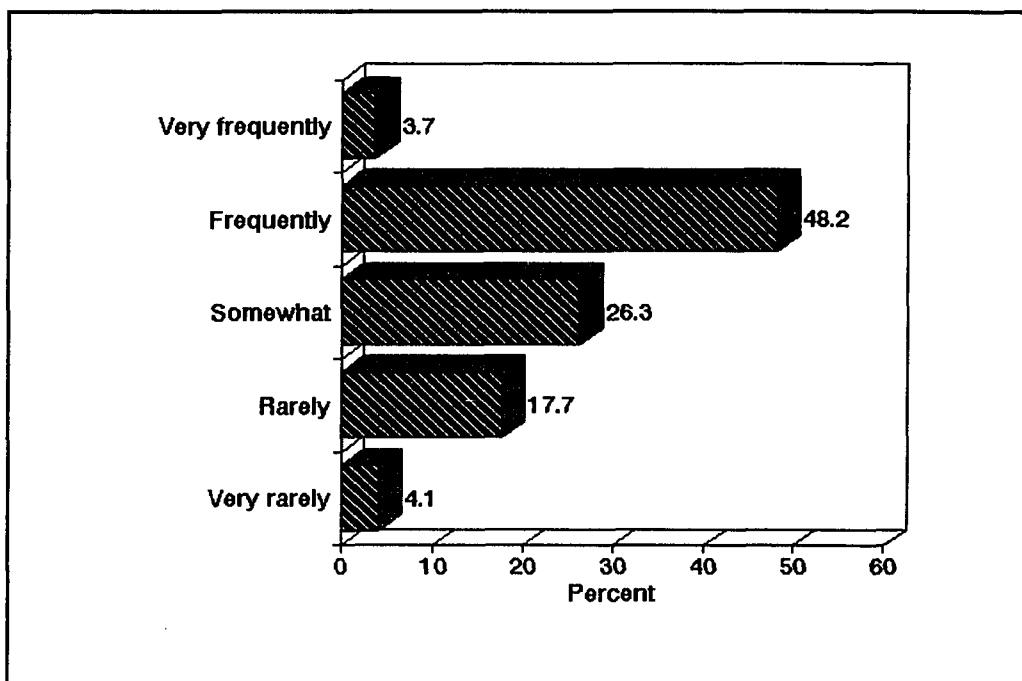
Figure 30. Consultations with Colleagues

teachers served as mentors to whom teachers usually turned for help. It was also

found that, especially for beginning teachers, the observation of or consultation with

other experienced teachers was instrumental in their successful adjustment to the

workplace. One beginning teacher said: "They [other experienced teachers] helped

me to acquire skills to teach students, to interact with others, and to perform

administrative duties. More importantly, they taught me how to control students and

how to deal with difficult situations arising in the school."

Interview data show that most interactions occurred in the form of informal

meetings either during recess periods or during afterschool beer gatherings.

Discussions primarily focused on teaching schedules, student control, and evaluation

criteria. They rarely discussed the effectiveness of an individual teacher's teaching,

probably because they believed that "talking about another teacher's instruction would be presumptuous" (a high school teacher). They rarely had formal observations of other teachers' classes or formal discussion sessions.

There was a sense of mutual cooperation and intimacy among teachers. Teachers appeared to think all members of the physical education division to be "a family." Many of them thought that close cooperation and intimate personal relationships were important in their role performances thus they should be well maintained. Many teachers expressed a strong spirit of 'us'. One teacher illustrated this point:

> We get along well because we are a kind of family in the school. You spend a lot of time together with four or five guys in a small room everyday, then you all will become a family. Unlike most other subject teachers [who share a large joint office], we maintain a close relationship with each other ... Therefore, you shouldn't do anything your own way. You have to cooperate with others in everything, [because] you are a member of a family ... Cooperation is very, very important in our work.

Most Korean secondary schools had a small independent office for the exclusive use of physical education teachers. Teachers spent much of their recess time and between-instruction time interacting with their colleagues in that office. That is, the space ecology and consequently much shared time appeared to facilitate interactions among teachers. These frequent interactions, in turn, led to the nurturing of a family spirit among them. Thus, cooperation and intimacy stood out as the salient themes of both the role performances of teachers and their relationships with each other. Many teachers responded that the spirit of unity among teachers had

been instrumental in the success of their school work. One junior high school teacher

said:

> With mutual cooperation, we could easily and smoothly fulfill
> instructional responsibilities and administrative chores. We jointly
> made lesson plans, jointly decided evaluation criteria, and divided
> work during the school athletic meeting day or fitness test day ... If
> one teacher could not teach his class due to personal problems such as
> an official trip outside or sickness, another teacher volunteered to
> substitute for him. There does exist a strong sense of cooperation in
> our department. That's really helpful in my school work.

Meanwhile, this sense of collectivism served as a powerful means to guard

them from external forces coming from the principal, other subject teachers, and

parents. The following comments from a high school teacher illustrate this point:

> Though they [other subject teachers] think little of us [physical
> education teachers], they seldom express it in public. That's because
> they know we will be closely banded together against them when any
> troublesome situation occurs. Even the principal is careful in dealing
> with us because he knows our strong solidarity.

A series of chi-square tests of association found that the frequency of

teachers' interactions with other physical education teachers was significantly related

to the location of school ($X^2 = 17.2$, df = 8, p < .05). Teachers working in large city

schools and small city schools interacted more frequently with their colleagues than

did teachers working in rural area schools. For example, 55.8% of the large city

school teachers and 50% of the small city school teachers said they had "frequently"

or "very frequently" consulted with or received feedback from their colleagues,

whereas only 37.8% of the rural area school teachers said they did. This is probably

because a large city school or a small city school has a relatively large number of

physical education teachers compared with a rural area school.

When the subjects were asked whether they want to seek other physical

education teachers' opinions in relation to their teaching, 7.8% of them said

"definitely yes"; 63.9% said "yes"; 16.8% said "undecided"; 8.6% said "no"; and

2.8% said "definitely no." Summaries of responses to this question are presented in

Figure 31. The results also strongly indicate that most teachers view their colleagues

as an important source for technical assistance.
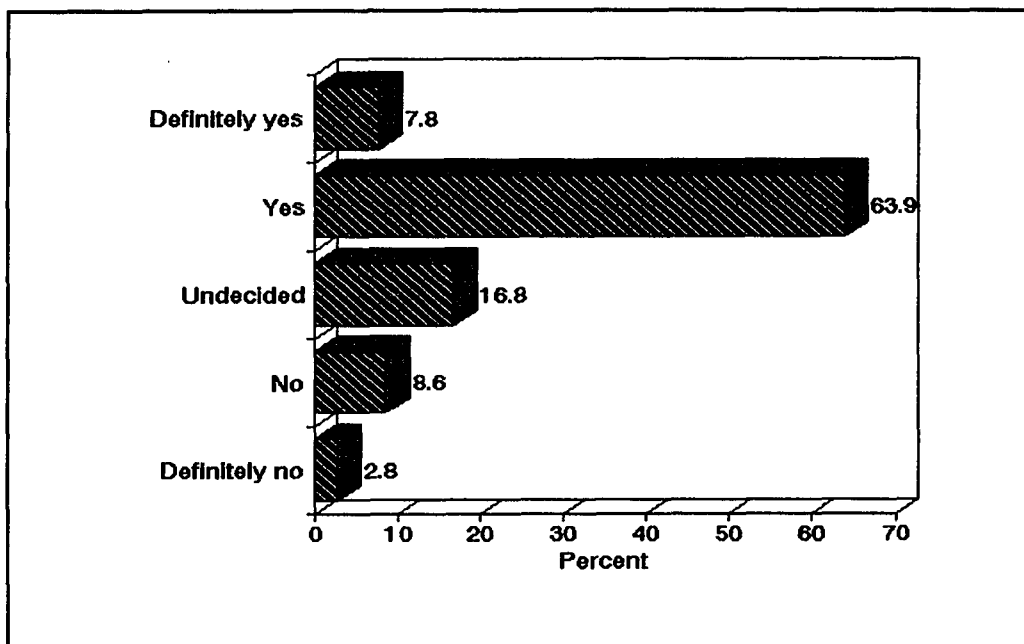
Figure 31. Desire to Seek Colleagues' Opinions

When asked how frequently they felt uncomfortable pressure from other

physical education teachers, a large proportion of teachers said they had rarely

experienced pressure from their colleagues. Teachers reported that they had felt

pressure from their colleagues in the following way: "very frequently" (0.6%),

"frequently" (6.3%), "somewhat" (21.8%), "rarely" (47.9%), or "very rarely "

(23.3%) (see Figure 32). Again these results support the previous finding that

teachers maintain close, cooperative relationships with one another. One high school

teacher provided reasons why most teachers rarely felt pressure from their colleagues:

> Our [physical education] division consists of four male and one female
> teachers. Each teacher has his or her duty in the department. For
> example, the division head coordinates and supervises the overall
> affairs of physical education, one teacher takes charge of schedule
> planning and division administrative jobs, another assumes the
> responsibility of keeping facilities and equipment, and so on ...
> [Therefore], there is no need for interfering in another's business ...
> Even when there are big events such as field days for athletic
> competitions or fitness tests, we divide responsibilities in the same
> way. It [division of duties] has worked well until now ... Because
> everybody knows the importance of mutual cooperation and works
> hard in accomplishing his or her duty, we don't have any interpersonal
> conflicts.

It is also interesting to note that interactions or relationships among physical

education teachers were not always cooperative or positive. Some areas of

contention were the selection of activities to be taught, teaching style, and evaluation

criteria. In some cases, concerns about these areas caused teacher-teacher

relationships to deteriorate, seriously constraining the work of teachers. The

following comments from two teachers illustrate this point:

> At the beginning of my first year teaching, I tried to teach my 6th
> grade classes team handball skills according to the school curriculum.
> But the other experienced teacher, who took charge of other classes in
> the same grade, forced me to first teach the 6th grade classes a
> "discipline drill" which consisted of salutation, lineup, march, etc. He
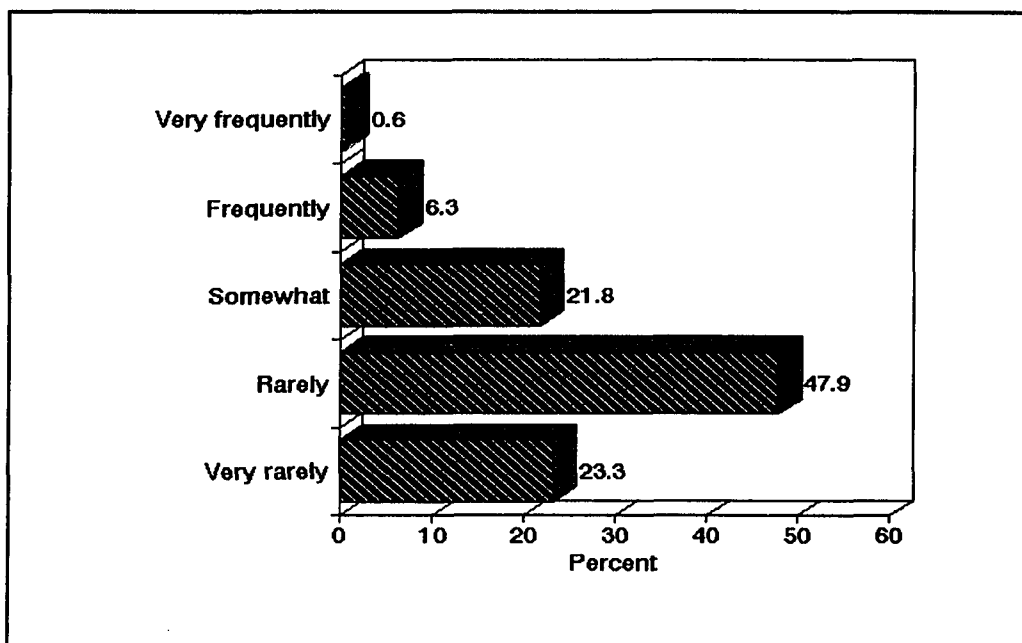
Figure 32. Pressure from Colleagues

insisted, citing the importance of maintaining class discipline, that the students should be taught basic disciplinary activities at the beginning of every school year. It was very uncomfortable to me since I was against the militaristic teaching style common in [Korean secondary] schools. But I could not help but accept his insistence because I was a novice teacher with no power ... From then on, I kept teaching the students the discipline drill in the first week of every school year. (A junior high school teacher with four years of experience)

The head of the physical education division in my school often meddles in another's teaching. But I do not like his excessive interference in another teacher's work. When he repeatedly advised me to organize my class in his way, I could no longer bear it. So I retorted: "Mind your own business, sir. You have no warrant for doing that to me. I have my own teaching philosophy. You must respect other teachers." That confrontation helped to stop his undue interruption in my work. But it worsened our relationship so much that I still feel some coldness between us. (Another junior high school teacher)

One high school teacher reported conflicts between the division head and

other teachers. She complained about the inability of the head to protect her and other teachers from school administrators:

> The division head should be a representative of us [physical education teachers]. He has a responsibility to protect us from the administrative superiors' interference. But he only care about the safety of his position and about his own career advancement. He is a kind of "yes" man to the principal. He follows the principal's directions with no questions. He rarely defends us or speaks out for the benefits of physical education ... when there once arose a conflict between the vice-principal and one teacher due to student discipline problems, he did not side with the teacher. Rather, he sided with the vice-principal by indirectly talking in favor of his position ... Furthermore, though we have long been short of teaching equipment, he never asks the principal for more ... [Therefore] We do not like him. There is always an uncomfortable tension between us and him.

As shown in the above comments, sometimes the division head became the butt of criticism from teachers. Most teachers expected the head of the physical education division to be a buffer between them and school administrators. But when this expectation was not satisfactorily met, teacher-head conflicts occurred. It was found that these conflicts were especially detrimental to the work of teachers.

In short, teachers strongly felt the need for mutual cooperation and assistance not only because they have to share limited facilities and equipment, but because their teaching and other school lives were closely entwined with those of other teachers. Collegiality based on mutual cooperation and frequent interactions served as a very important support network, providing "a sense of pedagogical unity" with others. Though there was a sense of individualism among teachers, strong collegiality and collectivism were dominant themes of teacher-teacher relations in

Korean secondary school physical education settings. These findings were in sharp

contrast to those of Lortie (1975) and Templin (1988), who documented the existence

of individualism and the lack of interactions among teachers. This contrast might be

attributed to the difference of cultural influence on teachers and schools.

Interactions with Students

The analysis of data shows that teachers actively interacted with students and

sought their feedback in relation to teaching. Students always stood at the core of

the teachers' attention and interactions. This is not surprising given that most of a

teacher's school work revolves around students.

Teachers reported that they had consulted with or received feedback from

their students "very frequently" (8.4%), "frequently" (74.9%), "somewhat" (11.7%),

"rarely" (4.3%), and "very rarely" (0.6%) (see Figure 33). A series of chi-square

tests of association, however, found no significant relation between the frequency of

interactions with the students and any of five demographic variables.

The results clearly show that many teachers sought the opinions of the

students in relation to their teaching. The feedback or opinions sought were

primarily regarding the appropriateness of activities, the organization of practices or

game play, and the selection of squad leaders. Interview data revealed a salient logic

which lay behind the teachers' efforts to seek students' opinions:

> The stance of the teacher listening to student opinions helps to bring
> about voluntary student cooperation and participation in the class. It
> also helps to maintain good teacher-student relationships by projecting

a democratic teacher image into students' minds ... Within the limit in
which you do not lose control of students, you'd better seek student
opinions. (A high school teacher)
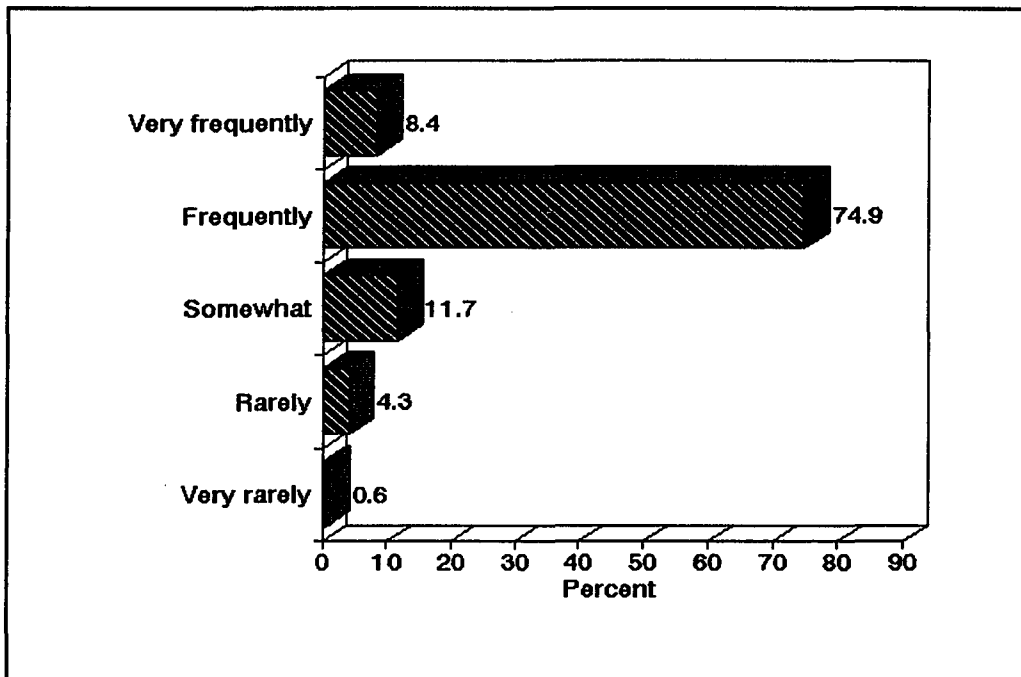
Figure 33. Consultations with Students

It was found that some teachers considered the opinions of students as an
important criterion for measuring their instructional success. In many cases, special
appreciation from students served as a psychological reward of teaching, a finding
consistent with the results of Lortie's (1975). One teacher with five years of
experience illustrated these points:

> I have always tried to listen to students' opinions about my teaching
> and to incorporate good ideas into my instruction. Sometimes their
> opinions were very helpful in my teaching. I believe teachers should
> listen to the students because their participation in instructional
> decision-making could greatly enhance their interest in and motivation
> for the class ... Above all, from their responses you can tell whether

your teaching was good or not. Whenever I found positive student responses to my instruction through [formal or informal] contacts, I felt a sense of achievement. I was proud of myself as a teacher.

Though many teachers reported they actively sought students' opinions, the relationships between them were not intimate or mutually-respecting. Interview data showed that many teachers believed the teacher should maintain a tight control of students in order to ensure good instructional results. And they said that they had maintained a firm grip over their students. In this context, teacher-student relationships appeared to be strictly top-down. Some teachers even saw good class control as an indicator of successful teaching. These findings imply that the actual influence of students' opinions on teachers' instruction might be limited because the nature of their relationships was strictly unidirectional.

When teachers were asked whether they want to seek students' opinions in relation to their teaching, 9.3% said "definitely yes"; 77.3% said "yes"; 10.6% said "undecided"; 2.2% said "no"; and 0.6% said "definitely no" (see Figure 34). The results show that most teachers believed students to be helpful in their teaching thus they would seek the opinions of their students in the future.

When teachers were asked how frequently they felt pressure from their students, they reported in the following way: "very frequently" (0.9%), "frequently" (1.5%), "somewhat" (13%), "rarely" (41.3%), or "very rarely " (43.4%) (see Figure 35). These results could be well explained by unique Korean cultural values and norms which mandate students' unconditional obedience to the elders, especially to their teachers. Teacher-student relationships remain top-down in nature. Students
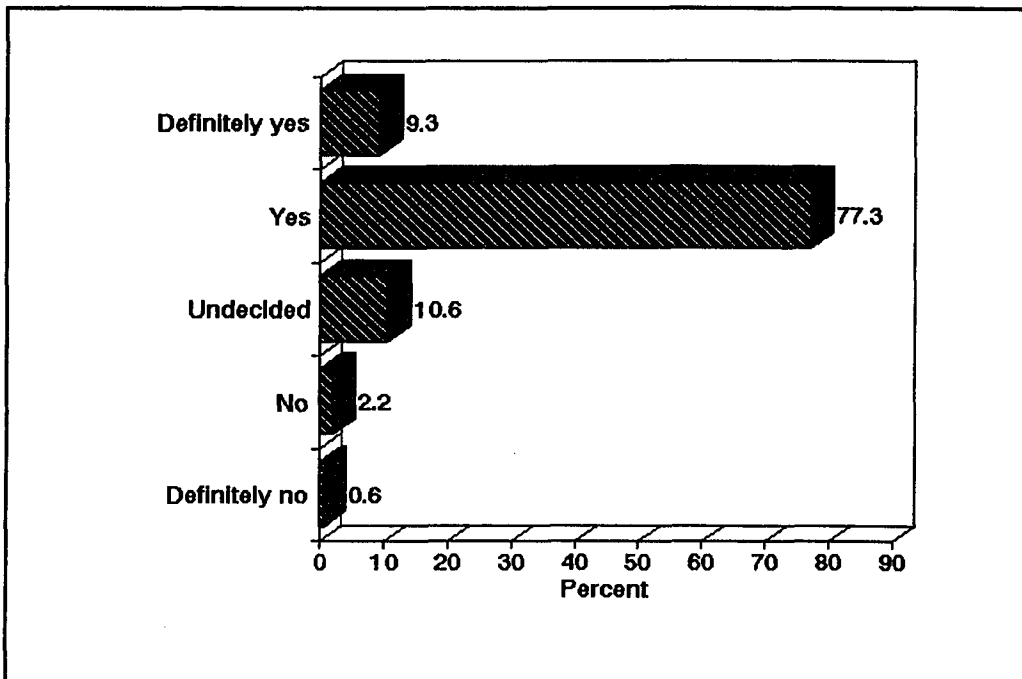
Figure 34. Desire to Seek Students' Opinions

must follow the teachers' directions without any complaint. Therefore, it is almost

impossible for students to give uncomfortable pressure to their teachers. However,

there were a few occasions in which teachers experienced pressure from students.

This was usually attributed to the students trying to seek good scores in skill tests.

One high school teacher provided a good example in this regard:

> Many students, especially academically excellent students, are anxious
> to get a good grade in physical education because it affects their high
> school GPA [which is, in turn, an important criterion for deciding
> college admission]. Students indirectly show their dissatisfaction with
> the results of skill tests, but there are also a few students who openly
> and repeatedly ask me to give them better grades. Though I regret not
> being able to help them, I stiffly reject these undue demands. But this
> makes me uncomfortable. I hate it.
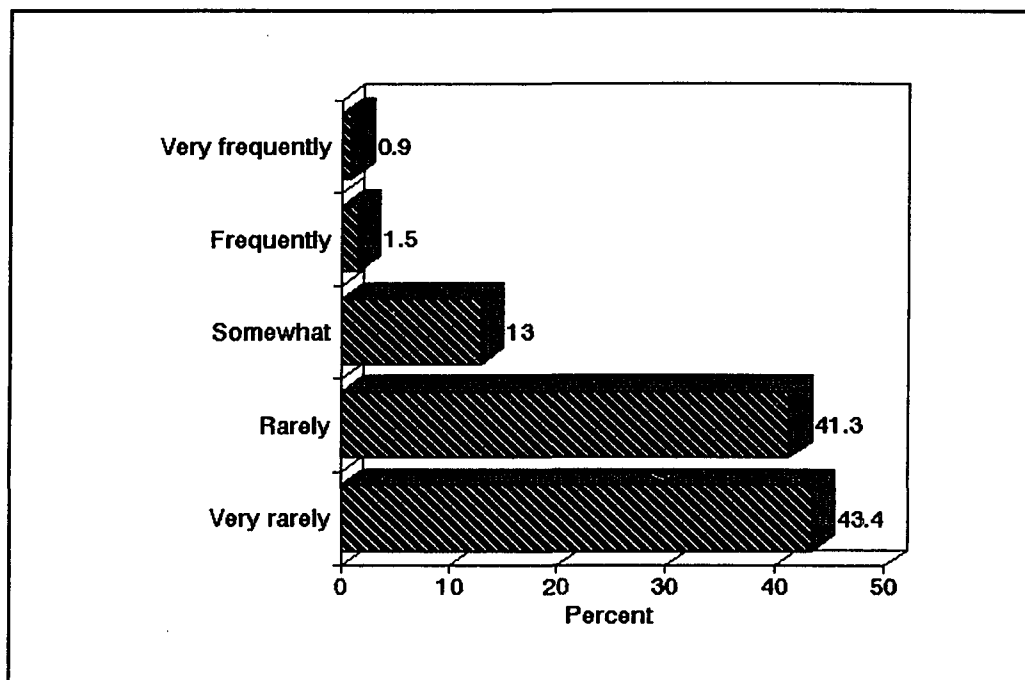
Figure 35. Pressure from Students

The above response indicates that, in a few occasions, grading not only constrained teachers' otherwise good relationships with students. But it also implies that grading is a potential source of teachers' role conflicts.

In sum, Korean physical education teachers actively interacted with students and sought their opinions regarding teaching. This reflects the significant influence of students on the occupational socialization of teachers, which has been documented by many researchers (Baumrind, 1980; Blase, 1985, 1986; Brophy & Evertson, 1981; Doyle, 1979; Drietzel, 1973; Haller, 1967; McNeil, 1983; Riseborough, 1988). However, a caution should be made in accepting this conclusion. Doyle (1979) and Haller (1967) sought the explanations for the great influence of students on teacher socialization from the typical isolation of teachers from their colleagues and

supervisors. However, these explanations are highly questionable in Korean

secondary school physical education settings since teachers frequently interacted with

both their colleagues and students.

Interactions with Parents

It was found that the interactions between Korean physical education teachers

and parents were very minimal, and that many teachers did not see parents as a very

helpful information source for their teaching. To most teachers, parents appeared to

be persons who were to be kept at a respectful distance.

When asked about how frequently they interact with the students' parents,

many teachers reported that they had consulted with or received feedback from the

parents "very frequently" (1.1%), "frequently" (18.4%), "somewhat" (24.4%), "rarely"

(39.1%), and "very rarely" (17.1%). Summaries of responses to this question are

presented in Figure 36.

These results show that parent involvement in physical education was not

common in Korean secondary schools. Most teachers interviewed said that they did

not have an opportunity to meet with parents in regard to their teaching. Even the

occasional interactions with parents were mostly centered on issues related to special

treatment of the handicapped or unhealthy students and discipline problems. A series

of chi-square tests of association found that the frequency of teachers' interactions

with the students' parents was significantly related to gender (X^2 = 21.6, df = 4, p <

.001). Male teachers interacted more frequently than female teachers with the
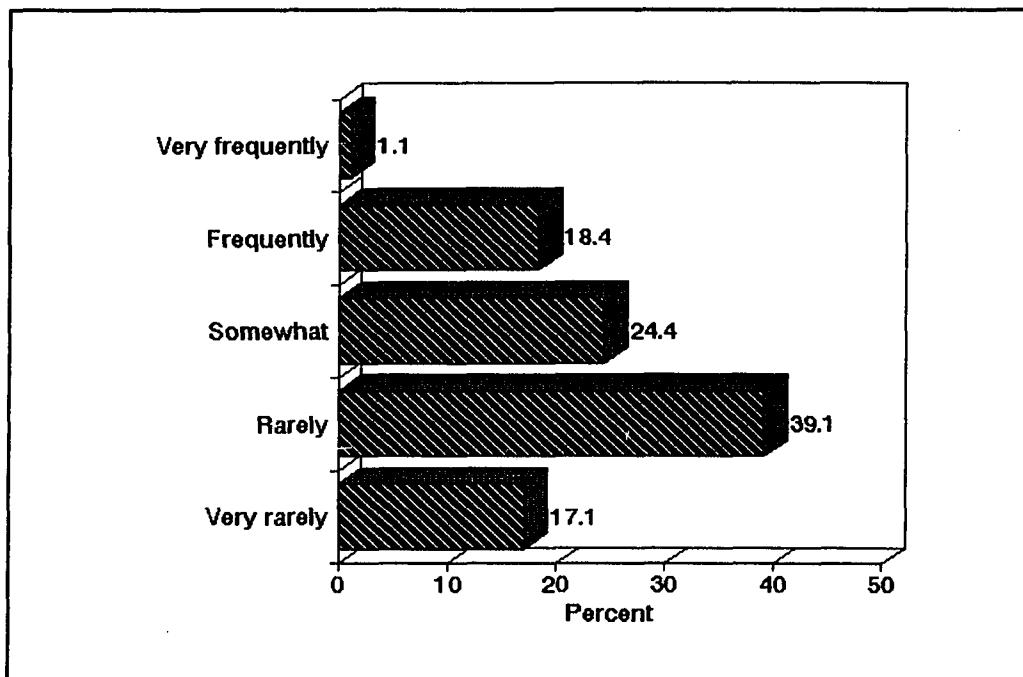
Figure 36. Consultations with Parents

parents. For example, 20.7% of male respondents said they had "frequently" or "very frequently" consulted with or received feedback from parents, while only 8.5% of female respondents said they did.

When teachers were asked whether they want to seek the opinions of students' parents in relation to their teaching, 3.3% said "definitely yes"; 42.6% said "yes"; 13% said "undecided"; 31.1% said "no"; and 10% said "definitely no" (see Figure 37). These results provide insight into the understanding of teachers' perception of parents. Korean physical education teachers were ambivalent about the role of parents on the improvement of their teaching. Some teachers saw parents as a potential help for improving school physical education. As one teacher explained:
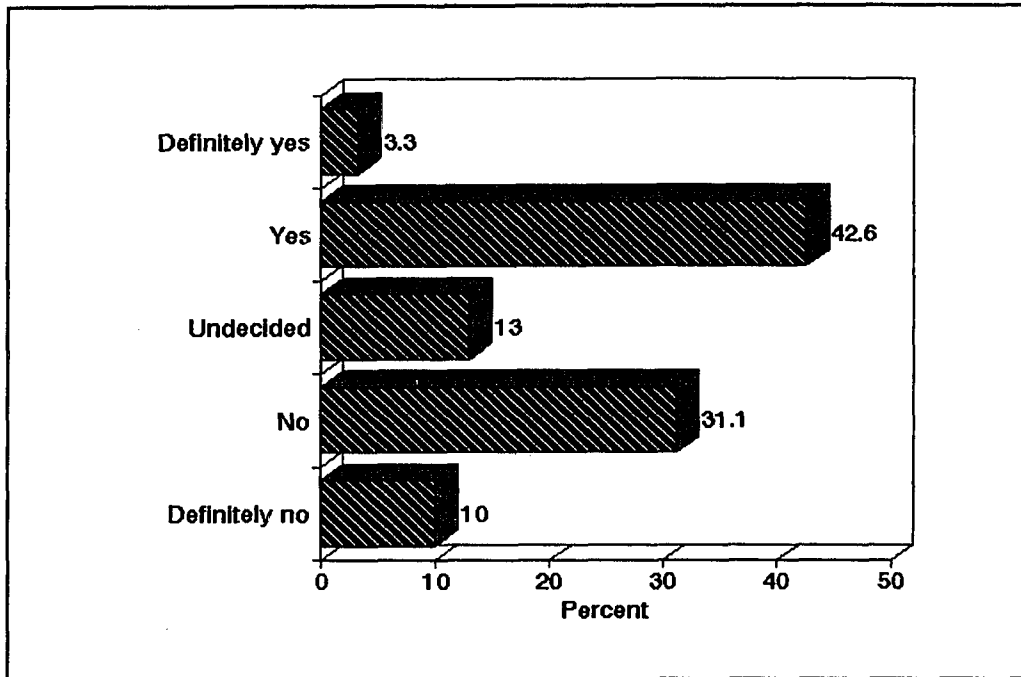
Figure 37. Desire to Seek Parents' Opinions

The involvement of parents in physical education would enhance their understanding of physical education. This, in turn, will help improve teaching conditions because it will pressure the principal to provide more facilities and equipment [for physical education teaching] ... In addition, consultations with parents will be helpful in understanding the characteristics of students, especially of those students who need special attention and guidance ... It [parent involvement] will also be helpful in guiding athletically talented students to the right track. (A junior high school teacher)

Others were reluctant to have parents involved at all. One reason for this was, according to a high school teacher, that parental involvement would hinder the work of the teacher by weakening the autonomy of the classroom.

When asked how frequently they felt uncomfortable pressure from the students' parents, the majority of teachers said they had hardly experienced pressure

from them. Analysis of data shows that pressure from parents was rarely

experienced. They reported that they received pressure from parents in the following

way: "very frequently" (0.2%), "frequently" (2.4%), "somewhat" (12.7%), "rarely"

(42.3%), or "very rarely" (42.3%) (see Figure 38).
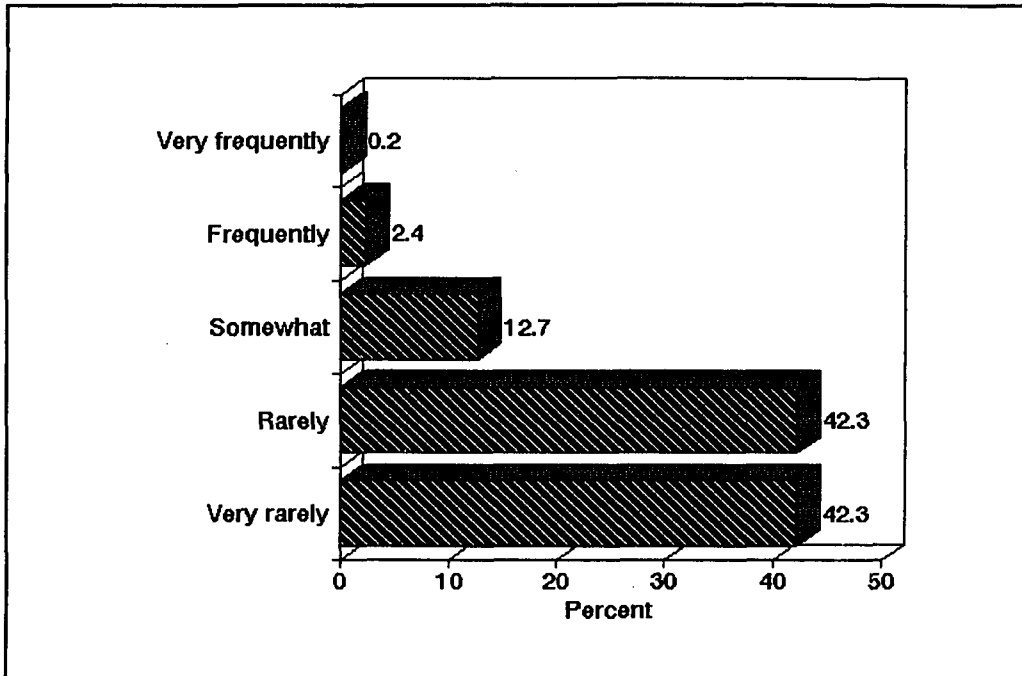
Figure 38. Pressure from Parents

The lack of pressure from parents can be explained by the fact that the

teacher-parent relationships in Korea were characterized by mutual respect and non-

interference. However, interview data also show that a few teachers experienced

uncomfortable pressure from parents. Such pressure was mainly in the form of

complaints about the excessive use of physical punishment or the occurrence of

student accidents during the class.

In short, the teachers' interactions with parents were very limited and they

were ambivalent about the role of parents in their teaching. The relationships between teachers and parents appeared to be based on mutual respect and non-interference, indicating the limited influence of parents on teachers' work. This finding, on the one hand, supports Lortie's (1975) contention that teachers want parents to remain as a distant assistant. But, on the other hand it strongly contradicts Zeichner and Gore's (1990) assertion that parents have a great influence on the socialization of teachers into the traditions of a school community.

Workplace Conflicts and Strategies for Meeting Them

When teachers were asked how frequently they experienced conflicts between their teaching philosophy and workplace requirements, they provided varied answers. About 3.2% of the respondents said they had experienced perplexing circumstances "very frequently"; 26.8% said "frequently"; 34.8% said "somewhat"; 29.2% said "rarely"; and 6% said "very rarely" (see Figure 39). A series of chi-square tests of association, however, found no significant relation between the frequency of experienced workplace conflicts and any of five demographic variables.

Teachers explained various sources of workplace conflicts in the contexts of teaching conditions, philosophy of teaching physical education, and interpersonal relationships. Interview data show that the most salient source of workplace conflicts was poor teaching conditions. The following comments from two junior high school teachers illustrate the conflicts evolving from poor teaching conditions:
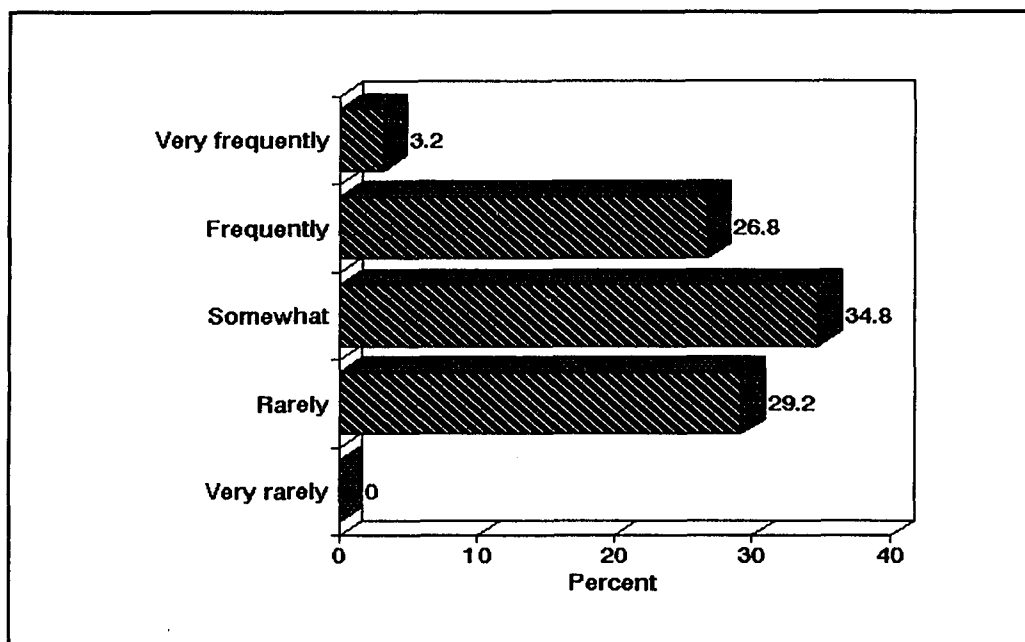
Figure 39. Experience of Workplace Conflicts

I work in a private junior high school. We share the playground with an affiliated high school and an elementary school. Therefore, every school period finds the playground packed with students. With a small space for each class, it is almost impossible for teachers to give normal physical education lessons. There is always an invisible contest for more space among teachers. Sometimes this, in turn, leads to conflicts between teachers. (Teacher one)

The school supplies the facilities and equipment at the beginning of the school year and does not replenish equipment during the fiscal school year ... When I request more supplies, the principal always tells me that the school does not have enough money in the budget. On top of that, he blames teachers for not taking good care of the facilities and equipment ... This really depresses me. (Teacher two)

Some teachers reported that they frequently experienced conflicts resulting from the lack of understanding of physical education by others. The following comments from teachers illustrate this point:

There are many people in the school who still think of school physical education in terms of a militaristic physical training. They seem to think that the main objective of physical education is to teach "disciplinary activities" for student control ... Unfortunately, even some physical education teachers around me accept this notion. They begin every school year with introducing students to "disciplinary activities" or "order education." They try to implant in students' minds the idea that "physical education is order" by training students with "disciplinary activities." They believe that if they can take control of students in the early part of the semester, they will not have any big problem throughout the rest of the year ... Because of these practices, physical education teachers are perceived by students and other subject teachers as authoritarian and control-oriented. I always feel sorry for this kind of misunderstanding of physical education and physical education teachers. (A junior high school teacher)

Some people do not acknowledge the professionalism of physical education teachers. They think anyone can teach physical education because it does not require specialties. They think that the only thing we do in the class is to roll out the ball ... Whenever I meet these people, I regret entering the physical education field. (Another junior high school teacher)

The school administrators occasionally ask us, physical education teachers, to have students trim school gardens or fix the rugged playground during physical education classes. Though we think it is an excessive demand, there is no choice but accept it with anger. (A private high school teacher)

Today's schools seem to exist solely for the purpose of preparing students for the College Entrance Exam ... Without exception, every school makes a desperate effort to enhance the academic achievements of students. This situation legitimizes basic subject teachers to ask physical education teachers to replace a certain portion of physical education classes with their subjects ... Sometimes even the principal and vice-principal indirectly put pressure on physical education teachers to give good grades to academically outstanding students who do not perform as well in physical education classes ... These really upset me. (A high school teacher)

Other teachers revealed their experiences of conflicts occurred in the context of interpersonal relationships. Two teachers provided pertinent examples in this

regard:

> Once I spoke out for the benefits of teachers at a joint teachers'
> meeting. It must have hurt the principal's feelings since he has kept
> me at a distance afterwards. His attitude, in turn, has put me in an
> uncomfortable positions in the school... Because of that, I hesitate in
> raising any issue again even when I feel a moral responsibility to
> speak out. (A junior high school teacher)

> When a teacher does not perform his administrative duties well
> enough, other teachers tend to avoid or scorn him for that ... You
> should complete your jobs by yourself. Don't pass on your
> responsibility to others. A teacher's negligence to his duties easily
> becomes a source of conflict among teachers. (A female teacher)

And, a few teachers referred to the conflicts which were attributable to the

use of physical punishment. A male high school teacher said:

> I do not like to use physical punishment to discipline students because
> I don't think it is a good educational means. It seems to be barbarous
> ... But sometimes I lose my temper when students do not sincerely
> follow my instructions, thus ending up using physical punishment.
> Later, I always blame myself for not controlling my temper.

There were also concerns about a feeling of powerlessness which could be

attributed to the lack of a gymnasium and the weakness of a teacher's knowledge

base. A female teacher illustrates this point:

> Since the school does not have a gymnasium, we must have indoor
> physical education classes in rainy or snowy days. This is when I feel
> most uncomfortable with regard to my teaching ... The idea that a
> physical education class means a playground class, not a classroom
> one, is deeply permeated into students' minds. To them, physical
> education classes in the classroom due to the bad weather typically
> means self-study time. In fact, many physical education teachers
> frequently let their students do self-study on any subject areas on these

days ... Whenever I try to teach the content in the textbook, I have a
hard time explaining it in ways that students can readily understand ...
because of my limited knowledge base. For me, it takes a lot of study
and preplanning to teach it in a comprehensible way to kids. Yet, this
is not easy. Thus I frequently make students read the appropriate
section of the textbook. The class typically ends right after I briefly
explain the content whether the students fully understand it or not. I
cannot help it ...

As to the question of what kind of strategy they used to meet such perplexing

circumstances, 56.6% of the respondents reported they had usually "compromised"

between their philosophy and workplace requirements (see Figure 40). These results

clearly show that, though teachers used various strategies to meet workplace

conflicts, many of them were not active in solving such problems, instead they

preferred a compromise. This is what Lacey (1977) called "strategic compliance."

The above finding indicates the conservative orientation of Korean physical education

teachers. The following comments by a female teacher illustrate this point:

Several years ago, I had a big complaint from one of my colleagues
who was teaching other classes in the same grade. He complained of
my grading practice, saying it was too lenient compared to his. Since
then, I had to pay more attention to the grading of my students' skills,
in order to make sure the average score of my students would be equal
to that of other teachers' students ... Though I thought that student
evaluation should be done at my discretion, I accepted his request,
because I did not want to cause trouble (A female teacher)

However, 28.9% reported that they had usually followed their own teaching

philosophy, and 10.8% reported that they usually followed workplace requirements

(see Figure 40). If I borrow Lacey's (1977) concepts again, the former can be

categorized as "strategic redefinition," the latter "internalized adjustment." These
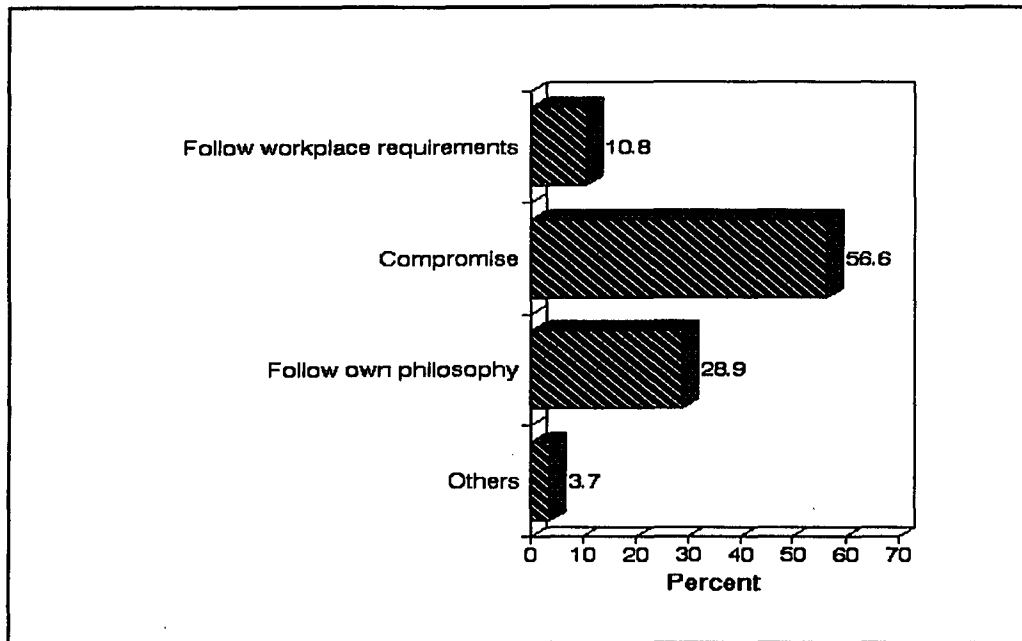
Figure 40. Strategies for Meeting Workplace Conflicts

results indicate that teachers were not passive recipients of the workplace constraints; some of them actively tried to follow their own philosophy and pursue changes in the workplace.

A series of chi-square tests of association found the kind of strategy teachers used to meet workplace conflicts was significantly related to years of teaching experience (X^2 = 21.2, df = 9, p < .05). A significantly higher proportion of the teachers with over 20 years of experience used "compromise" as a main strategy to meet perplexing workplace conflicts, compared to other groups of teachers. For example, 71.7% of them replied they had adopted "compromise" as a main strategy for dealing with workplace conflicts, whereas 53.8% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers, 59.4% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 45% of the 13-20 year

experienced teachers responded the same way. But, only 15.1% of the teachers with over 20 years of experience said they had usually followed their own teaching philosophy when meeting workplace conflicts, while 33.3% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers, 28.6% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 33% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers said they did. The finding that many of those with over 20 years of teaching experience preferred a compromise as a main social strategy indicates that these older people are more likely to hold conservative and realistic viewpoints. They value moderation more than self-assertion or blind submission.

Socio-political Orientations

Teaching has long been believed to have significant linkages to the values and practices of society. It is, in a sense, a socially constructed process capable of being transformed by socio-political trends. Thus it is believed that an investigation of teachers' occupational socialization cannot be properly done unless one looks beyond the actual school boundaries as well as within them.

Opinions about Education Reform

Today many people in Korea talk about the need for general education reform. Many believe it to be an important task for the government and society to accomplish in the next few years. But when it comes to the content of and approach to it, everybody has his or her own opinion.

Being asked to provide their opinions about the need for general education

reform, the majority of the respondents agreed there was a need for general education

reform. Specifically, 25.5% of the respondents said "definitely yes" and 57.7% said

"yes." However, 15.6% reserved their answers to this question, and 1.3% reported

they did not accept a need for education reform (see Figure 41). A series of chi-

square tests of association found no significant relation between teachers' opinions

about the need for general education reform and any of five demographic variables.
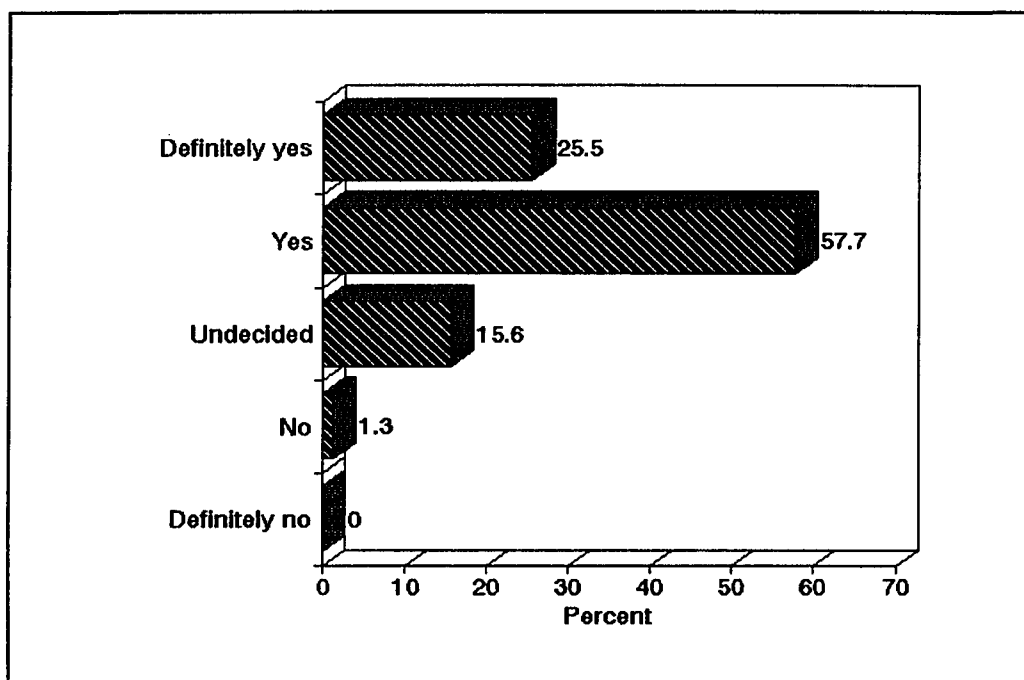
Figure 41. Opinions about the Need for Education Reform

The results show that the majority of teachers perceived the present practices

of education in Korea as problematic. Given the prevalent problems surrounding

Korean educational policies and systems, teachers' desire for overall education reform

can be easily justified.

Teachers provided various reasons why general education reform is necessary. The most frequently mentioned were the problem of 'college entrance examination-oriented' schooling, the lack of autonomy in education, and poor teaching conditions. Many teachers especially criticized the bad effects of college entrance examination-oriented schooling on the practice of physical education. Because society highly values a college education, parents and students pay much attention to preparing for the College Entrance Examination. The hectic competition for the College Entrance Examination forces the schools to focus on academic subjects and to disregard non-academic subjects such as music, fine arts, and physical education. The following comments from two high school physical education teachers clearly reflect the seriousness of this problem and their concern about it:

> The "college entrance examination-oriented" ethos is deeply permeated in schools and society. They seriously hamper the implementation of authentic education ... Schooling is centered on basic subjects such as Korean, English, and Mathematics. Non-academic subjects like physical education have been marginalized in school curricula. These practices threaten the status of physical education in schools, as well they help students and parents to think little of the importance of physical education ... All these must be changed. (Teacher one)

> You know, most schools provide intensive training classes every day after school and ... even during summer vacation [to reinforce student learning]. Even after school extra classes, students have to work an extra three or four hours everyday at home for the College Entrance Examination. Because of this, it's very difficult for students to participate in voluntary extracurricular physical education activities ... Even parents do not want their children to participate in sports activities after school. They are afraid that the study schedule of their children would be disturbed by these after school activities ... Unless we reform the policy of the College Entrance Examination, we cannot expect the success of school physical education. (Teacher two)

As for the subjects' opinions about the most appropriate approach to the

education reform, they preferred a more gradual (73.8%) rather than radical approach

(19%) (see Figure 42). This result again indicates the conservative orientation of

Korean physical educators. Though they overwhelmingly accepted the need for

education reform, they still believed that reform cannot take place quickly. A series

of chi-square tests of association did not find any significant relations between

teachers' opinions about the most appropriate approach to the educational reform and

any of five demographic variables.
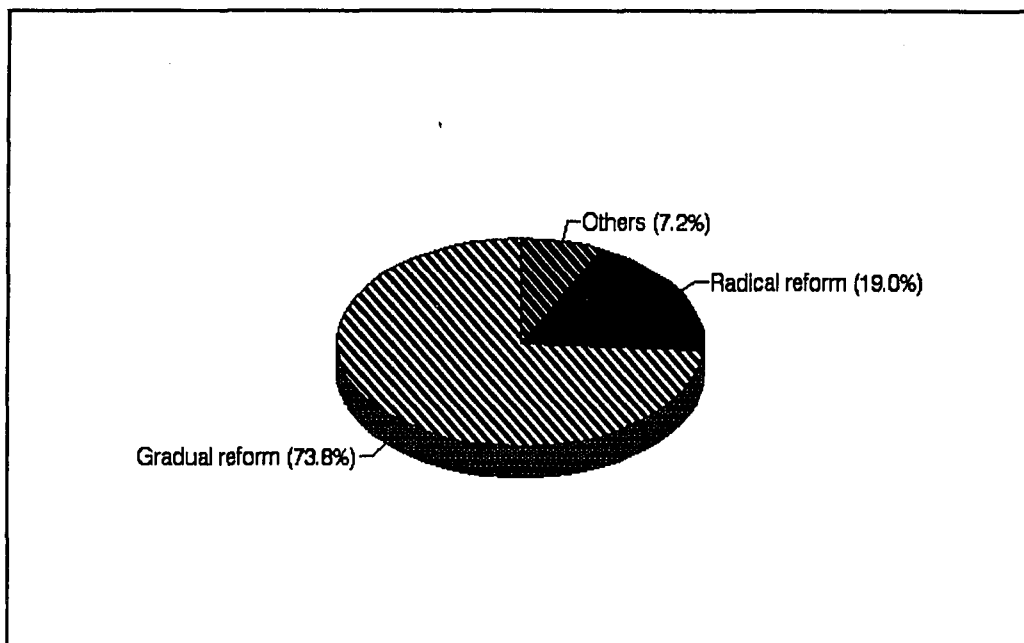
Figure 42. Preferred Approach to Education Reform

Socio-political Orientations

Most Korean physical education teachers expressed strong concerns about

social and political issues. But the degree of their concerns and action was varied.

Summaries of responses to the question of socio-political orientations are presented in

Figure 43.
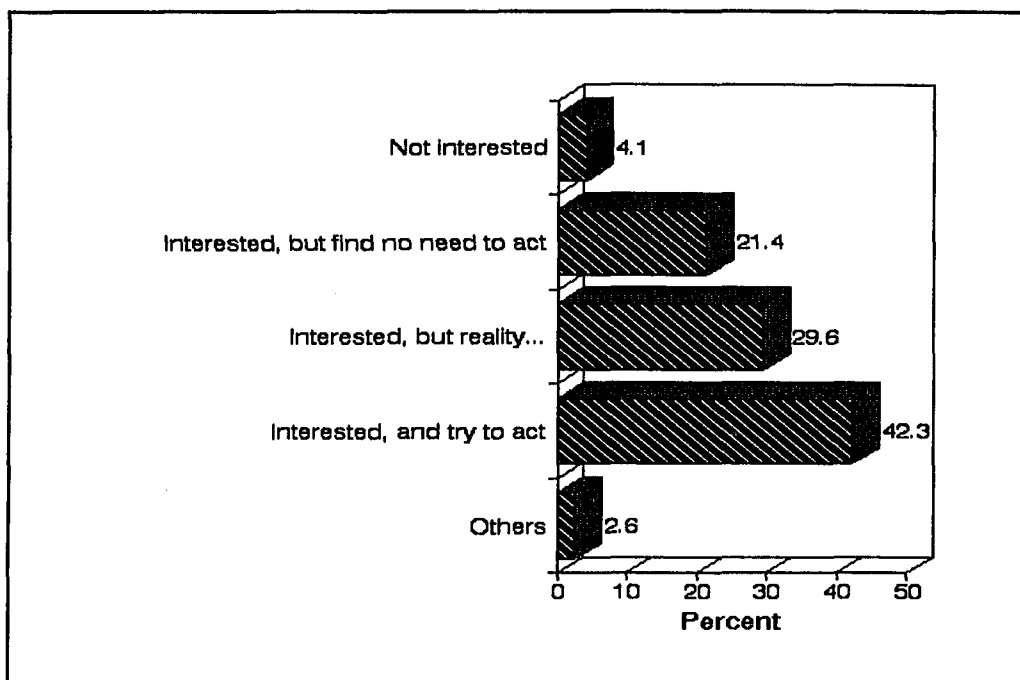
Figure 43. Socio-political Orientations

Interestingly, in spite of the widely accepted conservatism of Korean physical

education teachers, 42.3% of the respondents stated they always tried to clarify the

meaning of social or political issues and solve those problems. They said they

believed most social or political issues were closely related to education in general

and their physical education teaching in particular. This indicates that many teachers

understand the meaning and influence that society and politics have on education. It

also shows a clue to their political activism. A comment from a female teacher

illustrates this point:

Most evil practices of schooling have their origins in politics. Long lasting autocracy has used and manipulated education for the benefits of rulers. Thus authoritarianism and bureaucratism have permeated into every part of the education system ... I believe that the democratization of our nation is the most urgent task for the improvement of schooling. When democracy is achieved, education will have its autonomy. More importantly, it will get its fair share of resources from the government. This will help improve teaching conditions. That's why I show a strong interest in political issues and participate in the education reform movement.

About 30% said that they knew the significance of social and political issues, but that the realities of life did not allow them to voice specific concerns about such issues. This shows that a considerably large proportion of teachers maintained an ambiguous attitude toward social or political issues. This also indicates that many teachers might have experienced psychological stresses resulting from the inconsistency of their actions with their beliefs, ending up submitting to the constraints of life's realities. One teacher pointed this out in the following way:

I know that the prevalent problems of education are the results of wrong educational policies ... Politics has decided everything about education and ruined it. I know we need to voice our opinions about education because we are the persons in charge of education. But with government's tight control of schools and ... with no guarantee of teachers' right to participate in political actions, I cannot speak out my opinion ... It is sad and sometimes stressful for me to refrain myself from joining the reform movement. I think I am a coward. But I have to think of my family.

About 21% of the respondents commented that, though they knew the importance of socio-political issues in society at large, they could not find any relationship of such issues with their work. This shows that some teachers did not

understand the importance or meaning of a relationship between socio-political issues and education. They appeared to think that they could accomplish their school work independently of societal or political influence. The following comments from a high school teacher illustrate this view:

> I do not find any reason for me to care about social or political issues ... Education is education, and politics is politics. Then, why do you care about politics? It's the business of politicians. We just need to pay attention to teaching students well, because that's our responsibility ... I see some teachers who look like political activists. They raise questions about everything in the school. They are too critical. They appear to have more interest in other things than in teaching ... If you have an interest in political issues, you must enter politics ... Education needs persons who can dedicate themselves only to teaching.

The remaining 4.1% of the respondents commented that they did not care about such issues at all. Many of them even expressed a displeasure for being asked this question. Such a response shows that a few teachers may have an ultra-conservative viewpoint. A series of chi-square tests of association found no significant relation between teachers' socio-political orientations and any of five demographic variables.

In short, the above results show that Korean physical education teachers had varied socio-political orientations. Many teachers appeared to have conservative viewpoints toward socio-political issues. However, the fact that a large percent of teachers perceived themselves to be a socially and politically oriented person implies that the widely accepted conservatism of Korean physical education teachers is somewhat questionable.

Opinions about the Need for a Teachers' Union

In the summer of 1989, many teachers who had been disappointed with the excessive government control of education, the practices of college entrance preparation-oriented schooling, and their poor working conditions organized the National Teachers' Union (NTU). Teachers affiliated with the NTU declared that they opposed the authoritarianism and bureaucratism which have permeated the educational system. They made clear that they would pursue "authentic education", which would be achieved through the realization of democratic, humanistic, and nationalistic education.

The government and conservative people in schools and society, however, were afraid of disorder and a breakdown of the existing educational system. They criticized the NTU for its "militaristic" stance, for its radical approach to education reform, and for an over-emphasis on the rights of teachers with too little attention given to student learning. The tensions created between these two positions almost polarized both the teacher community and society at large. Government reaction to this movement, however, was quick and decisive. Within six months after the movement started, the government discharged about 1,500 teachers who refused to withdraw from the union. It also punished thousands of teachers who withdrew but were found to have actively participated in the movement. Since then, the need for and nature of a teacher union has become the thorniest issue of all in Korean schools, in particular, and Korean society in general.

When asked to provide their opinions about the need to have a teachers'

union, the overwhelming majority of Korean secondary school physical education

teachers said they accepted the need for a teachers' union. About 28% of the

respondents said "definitely yes" and 55.3% said "yes." Only 3.3% and 1.1% of the

respondents said "no" and "definitely no", respectively. About 12% reserved their

answers to this question possibly because the issue of a teachers' union was too

sensitive. Summaries of responses to this question are presented in Figure 44.
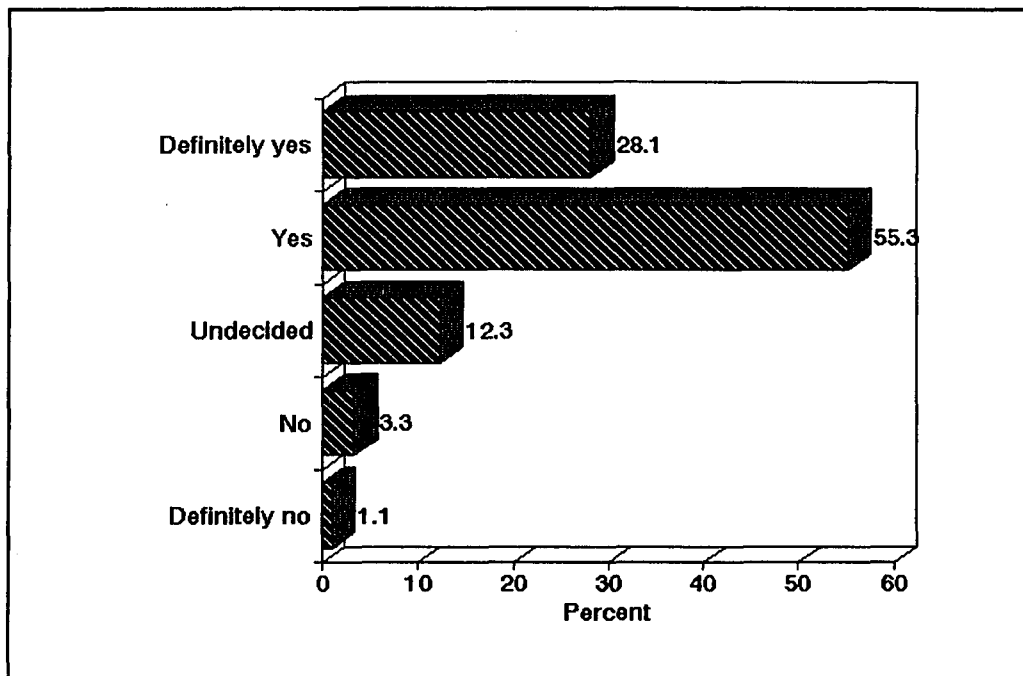
Figure 44. Opinions about the Need for a Teachers' Union

The results show that the majority of Korean physical education teachers

approved of the need for a teachers' union. It is important to note, however, that

when granting approval some teachers probably thought a union was "an autonomous

teacher organization" as opposed to what the controversial NTU was. Therefore, a

caution must be made interpreting the results. Nonetheless, the results appear to

confirm teachers' dissatisfaction with the status quo and show a strong support for

change. The expected role of a teachers' union was varied: some thought the

organization should focus on improving teaching conditions and teachers' material

welfare; others asserted the organization should pursue a wider political agenda

related to education and society at large.

Teachers provided various reasons why a teachers' union was necessary, but

the most frequently cited reasons were education reform, guarantee of educational

autonomy and teachers' rights, improvement of teaching conditions, and improvement

of teachers' well-being. The following comments from teachers reflect these reasons:

> Though many people talk of education reform, the government does
> not want to tackle it. The government just wants to maintain the
> status quo ... In order to accomplish real education reform, we
> [teachers] need to collect our opinions and strengths. We have to take
> initiatives in education reform. That is why I support a teachers'
> union. (A female teacher)

> Teachers are not the puppets of rulers. We are human beings in
> charge of student education, but we had to faithfully follow the
> directions of rulers in the past. We have been forced to be good
> supporters as well as faithful advocators for government policies ...
> But we were not allowed to teach a very important thing, democracy.
> In a sense, we have been negligent in our duty of providing "authentic
> education"... Unfortunately, there was no "real" teacher organization
> which tried to defend and advance teachers' interests ... Therefore, in
> order to realize an authentic education and to improve teachers' work
> conditions, we need certain institutional devices that guarantee the
> autonomy of education and channel teachers' opinions. (A junior high
> school teacher)

> We [teachers] have long been too silent. Now is the time to change.
> As a crying baby gets better chances to get more milk, we should raise
> our voices to demand better treatment, more autonomy in our work,
> and more democracy in schooling through autonomous teacher
> organizations. (A high school teacher)

At the same time, some teachers cautioned against the potential radicalism and politicization of the teachers' union movement. The following comments illustrate the point:

> I acknowledge the necessity of general education reform, but the radical and violent approach to it by the NTU will destroy the essence of education ... What we need is a gradual progress through the participation of all parties concerned. You will not be satisfied with the slow pace of gradual reform. But it will, at least, guarantee the continuation of education and keep the real spirit of education unharmed. (A high school teacher)

> The National Teachers' Union is too political in their orientation. It politicizes everything in schools ... Yet, education must be politically neutral. Education should exist for its own sake, not to serve a political purpose ... Therefore, we need to form an autonomous educational organization which is politically neutral and committed only to the development of education itself. (A teacher with 22 years of experience)

On the other hand, there was also strong opposition to the teachers' union movement by some physical education teachers. These people mostly sided with the position of the government toward the NTU citing similar reasons. A high school teacher with 17 years of teaching experience expressed his opposition to a teachers' union in the following way:

> Teachers do not exist for their own right. Teachers are there for providing students with better education ... It is more important to develop strong trust not only between teachers and students but also between teachers and parents than jumping into political issues through organizing a union. Unfortunately, the National Teachers' Union created a big misunderstanding of what a teacher is. Now many students and parents think that teachers are more concerned with claiming their own rights than accomplishing their tasks of teaching.

A series of chi-square tests of association found teachers' opinions about the need for a teachers' union were significantly related to years of teaching experience. The most experienced teachers' group was less likely to accept the need for a teachers' union than other groups. While 82.4% of the 0-4 year experienced teachers, 88.3% of the 5-12 year experienced teachers, and 80.8% of the 13-20 year experienced teachers said that they accepted the need for a teacher union to improve teaching conditions and the well-being of teachers, only 69.8% of those teachers who had over 20 years of experience said they did. This finding indicates that senior teachers had a more conservative viewpoint toward a teachers' union than younger teachers. This is perhaps partly because many senior teachers were holding the position of a division head in the school organization and partly because they were more accustomed to the practices of bureaucratic and authoritarian schooling.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study focused on the investigation of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers. Data were gathered from two sources: a questionnaire survey of 507 teachers and interviews of 24 additional teachers. A questionnaire survey served to provide primary data for the study. The questionnaire developed by the researcher was used in this study after verifying its validity and reliability. The questionnaires distributed to the subjects resulted in a response rate of 94.5%. Frequencies and percentages were computed to capture an overall picture of the data. In addition, chi-square values were computed to determine if statistically significant associations of five demographic variables (gender, years of teaching experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school) would be found with selected aspects of teachers' occupational socialization. The data from an interview study were analyzed to provide richness of the subjects' thoughts, perspectives, experience, perceptions, actions, and interactions in the process of their occupational socialization.

This chapter presents the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further study. The insight gained in this study would help us to understand the various features of physical education teachers' occupational socialization in Korean secondary school settings.

Summary of Findings

Most physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools had liked
sports before entering the university. It was revealed that male teachers had liked
sports more than their female counterparts. Most teachers were found to have been
skilled at sport(s) prior to their recruitment into physical education programs. Male
teachers were more likely than females to have had good sports skills. Over three
fourths of the respondents reported that they had played in some kinds of varsity
teams during their school years. Again, male teachers had more actively participated
in varsity team(s) than female teachers.

Interest in sports appeared to be the most important factor in the teachers'
decisions to major in physical education. The largest percent (41.3%) of them
referred to their interest in sports as the most important factor affecting their decision
to enter the physical education field. Other important factors were interest in
teaching (22.9%), the influence of significant others (16.6%), and the easy standard
of entry (11%). Many teachers mentioned their former physical education teacher as
the most significant individual who influenced their decision. Data show that many
had decided to enter the physical education field during the 12th grade year. If I risk
a crude generalization of the above findings, it can be concluded that many Korean
physical education teachers made their decision to enter the teacher education
program mainly because they had liked sports or teaching; they also had been skilled
at sports and influenced by specific individuals such as former physical education
teachers. That is, they were attracted to the physical education field as a result of

interplay between their subjective warrants and recruitment resources.

As to the quality of the teacher education program they attended, less than half of the teachers were positive. Female teachers were less likely than males to approve of the effects of the teacher education program on their school work. Teachers appeared to find a considerable discrepancy between what they were doing in the workplace and what they had learned in the teacher education program. The teacher education program was criticized by many teachers on the grounds that it lacked applicability of knowledge learned in real school settings, over-emphasized theories and focused too little on the development of instructional skills, lacked diversity in curriculum, and failed to provide sufficient teaching experience. The student teaching practicum, however, was perceived by many to be a crucial part of the socialization of prospective teachers into the teaching profession. In sum, formal teacher education programs appeared to have a weak impact on teachers' actual role performances at the school.

The mean weekly teaching load of teachers was 17.9 hours, with about half of the teachers being satisfied with their teaching load. Teachers' satisfaction with their teaching load had almost a direct proportional relationship with their teaching load. Most of the respondents reported that they spent much time in administrative duties. There was a strong sense of discontent with paperwork among teachers.

About 44% of teachers were working as a teacher/coach. Of those who had a coaching responsibility, more than two thirds said they felt some kinds of teaching-coaching conflicts. Among the sources of conflicts were high role expectations from

school administrators or other persons, unclear role definitions, time constraints, lack of support from schools and parents, etc. Many teachers/coaches tended to see coaching as their main role. It was also found that about one third of teachers had homeroom teacher responsibilities.

To physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools, teaching was viewed as the most important aspect of their work. The majority (76%) pointed to teaching as their first priority. Meanwhile, 15.6% referred to the counseling of students; and 5.8% pointed to public relations with their colleagues. However, their avowed belief in teaching did not exactly match their actual teaching. The majority of teachers believed in the usefulness of academic punishment as a means of controlling students. They even overwhelmingly approved physical punishment as a necessary educational means. Some teachers justified the use of physical punishment by saying that the nature of physical education required strict discipline.

As the best indicator for measuring the effectiveness of teaching, about half of the teachers pointed to the students' observable behavioral change in light of the teachers' educational philosophy or their teaching objectives. The majority of teachers thought that a good physical education teacher should possess good sports skills, a strong knowledge base, good pedagogical ability, and enthusiasm for teaching. This suggests that many teachers had skill- or competency-oriented perspectives with respect to their profession. They also felt that good teachers must demonstrate love for students by dedicating themselves to the development of student personality and morality. Meanwhile, it was found that their teaching perspectives

were open to changes as a result of their interactions with school administrators, colleagues, students, and teaching conditions. In many cases, teachers' humanistic ideology nurtured in former teacher preparation programs was transformed to a more custodial and authoritarian one.

As for job satisfaction, about two thirds of teachers expressed their satisfaction with the profession: about 13.8% said "very much satisfied" and 48.8% said "much satisfied." But, 27.6% said "somewhat satisfied"; 8.4% said "little satisfied"; and 1.3% said "very little satisfied." It was found that none of the five demographic variables made a difference in the degree of the teachers' job satisfaction. The reasons for their satisfaction with the profession included interest in teaching (35%), interest in interaction with students (29.3%), classroom autonomy (14.1%), job security (12.4%), and much free time (5.9%). Those who expressed dissatisfaction with the profession mostly indicated poor teaching conditions (34.8%) as the main reason, followed by low economic rewards (30.4%) and low social status (26.1%).

About 40% of the teachers perceived their school environment as "self-constrained," indicating the teachers' individualistic orientations toward their jobs. As a result of the "college entrance preparation-oriented" school culture, physical education teachers were marginalized in schools, both in terms of resource allocation systems and reward systems. The existence of teacher sub-groups in schools and the frequent rotation of public school teachers helped create instability in teachers' role performances. Poor teaching conditions were found to be the most serious obstacle

to effective teaching. Many teachers used poor teaching conditions as a reason or an excuse for their weak commitment to teaching. It appeared that curriculum had little influence on teachers' teaching. Though there were a state curriculum guide and a school curriculum, physical education teaching basically revolved around the activities which were convenient to teach within the limits of their teaching conditions. Most school physical education curriculum appeared to be introductory, resulting in the deskilling of teachers. There were various information sources for their teaching. The most favored one was professional sports reference books (33.5%), followed by teacher resource books/textbooks (29.8%) and colleagues (26.3%).

Many teachers appeared not to receive sufficient support from school administrators. Only about 21% said they received sufficient support from their schools. In addition, many of them did not frequently consult with or receive feedback from school administrators. Meanwhile, their interactions with other physical education teachers were active. Many teachers reported that they had frequently or very frequently consulted with or received feedback from other teachers. It appeared that there existed a sense of mutual cooperation and intimacy among teachers. However, there were also some areas of contention, among teachers, such as teaching content, teaching style, and evaluation criteria.

It was revealed that teachers' interactions with their students were active. Over 88% reported that they had frequently or very frequently received feedback from their students and that they would seek students' opinions in the future. To

most teachers, however, the students' parents appeared to be persons who should be kept at a respectful distance. Only 19.5% reported that they had consulted with or received feedback from parents. In addition, many teachers showed ambivalence about the role of parents in their teaching.

Many teachers appeared to have experienced conflicts between their teaching philosophy and workplace requirements. About 62% said they had experienced such conflicts frequently or very frequently. The most commonly cited sources of workplace conflicts were teaching conditions, philosophy of teaching physical education, and interpersonal relationships. When meeting such conflicts, many of them appeared to compromise between their philosophy and workplace requirements.

Most teachers were critical about the present practices of education in Korea and approved of the need for general education reform. The most frequently mentioned reasons for the education reform were the problem of the "college entrance examination-oriented" schooling, the lack of autonomy of education, and poor teaching conditions. However, the preferred approach to the education reform was mostly gradual (73.8%) rather than radical (19%). Most teachers expressed concerns toward social and political issues. About 42% stated that they always tried to clarify the meaning of social or political issues and solve those problems.

Finally, the overwhelming majority (83.3%) of the subjects accepted the need for a teachers' union. The most commonly cited reasons for a teachers' union were to pursue education reform, to help guarantee education autonomy and teachers' rights, to improve teaching conditions, and to advance teachers' well-being.

Conclusions

Role Performances in Schools

The first research question was designed to examine what the roles of Korean secondary school physical education teachers and their perceptions about these roles were. The results of data analysis show that most Korean physical education teachers had multiple school related responsibilities: physical education teaching, coaching, classroom responsibility, and administrative responsibility.

Korean physical education teachers had a reasonable teaching load. But too much paperwork appeared to seriously constrain their school work. A large percent of teachers assumed the dual roles of a physical education teacher and a coach, and not unexpectedly most of them appeared to experience role conflicts. When faced with time constraints and other problems, many physical education teachers tended to perceive their primary responsibility as coaching. Only one third of physical education teachers were working as homeroom teachers. Given that homeroom teachers in Korean schools receive considerable respect and prestige from students and their parents and that most other basic subject teachers have homeroom responsibilities, this indicates the marginality of physical education teachers in their schools.

Teaching Perspectives

The second research question attempted to investigate the teaching

perspectives of Korean secondary school physical education teachers and factors related to changes in their teaching perspectives. Most teachers regarded teaching as the most important aspect of their job. This suggests that teachers had student-oriented teaching perspectives.

The majority of teachers approved of the need for academic punishment as a means of education. Even physical punishment was overwhelmingly accepted as an effective and necessary educational tool. These findings reflect the prevalence of custodial and authoritarian teaching perspectives held by Korean physical education teachers. They also suggest that teachers were deeply socialized into the cultural code of physical punishment. Students were, however, an important barometer to gauge teaching effectiveness. Teachers believed that teaching effectiveness should be measured by their students' observable behavioral changes or responses. Teachers viewed competence in teaching and the ability to influence students morally as primary traits of a good physical education teacher. It was found that teachers' educational beliefs or teaching perspectives were changed as a result of bureaucratic socialization. The influence of the personal factors and the teaching conditions was most salient in reshaping their teaching perspectives. In most cases, these changes had a negative connotation.

Job Satisfaction

The third research question was made to examine the degree of job satisfaction of Korean secondary school physical education teachers and factors

related to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Almost two thirds of teachers

expressed their satisfaction with the profession. They cited various reasons, among

which interest in teaching and liking interactions with students were salient.

Unexpectedly only a small proportion of teachers expressed their

dissatisfaction with the profession, complaining about poor teaching conditions, low

economic rewards, and the low social status of physical education teachers.

However, the finding that a large percent of teachers expressed satisfaction with their

job suggests that teachers, in spite of many limitations and concerns surrounding their

work, can take a lead in improving the practices of teaching physical education.

Interactions with School Contextual Factors

The fourth research question attempted to investigate the perceptions and the

ways of interactions of Korean secondary school physical education teachers with

school contextual factors. The analysis of data revealed that the teacher's work was

closely related with the school culture and various contextual factors surrounding the

school. Above all, teaching conditions (e.g., facilities, gym, playground) and

personal factors (e.g., administrators, colleagues, students) were found to have an

important influence on the role performances and eventually the occupational

socialization of teachers. Poor teaching conditions not only seriously hampered their

teaching performances, but also eventually helped teachers to become socialized into

the negligent teaching practices.

The principals' misunderstanding of the importance of physical education and

the lack of their support were also found to seriously hinder the effective teaching and the successful school life of the teachers. Support from school administrators was insufficient; consultations with and feedback from them were very infrequent. In short, teachers' interactions and relations with their administrative superiors were somewhat negative and limited, indicating their marginal status in the school.

Other physical education teachers served as an influential socializing agent for teachers, especially for beginning teachers. The nature of their relationships with other physical education teachers played a significant part in their role performances. Teachers frequently interacted with one another in order to seek consultations or feedback. They saw their colleagues as a source of technical assistance for their instruction and they usually maintained mutually cooperative and intimate relationships.

Teachers actively interacted with students and saw students' opinions to be helpful in their teaching. Students always remained at the center of the teacher's attention and concerns. In many cases, students served as a source of psychological reward for their teaching. But the teacher-student relationships were characterized as top-down.

It was found that teachers' interactions with parents were very minimal. Many teachers did not see parents as a helpful information source for their teaching. The teacher-parent relationships in Korea appeared to be characterized by mutual respect and non-interference, indicating the limited influence of parents on teachers' school work and their occupational socialization.

Conflicts between their teaching philosophy and workplace requirements were frequently experienced by most teachers. Many of them appeared to use "strategic compliance" to meet such conflicts.

Socio-political Orientations

The fifth research question attempted to examine the attitude of Korean secondary school physical education teachers toward socio-political issues. The majority of teachers perceived the present practices of education in Korea as problematic and accepted the need for general education reforms. However, their preferred approach to the education reforms indicates their relative conservatism. It was shown that teachers had strong socio-political orientations. This finding questions the validity of the widely accepted notion that Korean physical education teachers have conservative socio-political orientations.

The overwhelming majority of the subjects also accepted the need for a teachers' union. This gives a reasonable clue about the depth of the teachers' dissatisfaction with the status quo and their interest in change. In short, Korean physical education teachers appeared to have a relatively conservative orientation, but they acutely recognized the seriousness of the accumulated problems in education and in physical education and aspired after education reforms.

Influence of Five Demographic Variables

The final research question was designed to examine the influence of five

demographic variables (gender, years of teaching experience, location of school, level of school, and type of school) on various aspects of the occupational socialization of teachers.

Time and again, gender appeared to make a difference in the teacher's role performances in schools, and eventually in the way they were socialized into school life. Female teachers were more likely than males to perceive their school environment negatively. Female teachers were found to work in doubly constrained-conditions: They have been marginalized in the school not only because they were physical education teachers, but also because they were females in a patriarchal school organization. Compared with males, female teachers taught more hours per week but they were less likely to coach a varsity team. They appeared to have more student-centered teaching perspectives than male teachers. Female teachers, compared with male teachers, received less support and feedback from school administrators. Their interactions with school administrators and parents were very infrequent.

Years of teaching experience also significantly affected the teachers' work and teaching perspectives. Older teachers had more conservative and authoritarian perspectives on teaching and other matters related to their school work than younger teachers. Older teachers were more likely than younger teachers to use strategic compliance as the main strategy to meet perplexing circumstances. Furthermore, they appeared to value interpersonal relations more than teaching. Younger teachers were more likely than older teachers to have student-centered teaching perspectives and to

see their colleagues as an important teaching information source. They had greater weekly teaching load and were more likely to have homeroom responsibilities. But their interactions with school administrators were not as frequent as older teachers' interactions were.

The location of school was found to affect teaching load and the degree to which teachers interacted with their colleagues. The city school teachers were more likely to have greater teaching load and homeroom responsibilities than the rural area school teachers. They also appeared to interact more frequently with their colleagues.

The level of school also affected teachers' weekly teaching load and the degree to which teachers interacted with other physical education teachers. The junior high school teachers taught more classes a week and regarded their colleagues as the main information source for their teaching more than the high school teachers did.

Finally, the type of school made a difference in terms of teaching load and working conditions. The private school teachers were more likely to have greater weekly teaching load but taught in poorer working conditions than their public school counterparts.

In conclusion, the occupational socialization of physical education teachers in Korean secondary schools was found to have much similarity to that of teachers in Western countries. It was also shown, however, that the occupational socialization of Korean physical education teachers had some characteristics of its own, mainly due

to Korean cultural values and different working conditions. The occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical educators occurred mainly on the basis of interactions with various school contextual factors such as school culture, teaching conditions, administrators, colleagues, and students. These factors affected significantly, but differently, the ways in which teachers taught, perceived, and behaved in schools. Compliance with the forces of these institutional factors was evident and pervasive. The occupational socialization of Korean physical education teachers had somewhat negative connotations. The poor teaching conditions and the low status of physical education in and out of the schools were found to be the factors most related to the negligent teaching practices of teachers. Nonetheless, the grip of these contextual factors on the occupational socialization of teachers appeared to be incomplete. With the considerable influence of their anticipatory socialization, teacher education, and personal traits, the teachers strived to find and create their own meaning in the process of occupational socialization.

Recommendations for Future Studies

This study provided only a general profile of the occupational socialization in Korean secondary school physical education settings. Based on the results of the study and the insights gained during the present study, the following recommendations for future studies are made:

1. The same design and research questions could be used to replicate this study with the same population every five or ten years. The results will help Korean

physical educators and teachers to better understand the degree of changes in various aspects of teachers' occupational socialization and thus to guide the development of more effective teacher education programs and inservice programs.

2. The research questions in this study were too broad to provide a sufficient explanation of the complex dynamics of teacher socialization. Future studies must delve into specific aspects of teachers' occupational socialization with more narrowed research questions. For example, a future study might focus on the nature of teachers' interpersonal relations in and out of the schools and its influence on their occupational socialization. Or, another future study can investigate in detail the dialectic process in which teachers resolve their workplace conflicts.

3. This study combined both questionnaire and interview techniques. Therefore, the interpretations of the results were based on the perceptions, opinions, and explanations of the subjects about various aspects of their school work. As a way to overcome the limitations of this study, the researcher recommends that future inquiry be mainly qualitative and include case studies. Case studies of several teachers, which employ intensive interview and observation techniques, would add an insight into better understanding the complexity of teachers' occupational socialization specific to individual personalities and school contexts.

4. The very nature of teacher socialization calls for longitudinal studies which select a few teachers and follow the changes in their perceptions, perspectives, and behaviors across whole career spans, or at least over a sustained period of time. Additionally, this researcher recommends another longitudinal study which will select

a few would-be teachers at the high school level and follow them through their teacher preparation programs into their career maturity. This study will provide valuable information about the way in which would-be recruits develop their subjective warrants, the way in which recruits develop their teaching perspectives as well as the way in which their subjective warrants interact with the ideologies of the teacher education program, and the way in which both the subjective warrants and teacher education ideologies interact with workplace norms and requirements.

5. The finding that teacher education programs had a relatively weak impact on the school work of teachers prompts us to examine carefully the designs and implementation processes of teacher preparation programs. In addition, the researcher recommends a collaborative action research in which both university teacher educators and teachers together investigate the realities of gaps between the teacher education programs and the workplace and develop a model teacher preparation program.

6. Poor teaching conditions were found to be the most salient factor which not only constrained the role performances of teachers, but also helped teachers to be socialized into negligent teaching practices. In these contexts, future studies should fully investigate the ways in which teachers perceive and react to their working conditions by utilizing frequent interviews and on-site observations.

7. It is recommended that the influence of social-cultural values on the occupational socialization of teachers be examined. Specifically, the ways in which social or cultural values and norms help create and sustain the marginal status of

physical education teachers in and out of Korean secondary schools should be investigated to understand the broader socio-cultural contexts of teacher socialization. In addition, the way in which the social or cultural background affects people's decision to enter the physical education field as well as their later performances should be examined.

8. Based on the results of this study, the influence of gender on the various aspects of teachers' occupational socialization needs to be investigated. As a disadvantaged minority in the Korean physical education field, female teachers might have different perceptions, teaching perspectives and interaction patterns from those of males not only because they have experienced gender-role socialization, but also they still receive different role expectations in patriarchal school organizations. Therefore, the results of this kind of study would provide valuable information about the gender difference in teacher socialization related to the unique Eastern socio-cultural contexts.

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APPENDIX A:

QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE SOCIALIZATION
OF KOREAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

<u>Directions</u>

The following questions ask for information about occupational socialization of physical education teachers in Korea. Your answers are <u>confidential</u>. There are no right or correct answers. Please <u>choose the most appropriate one response</u> or fill in the blank for the questions below. Although it is difficult for you to choose a single answer to some questions, we are asking you to select the best or the most appropriate <u>single answer</u> in each question.

1. How much did you like sports or physical activities before entering university?
    a. very much____   b. much____   c. moderate____
    d. little____   e. very little____

2. What level of sports skills did you have before entering the university program?
    a. skilled at various sports____
    b. skilled at one or two sports____
    c. not skilled at any specific sport but had somewhat good skills at various sports____
    d. generally low skilled at all sports____
    e. generally did not like sport activities____

3. Did you participate in any varsity team during junior or senior high school years?
    a. yes____   b. no____

    If "yes", list those teams_____

4. (a) Which was <u>the single most important factor</u> in your decision to major in physical education at university?
    a. the influence of specific individuals____
    b. easy standard of entry____
    c. interest in sports____
    d. interest in teaching____
    e. interest in interaction with children or adolescents____
    f. interest in providing a valuable service to society____
    g. job conditions after graduation____
    j. other_____

(b) If you had chosen "a" as the answer to the above question 4(a), the most important person who influenced your entry into physical education field was your_____.
  a. physical education teacher____
  b. coach____
  c. homeroom teacher during the senior year of high school____
  d. parents____
  e. friends____
  f. other_____

5. When did you decide to major in physical education at university?
  a. during the first half year of senior high school third grade____
  b. during the second half year of senior high school third grade or after high school graduation____
  c. during the first or second year of senior high school____
  d. during junior high school years____
  e. during elementary school years____

6. How do you evaluate your undergraduate teacher education program in relation to your work as a physical education teacher?
  a. very good____   b. good____   c. moderate____
  d. poor____   e. very poor____

7. How much did your undergraduate program affect what you have become?
  a. very much____   b. much____   c. moderate____
  d. little____   e. very little____

Please provide the reasons for your answer:_____

_____
_____
_____

8. How often do you find differences between what you do in your workplace and what you learned in your teacher education program?
  a. very frequently____ b. frequently____   c. somewhat____
  d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

9. How do you evaluate your student teaching experience during undergraduate physical education program?

        a. very good____   b. good____   c. moderate____

        d. poor____   e. very poor____

Please provide the reasons for your answer:_____

_____

_____

_____

10. a) How many hours do you currently teach a week? _____hours.

    b) How satisfied are you with your teaching load?

        a. very much____   b. much____   c. moderate____

        d. little____   e. very little____

11. (a) How much of your work time is spent in administrative duties?

        a. more than 50 %____   b. 36 - 50 %____   c. 21 - 35 %____

        d. 6 - 20 %____   e. less than 5 %____

    (b) How satisfied are you with your administrative load and schedules?

        a. very much____   b. much____   c. somewhat____

        d. little____   e. very little____

12. (a) Do you now coach one or more varsity teams?

        a. yes____   b. no____

    (b) If "yes", how much teaching-coaching conflicts do you think there are?

        a. very much____   b. much____   c. somewhat____

        d. little____   e. very little____

    (c) If you has chosen "a" or "b" as the answer to the above question, please provide your specific examples of teaching-coaching conflicts.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

13. (a) Are you currently a homeroom teacher?

        a. yes____   b. no____

(b) Irrespective of whether you are now a homeroom teacher or not, do you want to work as a homeroom teacher?
a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____
d. no____   e. definitely no____

Please provide the reasons for your answer to the above question 13(b):

_____

_____

_____

_____

14. Which do you feel is the single most important aspect of your job?
a. teaching____
b. administrative duties____
c. public relations with other teachers____
d. counseling students____
e. other_____

15. (a) In teaching, the imperative of maintaining classroom discipline sometimes requires that teachers punish problem-making students. How do you feel about the need for academic punishment?
a. strongly agree____   b. agree____   c. undecided____
d. disagree____   f. strongly disagree____

(b) How do you feel about the need for "physical punishment" for maintaining classroom discipline?
a. I will use it at any time because I think it is an effective and necessary educational means____
b. I will use it only when necessary because I think it is an effective educational means____
c. Undecided____
d. I will not use it at any time because it is not at all an educational means____

16. What is the single most important teaching information source for your teaching?
a. teacher resource books/school textbooks____
b. sport reference books____
c. professional journals____
d. colleagues____
e. workshops/conferences____
f. other_____

17. How do good teachers, in your opinion, gauge the effectiveness of their teaching? Which one of the following would the good teachers most likely rely on as <u>an indicator</u>?

    a. the reaction of other teachers who are familiar with their work and their students____

    b. the assessments made by the principal____

    c. the assessments made by a special "supervisor"____

    d. the opinions generally expressed by the students____

    e. the reactions of the students' parents____

    f. the general observation of the change of student behaviors in the light of the teacher's educational philosophy____

    g. the results of objective examinations or other tests____

    h. other_____

18. What do you think is the ideal physical education teacher? Please provide your opinion about the most desirable physical education teacher.

_____

_____

_____

19. (a) How satisfied are you with your profession and career?

    a. very much____   b. much____   c. somewhat____

    d. little____   e. very little____

  (b) <u>If you had chosen "a" or "b" as the answer to the above question 19(a),</u> what is <u>the most important factor</u> that can be attributed to your <u>satisfaction</u>?

    1). job security____

    2). high autonomy in the classroom____

    3). much free time and a long vacation____

    4). social status____

    5). economic rewards (salary)____

    6). joy of and/or interest in teaching____

    7). joy of and/or interest in interaction with children____

    8). other_____

  (c) <u>If you had chosen "d" or "e" as the answer to the above question 19(a),</u> what is <u>the most important factor</u> that can be attributed to your <u>dissatisfaction</u> with your profession?

    1). low economic rewards (salary)____

    2). low social status____

    3). poor teaching conditions____

    4). heavy administrative constraints____

    5). pressure from students and parents____

    6). other_____

20. Some physical education teachers say that their teaching efforts are often hindered by poor teaching conditions. If you agree with this opinion, what aspect of teaching conditions do you think should be first improved? Please provide your comments.

_____

_____

_____

21. Which of the following best describes your school culture and/or environment?
   a. very open or liberal____
   b. somewhat open or self-constrained____
   c. undecided____
   d. closed or authoritarian____
   e. other_____

22. (a) Do you think you receive sufficient support from your school administrators such as the principal and the vice-principal to teach physical education?
   a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. somewhat____
   d. no____   e. definitely no____

   (b) How frequently do you consult with or receive feedback from the principal or the vice-principal in relation to your teaching?
   a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____
   d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

   (c) Do you want to get feedback more often from the principal or the vice-principal in relation to your teaching?
   a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____
   d. no____   e. definitely no____

23. (a) How frequently do you consult with or receive feedback from other physical education teachers in relation to your teaching?
   a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____
   d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

   (b) Do you want to get feedback more often from other physical education teachers in relation to your teaching?
   a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____
   d. no____   e. definitely no____

24. (a) How frequently do you consult with or receive feedback from your students in relation to your teaching?
   a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____
   d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(b) Do you want to get feedback more often from your students in relation to your teaching?

a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____

d. no____   e. definitely no____

25. (a) How frequently do you consult with or receive feedback from the parents of your students in relation to your teaching?

a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(b) Would you like to see the parents of your students more often in relation to your teaching?

a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____

d. no____   e. definitely no____

26. (a) How frequently have you felt uncomfortable pressure from administrators and/or the school board?

a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(b) How frequently have you felt uncomfortable pressure from other physical education teachers?

a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(c) How frequently have you felt uncomfortable pressure from students?

a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(d) How frequently have you felt uncomfortable pressure from parents?

a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(e) If you had chosen "a" or "b" as the answer to any of the above questions, please describe your specific experiences of uncomfortable pressure from administrators/school board, colleagues, students, or parents.

_____

_____

_____

_____

27. (a) How frequently have you experienced conflicts between your teaching philosophy and workplace conditions?

    a. very frequently____   b. frequently____   c. somewhat____

    d. rarely____   e. very rarely____

(b) If you has chosen "a" or "b" as the answer to the above question, please provide the reasons for your answer.

_____

_____

_____

_____

(c) When you meet perplexing circumstances in which your teaching philosophy conflicts with workplace requirements, how do you react to them in general?

    a. usually follow workplace requirements and practices____

    b. usually compromise between the two____

    c. usually follow my own teaching philosophy____

    d. other_____

28. (a) Do you think we need general education·reforms?

    a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____

    d. no____   e. definitely no____

(b) If "yes", which kind of problems do you think should be solved first? Please provide your opinions.

_____

_____

(c) If "yes", which do you think is the most appropriate approach?

    a. gradual reforms____

    b. radical reforms____

    c. others_____

29. Which one of these statements comes closest to describing your attitude about social and political issues in society at large?

    a. I don't care, socio-political issues aren't my business____

    b. Most social and political issues are important, but they have no relation to my job. I am only interested in my teaching, that's enough____

    c. I know the significance of social and political issues, but the realities of life do not allow me to voice specific concern about them____

    d. Most social and political issues are related to education in general, and to my teaching in particular, so I always try to clarify the meaning of them and solve these problems____

    e. other_____

30. Do you think we need to have a teachers' union to improve teaching conditions and the well-being of teachers?
    a. definitely yes____   b. yes____   c. undecided____
    d. no____   e. definitely no____

    Please provide the reasons for your answer:_____

    _____

    _____

DIRECTIONS

The following questions ask for information about you. The information you provide will be used only for the purpose of statistical analysis. Please respond to every question.

---

*Sex: male____ female____

*Years of teaching experience as a full-time teacher:____years

*Location of school:
    large city (population of more than 300,000)____
    small city (population of 50,000 to 300,000)____
    rural region (population of less than 50,000)____

*Level of school: junior high school____ senior high school____

*Type of school: public school____ private school____

*Educational background:
    undergraduate degree____ graduate degree____ other____

*Type of professional preparation institution:
    public university____ private university____

APPENDIX B:

INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Please describe your roles in your school. Is there any role conflicts? If yes, please specify them.

2. Are you satisfied with your workload? If not, please describe those aspects of your workload that you are displeased with.

3. Do you now coach one or more sport teams? If yes, do you like coaching? How often do you experience teaching-coaching conflicts? If any, please give me specific examples of the conflicts you have.

4. Are you also a homeroom teacher? If yes, do you like it? What kind of satisfaction or dissatisfaction do you get from taking on additional homeroom teacher responsibility?

5. Do you have other school duties in addition to teaching and coaching? If yes, please specify them.

6. Which do you feel is the most important aspect of your job? If you believe that teaching physical education is the most important thing in your job, then what will be the next important one? Please provide your opinion about the most desirable traits which a quality physical education teacher should have.

7. Do you think you receive sufficient support from your school administrators such as the principal and the vice-principal to teach physical education? How much importance do they place on physical education compared with other subjects? How about your relations with the principal and the vice-principal?

8. Do you think you have a good relationship with other physical education teachers in your school? Are they cooperative? How important are they in your role performances?

9. What is your relations with other subject teachers? How much do other subject teachers influence your role performances?

10. Do you think there is a generation gap between older physical education teachers and younger ones? If yes, what kind and to what extent? Please describe the relations between old and young teachers in your school.

11. Would you please explain the content of the physical education curriculum in your school as well as your opinion about it in terms of your teaching and student learning?

12. What kinds of in-service teacher education programs did you participate in after entering the workplace? Are various in-service programs available? How was your teaching influenced by such in-service programs? Please evaluate them in relation to your teaching and role performances.

13. Have you ever felt uncomfortable pressure from school administrators, other teachers, students, or parents? If yes, how frequently? What's your main strategy to deal with them?

14. Please describe the most difficult situation and/or thing in your school. How do you adjust to or deal with it?

15. Please describe interpersonal relations in your school in general. Are people cooperative each other? Or not?

16. Please describe the nature of your school environment and/or culture. How does it affect your teaching and role performances?

17. Do you think Korean social and cultural values (which do not attach much importance to physical education) affect your role performances as a physical education teacher? If yes, in what way?

18. Do you think your gender affects your role performances in school? If yes, in what way?

19. Do you think years of teaching experience affect your role performances in school? If yes, in what way?

20. Do you think the level of your school (i.e., junior or senior high school) affects your role performances as a physical education teacher? If yes, in what way?

21. Do you think the type of your school (i.e., public or private school) affects your role performances as a physical education teacher? If yes, in what way?

22. Do you think the geographic location of your school (i.e., large city, small city, or rural area) affects your role performances as a physical education teacher? If yes, in what way?

23. Do you think we need general education reforms? If yes, why? How do you think such reforms can be achieved?

24. Do you have an interest in political debate? What is your ordinary response toward social and political issues in society at large? What do you think are the relations between politics and education?

25. Some teachers advocate the need for a teachers' union. What's your opinion concerning this? If you accept the need for a teachers' union, what kinds of roles should the teachers' union take? If you do not accept the need for such an organization, why?

APPENDIX C:

COVER LETTER

COVER LETTER

May 18, 1992

Dear Physical Education Teacher:

There is very little comprehensive information about the socialization processes of secondary school teachers in this country. For this reason, I have long been interested in investigating the socialization characteristics of physical educators in Korean secondary school settings.

As part of my doctoral study at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, I am conducting an investigation of the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers under the guidance of Dr. Thomas Martinek. This study will provide a national profile of physical education teachers regarding their backgrounds, job responsibilities, teaching perspectives, satisfaction, and perceptions of and interactions with various school contextual factors.

You and several of your colleagues at your school are part of a randomly drawn national sample of secondary school physical education teachers who are being asked to contribute to this study. While your participation is voluntary, it is particularly important because this study will help establish a baseline for future improvement of pre- and inservice programs in the Korean physical education field. Upon completion of this study, the findings will be available to you when requested.

Individual responses and all information will be kept strictly confidential. Responses will be used only in statistical summaries and individuals' responses will not be disclosed to any group or individual.

The enclosed questionnaire will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Please be sure you first read and sign the enclosed informed consent form. When you have completed the questionnaire, return it in the preaddressed, stamped business-reply envelope. I would appreciate your response at your earliest convenience. However, please return your responses by July 25, 1992.

If you need further information, please feel free to call Myoung Gee Park at 02/671-2010(Home) or Dr. Sin Bok Kang at 02/880-7789 (Dept. of Physical Education, College of Education, Seoul National University). Thank you for your time and assistance.

Sincerely Yours,

Myoung Gee Park

APPENDIX D:

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO
SCHOOL OF HEALTH AND HUMAN PERFORMANCE

SCHOOL REVIEW COMMITTEE

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I understand that the purpose of this study is to examine the occupational socialization of Korean secondary school physical education teachers.

I confirm that my participation is entirely voluntary. No coercion of any kind has been used to obtain my cooperation.

I understand that I may withdraw my consent and terminate my participation at any time during the project.

I have been informed of the procedure that will be used in the project and understand what will be required of me as a subject.

I understand that a summary of the results of the project will be made available to me at the completion of the study if I so request.

I wish to give my voluntary cooperation as a participation.

Signature:_____

Address: _____

_____

Date: _____

*Adopted from L.F. Locke and W.W. Spirduso. Proposals that work. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1976, p. 237.
Approved 3/1978.

APPENDIX E:

KOREAN VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

◁체육교사의 사회화에 관한 설문지▷

안녕하십니까? 어려운 여건에도 불구하고 묵묵히 체육교육의 가치와 자신의 교육적 신념을 실현하기 위해 노력하고 계시는 귀하께 존경과 감사를 드립니다.

본 설문지는 '체육교사의 사회화'에 관한 자료를 수집하고자 마련된 것입니다. 본인은 귀하의 소중한 협조를 바탕으로 체육교사의 인적특성과 직업적 특성, 가치관과 교육관, 직업여건, 직업만족도, 직무수행과 관련된 요인들, 그러한 요인들의 영향에 대한 교사의 대응방법, 사회적 태도 등을 알아봄으로써 체육교사의 사회화 (Socialization) 유형과 특성을 분석해 보고자 기대하고 있습니다.

본 설문지를 통해 얻어진 정보는 본인의 박사학위논문 작성을 위한 자료로 사용될 것입니다. 따라서, 이러한 학술적 연구 목적 이외에 귀하가 제공할 정보에 대한 어떠한 오용도 없을 것임과 귀하의 익명성은 철저히 보장될 것을 다짐드립니다. 본 설문지의 응답을 완료하는 데는 약 20 분이 소요될 것입니다. 한 문항도 빠짐없이 솔직하게 응답해 주실 것을 부탁드리오며, 필요한 경우 문항의 여백에 귀하의 응답에 대한 이유를 보충설명해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

연구결과는 추후 책자로 출간될 예정이며, 개인적으로 연구결과를 알고자 요청하시면 그 요약본을 보내드리도록 하겠습니다. 기타 의문사항이 있으시면 (02) 671-2010 (박명기, 자택) 혹은 (02) 880-7789 (강신복 교수, 서울대 사범대 체육교육과)로 연락해 주시기 바랍니다. 따뜻한 협조와 배려에 깊이 감사드리며 귀하의 발전을 기원합니다.

1992년 7월

미 노스캐롤라이나 주립대학교 대학원

박 명 기

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◎성: 남_____      여_____
◎교사 경력:_____년  _____개월
◎현 재직교의 소재:대도시_____  소도시_____  농어촌_____
◎현 재직교의 구분:가.중학교_____ 고등학교_____
                  나.공립교_____ 사립교_____
◎최종 학력:학사학위_____ 석사학위_____ 기타_____
◎출신 대학:국립대_____      사립대_____
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1. 귀하는 체육과에 입학하기 전에 스포츠 혹은 체육활동을 어느정도로 좋아했습니까?
   가. 매우 많이 좋아했다._____   나. 많이 좋아했다._____
   다. 조금 좋아했다._____   라. 그저 그랬다._____
   마. 싫어했다._____

2. 귀하는 체육과에 입학하기 전에 어느 정도의 스포츠 혹은 운동기능을 가지고 있었
   습니까?
   가. 여러가지 종목에 능숙했다._____   나. 한두 종목에 능숙했다._____
   다. 특별히 능숙한 종목은 없었지만 끌고루 평균 이상의 기능을 가지고 있었다._____
   라. 그저 그랬다._____   마. 전반적으로 운동 혹은 스포츠를 싫어했다._____

3. 귀하는 중.고시절에 운동부에 소속된 적(최소한 1년이상)이 있습니까?
   가. 예_____   나. 아니오_____

   ◎ 만약 "예"라면, 해당 운동부명은?_____

4. (1) 귀하가 대학에서 체육학을 전공하는데 영향을 미친 <u>가장 중요한 요인</u>은
   다음 중 어느 것입니까?
   가. 다른 사람의 권유에 의해서_____
   나. 입학이 쉬웠기 때문에(다른 과를 응시하려다 성적미달로 포기하고 차선책으
   로 체육과를 택한 경우 포함)_____
   다. 스포츠 혹은 운동을 좋아해서_____
   라. 체육교사가 되고 싶어서(가르치는 것을 좋아했으므로)_____
   마. 학생들(혹은 청소년)들과 어울리는 것이 좋아서_____
   바. 체육을 통해 사회에 봉사하고 싶어서_____
   사. 졸업후의 직업조건 때문에_____
   아. 기 타_____

   (2) <u>만약 귀하가 위의 문제(문항 4-1)에서 "가"를 답으로 택했다면</u>, 귀하의
   체육과 입학에 가장 크게 영향을 끼친 사람은 구체적으로 누구입니까?
   가. 체육교사_____   나. 코치_____   다. 고교3학년 담임교사_____
   라. 부모_____   마. 친구_____   바. 기타._____

5. 귀하는 언제 체육과 진학을 결정했읍니까?
   가. 고 3 전반기_____   나. 고 3 후반기(재수시절 포함)_____
   다. 고 1, 고 2 시기_____   라. 중학시기_____
   마. 국민학교 시기_____

6. 귀하는 현시점에서 (특히 교육현장의 경험에 비추어 봤을 때)출신대학의
   '교사교육(전공) 프로그램'을 어떻게 생각합니까?
   가. 매우 우수했다._____   나. 우수했다._____
   다. 그저 그랬다._____
   라. 빈약했다._____   마. 매우 빈약했다._____

7. 출신대학의 '교사교육(전공) 프로그램'은 체육교사로서 귀하의 직무수행에
   어느정도의 영향을 미쳤다고 생각합니까?
   가. 매우 많은 영향(도움)을 주었다._____ 나. 많은 영향(도움)을 주었다._____
   다. 그저 그랬다._____   라. 별 영향(도움)을 주지 않았다._____
   마. 전혀 영향(도움)을 주지 않았다._____

   ◎ 본 문제의 답에 대한 주된 이유는?_____
   _____
   _____

8. 귀하는 교육원장의 실제와 대학의 '교사교육 프로그램' 사이에 어느 정도 의 차이가 존재한다고 생각합니까?
가. 큰 차이가 존재한다. _____ 나. 상당한 정도의 차이가 존재한다. _____
다. 약간의 차이가 존재한다. _____
라. 별 차이가 존재하지 않는다. _____ 마. 전혀 차이가 존재하지 않는다. _____

9. 귀하는 스스로의 경험에 비추어 보아 교생실습의 효과에 대해 어떻게 생각합니까?
가. 큰 효과가 있었다. _____ 나. 효과가 있었다. _____
다. 그저 그랬다. _____
라. 별 효과가 없었다. _____ 마. 전혀 효과가 없었다. _____

◎ 본 문제의 답에 대한 주된 이유는? _____

10. 귀하의 주당수업 시수는? _____ 시간

◎ 귀하는 수업량에 대해 어느정도 만족하고 있습니까?
가. 매우 만족한다. _____ 나. 만족한다. _____
다. 그저 그렇다. _____
라. 불만이다. _____ 마. 매우 불만이다. _____

11. (1) 귀하의 경우 교사로서의 전체 직무시간중 어느정도를 행정업무에 사용합니까?
가. 51% 이상 _____ 나. 36 - 50% _____ 다. 21 - 35% _____
라. 6 - 20% _____ 마. 5% 이하 _____

(2) 귀하는 행정업무량에 대해 어느정도 만족하고 있습니까?
가. 매우 만족한다. _____ 나. 만족한다. _____
다. 그저 그렇다. _____
라. 불만이다. _____ 마. 매우 불만이다. _____

12. (1) 귀하는 지금 운동부를 맡고 있습니까?
가. 예 _____ 나. 아니오 _____

(2) 만약 "예"라면, 체육수업지도와 운동부지도 사이에 어느정도 어느정도의 갈등(혹은 어 려움)이 존재한다고 생각합니까?
가. 많은 갈등(어려움)이 있다. _____ 나. 다소의 갈등(어려움)이 있다. _____
다. 그저 그렇다. _____
라. 별 갈등(어려움)이 없다. _____ 마. 전혀 갈등(어려움)이 없다. _____

(3) 만약 귀하가 위의 문제(문항 12-2)에서 "가" 혹은 "나"를 답으로 택했다면, 그 구체적인 예를 설명해 주십시오.

13. (1) 귀하는 학급담임을 맡고 있습니까?
가. 예 _____ 나. 아니오 _____

(2) 귀하가 현재 학급담임을 맡고 있든 아니든 간에 앞으로(도) 담임을 계속 받고 싶습니까?
가. 매우 그렇다. _____ 나. 그렇다. _____
다. 그저 그렇다. _____
라. 그렇지 않다. _____ 마. 전혀 그렇지 않다. _____

14. 귀하는 자신의 직무수행과 관련하여 <u>가장 중요한 것</u>이 무엇이라고 생각합니까?
    가. 체육수업_____   나. 행정업무_____
    다. 다른 교사와의 인간관계_____   라. 학생생활지도_____
    마. 기타_____

15. (1) 귀하는 '체육수업중 효과적인 수업분위기를 유지하기 위해서는 문제를 일으
    키는 학생을 적절히 처벌하는 것이 필요하다'는 주장에 대해 어떻게 생각합니까?
    가. 적극 찬성한다._____   나. 찬성한다._____
    다. 잘 모르겠다._____
    라. 반대한다._____   마. 적극 반대한다._____

    (2) 본 문제에서 <u>'체벌(신체적 처벌)'</u>에 대한 귀하의 견해는?
    가. 효과적인 교육수단이므로 별 구애없이 사용할 수 있다._____
    나. 필요할 때에 한해서만 사용해야 한다._____
    다. 잘 모르겠다._____
    라. 어떤 상황에서든 절대로 사용해서는 안된다._____

16. 체육수업시 <u>가장 많이 도움을 받는 정보원</u>은 무엇입니까?
    가. 교과서와 교사용지도서_____
    나. 전문체육서적_____
    다. 학회지(Journal)_____
    라. 동료 혹은 선배 체육교사_____
    마. 각종 연수_____
    바. 기타_____

17. 우수 체육교사임을 가늠하는 <u>가장 중요한 기준(척도)</u>은 무엇이라고 생각합니까?
    가. 동료교사들의 평가_____
    나. 교장 혹은 교감의 평가_____
    다. 장학사 혹은 감독기관의 평가_____
    라. 학생들의 평가_____
    마. 학부모들의 반응_____
    바. 교사의 주관적 교육철학에 비추어본 학생들의 행동변화의 정도_____
    사. 체력장과 같은 객관적 테스트의 결과_____
    아. 기타_____

18. 가장 바람직한 체육교사상을 든다면?(예:운동기능이 뛰어난 교사 혹은 수업을 체
계적으로 잘 조직하는 교사등)_____
_____
_____

19. (1) 귀하는 직업으로서 체육교사를 어떻게 생각합니까?
    가. 매우 만족스럽다._____   나. 만족스럽다._____
    다. 그저 그렇다._____
    라. 불만족스럽다._____   마. 매우 불만족스럽다._____

    (2) 만약 <u>귀하가 위의 문제(문항 19-1)에서 "가" 혹은 "나"를 답으로 택했다면, 그
가장 중요한 이유</u>는 무엇입니까?
    가. 직업의 안정성_____
    나. 수업의 독립성 혹은 자율성_____
    다. 긴 방학과 많은 자유시간_____
    라. 사회적 존경_____
    마. 경제적 보상(봉급)_____
    바. 가르침의 즐거움_____
    사. 학생들과의 어울림의 즐거움_____
    아. 기타_____

(3) 만약 귀하가 위의 문제(문항 19-1)에서 "라" 혹은 "마"를 답으로 택했다면, 그 가장 중요한 이유는 무엇입니까?
　가. 낮은 경제적 보상(봉급)_____
　나. 낮은 사회적 지위_____
　다. 열악한 교육여건_____
　라. 지나친 행정적 규제_____
　마. 학생과 학부모로부터의 압력_____
　바. 기타_____

20. 혹자는 효과적인 체육수업을 방해하는 주요 요인으로 열악한 수업여건(teaching condition))을 들고 있습니다. 만약 귀하가 이 주장에 동의한다면, 가장 시급히 개선되어야 할 수업여건은 무엇이라고 생각합니까? _____
_____
_____

21. 다음중에 귀하의 학교분위기를 가장 잘 묘사한 것을 고른다면?
　가. 개방적이고 자유롭다._____　　나. 약간의 자율성이 보장된다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____　　　　　　라. 폐쇄적이고 권위적이다._____
　마. 기타_____

22. (1) 귀하는 학교(혹은 교장, 교감)으로부터 효과적인 체육수업을 위한 지원을 충분히 받고 있다고 생각합니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____
　라. 그렇지 않다._____　　　　　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

　(2) 귀하는 체육수업과 관련하여 교장 혹은 교감과 자주 상담하거나 지도조언을 받는 편입니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____　　　　　라. 그렇지 않다._____
　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

　(3) 귀하는 앞으로 체육수업과 관련하여 교장 혹은 교감과 상담하거나 지도조언을 받기를 원합니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____
　라. 그렇지 않다._____　　　　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

23. (1) 귀하는 체육수업과 관련하여 동료교사들(주임교사 포함)과 자주 상담하거나 그들의 의견을 구하는 편입니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____
　라. 그렇지 않다._____　　　　　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

　(2) 귀하는 앞으로 체육수업과 관련하여 동료교사들과 상담하거나 그들의 의견을 구하기를 원합니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____
　라. 그렇지 않다._____　　　　　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

24. (1) 귀하는 체육수업과 관련하여 학생들의 의견을 경청하려고 노력하는 편입니까?
　가. 매우 그렇다._____　　　　　나. 그렇다._____
　다. 그저 그렇다._____
　라. 그렇지 않다._____　　　　　마. 전혀 그렇지 않다._____

(2) 귀하는 앞으로 체육수업과 관련하여 학생들의 의견을 경청하기를 원합니까?
    가. 매우 그렇다. _____   나. 그렇다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 그렇지 않다. _____   마. 전혀 그렇지 않다. _____

25.(1) 귀하는 체육수업과 관련하여 <u>학부모들</u>과 상담하거나 그들의 의견을 자주
    경청하는 편입니까?
    가. 매우 그렇다. _____   나. 그렇다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 그렇지 않다. _____   마. 전혀 그렇지 않다. _____

(2) 귀하는 앞으로 체육수업과 관련하여 학부모들의 의견을 경청하기를 원합니까?
    가. 매우 그렇다. _____   나. 그렇다. _____
    다. 잘 모르겠다. _____
    라. 그렇지 않다. _____   마. 전혀 그렇지 않다. _____

26.(1) 귀하는 직무수행(체육수업, 행정업무 등)과 관련하여 <u>교장 혹은 교감</u>으로부터
    <u>불쾌하거나 부당한 압력</u>을 받은 적이 있습니까?
    가. 매우 자주 받았다. _____   나. 자주 받았다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 별로 받아보지 않았다. _____ 마. 전혀 받아보지 못했다. _____

(2) 귀하는 직무수행(체육수업, 행정업무 등)과 관련하여 <u>동료교사</u>(주임교사 포함)
    로부터 불쾌하거나 부당한 압력을 받은 적이 있습니까?
    가. 매우 자주 받았다. _____   나. 자주 받았다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 별로 받아보지 않았다. _____ 마. 전혀 받아보지 못했다. _____

(3) 귀하는 직무수행(체육수업, 행정업무 등)과 관련하여 <u>학생들</u>로부터 불쾌하거나
    부당한 압력을 받은 적이 있습니까?
    가. 매우 자주 받았다. _____   나. 자주 받았다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 별로 받아보지 않았다. _____ 마. 전혀 받아보지 못했다. _____

(4) 귀하는 직무수행(체육수업, 행정업무등)과 관련하여 <u>학부모들</u>로부터 부당하거나
    불유쾌한 압력을 받은 적이 있습니까?
    가. 매우 자주 받았다. _____   나. 자주 받았다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 별로 받아보지 않았다. _____ 마. 전혀 받아보지 못했다. _____

**(5) <u>만약 귀하가 위의 문제(문항 26-1, 2, 3, 4)에서 "가" 혹은 "나"를 답으로 택했
다면, 그 구체적인 부당한 압력의 예를 적으시오.</u>** _____
_____
_____

27.(1) 귀하는 자신의 교육철학과 다른 사람의 기대 혹은 학교현장의 조건과의 불일
    치로 인해 곤란 혹은 갈등을 겪은 적이 있습니까?
    가. 매우 자주 겪었다. _____   나. 자주 겪었다. _____
    다. 그저 그렇다. _____
    라. 별로 겪어보지 못했다. _____ 마. 전혀 겪어보지 못했다. _____

(2) 만약 귀하가 위의 문제(문항 27-1)에서 "가" 혹은 "나"를 답으로 택했다면 구체
    적인 곤란 혹은 갈등의 예를 적으시오. _____
_____
_____

(3) 자신의 교육철학과 다른 사람의 기대 혹은 학교현장의 조건과의 불일치로 인해 곤란한(어려운) 상태가 야기될 경우 귀하의 일반적인 대응방식은?
　가. 대개 다른 사람의 충고나 학교의 요구조건을 따른다._____
　나. 대개 자신의 교육철학과 다른 사람 혹은 학교의 요구조건 사이에서 타협점을 모색한다._____
　다. 대개 자신의 교육철학과 소신을 밀고 나간다._____
　라. 기타_____

28.(1) 현 상황에서 전반적인 교육개혁의 필요성에 대한 귀하의 견해는?
　가. 매우 필요하다._____　　　　나. 필요하다._____
　다. 잘 모르겠다._____
　라. 불필요하다._____　　　　마. 전혀 불필요하다._____

(2) 만약 귀하의 대답이 "가" 혹은"나"라면, 가장 시급한 교육개혁의 내용은?
_____
_____

(3) 만약 위의 문제 28.(1)에 대한 귀하의 대답이 "가" 혹은 "나"라면, 교육개혁을 위한 가장 바람직한 접근법은?
　가. 점진적인 개혁_____　　　　나. 급진적인 개혁_____
　다. 기타_____

29. 사회적(정치적) 문제에 대한 귀하의 생각을 가장 잘 설명한 것은 다음중 어느 것입니까?
　가. 사회적(정치적)문제는 전혀 나와 상관없다._____
　나. 사회적(정치적)문제의 중요성은 인정한다. 그러나 내가 해야할 일은 오직 학생들을 잘 가르치는 것이므로 그러한 문제에 신경을 쓸 여유가 없다._____
　다. 사회적(정치적)문제의 중요성은 인정한다. 그러나 교사로서의 현실적 제약때문에 그러한 문제에 대해 왈가왈부 하기가 힘들다._____
　라. 모든 사회적(정치적) 문제는 넓게는 전체교육, 좁게는 내자신의 체육수업과 관련을 갖고 있다. 따라서 가능하면 그러한 문제를 이해하고 해결하려고 노력한다._____
　마. 기타_____
_____

30. '교사의 교육철학을 올바로 구현하고 교사의 복지와 근무조건을 개선하기 위해서는 자주적 교사단체가 필요하다'는 주장이 있습니다. 이에 대한 귀하의 견해는?
　가. 매우 필요하다._____　　　　나. 필요하다._____
　다. 잘 모르겠다._____
　라. 불필요하다._____　　　　마. 전혀 불필요하다._____

◎ 본 문제의 답에 대한 주된 이유는?_____
_____
_____

** 오랜 시간 대단히 수고하셨습니다. 선생님의 따뜻한 협조에 거듭 감사드립니다.