School environment, teacher efficacy and performance in secondary schools in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago

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SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT, TEACHER EFFICACY AND PERFORMANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE REPUBLIC OF TRINIDAD AND TABAGO

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The theory was that school environment more than such other, variables of teacher development, social environment, and demographic characteristics would influence teacher performance and efficacy. The sub-variables of school environment were school climate, staff support, teacher's expectations, principal's instructional role-set, and principal's participatory style. Teacher development variable included curriculum officer's role-set, and teacher education program. Social environment included parental attributes, parents' socio-economic status (SES), and cultural involvement. Demographic variables included age, sex, ethnicity, qualifications, years since last teacher training program, sex and type of school attended, school location, teaching area, leadership position, qualities liked in a teacher, and level at which teacher liked or disliked.

The sample consisted of two hundred and sixty-six (266) academic and technical/vocational teachers in eight (8) secondary schools in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.
In a Pearson-Product Moment correlational analysis (a) teacher performance was related to staff support, teacher's expectations, principal's instructional role-set and participatory style, teacher education program, parental attributes, cultural involvement, (b) teacher efficacy was related to school climate, teacher's expectations, principal's instructional role-set and participatory leadership, and curriculum officer's role-set.

In a factor analysis of the data (a) teacher performance was placed with parental attributes in Factor 5, (b) teacher efficacy was placed with teachers' expectations, and qualities disliked in former teacher in Factor 4.

In a regression analysis, (a) performance was predicted by parental attributes (.310805), principal's participatory style (.164123), sex of school (.139500), teacher efficacy (.132830), age (-.128095), teacher's er's expectations (.120497), qualifications (-.119934), and teaching area (-.10435), (b) efficacy was predicted by teacher's expectations (.308767), school climate (.224323), staff support (.172200), teacher qualifications (.166772), ethnicity (.162165), teacher performance (.144177), and teacher education (.135936).
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CHAPTER I

Problem Statement, Structural, and Historical Derivations

The Problem of Teaching

The teacher utilizes the technology of teaching to facilitate the learning of students. The performance of the teacher in the teaching/learning environment consists of several activities and behavioral attitudes, as an attempt is made to adapt to the learning styles and experiences of students so that academic achievement may be attained. Teacher performance at any moment is a result of influences both internal and external to the school environment that may condition the teacher to this role, thereby affecting the teacher's beliefs and practices. Teachers can be socialized into a role that results in appropriate or inappropriate performances in the classroom and school.

The continuing low academic performance of students in senior comprehensive schools raises the issue of whether teachers perceive themselves as consistently performing their tasks well and are deriving feelings of strong self efficacy. If teachers, through a self-reporting process, perceive themselves as performing tasks creditably then factors in school, home, and society have to be sought to account for continued low academic performance of students. In addition, fundamental questions may be raised about the appropriateness of the curriculum, the processes involved in determining curriculum, the effectiveness of the supervision of an acceptable curriculum, teachers' autonomy in adjusting curriculum, and other factors which affect the teacher in the implementation of the given curriculum.
Teacher performance can be understood through a knowledge of the network of relationships in the process of teaching. Giroux (1981) suggested that teaching is an interplay of pedagogy, ideology, social change, meanings, and frame of reference. Teacher performance depends on the interpretation of curriculum, choice of methodology, and the regulation of social relationships in the classroom whereby the teacher transforms the curriculum into the child's experience and ways of knowing. This performance can be aided or hindered by the teacher's socializing experiences.

This study, therefore, examines the socializing experiences that may impact on teacher performance and teacher efficacy as teachers engage in the interactive process of teaching and learning at senior comprehensive schools in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.

However, in an examination of the problem, consideration needs to be given to (a) structural related problems in education with reference to placement of students and teachers to schools, (b) structural related problems in society with reference to the consequences of social stratification and schooling, and (c) growth and development of a secondary school teaching body.

Placement Into Secondary School

In the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, there are a variety of school types which cater for the secondary education of students aged eleven to twenty years. Students are allocated to public secondary schools on the basis of the eleven (11) plus common entrance
examinations which test the subject areas of English language, mathematics, science and social studies in a combination of multiple choice and free response types questions. Students who pass this examination are placed in Form 1 (the first year in a secondary school). Principals of public denominational schools are allowed to admit twenty percent (20%) of their intake according to their own criterion at Form 1 Level as stipulated by CONCORDAT (1960), an agreement between government and denominational church authorities.

In registering for the eleven (11) plus common entrance examinations, parents are permitted to select three secondary schools of their choice to which their children may be sent. Allocation to schools (with the exception of the twenty percent [20]% mentioned above) are on the basis of test scores and availability of space. Some students may be enrolled in a school they did not choose.

The majority of students within the top percentile (approximately 18%) obtain the school of their choice, usually a seven year secondary school. The majority of students at the next percentile (approximately 14%) are allocated to five-year secondary schools. The remaining students are sent to three-year junior secondary schools or composite schools (see Appendix B). Students in Junior secondary schools take an examination at the end of the third year and then proceed to senior comprehensive schools to pursue further academic or technical/vocational education in the fourth and fifth form. Similar students in third form of five-year and seven-year secondary schools do not
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take an official examination at the end of the third year. In fact, students in the junior secondary schools follow a completely different curriculum to their counterparts in the other secondary schools, with a mandated curriculum and timetable from central office.

At the end of the fourth year of secondary education, students in public secondary schools who have been successful in an internal school based qualifying examination are allowed to sit the external examination of (a) the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) secondary school leaving examinations at the Basic or General Proficiency Level, (b) the General Certificate of Education (GCE) "O" Level examinations of the University of Cambridge, and (c) the National Examination Council Technical/Vocational examination during their fifth year. In a fifth year student body in a senior comprehensive school, the percentage of students who sit any one subject varies (see Appendix C). Students who obtain the requisite number of subjects at CXC (General) or GCE "O" Level (Cambridge) with acceptable grades, and meet other prerequisites can seek admittance to sevenyear schools, selected senior comprehensive schools, a sixth form college leading to the General Certificate of Education (GCE) Advanced Level of the University of Cambridge. This latter certification is a criterion for university entrance. The percentage of students from seven-year and five-year secondary schools comprising the student intake into "sixth form" classes at senior comprehensive schools is increasing.
Students at fourth and fifth form in senior comprehensive schools are predominantly low income and low achievers. Graduates from the junior secondary school who enter a senior comprehensive school have a range of achievement levels in literacy and numeracy skills. The majority are in need of remediation. Students are allowed to choose their options on registration. Most of the students do not perform satisfactorily on the prescribed work in the various subject areas at senior comprehensive schools (see Appendix D). The vast majority of the secondary school population are enrolled in junior secondary schools and proceed to senior comprehensive schools (see Appendix E).

The St. Clair King Report (1980) observed that the intake into the junior secondary school is from the lowest level of performance at the common entrance (11 plus) examinations taken at primary school level. Graduates from junior secondary schools go to senior comprehensive schools. Clive Grayson (1985) noted that children enter junior secondary schools without a knowledge of reading and basic skills. Hollis Liverpool (1979) commented that these children were not able to read, write, reason, and do arithmetic.

Harvey (1981) reported that many students in senior comprehensive schools received no encouragement from parents. Their parents had not been to secondary schools themselves. These parents felt that if children had gotten through the common entrance examination, then they could easily get through any examination. Rambachan (1984) wrote "junior secondary/senior comprehensive system is like a vast
pit where lower class children are thrown to writhe up with each other before filtering into the lower class levels of employment."

Schwartsbaum and Cross (1960), in a study of secondary school environment and development, found that schools in the country were differentiated in terms of social and economic composition based on paternal education, father's occupational status, family income and ethnic descent.

Baksh (1986) concluded that lower SES groups are somewhat over represented in the junior secondary school and rather more heavily under represented in the grammar school. Sandy (1986) observed that secondary schools in the country were high performing and low performing. The high performing schools are the assisted (denominational) school with high level of full GCE passes. Low performing schools were those with low GCE passes, a higher percentage of failures and incomplete certificates, students from low SES backgrounds and mainly five year government secondary schools and senior comprehensive schools.

**Teachers in Senior Comprehensive Schools**

The teaching staff in the senior comprehensive schools have a variety of academic and professional backgrounds. In the academic areas, the following can be observed; (a) teachers who have been professionally qualified primary school teachers and on graduation from that institution upgrade themselves academically by obtaining a university degree, (b) teachers who have academic degrees from a
university and have been professionally trained from a university's School of Education, (c) teachers who have academic degrees only, and (d) teachers who have specialist diplomas. In the technical/vocational areas, the following can be observed; (a) graduates from a technical/vocational institute with either a craft or technician's diploma, (b) graduates from a technical/vocational institute with one of the above mentioned diplomas plus technical teacher's certificate, (c) graduates from universities in technical/vocational subjects and (d) graduates in technical/vocational subjects from universities with professional training in education (Appendix F, G).

Teachers in senior comprehensive schools which cater for students from low income groups and low achievement groups exhibit a range of behaviors in terms of self-efficacy and job performance in school activities. Teachers suffer from frustration, low motivation, low morale, burnout and stress. Rambachan (1984) noted "the anarchy of the system is soaring as morale plummets among teaching staff... the middle class teachers who have to bear the burden of existence among a community of alien beings" (p. 9). Cuffie (1979) talking about teachers generally felt "the morale in the teaching profession is not as high as it ought to be, a lot of teachers have a lower concept of themselves than the teacher of long ago had... getting people to learn rather than just teaching them is what education is all about" (p. 36). Pantin (1987), newly appointed Minister of Education in a letter to teachers wrote, "some of you because of the
complex changes have become demoralized and perhaps cannot find it in you to give of your best" (p. 1). The suggestions from these statements are that there exists institutional, sociocultural, and economic factors which may be affecting the performance and efficacy of teachers.

Teachers in senior comprehensive schools in informal talks allude to the following factors affecting their work: (a) inadequacy of organizational structure and instructional leadership, (b) administrative inefficiencies at building sites, (c) continuing poor performance of students on examinations, (d) teacher's perceived sense of failure in terms of obtaining poor results, (e) the realization that their student clientele would show no change in the immediate future, and (f) the possibility of remaining a lifetime in an environment from which there would be little change or no escape if intensive intervention in terms of curriculum administration and supervision is not done.

Teachers are very much aware that principals have to complete an annual confidential report in order that they may receive their annual increment. A "bad" confidential report filed means an investigation from central office, no increment and a record that could mar promotional chances.

The problem identified seems not unique to senior comprehensive schools. The Education Plan 1985-1990 of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago observed that the level of achievement at both primary and secondary programs was unacceptably low, examinations results have been unsatisfactory. It, therefore, proposed to examine teacher recruitment, training upgrading, supervision and evaluation. As its
major thrust, it aims for the achievement of a greater sense of achievement and job satisfaction on the part of teachers and principals, and reviewing of teacher training programs to meet the demands of syllabus and co-curricula activities.

Several factors could affect student achievement—socio-economic and political environment of the country, school environment, parental attitude and behaviour, teacher performance and teacher expectations, the nature of the curriculum, students' level of readiness (Odden and Walberg 1987; Hallinger and Murphy 1986). The dilemma of student achievement has led to early childhood programs, remediation and intervention programs at different levels of elementary and secondary school, curriculum development, parent involvement and community projects, organizational restructuring of schools and districts.

However, in the formal education process, the teacher remains the focal point in the teaching-learning environment. Teachers remain central to the institutional character of the school, in parental relations, in curriculum implementation and evaluation. (Nation at Risk, 1984). Tanner and Tanner (1987), reported that individual teacher behavior, characteristics, and instructional method made a difference in what and how well students learn.

There exist variations in teacher behavior. Some attributes contributing to variations are role performance, belief, and personality. This makes it possible for some principals, schools, parents, and students to recognize teachers who perform well. These teachers
may have been influenced by prior socialization before entering the profession, while being inducted into it, and while performing the role.

Teacher performance influences outcomes of students not only in test scores, but in affective, relational, and motivational development. Teacher's performance can contribute to student's achievement, lack of involvement in class and school activities, and inattentiveness to instruction. Jones (1981) found that a group of untrained teachers and inexperienced teachers were not less effective than a group of trained and experienced teachers. Though the trained and experienced teachers were rated as performing more behaviors that were conducive to learning, they also performed more acts to prevent the students from learning.

Self-efficacy among teachers is important in all classrooms and schools. Teachers with low self-efficacy may demoralize children who lack requisite skills to succeed. Forms of negative feedback or punishment may contribute to students' low self-efficacy. Empowered teachers with high self-efficacy are needed to work with low ability students in predominantly low achieving schools. It is through the positive hidden curriculum of interaction with students that a contribution could be made to foster improved student achievement and self-development. Such teachers would (a) be able to contribute to motivate learning cognitively and affectively, (b) have the competence to set tasks to meet students' level and learning
style so that students feel a sense of accomplishment and achievement, and (c) be able to circumvent the traditional practices of the establishment. The effect would simultaneously create and strengthen students' self-efficacy from their learning activities with teachers who care about them and whom they trust. Students would acquire skills to raise performance and work at their own pace. Students, because of environment created by an efficacious teacher, would not dwell on past failures and present set-backs but perceive progress as an attainable goal.

Individuals possessing high self-efficacy perform well at tasks. Teachers with such characteristics would therefore be fulfilling adequately many of the tasks necessary for the effective execution of their jobs, contributing to joy in learning. The formation of self-efficacy and performance characteristics may be attributed to prior socializing experiences of the teacher. The predictor of these behaviors is the contribution of several variables to—socializing experience (Figure 1). Efficacy, performance, and socializing experiences are fundamental not only to the quality and character of teachers, but the schools where teachers teach and the students whom teachers nurture.

Certain socializing experiences may allow a teacher to perform well and have high self-efficacy regardless of the school environment, level of student achievement, and quality of the school's support staff. One needs to identify distinguishable characteristics in the
VARIABLES CONTRIBUTING TO SOCIALIZING EXPERIENCES

Figure 1
socialization experiences of teachers that may contribute negatively and/or positively to role performance in a school environment where the student clientele is somewhat disadvantaged socially, economically, politically, and intellectually.

Students and teachers of senior secondary comprehensive schools provide a reasonable controlled environment to observe the interaction of socializing experiences of teachers, teachers' self-efficacy, and performance because of the near homogeneity of students with reference to their achievement and social class origins.

Factors Associated with Schooling Process

It must be stated that socializing experiences of teachers become crucial to the study if inequalities of schooling at that level of the social order and the resulting social relations of the schooling process schooling process of which the teacher is a key factor. The socializing experience of the teacher could condition one's self-efficacy and therefore affect not only participation and performance, but also one's perception of the reality of school problems, the perception of climate and leadership roles, the perception of aims and objectives of education, and attitudes and behaviors of students.

Persaud (1975) suggested teacher placement as a variable in educational achievement. He stated that in the Caribbean and Latin America, high status schools tend to have more students of higher socio-economic status, better qualified staff and more school facilities, whereas, low status schools tend to have students of low
socio-economic status, poor school facilities, and inadequately trained staff. Further, he claimed that the best teachers are concentrated in the best urban schools in urban areas yet teachers are responsible for development of full potential of each child. He failed to explore fully the all encompassing phenomenon of the socializing experience of the teacher as a pre-condition to their performance and on their continued professional growth and preception. What are the socializing experiences of the "better qualified staff" in these high status schools and similarly what are the deficiencies in other teachers?

The senior comprehensive schools have well-equipped schools, qualified staff, and predominantly low ability/low socio-economic students. How important then in such schools is qualified staff to students achievement? Do such qualified staff perform well in that environment? Do qualified staff have high self-efficacy? Can there be correlated similarities between professionally trained staff and non-professionally trained staff?

The outcomes of schooling and the inequalities in educational achievement are ongoing debates. Carnoy (1972); Carnoy and Levin (1985) suggested that inequalities in schooling are not simply a matter of differences in schooling attained or in resources distributed to each student per year of schooling. They concluded that there existed differences in the internal structure of schools and in the content of schooling which reflected the differences in the social class composition of the student body. Carnoy (1972) observed that class stratification in schools is also achieved by the attitudes
by social class origin of teacher is important. Increased attention needs to be focused not only on methodology and academic preparation but other factors which may not have been developed fully to meet the middle/upper class requirements of schooling. The beliefs of teachers needs to be ascertained as it could be a potent factor in their socializing experience. Failure to recognize and remediate the deficiencies in socializing experiences of teachers may perpetuate a stigmatic condition.

Students who attend senior comprehensive schools would be comprising the vast majority of adult citizenry and would be locked into a caste system of education and economics. Sandy (1968) observed that large numbers of students who leave secondary school with incomplete passes or no passes constitute the labor pool from which industries employ their semi-skilled and low skilled labor. Lovelace (1984) articulated this concern for the future of these children "children... rising out of the junior secondary and comprehensive schools, real children seeking a life, looking for a world to live in..." Education as a dialogic process should address these issues. Hence, the need to analyze how the variables in the concept socializing experience function interactively so that appropriate alternative strategies and programs could be designed to address deficiencies so as to improve not only teacher performance and teacher efficacy but roles and functions of personnel and structures in the education system.
Growth and Development of Secondary School Teaching Body

Critical to an understanding of the secondary school teacher role in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago is the origin and development of that professional body and the expansion of a secondary school system. The historical outline, a form of social reconstruction of reality would illustrate (a) an understanding of changes in the orientation of ownership and management of schools, (b) the trickle down effect of the quality of practices witnessed which may lead to a reaction to or reinforcement of what teachers saw, (c) development of mechanisms within the secondary school system to socialize teachers, (d) the resulting social strata location of teachers, (e) the diversity of academic and professional backgrounds of secondary school teachers, and (f) policies which guide school expansion.

Looking at historical antecedents explain the traditions of individual biographies and/or relationships with others in society. In addition, Giroux (1981) stated, "public education workers in public education are not only born in to a specific historical context, they embody its history in varying ways both as a state of consciousness and sedimented experience, as a "felt reality" (p. 49). This historical analysis provides an understanding of socializing experiences and other educational encounters or activities that may affect teacher performance and efficacy, thereby, hindering students' achievement in senior comprehensive schools.
Secondary school teaching profession started with the establishment of private secondary schools and expanded with the subsequent growth of privately and publicly owned schools. The financial responsibility of government changed with the expansion of public schools. Phases in this growth can be observed as follows: (a) pre-1900, (b) 1900-1945, (c) 1946-1955, (d) 1956-1973, and (e) 1974-1987. In each phase, teachers and schools were influenced and socialized by prevailing socio-economic and political conditions. The emerging native secondary school teachers used teachers they remembered in their student days as role models. Thus, when the secondary school teaching body was small and selective, there was effective control over the professional ethos, decorum, and practices allowed to perpetrate among secondary school teachers. With the expansion of secondary schools and of necessity secondary school teachers, more divergent attitudes, values, and work performances became widespread. Schools with a tradition maintained some restraint on their staff. New schools and staff often became embroiled in formulating and fashioning a desired environment. In addition, there was no systematic teacher education program, taking into consideration the development of a common consensus of values essential for a secondary school teaching body or remediation of inadequate socio-psychological preparation or pedagogical preparation of secondary school teachers.
Secondary level education started in 1826 in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago with the establishment of a girl's secondary school by the French runs of the Order of St. Jospeh of Cluny for daughters of the French plantation owners in the British Colony (Feheney, 1975). This started the dilemma of religion, race, and riches in the provision of secondary education. Secondary education was based on the ability to pay and the legitimate birth of the student. In colonial times, this meant whites, some African and East Indian descendants, mixed people.

Secondary education, as it became formalized, was used to preserve and extend British culture over French, African, East Indian Indian and other groups. Williams (1969) observed "the purpose of the secondary school in Trinidad was to ensure the anglicanization of the colony" (p. 23). It was also to provide training for those students who may proceed to universities abroad, and train those less fortunate students who have to be content with government service at home (Williams, 1951).

Secondary school teachers originated from the metropolitan countries of France, Great Britain, Canada, and Ireland. They brought the values of society and education prevalent in metropolitan society and institutions. This influx continued until post-1956 when the numbers decreased. This origination contrasts sharply with primary school teachers who, from the onset, were predominantly African and East Indian (Sandy, 1973).
Between 1836 and 1900, secondary schools had been established. St. Joseph's convent (Port-of-Spain) opened in 1836 and was run by the French Sisters of the Order of St. Joseph of Clunty (Ottley, 1978). It received public funds from 1911. This school was for Catholic girls only (Furlonge, 1968) and upper class girls (Campbell, 1973). They opened "Little convent" (later Providence, 1866) for middle and lower class blacks and coloreds who could afford to pay. The congregation opened branches in St. Joseph (1870) and San Fernando (1882) which received public funds in 1958, 1956 respectively.

St. George's College for Boys, founded in 1838, was controlled by the French Roman Catholic priests of the Euridist Order and provided classical and general instruction to children of parents in the upper rank of life. The majority of boys belonged to non-English families who could not afford to give them an education in Europe (Campbell 1973). The Church of England established a school for boys around 1852 under the headship of Rev. Prix, an Oxford University Master of Arts graduate, but it was shortlived. The Queen's Collegiate School (later Queen's Royal College) founded in 1859 was secondary school for boys which provided an exclusive type of education for upper and middle classes of the protestant section of the population (Furlonge, 1968). The college opened with two masters from England. The first headmaster, Mr. Deighton a Cambridge graduate, was selected because he had been to a great public school in England. De la Bastide (1984) noted that Catholics could not enroll their sons in this school because it was prohibited by local church authorities. Roman Catholic secondary education for boys after
the closure of St. George's was restored with the opening of the College of Immaculate Conception (St. Mary's College) in 1863 under the administration of the French Order of the Holy Ghost Priests. A girl's nondenominational school opened by Ms. Bundle in 1883 was short-lived.

These schools were in the city and were restricted to (a) day students who could pay tuition fees, and (b) boarding students who could afford boarding and tuition fees. Roman Catholic schools at first were limited to Catholic and French descendants (instruction being in French). Feheny (1975) noted that for many years Roman Catholic schools "were repositories of French culture" (p. 398). The government school was limited to Protestant and non-French citizens. Even when scholarships became available to a few primary school students, Furlonge (1968) stated:

at this early stage in the history of free place system that the pupils who were benefitting were not necessarily those of the lower classes, since the majority of awards went to the fee paying high status model schools (p. 243).

Brereton (1974) remarked that "free places," however small, allowed a number of black and colored boys of humble origin to obtain secondary education. These boys had attended the model school or urban primary schools. Their parents were skilled artisans or small independent businessmen, minor clerks, civil servants, and teachers classified as urban lower middle or working class. The Keenan Report (1870) stated
that whilst the white population between 5000 and 6000 sent one hundred and forty-two (142) pupils to secondary schools, the colored population exclusive of East Indians numbering 6000 to 7000 supplied thirty-seven (37) pupils.

The first secondary school for boys outside the capital city was opened in San Fernando by Dr. Grant, a Canadian Missionary in 1894. It received public funding in 1900. This funding provided secondary education for East Indians who were sons of gentlemen, children of achievement from Canadian Mission (Presbyterian) elementary schools, estate owners, and primary school teachers. It also included Chinese and other ethnic groups. Turner (1968) observed:

Canadian Mission helped to bring a people reared in the customs and disciplines of an oriental culture into the mainstream of a society governed by Western Christian oriental values and aspirations. The Mission directed its efforts specifically towards the East Indians, but by opening its institutions to all races, creeds, and nationalities, it helped to build and preserve racial and religious harmony in a country where racial tension and religious friction always lay close to the surface of the body politic (p. 103).

Students at secondary schools were prepared for examinations of the University of Cambridge. Boys at the College of Immaculate Conception (CIC) took part in religious sodalities, dramatic societies, elocution
lessons, sports, and gymnastics. Boys at Queens Royal College followed closely the tradition of the English public school. The girls were given social training to equip them as wives of upper classmen. During this period some boys from the upper class did not complete their secondary education as they took up positions in their father's business or estates. Those who completed often went abroad to universities to pursue the professions of medicine and law. Others became members of the colonial civil service. None entered the secondary school teaching service.

1900-1945

By 1900, secondary schools such as St. Joseph's Convent (Port-of-Spain), Queen's Royal College, St. Mary's College, and Naparima Boy's College received public funding. During this period, Naparima Girl's College (La Pique), Bishop Anstey Girl's High School (St. Hilary's), St. Joseph's Convent (San Fernando), Fatima College, Bishop Anstey High School (Tobago), St. Benedict's College (later Presentation College - San Fernando) received public funding.

The expansion of secondary schools resulted from the quest from the wider society for their children to obtain secondary education. Factors which contributed to this were the increase of government scholarships to primary school students, scholarships provided by the secondary schools themselves, the deferred payment plan for school fees, willingness of the low and middle class parents to make sacrifices to pay tuition fees, and the access secondary education was providing
for better paid jobs in the public and private sectors. The rise in demand for education also saw religious conversion to the faith of the denomination that operated secondary schools.

The demand for secondary education created the establishment of intermediate schools for girls and boys by the Education Ordinance of 1918. The education of girls continued to receive attention. Power (1978) stated that a need arose in Port-of-Spain for a school for girls for those parents who, on religious grounds or otherwise, could not send their daughters to St. Joseph's Convent or Holy Name Convent for an education of a higher standard than that given at the girls' government model school at Tranquility Intermediate School. The headmistress of the Tranquility Girls' Model School was British and she, together with other English women, were responsible for the education of girls at Tranquility in the secondary section.

St. Hilary's (Bishop Anstey Girls' High School) was founded in 1921 under the direction of Mary Stephens, a London University graduate and a member of the Society for the Propagation of the Bible. It received public funds in 1925. Successive principals of the school were foreigners, mainly British. It was not until 1964 with the appointment of Stephanie Shurland, a native-born and former student of St. Hilary's who was educated in Ireland and had been a graduate teacher at Naparima Girls High School, did local administrative influence begin. Sixth form classes for girls was started in 1938 and some of these girls who had successfully completed higher school certificate examinations of Cambridge University joined the staff as junior mistresses before
proceeding to high education abroad. The majority of the girls from this school in this era graduated at fifth form level and entered the primary school teaching service, the nursing service, business, junior ranks of the civil service, etc.

Naparima Girl's High School (La Pique) started in 1912 as a private secondary school under Doyle, a Canadian missionary. After years as an intermediate school, it became a secondary school receiving public funds in 1925. The school, at its inception, was for the upper and middle class girls of the South and daughters of primary school teachers in Canadian missionary schools. Higher school certificate classes for these girls did not begin until 1963. Some students therefore transferred to girl's schools in Port-of-Spain with such classes, or to St. Joseph's Convent (San Fernando) which started such classes in 1950 or to Naparima Boys' College. The Anglican Bishop of the Diocese of Trinidad founded Bishop's High School (Tobago) under the principalship of Jordan (a Cambridge graduate). Subsequent principals who came from Codrington College (Barbados) were clergymen or laymen. Caruth (the first Tobagonian) was appointed in 1975. Teaching staff came from Trinidad and Barbados until a supply of Tobagonians was available. Sixth form work was started around 1937.

The teaching staff at Queen's Royal College remained the domain of expatriates educated at Oxford, London, Cambridge. The colonials received long leave to return to England for holidays and found acceptance in the upper class of Trinidad and Tobago society. Williams (1969) noted that the appointment of Innis in 1915 and Pilgrim in 1920 represented
two breaches in the citadel hitherto occupied exclusively by englishmen or whites. The other appointment in 1927 for Arthur Farrell, another Trinidadian, was even more significant. He was a graduate of Codrington College in Barbados, affiliated to Durham University. He represented a breach with the Oxford, Cambridge tradition (p. 39).

At the Roman Catholic secondary schools, religious sisters and priests started coming from Ireland instead of France. They were educated at the National University of Ireland at Dublin, Ireland. At Naparima College, the Canadians were entrenched. Rempersad (1967) stated that the teachers at Naparima Girls were "taken from top shelves of Canadian Universities" (p. 2). At St. Hilary's, Queen's Royal College reigned the British and at Bishops' Tobago were the graduate from Codrington college, an affiliate to Durham College.

There was an attempt to employ local teachers at secondary schools. Naparima College used graduates from the Naparima Teachers' College as well as local teachers who were pursuing or had completed the London University Matriculation Examination. Some secondary schools used scholarship winners and holders of higher school certificate to teach. These students usually left after a year or two to study abroad. In the Roman Catholic institutions, locals who have received temporary professions in the religious orders taught. The numbers pursuing Higher School Certificates were few as can be seen in Table 1.
Table 1


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The students who attended public supported secondary schools were children of officials in the colonial service, businessmen, landowners, professionals, clergymen, civil servants, primary school teachers, technicians, and the labouring class. Students from the lower class had to win a government college exhibition. This guaranteed tuition and free books. By 1937, such scholarships in the entire country numbered 16. A few students won teaching bursaries which provided secondary education
and teacher training. Many of the students receiving these exhibitions came from top urban primary schools, fee paying schools or Pamphylian schools. The *Port of Spain Gazette* (July 2, 1921) reported that the son's of the Governor of British Honduras, went to Pamphylian School before going to Queens' Roal College. The majority of lower class students could not afford the expenses of these public aided schools which, apart from tuition, included costs for several types of clothing, textbooks, and other incidentals. Students from lower middle class, working class, low socio-economic class were able to obtain secondary education through payment of fees at private secondary schools (Haig High School, Osmond, Progressives, Chedi's etc.). Tuition fees were paid by installments.

After completing five years of secondary school, students could continue for two years in the sixth form to study and sit Higher School Certificate examinations. Additional school fees for another two years of further education could not be afforded by many lower, middle class families as other children in the family were to be educated. Students from this strata usually attended "sixth form" classes if they won a government House Scholarship which by 1937 numbered 10 or a school bursary. At the end of this period colonial (island) scholarships were awarded for high education overseas. This in 1937, was limited to three (3). Other students successful at sixth form work had to work for a couple of years to obtain savings to further 30 their studies abroad. A few were able to obtain jobs as junior masters or mistresses
in secondary schools. Those employed as junior masters or mistresses had distinguished themselves academically during their school career and fitted the ideals of the schools.

James (1963), who had won an exhibition to Queen's Royal College (QRC) in 1933, in his description of QRC summed up the colonial secondary education experience:

> the children of some white officials and white businessmen, middle class blacks and mulatoes, Chinese boys, some of whose parents still spoke broken English. Indian boys, some of whose parents could speak no English at all, and some poor black boys who had won exhibitions or whose parents had starved and toiled on plots of agricultural land and were spending their hard earned money on giving the eldest boys an education (p. 34)

1946-1955/1956

Secondary school expansion in this period saw schools being sited in suburban and rural districts. These schools became reliant on non-graduate teaching staff and recruited successful sixth form graduates of the secondary schools with sixth forms. They sought to impose the tradition and practices of their former schools in their new situations. Many of these new graduates were male, but
increasingly females joined the ranks with the opening of sixth form classes at St. Joseph's Convent (Port-of-Spain - 1935), St. Joseph's Convent (San Fernando - 1959), St. Joseph's Convent (St. Joseph-1961), Naparima Girls' (1963), and Bishop Anstey Girls' (1938). However Reddock (1984) stated that in the early years "large percentage of the girls who entered the first year of sixth form never completed two year period" (p. 506).

The expansion of secondary education continued to be dominated by denominational schools with the exception of the government wholly owned St. George's College (1953). St. Augustine Girl's High School (1951) and Hillview College (1955) were opened by the Canadian Missionaries (Beattie and the Reverend Swann) with assistance from local staff, graduates of Naparima Colleges and Teachers' College. St. Augustine Girl's High School and Hillview College came under local administration in a relatively short period with the appointment of Mahase (1961) and Moosai-Maharaj (1962), respectively, both university graduates of Canadian universities who had been nurtured in the Presbyterian settings of Naparima institutions.

Presbyterian children in northern Trinidad who formerly boarded in San Fernando to attend Naparima College and other children of East Indian descent now had more opportunities for secondary education in the North. Max Murphy, an American Negro Roman Catholic Priest, established in central Trinidad College of St. Philip and James under the principality of Scotsman Burns. The staff came from Queen's Royal College, St. Mary's College, and Presentation College Chaguanas in
1959 (administered by Irish religious personnel). Holy Faith Convent Couva (1951) was established by the Order of Holy Faith Sisters from Ireland. St. Benedicts College (La Romain - 1956) was established by Dom Basil Matthews, a Fordham University graduate of the Benedictine Order. (The first locally born principal with a doctoral degree.) Initially, these schools were fee paying schools until free secondary education was given.

During this period, college exhibitions increased from sixteen (16) to fifty-two (52) to one hundred (100). This allowed an increase in the number of students islandwide to receive free tuition and books for five (5) years. Exhibitioners, however, continued to choose the older established schools which had sixth forms, and some graduate staff, schools which and won house and island scholarships and received acclaim by society as the best schools’ bastions of educational excellence.

In this period, two house scholarships of students to pursue sixth form at schools aided with public funds were awarded to students from privately operated secondary schools. The number of house scholarships had increased to fifty-two (52). Island (colonial) open scholarships were awarded in the following areas: (a) Mathematics, (b) Science, (c) Modern Studies, and (d) Languages. A special scholarship was provided for girls.

The numbers going to sixth form remained small. Missen Report (1954) stated that 4.9 percent (4.9%) of the total secondary population prepared for higher school certificate examinations. The Maurice
Report (1959) reported that after forty (40) years less than three percent (3%) of enrollment should reach the top form and qualify for taking the examination. Usually the Grade 1 senior Cambridge was the academic requirement used to select students for entry into sixth form. The Maurice Report (1959) noted that of one thousand, two hundred and fifty-eight (1258) people who wrote the 1956 senior Cambridge examination 74 percent (74%) were successful, nearly one half received the lowest certificate Grade III which qualified them for teaching in primary schools. The Civil Service, industry required Grade II as the minimum for its lowest clerical job. Many of the third grade students achieved the certificate after one or more attempts.

Civil Service scholarships were instituted to provide specialized training to officers already in the service. Four such scholarships were made available in 1951 for teachers to obtain university degrees. The Civil Service (teaching) scholarships were awarded to teachers whose performance had been sufficiently meritorious at the final examinations for teachers at training colleges. This was later changed as follows; (a) two based on teacher training college examinations and (b) two from selected trained primary school teachers in the field. These teachers, after completing their university education abroad, took up appointments at the government teachers' training colleges or in the wholly owned government secondary schools.

The secondary educated students of the upper class and middle class, whether having been certificated or not and of color, obtained jobs at clerical level or above in business, manufacturing, banking,
and industry. Students of the upper class who had been certificated and certificated students of the middle or lower class who had received scholarships or through family sacrifice went abroad to study medicine, law, engineering, and dentistry - a passport to status mobility and social recognition. The pursuit of arts, languages, and social sciences were not quite so becoming. University graduates of the upper class who remained in secondary teaching did so as members of religious orders. Students of the lower and middle class who pursued teaching at secondary levels achieved status mobility as the majority of lower and middle class who pursued teaching did so at the primary level.

1956 - 1973/1974

This period was an era of mass education expansion spurred on by the education policy of the People's National Movement started and led by Dr. Eric Eustace Williams, an Oxford graduate and former island scholarship winner from Queen's Royal College. This party was elected by popular mandate at the general elections of 1956. The People's Charter (1956) a document of the people's National Movement noted that the educational system of Trinidad and Tobago reflected the imperialist domination of the past and observed that its principal features were; (a) the uncritical imposition of alien standards and curricula unrelated to local needs developed in a different climate for people with a different history and different traditions, and as an inevitable consequence of this, the disparagement
of the local culture, standards and traditions, and (ii) concentration on the small group needed to fill the positions opened to them in the imperialist structure and sub-ordination of the masses.

The new government was determined to bring about some equity to the distribution of educational opportunities for students regardless of race, creed, or economic circumstances. The government immediately increased the number of government exhibitions. Between 1956 and 1960 the number of college exhibitions were increased from two hundred and fifty-five (255) to one thousand (1000) to be followed later in 1959 by free secondary education for all as long as there was space in the public aided schools. This gave increased number of students from the lower and middle class opportunities for a secondary education.

There was a massive secondary school building program nationwide to increase direct government ownership of secondary schools from the meager two (2) to dominance of state controlled schools, putting an end to the observation of Oxaal (1968) of former times secondary education was expensive, straining the limited resources of the coloured middle class and practically out of question for the sons of parents living in regions so remote from the urban centers as to make necessary the boarding of their sons in town (p. 59).

The expansion of secondary schools could be viewed as follows; (a) denominational expansion of five year secondary schools, (b)
government expansion of its own five year secondary schools, and (c) government expansion due to the introduction of junior secondary schools. The denominational thrust was done by Roman Catholics, Baptists, Hindus, and Muslims.

The Dominican Fathers of the Irish Province opened the Holy Cross College (1959) with a predominantly lay staff drawn from the existing Roman Catholic Boys' secondary schools. The Anglican Church opened St. Stephen's College (1959) and Trinity College (1958). Trinity College opened as a private college to be an equivalent to Bishop Anstey Girls' High School and to be of status with the Presbyterian Church and Roman Catholic Church who had established leading boys' and girls' secondary schools. The first principal of Trinity College (Phelps) was a graduate of the English public school system and Oxford educated. At its inception its all male staff were university graduates all recruited from Britain. Trinity, in converting to local staff, utilized graduates who had been former students of Queen's Royal college or former teachers at Queen's Royal College.

The London Baptist Missionary society established Cowen-Hamilton High School (1961) under the Reverend Payne. This period was the acceptance of non-Christian denominational schools as public secondary schools. These schools, in spite of their religious and ethnic orientation toward East Indians, Hindus, and Muslims, enrolled students from other religious persuasions and ethnic differences.
Lakshmi Girl's College (1966) was the first Hindu establishment to receive public funds; ASJA Boy's College (1966) AND ASJA Girl's College (1966) were two Muslim secondary schools recognized as public schools.

The government built numerous five year secondary schools throughout the country which were to follow Britain's Modern Secondary Schools in terms of curriculum. In its attempt to provide secondary education for the majority of its school age population, several junior secondary schools were constructed and operated on a double shift system. The administrators of these new schools came from among the few native graduates in the system. The teaching staff at the junior secondary schools were primarily teachers seconded from primary schools with a special allowance. Sixth form graduates were also employed at the junior secondary schools and the five year government secondary schools. Some graduates of teachers colleges found employment in these five year secondary schools. These schools started with entirely local staff, which from time to time, was supplemented with specialist mathematics and science teachers provided by Canadian Volunteers, British Volunteers, and the United States Peace Corps.

The new government secondary schools with the exception of St. Francois Girls' College (1962) were all co-educational. The number of girls to benefit form secondary education dramatically increased. The students were admitted to these schools based on the eleven (11) plus common entrance examinations. Furlonge (1968) reported that
the majority of these common entrance examinees made the older so
called "prestige" schools their main choice and accepted admission
to one of the new secondary schools only upon failure to get into a
prestige school. These new secondary schools became the places of
learning for the middle and lower classes. Students who were suc-
cessful at these schools could proceed to sixth form at the older
established schools or polytechnic. The number of students at sixth
form increased because many of the denominational schools competed
for the creation of their own sixth form classes to add prestige to
their schools.

The government itself opened a polytechnic (sixth form college)
to "free up" the route to obtaining this qualification for university
matriculation. Subtle excuses by some denominational school authori-
ties had been used to prevent access of academically qualified stu-
dents to these sixth form classes. This government institution had
day classes for students within the school age and night classes for
anyone who had the necessary "0" level qualification. In the past
some students earned this qualification through correspondence
courses from Wolsey Hall College, Oxford, etc.

The momentum for sixth form education accelerated. It was the
path to a university education in Britain, Canada or Ireland. The
post colonial society, in an age of independence, had taken on new
dimensions in economic development. This necessitated jobs in
supervisory and management positions in the public service and in-
dustry as well as professions. These jobs provided occupational
and status mobility - rapid advancement. Education was the way to circumvent the restraining forces of the dominant culture which controlled positions in the social hierarchy (Craig, 1974).

1974 - 1986

The government, in attempting to implement its policy of universal secondary education for the school age population, found that all the graduates of the double shift school could not be accommodated at existing secondary public aided secondary schools. There was also great reluctance and resistance by the older established school (pre-1960 schools) to take graduates of junior secondary schools.

Government embarked on the building of senior secondary and comprehensive schools to provide two additional years of fourth and fifth form education for the graduates of the junior secondary schools. With the unexpected oil boom and a concern for rapid industrial expansion, there was a concern for technical and vocational skilled citizens. The existing schools and their sites could not hold the envisaged plants for technical/vocational education. Further, the existing schools had perceived themselves as "grammar schools." In some cases they had accommodated with the inclusion of business oriented courses and home economics for the academically less able students. The five year government secondary schools had usual academic subjects plus business education, home economics, and industrial arts included in their curriculum. The government built
senior comprehensive schools (Sandy, 1979; Harvey, 1981) to provide an additional two years of secondary education so that all graduates of junior secondary schools could have a complete secondary education. Composite schools were also built. The latter was a five-year secondary school which provided academic education and limited vocational courses. Technical/Vocational education became associated with low achieving students, low socio-economic status students.

The administrators for these senior comprehensive schools were teachers and vice-principals promoted, in the majority of cases, from personnel who had worked in the government five-year schools or junior secondary schools. The teachers in the academic subjects were university graduates. The majority of technical/vocational teachers had come from industry and were graduates of the technical colleges with a technician's or craftsman's diploma. Some of these graduates of technical schools had been graduates of the secondary schools who had obtained full "O" level certificates (i.e., five subjects) or less than five subjects. Others had been elementary school graduates who had been to technical/vocational schools. Yet, others had been primary school teachers who had specialized in industrial arts or home economics while at teacher colleges. Some technician/vocational teachers had obtained further qualifications through the overseas examination of the City and Guilds Institute of London.
Secondary School Teachers' Qualifications

When secondary schools were first opened the qualifications for the position as secondary school teacher was an academic degree from a university. The early secondary school teachers who came from metropolitan countries to staff these schools were not only graduates from universities but graduates of elite secondary (public) schools in the metropole. University education, there, was the privilege of upper class and the possibility for the lower and middle class through the few scholarships available or as religious personnel. These early secondary school teachers had not been professionally trained. Professional training for secondary schools was initiated into Great Britain in the last quarter of the Nineteenth Century.

The Cross Commission (1888) recommended that universities start day training colleges and that students in university training colleges should be allowed to work for a degree. This resulted in a sufficient number of trained graduates for London Education Authority secondary schools. Further impetus for the training of secondary school teachers came from the Balfour Act (1903) and the McNair Committee Report (1944). The latter introduced Institutes of Education attached to universities which attended to post-graduate training of teachers and overseeing work of training colleges. Prior to these developments, only teachers at elementary schools received some form of training through (a) old monitoral system, (b) pupil-teacher system, (c) student-bursary system, and (d) training colleges.
The professionally trained secondary teachers were limited in number and did not come out to the colonies.

Secondary schools in the colony of Trinidad and Tobago developed a system of senior masters and junior masters. Senior masters were university graduates and foreign, junior masters were those teachers who had passed London Matriculation, possessed Higher School Certificates, and primary school teacher diplomas. The junior masters were in the main native born teachers waiting for an opportunity to further their academic studies, former primary school teachers or in Roman Catholic schools - individuals who had not taken their perpetual vows in the religious community.

The Lewis Report (1964) noted that teachers in directly owned government secondary schools were treated as civil servants and received better salaries than their counterparts in government funded denominational schools, and received vacation leave and passage grants. The salary of a graduate teacher was less than a similarly qualified person in the Civil Service and resulted in teachers exiting to the Civil Service when administrative and professional positions became available with independence in 1962. In addition, there were little opportunities for advancement in the teaching service. The teachers, therefore, had additional reasons to join the Civil Service. Marriott and Mayhew Commission (1938) noted that secondary schools suffered from a lack of graduate and trained teachers and deplored the absence of local provision for training of secondary
school teachers. They recommended (a) short term training courses at home and abroad and (b) that Island scholarship winners should take education among university subjects.

Secondary school teachers began receiving advanced academic training in a West Indian environment with the opening of the University College of the West Indies (UCWI) in 1948 at Mona Jamaica, at the University of the West Indies (UWI) campus, St. Augustine, Trinidad in 1960, and at the UWI Campus, Cave Hill, Barbados in 1963. Government awarded bursaries to teachers for full time study to those who had completed first year university program by evening classes. This led to a rapid increase in graduate academic staff. Primary school teachers with their teaching diploma used the evening class route to update themselves academically and to move into the ranks of the secondary school teaching profession, as remuneration for added qualification was only given at secondary school levels. An Institute of Education was established at UWI, Jamaica, in 1952. A few secondary teachers from Trinidad received professional training there. In 1963, an Institute of Education was established in Trinidad and Tobago with one of its objectives being to provide training for secondary school teachers.

Professionally trained secondary school teachers remained few. The Education Report (1959) noted (a) no provision was made Locally for the training of secondary school teachers (b) that the supply
of trained teachers was at the very core of the education problem, and (c) that the large number of unqualified teachers in primary and secondary schools were the most distressing feature of the problems which arose in the expansion of education. The Organization of American States (OAS) Report (1979) stated that the survey done by the Institute of Education (St. Augustine) in collaboration with the Ministry of Education revealed that at January 1970, out of six hundred and sixty-one (661) teachers employed only ninety-five (95) had professional training as teachers in a post graduate course and four hundred and seventy-six (476) had no professional training whatsoever. Bobb (1975) commented that teachers graduated from an in-service program of teacher education at UWI (St. augustine) but that a backlog of untrained teachers constituted the bulk of the secondary teachers. An Institute of Education had been established in 1963 but it was only in 1983 that a Diploma of Education course for secondary school teachers was offered. This part time program limited in student intake is intended to encourage teachers to give serious thought to past and present practices, to future possibilities in education, encouraging teachers to read, think about and discuss various problems relating to theory and practice of education.

Institutions for teachers education for primary school teachers existed since 1837 (Sandy, 1973). These included Mico Teachers' College (1837), Presbyterian College (1894), Roman Catholic Women Teachers' College (1895), Roman Catholic Men Teachers' College (1902),
Government Teachers' College (formerly Normal School - 1851), Port-of-Spain (Emergency) Teachers' College (1958), Caribbean Union College (1960), Mausica Teachers' College (1963), Corinth Teachers' College (1973), and Valsayn Teachers' College (1975). Graduates of these training colleges sometimes obtained position in government and denominational secondary schools.

Technical teachers received their professional training abroad and were usually graduates with a primary school teachers diploma who had done an elective in vocational subject at teachers college or individuals who had received their technical training at a local vocational or technical school. A technical teacher training college was established in 1979 at the John Donaldson Technical Institute.

The junior secondary school had a staff establishment quota which was weighted towards non-graduate teachers. The majority of teachers at junior secondary schools were former qualified primary school teachers. Since teaching at this level was subject specialization, teachers with an "elective" in their certification which matched subjects being offered at junior secondary schools were selected and given short term additional training. Mausica Teachers' College provided training in home economics and industrial arts. The Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute provided training for agricultural science teachers. Other subject teachers attended evening classes

**Teacher Trainers**

Teacher training is presently shared by (a) Valsayn Teachers' College and Corinth Teachers' College for non-graduate teachers; (b) teacher training department, John Donaldson Institute for Technical/Vocational Teachers; (c) and school of Education UWI- St. Augustine for university graduate teachers.

Teacher training for primary school teachers have a long established tradition since the 19th Century. The original teacher trainers for government teachers college (normal school), Presbyterian teachers college and Catholic teachers college came from the metropolitan countries of England, Ireland, and Canada.

The emphasis in primary teacher training, until the 1960's, was providing academic content for the teachers in training and an education orientation with an emphasis on teaching methodology. The former was necessary because large numbers of teachers then had not attended secondary school (Sandy, 1973). Courses in philosophy, psychology, and sociology of education were added post - 1950 to teachers training colleges. The number of teacher trainees were relatively small and created a backlog of untrained teachers working in the primary schools. Education policy post-1956 was a fully qualified primary school teaching staff. Thus, the number of teacher
trainees increased and new institutions erected. Full time teacher
trainers had to be supplemented by part-time staff. In the early
years of teachers' colleges, part-time staff came from graduate
teaching staff of Queen's Royal College, St. Joseph's Convent
(P.O.S.), and Naparima College. Sometimes additional staff came
from agricultural departments, government analyst departments, and
S suregon-General's Department. The staff became increasingly local.
Staff at training colleges were (a) former qualified teachers or
headmasters who had obtained external associate diploma of the
College of Preceptors (LCP/ACP), (b) primary school personnel who
had obtained external degrees from the University of London, (c)
primary school teachers who had obtained colonial scholarships, and
(d) sixth form graduates who had attended teachers' colleges and
universities. M a usica Teachers College was the first teacher
training institution to have an unusually high ratio of university
graduate and post graduate staff. Teacher trainers acquired the
experience of educating teacher trainees on the job. Teacher
trainers received their education in England, Canada, and the United
States.

School of Education - UWI (St. Augustine) started with expatriate
graduate and post-graduate staff from England and New Zealand. The
majority of the staff were locals who had been graduates of the
elitist colonial secondary education, graduates of the Government
Teachers' College and Naparima Teachers' College who had received
further education in Canada and England. These teacher trainers
had taught for limited periods at primary and secondary schools and teachers colleges. From 1981 onwards, UWI selected its teacher trainers from those who had studied in France, England, Canada, the United States and locally/regionally. Their experiences in teaching had been at the traditional grammar schools. Apart from academic qualifications, they had an assortment of post graduate certifications (viz. certificates, diplomas, and master's/doctoral degrees in various areas of specializations).

Teacher Training Department - John Donaldson Institute, since its establishment, had a variety of graduate and post graduate staff. Teacher trainers had come from existing teachers' colleges where they had been teacher trainers in home economics, industrial arts, etc., some were recruited from secondary school staff where they had been teachers in vocational/technical subjects.

The majority of the teacher trainers have not received specific training for the roles they have to perform in educating teacher trainees. Acquisition of teacher training competence is a result of on-the-job experience which varies because of the teacher trainers own interest in developing excellence for enhancing the cognitive and affective dimensions of trainees. Teacher trainers within institutions and between institutions have (a) varying personal philosophies of teacher education, (b) varying perceptions about the role of teacher educator, and (c) varying perceptions about the balance between practice, content, and research.
Mark (1980) stated that the low level of awareness and skills of the present corps of teacher educators would itself act as an impeding factor in any change that is introduced in teacher education. Grayson (1982) commented that "teacher educators are theoretical, their solutions to problems too idealistic and this shows insensitivity to the real situation" (p. 50). Further, there is an absence of systematic coordination and continuous dialogue among teacher trainers at all levels. The Board of Teacher Education in the Ministry of Education has responsibility for the teacher education institutions in Valsayn and John Donaldson Institute.

Social/Cultural Development of Teachers

The opportunities for students in the early secondary schools to participate in cultural, sporting, and paramilitary affairs were controlled. Boy Scouts and Girl Guides at secondary school level were initially limited to wealth, colour, and status. Students from lower and middle classes were limited in their participation in such activities while at secondary school. The cadet force attracted a majority of non-white, in the secondary school. The boy Scouts and Girl Guides movement owed its expansion in the lower and middle classes through the primary school system and teacher training institutions. Participation in dramatic activities and choir activities were limited to those of colour and class. Jones (1968) remarked that the former near white Convent plays, the little unconscious distinctions made in favour of the
white Creole society of the obviously wealthy
marked me in my passage through the Convent as
it marked many others (p. 13).

However, these conditions of exclusion were slowly changed in
the post-1956 era. The majority of secondary schools in the early
days were in urban areas until the 1960's and some extent limited
the activities of student participation. Students had to leave
immediately after school to catch the train or bus to take them
home. There was also distancing of secondary school students from
their former peers at elementary schools who were unsuccessful in
obtaining a place at a public secondary school. Secondary school
students then did not take too active a part in community based
activities. Secondary school graduates, especially from public
secondary school, had few opportunities for cultural and recrea-
tional activities. The secondary school teacher had even less.

Organized recreation and cultural activities in the country
had been open to expatriates and selected local people of colour
and class. Such clubs were Trinidad Dramatic Club (expatriates
only), Point-a-Pierre Players, ICTA Colonials, Paragon Dramatic
Club, Literary clubs, drama clubs, etc., which had been formed by
primary school headmasters and other local personnel attracted
primary school teachers, graduates of secondary schools and others
in the lower ranks of Civil Service. Such clubs were White Hall
Players, San Fernando Drama Guild, Theatre Workshop, Little Theatre,
Nelsonians, etc. In the post 1950 era, secondary school graduates
who were Roman Catholics found opportunities in the Catholic Evidence Guild, and Catholic Youth Organizations. Several joined the Pegasus Club and others began joining community based organizations which were surfacing.

James (1963) noted that the first class clubs represented the different social strata in the island within clearly defined bounds. Queens Park club was for the white and wealthy, a few colored men from the old well established mulatto families were in their midst, another Club Shamrock was the club of the old Catholic families and almost exclusively white. Maple was the club of brownskinned middle class, and Shannon was the club of the black lower middle class. East Indians had their stratification in the India Club, Oriental Club, Invincible Club, etc. The boys graduating from the same class in school were served at different clubs. James summed up the situation as follows:

it was long years after that I understood the limitations on spirit, vision, and self-respect which was imposed on us by the fact that our masters, our curriculum, our code of morals everything began from the basis that Britain was the source of light and leading, and our business was to admire, wonder, imitate, learn, our criterion for success was to have succeeded in approaching that distant ideal - to attain it was, of course, impossible (p. 38).
Teacher Employment Problems

In colonial society, the local black and coloured in any position in the colonial service were not given due respect unless they attained high levels in the upper echelons of the organization and still there were subtle acts of discrimination against him based on colour, income, social relationships and club affiliations. The secondary school teaching staff were not exempt. The teaching staff of Queen's Royal College, the only government secondary school up to 1955, were considered to be civil servants and as such received Civil Service privileges which had been created for white expatriates. Secondary schools teachers in denominational public assisted schools were treated differently to their counterparts at Queens Royal College.

Keller (1968) observed that laymen in denominational schools (notably Roman Catholic Schools) could not get positions of dean and principal, and could easily be dismissed. He observed that governing bodies of these denominational schools usually viewed allegiance to their respective faiths as a primary criterion for recruitment to the teaching staff and promotion. Further, he noted that members of the government secondary school teaching fraternity of college masters and mistresses branch of the Civil Service never experienced the throes of lack of security of tenure and other problems begot by the members of the purely denominational secondary school teacher associations. He noted that with the Education Act (1966) most secondary schools of denominational schools became fully
public assisted with government paying students' tuition, teachers' and principals' salaries. All teachers became eligible for promotion to administrative positions on the basis of seniority, qualifications, and merit.

Other Situational Context

The expansion of government secondary schools in the period post 1958 saw the rapid increase in positions of principal and vice principals. Some of these principals/vice principals in directly owned government schools were graduates of Government Teacher's College and Naparima Teachers's College, other had no exposure to professional education courses. These former primary school teachers who had received academic qualifications at the University of the West Indies or foreign universities. All, however, had attended the secondary schools established before 1958 (Grayson and Sandy, 1984). They were all graduate teachers with seniority in either direct government owned schools or denominational schools. Most of these appointees had received little or no training in administration or instructional leadership. They practiced what they had witnessed during their careers as classroom teachers. The organization of education was bureaucratic and instructions and policies being issued from the top.

School supervision of schools started in 1851 but was focused at the primary level (Sandy, 1979). It included both general administration and instructional supervision. Curriculum supervision as a definite entity was initiated in 1968, it was geared primarily to
primary schools and junior secondary school's teaching staff. The graduate teachers and non-graduate teachers in secondary schools felt above supervision. In colonial times, secondary schools had been accustomed to no supervision from central office. The establishment of senior secondary comprehensive schools saw creation of curriculum supervisors in all areas of the curriculum (academic and technical/vocational). Curriculum supervisors were promoted from the ranks of vice-principals (secondary), training colleges for primary school teachers, and classroom teachers. Individuals were appointed to the positions of curriculum officers without formal training in the process of curriculum supervision and curriculum development. The practice of school supervision for some meant following to a limited extent some aspect of the job specifications. For others, it was continuing what others had done. This was in a situation where in his former position he was accustomed to follow instructions, had no experience making inputs to curriculum development.

The secondary school teachers in the comprehensive school have come from a variety of secondary school backgrounds. Some have attended the older established schools, some the government secondary schools of the post 1958 era. The latter schools had been staffed by principals and teachers educated in the colonial era and having in their psyche certain values of order, discipline, authority, implementation of policy from above, cognitive achievement. The
majority of students' parents in these government schools at that time had never attended a secondary school. In addition, the staffing establishment in existence (then) favoured the employment of more sixth form graduates than university graduates. Staff meetings at schools had agendas focusing on (a) methods of student discipline, (b) planning for concerts, bazaars, etc., (c) selection of uniforms. In some schools extra-curricula activities had been short lived or never tried. In some schools Parent-Teacher Associations or Past Students' Associations had not been a strong feature. The schools had experienced a large turnover of staff (senior graduates to staff new schools, some graduates to the public service, non-graduates to university). This limited the development of any bonding relation between teacher and students. Schools in which students succeeded relied less on teachers but the use of published past papers and answers.

Parents came to the school for discipline problems and not about performance of the student. These schools were viewed by the public and students as being of lower rating to the longer established schools with their reputation of house, island, and additional scholarships. This is what they had witnessed, what they remembered, and what they modeled.

The secondary school teachers have experienced successes and failures in their academic development. Some have failed a subject or entire course and have had to repeat the examination to obtain their
certification. Some, in spite of their abilities and industriousnesses to study, have been certified according to a rigid attenuation to the normal curve in evaluation of correctness of grading.

The above description portrays an economic system which has (a) removed to some extent superior academic and professionally qualified teachers from teaching at secondary school levels and (b) provided the secondary school system with the majority of teachers from the low and middle classes. In addition, a political and educational system that has contributed to the distribution of schooling in almost symmetrical fashion to the economic stratification of society. The effect of this is a teaching service which prepares students for higher education and the immediate world of work with a range of teachers with academic, professional, psychological competence and confidence to impact on students' cognitive and affective development. Further, at the senior comprehensive schools, the teaching staff is overwhelmingly made up of teachers who left high school and university in the post 1970 era, where a new consciousness among low and middle classes emerged. Since the 1960's, several groups had been formed espousing economic control, political control, "black" dignity and consciousness, increased social opportunities, and at times incurring antagonisms of the traditional and established middle and upper classes. The New World Movement, and Tapia House appealed to students, lecturers, and graduates of local/regional universities. The National Joint Action Committee was a coalition of radical trade unions, students, youth groups, and several cultural and sporting organizations. Social consciousness may probably have an effect on teachers.
CHAPTER II
Review of Research Literature

Some research has been done on variables socializing experiences, teacher performance, and teacher efficacy. The variables have not been conceived conceptually or arranged in the relationships as to be studied in this research (see Figure II). Nonetheless, they can give meaningful insights to certain assumptions relative to this study that socializing experiences (a cluster of variables) can impact on teacher's performance and efficacy.

**Socializing Experiences**

Socializing experiences include school climate, staff support, professional background, cultural involvement, administrative support (i.e., principal and curriculum supervisor role set) and family background. Some research has shown the necessity for staff cooperation and morale, administrative support, involvement in decision making, graduate school contributions as necessary for effectiveness in performing tasks.

Bosson (1977) sought to determine perceptions of classroom teachers relative to their involvement in various aspects of the administration of their schools (i.e., curriculum practices, and school management, personnel practices). The results showed that (a) females perceived more teacher involvement in curriculum practices and (b) teachers were more interested in being involved in the decision making process regarding curriculum practices.
Rice (1979) studied occupational socialization process of employed teachers to find out (a) when and how specific tasks were learned, (b) perceived importance of tasks, (c) circumstances under which task was learned, and (d) primary source of information about specific tasks. It seemed that tasks were learned through interaction between less experienced teachers and role occupants with more experience with tasks under consideration. In addition, (a) certain years in teaching careers were more important than other years for learning, (b) certain categories of tasks were mastered at certain points in career, and (c) a limited relationship existed between years of learning task and perceived importance of task. Variances in relative importance of sources were accounted for by tasks learned, sex, grade level taught, and years of teaching experience.

Lichtenstein (1980) studied the socialization of first socialized through series of interactions with students, other teachers, and administrators. Students proved to be most important socializers, determining what a teacher taught, the presentation of materials, and the manner in which teachers worked with students in professional and personal ways. Other teachers were helpful by providing concrete suggestions or advice on teaching and discipline. Administrators provided information on functioning of schools but relied on orientation and school handbook to present information. Rural school principals served a function like teachers and interacted on professional and personal basis while urban principals were aloof and professional.
Garcia (1980) sought in her study to identify whether (a) teachers' performance was directly related to in-service education, variety of teacher performance work setting characteristics and career characteristics, (b) variety of experiences were directly related to pre-service education and career pattern, and (c) work setting characteristics were related to pre-service education. The findings revealed (a) near zero relationships between earned degrees and teacher performance, and (b) near zero relationships between in-service education and quality of supervision.

Snyder (1981) focused on cultural expectations associated with role of teacher as these expectations helped shape a beginning teacher's sense of role and professional identity. The research showed that (a) teachers found minimal support from their peers and (b) teachers based definition of good teaching on their own high school teachers. Teacher colleagues often did not provide professional support of affirmation. It was perceived that climate of school was a factor in shaping beginning teacher's role definition.

Leveille (1981) sought to find out whether high morale teachers would have more satisfactory relationship with principals, would be more satisfied with degree of participation in decision making, and would have more satisfactory relationships with students and teachers. The study showed that high morale teachers had satisfactory relationships with teachers and participated in decision making. High morale teachers do not have more satisfactory relationships with students. Outside influences were important in determining level of morale.
Mize (1981) considered principal activities that lead to the conclusion that principals are key to effective schools and whether principals with those desired characteristics affect school achievement. Principals in high achieving schools manifested clear and definable differences from their counterparts in lower achieving schools. It was observed that successful principals were dominant leaders, took initiative in administering school and working with parents and teachers, were involved in a wide range of activities at school, were highly regarded by teachers, defined their role as organizer and integrator of activities, provided teachers with new ideas, and were in control of school operation.

Buettner (1982) investigated effects of certain aspects of graduate study and the workplace upon teacher professional role orientation. Aspects of graduate study observed were amount of graduate teaching, whether student did a thesis, whether he was a full time or part time student, and whether completed graduate practicum and had perceived autonomy in graduate school. Aspects of workplace looked at were perceived autonomy of workplace, degree of collegiality in workplace, and nature of supervision. The results showed (a) that graduate study and workplace variables accounted for fourteen percent (14%) to nineteen percent (19%) of variance in professional role orientation with the exception of one dimension, and (b) the pattern of effects for the graduate study and workplace variables differed for each particular dimension of professional role orientation and included both positive and negative effects though the research model hypothesized only positive relationships.
Cottrell (1982) did a phenomenological approach study to find out how successful English teachers with more than ten (10) years experience preserved their enthusiasm when so many were dissatisfied. These teachers emphasized intrinsic rewards served as a guiding purpose which provided validation for the job and was a link between their contentment and effectiveness in the classroom. They were dissatisfied with in-service education and valued the opportunity to learn from fellow teachers through dialogue and observation. They desired autonomy, control, and administrative support.

Wirasamita (1983) studied (a) whether variables of age, educational background, length of teaching experiences and length of industrial experiences influenced teaching performances of vocational industrial teachers, and (b) whether demographic variables affected factors of teaching performance ability to motivate students, ability to control students, subject matter orientation of teachers, student-teacher communication, teaching methods and procedures, and teacher fairness. The results showed that educational background of vocational/industrial education teachers had influence on teaching performance, teachers' abilities to motivate students, and to maintain student teacher communication. There were no significant differences in teaching performances with regard to age, length of teaching experience, and length of industrial experience.
Job Performance

Research on performance has mainly been on appraisal of teachers' jobs, performance of teachers in classrooms or teacher student interaction. The concern was mainly job satisfaction. Job satisfaction should contribute to one's performance in an organizational setting.

Job satisfaction analyzed in relation to factors internal or external to the school is usually associated with moral, and organizational climate and productivity. Job satisfaction is a result of pay, positive interaction with others, and the nature of the work. Job satisfaction should cause teachers to participate in school related activities and perform the necessary tasks related to instruction and contribute to efficacy. Role orientation, sex differences, professional experience, interpersonal relationships, socio-economic status, and organizational structure and climate contributed to job satisfaction.

Mendenhall (1977) did research (a) to determine the relationship of the structural aspects of the organization and the leadership behavior within organization to the organizational outcome of job satisfaction, and (b) to determine whether organizational structure or leadership behavior impacted more strongly on job satisfaction. The analysis showed (a) a relationship between organizational structure and job satisfaction, (b) significant negative relationship between formalization and job satisfaction, (c) significant negative relationship between centralization and job satisfaction, (d) significant positive relationship between principal behavior (i.e., support, goal emphasis, work
facilitation, interaction) and job satisfaction, and (e) leader behavior accounting for more of the variance on job satisfaction than organizational structure.

Dennis (1977) compared job satisfaction across three levels of teaching and four types of communities. Teachers at the elementary level displayed significantly higher satisfaction than middle and senior high school teachers in the total job description index. Teachers in rural areas exhibited higher satisfaction than those in urban or suburban areas in the sub-scale work. Elementary and middle school teachers displayed significantly higher satisfaction than senior high school level teachers in sub-scale supervision.

Williams (1981) investigated the effect of organizational structure of schools and role orientation of teachers on job satisfaction. The school structure was not a significant factor in job satisfaction. There was correspondence rather than conflict between bureaucratic organization and job satisfaction in organic schools, professional orientation and job satisfaction in mechanistic schools. Teachers with high professional orientation scored significantly higher on "Teacher Rapport With Principal, Teacher Satisfaction, School facilities and Service."

Nwaobasi (1981) investigated management system (i.e. leadership behavior) of elementary school principals as measured by Likert's profile of organizational characteristics, examined relationship between principal's management system and teacher's level of satisfaction, and examined differences in teacher's level of job satisfaction as
Wilson (1981) investigated teacher effectiveness as perceived by administrators to verify its relatedness to teachers' demographic data, teachers' assessment of organizational climate, and teachers expressed attitudes toward children and school work. The findings showed that perceived teacher effectiveness could be partially attributed to organizational climate, teacher demographic data, etc. Some schools in the sample showed relationship between older teachers and effectiveness. Number of years in education and both positive and negative effect on teacher effectiveness.

James (1981) observed that there were significant differences in importance of selected teaching activities and demographic data (sex, subject area specialty, enrollment in high school agriculture, etc.) and significant differences in expressed skill level of selected teaching activities and demographic factors.

Dodge (1982) examined both the perceived organizational factors and personal factors to determine how variation in these factors lead to variation in job satisfaction in teachers. The organizational factors were decision making, social support, and teaching anxiety. The personal factors included age, sex, job involvement, and years of teaching experience. Organizational factors accounted for thirty-three percent (33%) of the variance in job satisfaction while personal factors accounted for two percent (2%).

Oades (1983) examined the relationship of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Teacher motivation was significantly positively correlated with satisfaction.
Barnard (1983) examined the relationships between perceived leadership behavior and job satisfaction of teachers. A significant relationship existed between principal's scores on consideration, initiation of structure, and teacher's job satisfaction.

Vandenboogert (1983) studied teacher socio-economic status background and the pairing of teacher and student by similar and dissimilar socio-economic status background on the following (a) teacher classroom orientation, (b) teacher grading practices, and (c) teacher satisfaction and mobility. Teacher socio-economic status was not associated with work values, authority roles, and teacher satisfaction with teaching.

Holder (1984) examined the extent to which perceived leadership behavior of principals (i.e. aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, consideration) influenced job satisfaction of teaching staff. There was a positive association between level of teacher job satisfaction and principal's perceived level of aloofness.

Barahimi (1986) studied the relationship between organizational climate and teacher's job satisfaction. He found that the more open the school climate was the greater the teacher's general extrinsic and intrinsic levels of job satisfaction. School climate was also perceived to be most open in communities of highest socio-economic levels but least open by teachers having highest levels of education.

Purser (1986) used student achievement as an indicator of teacher effectiveness and included under teacher variables - race, sex, level of teacher certification, years of teaching experience,
and scores on teacher evaluation summative report. He found no significant relationship between collective or individual teacher variables and effectiveness.

Job satisfaction apart from being the result of organization or intrinsic properties of the individual could be due to certain prior factors that form the individual.

**Teacher Efficacy**

Showers (1980) examined teachers' efficacy expectations regarding their abilities to perform decision making tasks with actual participation in school decision making. The results showed (a) that higher efficacy expectations were associated with greater rates of teacher participation in school decision making, (b) greater past performance accomplishments, vicarious experience and verbal persuasion failed to predict higher teacher efficacy with respect to decision making compliance, (c) contributions of demographic characteristics to perception predicted although the effects of sex, subjects taught, year of teaching did not significantly affect the formation of efficacy feelings, and (d) organizational settings was influential in determining the degree to which teachers participated in decision making. Higher feelings of self-efficacy were positively associated with greater opportunities by participation.

McNeely (1983) through ethnographic interview research methods sought to identify, describe and analyze contextual factors that influenced high school Spanish teacher sense of efficacy. Teachers
sense of efficacy was qualitatively described by analyzing teachers' subjective accounts of their cognitive appraisals of and management strategies for dealing with problematic situations that had occurred in the context of teaching. The findings showed that teachers' sense of efficacy was influenced by collegial and principal support, class size, availability of classrooms and resources, job security, etc.

Conclusion

The research reviewed in this chapter showed (a) that organizational factors, level of motivation, low control of teacher, participatory leadership style, professional experience of teacher were predictors of job satisfaction, (b) that performance of teacher was related to high efficacy of teacher, the instructional leadership of principal, (c) teachers learned about their job performance through staff interaction, (d) that not only did high morale lead to group support and involvement in decision making but that external influences to the school contributed to teacher morale, (e) that teachers were socialized through interactions with students, staff, and administrators, (f) that efficacy was a result of collegial support, principal support, participation in decision making, and (g) that the influence of the teachers' own high school teacher was important.

As earlier stated, though variables researched were similar in some respects to variables in this study, the alignment of the variables are different and there is inclusion of other significant variables. In addition, most of the relative variables in the study were researched
in an elementary school setting and not at high school level. Further, the studies reviewed because of the statistical tools used did not show the amount of variance contributed by each independent variable separately and when grouped on the dependent variables. The key to the understanding of the concept socializing experiences and its impact on teacher performance and efficacy is the determination of the relative contributions of the varied constructs to the generic term socializing experiences.
CHAPTER III

Explanation of Theoretical Framework, Definition of Variables and Hypotheses

This chapter explains the theoretical framework and shows the linkage of the variables. Interpretations of the major sub-variables are given. Their definition for use in the research is given in Chapter IV. Hypotheses for the study are formulated.

The theoretical framework for this research is stated as follows, "teacher performance and teacher efficacy can be explained more by the variable school environment than the other variables of teacher development, demographic characteristics, and social environment which comprise socializing experiences."

The theoretical framework (Figure 2) shows a relationship between socializing experiences and teacher performance and efficacy. Teacher performance and teacher efficacy affect each other. High teacher performance should result in high teacher efficacy and vice versa. An efficacious teacher is motivated to perform well, thereby, satisfying Maslow's upper hierarchy of needs (self-actualization, self-esteem) or alternatively fulfilling the requirements of Herzberg's motivators (achievement, challenging work, responsibility).

Socializing experiences which affect teacher performance and teacher efficacy consists of contributions from a number of variables (school environment, teacher development, demographic characteristics, social environment). Clausen (1968) and Wentworth (1980) describes socialization as an interaction model, an activity that gives structure
THEORETICAL MODEL "A" (CLECLIF) EXPLAINED

school climate
staff support
teacher expectations
principal's instructional role set
principal's participatory style
curriculum officer's role set
teacher education program
parental attributes
cultural involvement
parents' socio-economic status
sex
age
ethnicity
school location
teaching area qualifications
years since teacher training
sex of school attended
type of school attended
leadership position
level of school where teacher liked
qualities liked in a teacher
level of school where teacher disliked
qualities disliked in a teacher

demographic variables

school environment

social environment

socializing experiences

teacher development

teacher performance

teacher efficacy

Figure 2
to the entry of non-members into an already existing structure or world. A variety of people (peers and others) intervened in the conduct of socialization. Individuals in roles received efficacy in constructing their content of socializing experiences. However, this interaction underwent phases and changes.

Socialization is a process of learning the requirements of a role (Parsons, 1951); (Merton, 1957); (Brim and Elkin, 1960). This social learning is transmitted through child care, education, acculturation, and occupational preparation (Clausen, 1968). All the variables, therefore, contribute to socializing experiences. However, the influence of school environment is perceived to be extremely important. Self, professional roles, and attitudes are developed as a result of social interaction and interpretative processes within the work setting (Van Maanen, 1972); (Katz, 1980).

School environment includes such characteristics as school climate, staff support, teachers' expectations, principal's instructional role-set, and principal's participatory style. If there is positive school climate, strong staff support, high teacher's expectation, effective use of principal's instructional role-set, and high involvement in principal participatory style, teachers would have high efficacy and high performance. Alternatively, variation in combinations of high and low could reduce teacher performance and its accompanying efficacy. Variation in school environment could be offset by teacher development, demographic variables, and social environment. For example, if school environment is poor, attributes of teacher development may contribute to good performance.
Snyder (1981) explained socialization as an organic dynamic maturation process which would affect teachers in individual ways depending on school climate and individuals' memory and history. In schools, teachers' positions are subordinate to principal and central office personnel. In this bureaucratic framework of school organization, the expected role of the teacher is implementing standardized curriculum, using certain approved methods and materials that would bring about student achievement. In this formal setting, teaching becomes an individual responsibility with principal being charged with making an evaluation of the teacher's effectiveness through the use of a confidential report. However, the principal can further impact on teacher performance by initiating participation of teachers in varied curriculum implementation strategies through coordinating teachers' alternative proposals for methods and materials that may differ from guidelines of central office, thereby, giving meaning to the curriculum as a response to students' interest and needs and community differences. Teachers, through peer interaction and principal interaction would develop morale, etc., impacting on their performance and efficacy. The principal, in dialoguing with teachers about the curriculum to meet students' needs would be utilizing other dimensions of teachers' socializing experiences (their teacher development, demographic characteristics, social environment) to allow teachers to respond creatively, consciously and challengingly to the task. As a result, the
instructional leader would be incorporating (a) managerial skills (participatory leadership), (b) human relations skills (school climate creation), and (c) technical skills (instructional role-set/planning) effectively enabling teacher performances that result in improved student achievement (see Figure 3).

The school environment should be a more significant contributor to socializing experiences than other variables since principals and teachers are engaged in interactive processes. The principal, as the formal leader on the building site, has three important responsibilities to perform, technical, human relations, and managerial. In effecting the technical skills, the principal is concerned with an instructional role-set. The principal plans, along with the teachers, the educational mission, goals and objectives of the school. these plans include the acquisition and effective utilization of resources. He remains abreast with content of subject areas, methodologies for teaching, and general perspective of changes within the educational processes to advise teachers and guide them. he is aware of current research that may influence all activities and experiences related to learning and teaching the school. The principal engages in supervision of teachers, observing their work, not to criticize them or make them feel insecure or threatened about their jobs. Supervision should be aimed at remedying difficulties, dialoguing about alternative plans, programs, processes.
Figure 3

Theoretical Model "B" (MEST) explained
Evaluation throughout and at the end of the school year would be done to see whether the mission and goals of the institution are being met, whether students' needs are being met, and whether societal needs are being met. In performing this instructional role-set in a courteous, constructive, and continuous manner, the principal creates the environment for teacher growth and development. The teacher feels good about himself/herself, the school, the job, and therefore, actual performance would be creditable. In performing instructional role-set to all teachers regardless of their age, qualifications, ethnic group, teachers would feel enthused to perform.

The principal, in exercising human relation skills, would be instrumental in creating a positive healthy school climate. Each individual would feel recognized and feel his needs were being met. As a result, teachers would be motivated to work at their highest capabilities, wanting to bring out the best in their peers and students. Staff support would be spontaneous and informal groups would be constructive. All this would contribute to increasing high expectations of principal and staff in the school environment. As a result of instructional role set provided by principals, teachers would feel that they could accomplish successfully whatever goals and objectives that would lead to a heightened sense of performance.

The principal in the education system is a bureaucrat holding an office with certain rights, responsibilities, and duties.
However, he may modify this role within the school environment by managing through participatory leadership. Teachers would be encouraged to give input regardless of their ages, qualifications, or experiences. Principal would not perceive teachers' abilities to give input to be limited by their educational, social, cultural, parental background or socio-economic status.

As a result of participatory leadership, teachers would not feel inhibited or constrained to make suggestions. Thus, leadership of principal would involve an awareness of the maturity and personality of teacher, the necessity to dialogue with teachers to obtain their sense of purpose, their hopes, and their expectations. Through this style, principals and teachers become more accepting of each other as they try to reach for those jointly set goals and objectives. Being a part of this decision making process, teachers would tend to perform. As a result school environment should be of significant contribution to performance and efficacy.

If the school environment is positive, teachers, regardless of teacher development, social environment, and demographic characteristics, would want to work. Their performance would increase their efficacy. However, if teacher performance is high in spite of poor school environment, other variables may be making a significant contribution. If school environment is low or negative it would be difficult for teachers who lack proper teacher development, social environment, and certain demographic characteristics to perform.
Teachers fortunate enough to have proper teacher development but have certain deficiencies in social environment, etc., may also be restricted in their performances.

If teacher's perceived performance at a senior comprehensive school is high and students' achievement remains low, answers have to be sought in the socio-political and economic environment, the social relations of the classroom during teacher performance, and other aspects of the educational area to explain this discrepancy.

The socializing experiences (teacher development, social environment, demographic characteristics) of teachers can affect the maturity level of teachers. As a result, teachers may not become over reliant on the school environment as being the sole motivating factor to direct their performance. Their goal directedness may be a result of intrinsic motivation, though a congenial school environment created by principal and peers would conceivably add extra impetus to their motivation. Given the peculiar circumstances of these schools, teachers' intrinsic motivation of social consciousness may be a factor contributing to their performance. However, their perception of their performance may be relatively high but the results from student academic performance may be poor because the task has not been interpreted properly. Moreover, alternative ways of teaching the curriculum to bring students to a level of competency to meaningfully participate and benefit from the curriculum may not have been suggested by the instructional leader (be it curriculum officer or principal). However, given the historical and
sociological reasons alluded to in the origin and growth of secondary school teaching body, this ability to deviate radically from set patterns may be stymied.

Parsons (1951) identified the occurrence of secondary socialization as adult role oriented learning for functional usefulness in a system. As a teacher becomes a professional, he is not only influenced by the principal or peers, but through experiences in teacher education programs and the curriculum officer. The teacher, therefore, acquires the necessary competencies and confidence that would equip him to perform the job well. A professional teacher, who is empowered, may mediate the school environment to accomplish the task. Empowerment may not necessarily correlate with academic and professional certification. This characteristic of the teacher may be a result of the culture of institutions attended, parental background, ideological persuasions, personal beliefs, etc.

Social environment is another sub-variable that affects teacher performance. Fox (1980) explained that attitudes to work are socially and culturally molded and affect relationships of subordination, dependency, and other variables. Inkeles (1968) discerned the influence of economic institutions, political structure, sociological factors, and modeling in the socialization process. He also noted that society made its concentrated effort to influence socialization through parenting roles, rituals, ceremonies, programs in schools, and use of sanctions. Society, though the family and other agencies, play a part in
determining how individuals perform. However, the economic wherewithal of the individual or his reference place in society may further control the kinds of experiences he may acquire.

Positive rewards of a social environment may strengthen the contributions of school environment, teacher development, and demographic characteristics, therefore, affecting teacher performance and teacher efficacy. Alternatively, where the other sub-variables are low in their contributions to socializing experiences, an individual, because of compelling factors in the social milieu which arouses a sense of social consciousness, may perform the task.

According to Clausen (1968), "socialization is accomplished through explicit efforts of socialization agents and social or contextual factors that influence an individual's life experiences" (p. 133).

**School Climate**

School climate has been described as contributing to effectiveness and excellence in schools regardless of socio-economic or ethnic composition of the student body. Climate is also perceived as teachers' perception of their work environment (Hoy and Clover, 1986) or an atmosphere emerging out of interaction of members in a work group (Schneider and Reichers, 1983). It is said that climate could be functional or dysfunctional to one's performance. Newell (1978) described climate of the organization as feelings of people as they experience each other. Positive school climate affected achievement, school pride, student and faculty self-image and self-esteem, and faculty and student morale.
(Eichotz, 1984). Kelley (1980) also observed that morale and climate are related but conceptually different terms, climate being a combination of satisfaction and productivity. He further suggested that climate of school environment was formed by the norms, beliefs, and attitudes reflected in conditions, events, and practices of a particular environment which endured over a period of time. He believed that assessment of climate in a school environment was to identify the expectations of those people who have a legitimate interest in the conditions which exist and the outcomes that occurred.

Hoy and Miskel (1982) described climate as the end product of students, teachers, administrator which resulted in shared values, social beliefs, and social standards, De Roche (1981) saw climate as a result of the interactive attitudes, behavior among teachers, administrators, and staff. An open climate was one where there was trust and openness, members were satisfied and felt that the work situation was a humane place to be.

The concept of open climate is a result of Halpin and Croft's (1966) investigation into organization climate. Their Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was used to measure perceptions of school climate. It has been suggested that this climate instrument is primarily a morale instrument rather than a climate instrument. Halpin and Croft found that ESPIRIT and THRUST had most meaning. Espirit was used to explain teacher support and satisfaction while thrust explained principal's motivation and example.
Broninsky (1984) observed that a consistently professional school environment contributed to teacher morale, and high pride which resulted in high morale. Morale could be built by recognition of work well done, positive discipline, courtesy, and good behavior. School climate therefore included pride in members about school environment and the task they were doing, members satisfaction with jobs and environment, and a feeling of solidarity. Hershey (1985) suggested that the primary determiners of true group morale were goal direction, emotional meaningfulness of the goal, progress towards the goal, and cohesiveness—with the latter being interactive perceptions of members as to their likeness about a variety of things.

Getzels and Guba (1960), in conceptualizing the school environment as a social system, identified three major dimensions which would have effect on behavior. One of these dimensions in the interactive system consisted of group, climate, and intentions. In the school, as a social system, the perceptions that role incumbents perform congruently according to their role expectations of others, contribute to behavior. Similarly, the perceptions by individuals that their needs are being met, and their personality is accepted contribute to behavior. The interactions of all this in a uniquely positive fashion contribute to a healthy climate.

School climate is, therefore, an important variable in the understanding of teacher performance and efficacy. School climate negatively impacting on the variable, school environment, may hinder teacher performance and reduce efficacy.
Staff Support

Olskewski and Doyle (1976) observed that in client independent relationships, professionals function in isolation from colleagues and, hence, constrained by clients' wishes and reactions. In colleague dependent conditions, professional performance is visible to fellow practitioners and, hence subject to colleague influence.

Teachers traditionally have worked alone in isolated classrooms, doing individual planning, and disciplining of students. Rosenholtz and Smylie (1984) noted that teachers spend large portions of their days isolated physically from colleagues. Further, their conversation about work does not take the form of problem solving - rather teachers engage in "experience swapping" where related classroom experiences were sympathetically shared. He suggested that little work related interaction among colleagues. Ideas about autonomy mediating strongly against their asking for or offering assistance. With possible risk of inadequacies, the beginning teacher's skills acquisition in traditional settings is limited almost entirely to trial and error learning.

Blumbers (1974) observed that teachers rarely sought help from colleagues, principals, and supervisors. Teachers' sole concern were their charges whom they taught in self-contained classrooms.

Bredson, Fruth, and Kasten (1983) reported that among teachers there was absence of collective consciousness. The need for greater effectiveness in disciplining students, and increased student achievement have increasingly led to more cooperation.
Chessler and Cave (1981) noted that a teacher's relationship with peers contributed to teachers' professionalization and performance. Ryan and Cooper (1985) observed teacher's colleagues as powerful influences on the positive side with ideas, teaching tips, and customs of the school. They described negative influences of fellow teachers as undermining a beginning teacher's idealism, lowering his/her standards, and offering no help at all.

Burrup (1967) expressed concern about teacher-teacher relationships, noting that cooperation between and among teachers was an absolute necessity for educational programs to have maximum effectiveness. Johansen, Collins, and Johnson (1975) remarked that a teacher must understand and get along with colleagues, fellow teachers, supervisors, and administrators. This may be a difficulty for some teachers and was largely dependent upon one's personality, attitude, values, and the extent a teacher likes and respects people in spite of the fact they may be different and possess weaknesses.

Clark and Starr (1981) explained that relationships among teachers could make the difference between happiness and success in one's work, unhappiness or even failure. Little (1982) noted that teachers in effective schools interacted to a greater extent about professional rather than social concerns and did so more often with a greater number of colleagues. In collegial settings, teachers more readily requested and gave advice and assistance and performed greater experimentation.
McNeil (1985) noted that in successful schools more members of the teaching staff discussed their teaching. The teachers were organized as a team, making collective decisions about instructional matters for a common population of students. He suggested that a school with shared values was often characterized by (a) talk among teachers about manipulative variables—methods of teaching, materials and external variables—pupil background, community attitudes (b) frequent observations by teachers of each other's teaching, and (c) teachers working together for planning, designing, and preparing teaching materials.

Cohen (1973) observed that in collegial settings where teachers were given recognition for special competence, professional pride in helping younger teachers blossomed. In collegial settings, teachers perceived themselves as influential and efficacious.

Staff support in the formal organization of the school seemingly rests in the more fundamental issue of group phenomenon. Mayo (1933) contributed the importance of groups as a controller of work behavior. Groups set the limits on initiative and output and at times resist official demands and requirements of jobs. Group effectiveness may be determined by the cohesiveness of group and their motivation to be together.

The teaching staff may consist of a number of social groups. These groups emerge spontaneously from among interactions of social equals who are likely to share same life conditions or interests.
These groups emerge spontaneously from among interactions of social equals who are likely to share same life conditions or interests. These groups may represent subject interests, professionalization, status differences, perceptions. These may result in a power play among groups affecting consensus, support for activities, and execution of functions.

Teachers on a staff have been conditioned by different socializing experiences. Teachers who have experienced cooperation, and mutual support would promote this characteristic through various academic and non-academic programs for positive outcomes. Thus, regardless of academic or professional training, socio-economic status, family background, role-set of principal or curriculum supervisor, such teachers would give support to organizing and implementing activities for fulfillment of goals. Staff that have emphasized planning, completion of forecasts, work records, use of audio visual aids, attendance at Parent-Teacher Association (P.T.A.) meetings, and empathy for students and their activities, create a supportive positive socializing experience for teachers. The exemplary teacher, the mediocre teacher, and the shirker would be motivated by the standard the staff as a group have set and, therefore, tend to conform. Variations in staff support result in variations in teacher behavior. Some teachers would try to meet set standards, other would be indifferent resulting in a cancer of incompetence. Teachers who have had meaningful socializing experiences
are accustomed to executing details of their job specifications and experiencing high efficacy. They would not be cowered by little or no staff support. Such teachers would also fail to adhere to agreements of staff that may result in negative attitudes and behavior.

**Teacher Expectations**

Smith and Cox (1976) observed that teachers trained in programs of high academic content usually find working with students of low intelligence unrewarding, especially in homogenous classrooms where students lack intellectual curiosity. Ornstein (1976) contended that teachers of disadvantaged students viewed students as adversaries, saw no tangible result in hard work, and felt no sense of accomplishment. The teacher is forced into an uncaring situation to maintain his mental health and disposition.

Henderson and Biben (1970) observed that teachers of disadvantaged students expected little in terms of academic performance and got little in return. Teachers did not disguise their contempt and gave up easily before providing children with a chance to succeed. Good and Brophy (1971) suggested that behavior of teachers with low expectations affected their performance. Students did not receive necessary materials to learn because teachers did not try to teach as much. Teachers gave up easily and quickly in things they tried to teach. Students' motivation is stifled and they developed a sense of alienation. Teachers who have low expectations lose confidence in their abilities to teach and
adopt the attitude that children are unable to learn. Failure expectations become firmly established. Such teachers unconsciously abandon teaching efforts, going through motions to reassure himself that children cannot learn. So accustomed is he to failure with students of low expectations, opportunities are missed in recognizing success and encouraging and stimulating students to new learning.

Teacher's encounter with students can affect teacher-in-school socialization. Continuous interaction with disadvantaged students may affect teacher - depending on the teacher's disposition and prior influence. Teachers with low expectations would experience frustration and failure. A teacher with inadequate assistance from principal, curriculum supervisor, and staff may give up trying. Self-efficacy decreases. Teachers with low self-concept become disenchanted with work do the minimum of activities required in job description. They became neglectful if there was no monitoring of work by supervisor. Teachers with high self-efficacy would seek alternative strategies to perform in order to develop close relationships with students and meet their needs. Through stimulation and encouragement they encouraged students' progress. Such teachers would view it as their responsibility to make students learn and would perform without support of educational colleagues or parents.

Principal's Instructional Role Set

Clark and Genty (1984) described the principal's most important role as that of instructional leader and suggested that principal's job description should be clear on its emphasis on instruction. Lovell
and Willes (1983) observed that the principal's primary efforts were (a) to define and evaluate school's goals, (b) plan and evaluate instructional program to achieve these goals, (c) attract, select, support, and facilitate professional growth of staff members, and (d) see that adequate and appropriate instructional materials, equipment, and facilities are provided. The Education Act of Trinidad and Tobago (Act No. 1 [1966]:cl.27) included among the responsibilities of principals:

the suitable application of the syllabus in conformity with the needs of the pupils of the school and the administration of the school's program, teaching, allocation and supervision of duties and responsibilities of members of their staff (p. 16).

Effective principals (a) function as instructional leaders, (b) insure that materials are educationally adequate and readily available to all teachers, (c) allocate time according to program priorities for optimal student achievement, and (d) build trust (strother, 1983). Principals, he explained, should monitor types, amounts, and uses of instructional materials. Further, the lack of training and experience in classroom would limit the credibility of principals and without mastery of curriculum content principals would find it difficult to assert themselves as instructional leaders.

Supervisory responsibilities in the instructional program is the most important task of a principal but teachers do not recognize him as an instructional leader (Gorton, 1966). Roe and Drake (1974)
analyzed the job of principals into two categories; (a) administrative managerial emphasis, and (b) educational and instructional leadership. Outlined as important to administrative management was smooth operation of school, instruction, resources to support instruction, overseeing of and supervision of programs and teaching processes as required by central office. Other requirements were maintaining adequate records, budgeting, personnel administration, student discipline, scheduling, pupil accounting, and building administration.

Characteristics of educational and instructional leadership included (a) changing behavior of those involved in teaching and learning acts aimed toward achieving goals of schools, (b) building a cohesive social system within a school which "pulls together" to achieve schools' goal, (c) developing a dynamic curriculum and implementing educational processes to create a stimulating and creative learning environment, (d) developing an environment to release talents of teachers, encouraging them to work together, and (e) involving students, parents, and the community into the process.

Jacobson, Lodsdon, Wiegman (1973) noted that the principal's most important tasks were the improvement of instruction. They perceived it was the principal's responsibility to request changes that would allow more time for consideration of instructional needs.

Neagley, Evans, Lynn (1969) observed that the principal set tone for the educational process and his enthusiasm for excellence in teaching and learning would be infectious. The principal worked with individual teachers and entire staff helping them become teams. His
leadership should be concerned with improving instruction and developing effective learning resources. He supervised instruction. He encouraged teachers to experiment with audio visual aids, and to participate in district wide curriculum committees. He allowed them to plan faculty meetings on topics pertaining to the curriculum and learning resources.

Lovell and Wiles (1983) affirmed the role of principal as instructional leader. These responsibilities included; (a) attracting, selecting, supporting and facilitating professional growth of staff members, (b) evaluating and coordinating the work of professional personnel, and (c) seeing that adequate and appropriate instructional materials, equipment, and facilities were included.

Keefe (1987) contended that principal's roles included instructional leadership whereby they provided direction, resources, and support to teachers. He conceptualized instructional leadership into four domains (i.e. formative, planning, implementation, and concluded that effective instructional leadership demanded (a) knowledge of the learning process, (b) a systematic program to utilize resources of schools, and (c) collegial and collaborative involvement of all members of the school community.

Parental Attributes

Spindler (1959) observed that majority of public school teachers originated from middle and lower class culture. Reid (1964) observed that social-economic status was an important variable in personality development. Sexton (1969) found that historically teachers have come from middle class and upper income groups but recent studies indicated
they were coming from lower income groups. Holt (1969) observed teachers came from predominantly non-intellectual or even anti-intellectual lower middle class backgrounds and that they entered teaching because it was the only profession their limited abilities allowed them to and because it was safe and secure.

Socialization in the family included one learning the rudiments of social interaction role behavior and the context of one's culture (Cave and Chesler, 1981). Economic pressures influenced family life, affecting parent-child relationships. Children from low income parents were expected to conform to authority, had little opportunity for autonomous decision making and tended to conform and be docile because these were behaviors appropriate to the kind of jobs parents hold (Morgan, Alvin, Griffin, 1979).

Children from middle income families have a different orientation. They manipulate ideas, demand self-direction, analyze complex situations choose a course of action, and see it through to the finish. Children from high income parents live in a world of choice, discussion and reasoning. He alerted us to the fact that economic class was not the sole determinant of how parents interact with their culture (Webb, 1981).

Miller (1970); Swift (1976); and Entwistle (1976) also expressed the view that social class per se is of limited directed importance to problem of school achievement. Miller's (1970) findings showed that parental interest, parent-child behavior were associated with educational
performance in primary school. Hallinger and Murphy (1986) concluded that the home environment was a powerful educational variable because the parental expectations shaped the child's attitude and belief about learning.

Kohn (1969) noted that middle class parents placed emphasis on children's self-direction (i.e. self control, responsibility, curiosity) while working class parents stressed conformity to external authority (cleanliness, good manners, obedience). Kerchoff (1972) observed that in child's early years basic social, academic, language skills are developed. Campbell (1969) noted that influence on offspring remained strong and grew more stable. Middle class parents' attitudes and home environment were a result of job activities and duties. Middle class jobs were more complex, less heavily supervised, and less routinized. They allowed individuals to initiate action, to rely on judgement, to be intellectually flexible, and to handle uncertainty and independence. Working class jobs called for adaptation to setting, provided less complexity greater supervision, demanded following rules, and structured behavior to pace work flow.

Argyris (1969) suggested that years of experience with varying degrees of frustration, conflict, dependence, apathy, and failure influence and become part of working class culture and are communicated to children.

Teachers come from a continuum of social class background with conflicting value orientations. Some of these may have been modified by involvement in social groups and organizations. Some individuals
have grown up in families where there was high involvement formally and informally in the activities of the community. Individuals accustomed to this usually do likewise in their adult life, the effect of modeling. In addition, socialization of individuals in a family at some time included suggestions that "one should help, one should do a good job."

Teachers from middle and upper class backgrounds would have exposure to wider socio-cultural experiences. Their parents would have belonged to one or more formal and/or informal organization catering for personal, community or societal uplifting. Parents would have derived experiences in leadership positions through office or committee work. Parents would have worked with individuals of differing abilities and socio-economic status. Such parents would encourage their children to participate in some organizations. These children (possible future teachers) would (a) have acquired organizational skills, (b) be knowledgeable about support systems, and (c) be motivated and people oriented. These children in academic and non-academic work would have experienced performances to make them highly efficacious. These children, as adults, would in whatever environment or job occupation try to accomplish their tasks well. Some teachers from low status backgrounds would have had variations in these opportunities and experiences or none at all. If the school or post-elementary education did not provide opportunities for non-academic development or alternatively an individual refused to take part in such activities, it placed limitations on the kinds of experiences he may provide for students.
Family background influences personality and behavior, circumscribes avenues of experiences and opportunities, determines to some extent aspirations and the resources to make these aspirations realized. Family background is interrelated with socio-economic status and socio-cultural experiences. It affects one's academic background and professional training. As it formulated one's perception and interaction, it influenced working relations with colleagues, principals, and supervisors. As a result of one's family background and early socialization, one may be meticulous or laizzez faire about one's performance of a role.

Cultural Involvement

Campbell (1969) suggested that the family exerted less of an influence on individual's development as the influence of school settings and peer group increased. Morgan, Alvin, Griffin (1979) observed that self-directive parents not only permitted more complex, autonomous and interpersonal experiences but encouraged participation in social complexities offered by extra-curricula activities. Alwin and Thornton (1984) claimed during adolescence the social composition of the school and the peer groups had a more powerful impact on some aspects of development than the child's family of origin or at least family influenced becomes more subtle. Alexander, Saylor, Williams (1971) considered that for a teacher to have a deep concern for youth with whom he works, it was desirable that he have had experiences in knowing, relating to, and working with people with a wide variety of background, experiential patterns, talents, social, cultural and personal experiences.
Further, the teacher should have had mutually satisfactory relationships with a variety of people constituting the spectrum of social, economic intellectual, creative, and occupational experiences. Teachers participating in community activities interact with people of different socio-economic status, abilities, and achievement. It develops cooperation and commitment, and an awareness of differing values and perceptions. In these activities, the teacher becomes highly efficacious because of success in individual and group projects. Teachers would therefore transfer these acquired traits into the school environment.

Parents' Socio-Economic Status

According to Giroux (1981), students' socializing experiences are determined to a great extent by socio-economic background. Social and economic characteristics of parents played a strong role in shaping opportunities for children which provided differential experiences and consequently differential access to positions in the occupational structure (Alwin and Thorton, 1984). Socio-economics environment during adolescence represented a greater variety of influence, reflecting not only the cumulative effects of early training and late experiences that build upon them, but also influence contemporary experiences in the family.

Occupation and income level contributed significantly to one's social class (Anyon, 1980). Socio-economic status affect a host of outcomes from academic ability and school performance to projected
economic well being (Sewell and Houser, 1975, Griffin and Alexander, 1978). Kohn (1977) saw the significance of social class as that which provides systematically differentiated conditions of life affecting man's view of social reality. Family position in the system of social stratification influenced behavior and values, for, depending on this position, money, prestige, power, and resources available to family vary (Rodman, 1971). The family's status and resources are influenced by man's occupation. Hallinger and Murphy (1986) observed the social class influenced the educational beliefs, preferences, and expectations of both parents and school staff.

Socio-economic status has usually been determined by occupation and income. Miller (1970) recognized the limitation of occupational structure which may be important in dealing with human behavior. Rhynie and Hamilton (1984) described socio-economic status as gauging an individual's hierarchy in society, but also recognized limitations of using occupational status and suggest that lifestyle be used as an index to measure socio-economic status.

The parents of teachers in this study belonged to that period when the male in the family was traditionally the income earner. The occupation of the father influenced family's position in the social class hierarchy. The social class lines were heavily influenced by shared history of plantation economy and its early economic diversification (Stone, 1972). Occupation, income, and ethnicity contributed to one's academic, socio-cultural opportunities in colonial and post-colonial societies. Certain social groups and organizations had written and
unwritten restrictions for participation, thus, limiting opportunities to some extent for socialization of present teaching body. Schools could be ranked in a hierarchical order which positively correlated with the quantity and quality of extra-curricula activities, program, staff, and academic offerings.

Miller (1971); Cross and Schwartsbaum (1969) suggested the relation of income/occupation to selection in secondary schools. Students from low social class would have a different socialization in terms of values and orientation in a high status or prestige school. This would be further categorized if the school was denominational or government in character. These experiences may be both meaningful or traumatic for low social class students. The income of parents may limit one from certain extra-curricula activities. Income level may determine one's motivation to academic success. If mobility was seen as an essential dimension to be derived from academic success, successful performance would result in high self-efficacy. Students would also concentrate more on studying than participating in extra-curricula activities and would indeed get support from parents who valued academic achievement. Likewise, if parents perceived participating in extra-curricula activities as assisting future employment and mobility, individuals would be encouraged to pursue these activities from parents of all social classes. On the other hand, most middle class and upper class children would participate in these activities as a norm. Income level to some extent determined opportunities. Income level to some
extent determined opportunities for experiences to receive success at a variety of opportunities to maintain variety of opportunities to maintain high self-efficacy.

Some teachers from low income backgrounds may encourage students to work hard. This teacher's own success may condition him to be efficacious, and to perform his job well, so that students could achieve. On the other hand, a teacher from low income background with low efficacy may be restricted to minimal performance, convinced that he has "made it," and if students "have no ambition" that's their business. Teachers from middle income and high income who have positive socializing experiences, high self-efficacy would be motivated to high performance at their jobs... on the other hand teachers from middle and upper income with low self-efficacy would perform poorly at their jobs and be not concerned with students' achievement.

Rist (1980) claimed that teachers based their expectations of performance on social status of student, assuming the higher the social status, the higher the potential of the child. Children of low status therefore suffer a stigmatization outside of their choices or will.

Teachers to be studied were products of the above. Teachers rarely came from high income levels, a few came from middle class. Most teachers from middle class origin, even if they began teaching, sought employment in other occupations after a time. Those who remained obtained transfers "to better schools." Robinson (1981) concluded that a characteristic of teaching as an occupation is the lowly social class
origins of its recruits, that when the social class background of teachers is compared across schools, the proportion of those from working class home declined as the social status of school increased.

**Curriculum Supervisor's Role-Set**

Gorton (1976) described supervision as those activities engaged in by one or more individuals who have as their main purpose the improvement of a person, group, and program. Lovell and Wiles (1983) described the activities of the central office instructional supervisor to include (a) support and service directly to teachers to help them improve performance, (b) working with certain groups of students, (c) developing teachers professionally and personally, (d) providing content and reliable sources to help keep up with new content development, and (e) developing and evaluating educational objectives, programs and instruction.

Esposito, Smith, Burbach (1975) outlined four categories of supervisory tasks; (a) indirect service to teachers, (b) direct service to teachers, (c) administrator, and (d) evaluator. These categories could be grouped under two general classifications; (a) helpers, and administrative. The characteristics outlined for helpers (direct) and indirect services) include the following; (a) establishing communication between persons who have similar problems and resource persons who can help them, (b) stimulating staff members to look at extent to which ideas and resources are shared and the degree to which persons are encouraged and support to try new ideas, (c) listening to individuals discuss problems and recommend other sources that may help in the
search for solutions, (d) bringing to individual teachers whose confidence they possess appropriate suggestions and materials, (e) observing and analyzing teaching and providing helpful feedback, (f) doing demonstration teaching when appropriate, (g) helping teachers design and implement innovations in their teaching, (h) recommending that administration examine irritations among staff members, and (i) assisting people to accept each other, because they know when individuals value each other they grow through their actions and will provide better emotional climate for pupil growth. The characteristics outlined for administration include (a) managing, controlling and coordinating programs, (b) having responsibility for quality control in instructional programs, and (c) evaluating teacher performance for personal discussion. The Education Act of Trinidad and Tobago Act No. 1 (1966) specified the duties of supervisors as (a) supervising and inspecting program of education required by curriculum, and (b) conducting and supervising course of instruction and training for untrained teachers in service, as well as other courses for other teachers.

Sandy (1979) found that trained and untrained teachers in primary schools of Trinidad and Tobago perceived curriculum supervisory staff as not performing an educational role-set. This role-set was described as (a) development of teacher's and pupil's materials for instruction and curriculum development, (b) identification of problems and seeking alternatives, (c) the circulation of updated relevant information to teachers, (d) demonstrating to teachers useful methods, and (e) using
skills to improve positive interaction with subordinates. These supervisors mentioned were also assigned to secondary schools.

Curriculum supervisory staff performing their role-set should provide continuous growth for teachers. Teachers in departments may be more supportive of one another with innovations as a result of the performance of curriculum supervisor. These teachers would try to have positive student encounters with all students. Teachers would have enthusiasm to perform fully their job specifications. Success in their achievement would contribute to teacher efficacy and performance.

**Academic Background**

Academic background focuses on the academic background of teachers. Individuals who perform well on tests receive different certification when they meet the criterion for demarcation of merit. Academic background focuses on the characteristics related to the cognitive achievement of teachers. Ferris and Winkles (1986) suggested that teaching has long attracted disproportionately large number of college graduates with low academic ability. Schelechty, Vance (1983) noted that education has difficulty in attracting and retaining services of academically able college students. They, however, add that teaching does attract many who are academically quite proficient but they do not stay.

It seems that teachers with high levels of demonstrated academic competence do not stay because they have more occupational opportunities available to them (Ferris, Winkles, 1986). In addition, schools have
not been able to provide environment and career opportunities that are attractive to the academically able. Goodlad (1983) observed the following factors as discouraging the best and brightest from entering teaching as a career or staying long: (a) salary structure, (b) circumstances of school environment, (c) seniority and in-service credits not necessarily related to teaching competence and sole avenue for upward mobility.

Villeme and Hall (1984) reported that academically gifted students may not seek teaching positions after they graduate. He noted that higher ability teachers place less emphasis on use of behavioral objectives in the instructional process and are less likely to use penalties as a tool in classroom management. There seemed to be no difference between higher and lower ability teachers in the use of other selected teaching practices. Higher ability teachers tended to like communication and interaction aspects of teaching as opposed to lower ability teachers. In a school situation, where individuals have a variety of certification, the more certified a teacher becomes may increase feelings of self-worth. They may tend to be more openly critical about the work setting than other teachers. They may be more independent in their work habits on the job. They may use more variety in methodologies. These factors would contribute to a greater sense of efficacy and performance.

**Teacher Education Program**

Spindler (1959) expressed the view that teachers were trained and accredited to their status and roles. He added that professional
educational instruction and training consisted not only of courses and techniques, but that every institution with a history, internal organization, specialized personnel has a subculture. Certain values, symbols, beliefs, and certain basic premises are patterned into the substructure and process of the institution. He expressed concern about the relationship between the culture that school teachers bring to the professional teacher-training institution, the patterning of the subculture, the adaptation of the teacher in training and the adaptation that the teacher in training makes to this patterning and the consequences in selecting culture transmission in the classroom.

McPherson (1981) commented that teacher training, both preservice and on-the-job-training has ignored the development of teacher's personal capacities and has left them less capable of fulfilling the larger goals the society has for education. Giroux (1983) noted that teacher education has not given teachers the conceptual tools they need in order to view knowledge as problematic and historically conditioned, socially constructed phenomena. Katz (1975) observed that teacher education institutions reinforced dominant societal goals and ideologues and socialized teachers so that they become agents of assimilation ideology.

Chesler and Cave (1981) described the process of instruction in teacher education institutions as lecture oriented, seldom presenting students with a wide repertoire of instructional design. He asserted
that graduates of this pre-service socialization are not prepared for reality of their roles in schools, for creative forms of instructional interaction with students.

Fantini and Sinclair (1985) observed (a) that the pedagogy found in most of the classrooms studied is the kind of teaching to which teachers had been exposed from the time they first attended schools as students, and (b) classes in pedagogy employed largely didactics methods and suggested that students imitate teaching behaviors that they experienced as students than those recommended and not modeled.

The importance of professional background as a socialization experience would be reflected in (a) content, courses, and methods used and taught, (b) organizational interaction of staff and students, (c) socio-cultural environment of the department, (d) its extension services, (e) socialization of its staff with reference to (i) the kinds of higher learning institutions they have been exposed to, (ii) their variety of experiences in education, (iii) their research capability, (iv) their involvement in non-departmental activities, and (v) the opportunities and experiences it provided students to observe phenomena.

There existed variation in teacher education programs which impacted on trainees differently. the expectations of students are not similar. Prior experiences of trainees are different, their attitudes, values, involvement, and purposes affect the increments of development they attain. the resulting performance of job specification would indicate differences.
Professionally trained teachers in Trinidad and Tobago at secondary level can be categorized as (a) foreign trained, and (b) locally/regionally trained. At the local level they are graduates of different institutions (a) teacher training programs for primary school teachers, (b) teacher training programs for secondary school teachers, and (c) teacher training programs for technical/vocational school teachers. Their personnel, content, methods, and mission reflect different emphases, perceptions, and socializations. Each recruited its students from different strata of the teaching profession. If deficiencies in professional growth were not rectified by curriculum officer, principal, through staff support, and performance of job specifications, interactions in the classroom would be differentiated.

**Self-Efficacy**

Self-efficacy can be described as judgements of one's performance capabilities in a given domain of activity (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy can influence choice of activities (Schunk and Hanson, 1985). The construct self-efficacy has been researched to see its influence on cognitive learning and student performance. However, the construct could prove to be useful on a wider application. Bandura (1977) suggested that one's behavior is determined by both a general outcome expectancy (belief that behavior would lead to desirable outcomes) as well as a sense of self-efficacy (belief that one has requisite skills to bring about the outcome). Outcome expectancy reflected the degree
to which students can be taught given family background, socio-economic status, and school conditions. Bandura (1977) saw self-efficacy as providing subjects with modeling guided performance, corrective feedback, and self-directed mastery which would further foster self-development of skills and self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy can be used to understand motivated learning and it can influence level of performance (Schunk, 1981). The higher the level of perceived self-efficacy the greater the performance and accomplishments. If self-efficacy is lacking, people tend to behave ineffectually even though they know what to do (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy has been attributed to be a concern with judgements of how well one can organize and execute a course of action that may contain novel, unpredictable, and stressful elements (Schunk, 1983). Students with low self-efficacy avoid tasks, students with high self-efficacy participate more eagerly. Teacher efficacy has been described as a variable accounting for differences in teaching effectiveness. A teacher's belief of one's ability to instruct students may account for individual differences (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Teacher's sense of efficacy was positively related to project goals achieved, amount of teacher change, and improved student performance (Dembo and Gibson, 1985). High efficacy teachers spent more time monitoring and checking seatwork (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). There was a significant relationship between a teacher's sense of efficacy and student achievement (Ashton and Webb, 1982). In a sample of junior and middle school students, more high than low
efficacy teachers maintained high academic standards, had clear expectations, maintained students on task behavior, and concentrated on academic instruction. Evans and Tribble (1986) commented that teacher efficacy has been used to conceptualize and explain individual differences in teaching effectiveness, and predicting actual classroom behavior. They also observed that pre-service elementary and female teachers (regardless of teaching specialities) have a stronger sense of teacher efficacy and commitment to teaching than do their secondary and male counterparts. Behavior is not only modified through psychological changes but through one's socialization and through observation.

Bandura (1981; 1982) noted that people acquire information about self-efficacy from performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and inferences from psychological states. Bandura (1982) observed that choices during formative periods shape life paths through selection development of competences, personal interests, and affiliative interests. Schunk (1981; 1984) noted that percepts of self-efficacy also influence level of skill performance. Bandura, Reese, Adam (1982) noted that the higher levels of self-efficacy the greater are performance attainments. Cerone and Peake (1986) commenting on research observed that social influences fostered behavioral change by strengthening expectations of self-efficacy.

A teacher with high self-efficacy would perform well in spite of negative situational circumstances. This would further increase self-efficacy of the teacher. Teachers with high self-efficacy should perform just as well with low ability students in high status schools.
Similarly, a low efficacious teacher should perform poorly in any situation which would affect his self-efficacy. Success patterns in socialization experiences, positive feedback in those experiences, and the stimulating environment in socializing experiences should therefore contribute to high self-efficacy and performance.

**Job Performance**

In a school, the job of the teacher is considered to be the performance of teaching duties and participation in school-related activities. Effective performance has been seen related to increased productivity and student achievement.

Vroom (1964) contended that performance is a multiplicative function of valency, motivation, and ability. Motivation is a process governing choices made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activities. Choice was voluntary behavior as a result of conscious or unconscious selection of specific actions from those that are possible.

Lawler III and Porter (1969) argued for low but consistent relationships between satisfaction and performance with satisfaction being dependent on performance. Satisfaction of high order needs was seen as closely related to performance amongst management employees. Lawler III (1985) outlined that organizational design features are more likely to increase individual performance capabilities. Organization design features included pre-employment skills, learning opportunities,
and motivation. Performance capabilities of an individual were observed
as a function of the degree to which people were motivated to build
their skills, the learning opportunities provided, and the skills with
which they enter the working place.

To carry out the specifications of one's job implies that an
individual made certain decisions. Making decisions is the selection
of choices or alternatives to fit a particular situation. One's acqui-
sition of an array of alternatives is dependent on one's socializing
experiences. To perform within the classroom, teachers make con-
sciously or unconsciously choices from academic pursuits, professional
training, interaction with principals, curriculum supervisor, staff,
students, and previous and present lifestyles. These decisions deter-
mine values, concepts, and actions.

Peterson, Marx, Clarke (1978) distinguished between two kinds of
teacher decisions, planning and interactive decisions. Planning deci-
sions are those decisions made prior to the act of teaching while
interactive decisions are made during the act of teaching. Models of
teacher planning can be described as a process of selecting educational
objectives, diagnosing learner characteristics, and choosing alternative
instructional strategies in order to achieve desired learning outcomes.
They suggested that teachers focused primarily on content to be taught
and rarely considered educational objectives, learning characteristics
or instructional strategies. Further, differences in teacher planning
are a result of differences in cognitive processing.
Morine and Vallence (1975) concluded that teachers who differed in cognitive styles differed in planning. Hunt and Sullivan (1974) perceived teachers who are high on conceptual level to engage in planning that is more differentiated and integrated.

Zahorik (1975), in studying planning of teachers, found content to be taught, selection of learning activities, and choice of materials were well done. However, he found that teachers were low on planning specification of learning objectives, evaluation, diagnosing, organization of the learning environment and instructional strategies. Goodlad, Klein and Associates (1974) found that most teachers neither planned nor taught with specific learning objectives in mind. Peterson, Marx, Clarke (1978) found that even though teachers were provided with a list of cognitive and affective student objectives, they did not refer to them in planning nor did they relate choices of instructional processes to learning objectives.

Adamany (1986) sought to discover teaching techniques which assisted low socio-economic high school students to attain high levels of achievement. The results showed the strongest support for instructionally effective teaching behaviors as time on task, organizing for student success, monitoring of seatwork, relating new learning to prior experiences, more review, and more assessment.

Performance has also been viewed as teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness has also been studied but has been usually determined by students' results. Teacher effectiveness has also been studied in relation to the Flanders' Interaction Model.
Torres; Stanovik (1981) studied the attributes of effective teaching that should be included in a teacher evaluation report. The results show that of thirty-one (31) items teachers chose twenty-seven (27) to be included. These were (a) attributes which related to relationships between teachers and students, (b) attributes which related to encouragement and motivation of students by teachers, and (c) attributes which related to subject matter and techniques. The four items which were not selected are (a) possession of humor, (b) involvement of students in course planning, (c) identification of course objectives to students, and (d) use of diverse resources in instruction.

Performance of teachers could also be viewed in terms of effective instruction. Levin and Long (1981) suggested (a) the importance of selection of appropriate cues, (b) alternative patterns of instruction, (c) diagnosis of individual differences, (d) knowledge of cognitive prerequisites, and (e) necessity for feedback and correction to modify learning process. Effective instruction entails the use of media instructional aids, (Carrol, 1968) and new information technologies (Mojokowski, 1987). Teachers should be encouraged to use more effectively high order thinking strategies (Sadler, Jr., Whimbey, 1985). Finally, parental involvement has also been shown to be necessary in student achievement (Epstein, 1982).

Teacher performance seems to be affected by socializing experiences. The behavior and response of the worker and his work situation should be understood in relation to the expectations of the worker brings to the enterprise as a result of his social experiences and relationships outside work (Goldthrope, 1982).
Principals' Participatory Style

Organizations have been classified as social systems. Homans (1950) viewed social systems as consisting of tasks people perform (activities), behavior occurring between individuals performing tasks (interactions), and attitudes that develop between individuals and groups in the social system (sentiments). He suggested that a close relationship existed among activities, interactions, and sentiments.

Parsons (1968) particularized each formal organization as a social system developing its own differential sub-systems to satisfy needs. Organizational structures must be developed to enable organizations to adapt to its environment and provide resources for its operation. An organization to solve integrative problems must find ways to command loyalties of members, to motivate their effort and coordinate operations of various sections.

A school can be perceived as a social system where there are goals to be achieved, tasks to be performed, attitudes to be developed, behavior to be expected for certain roles, and sections to be integrated. A social system needs some structure to coordinate activities and individuals to achieve goals. The system, therefore, in its structural development has placed the principal as leader to facilitate human behavior to achieve goals. The principal can do this by functioning in the bureaucratic system, human relations system, and human resources system. Certain styles of leadership may result in greater performance of the teachers at their job specifications according to
the situation, where these become operational and the immaturity/maturity level of the individual, thus, contributing to efficacy. Teachers, because of their socializing experiences, may show an extremely high level of performance and efficacy under particular kinds of organizational structure.

A bureaucratic system has certain observable characteristics. These include hierarchy of officers, specialization of jobs, official rules and regulations, written documents, trained officials, prescribed role expectations, top down communication, and task orientation. These factors contribute to efficiency. In a school, teachers (a) should be professionally trained to carry out their tasks, (b) would keep records, forecasts, students' personal data, (c) maintain uniform operations, and (d) would expect close supervision. Teachers would therefore be performing well, be productive, and efficient. However, in this model (a) staff support would be minimal, (b) teachers, in trying to meet set standards, may restrict their operations to those who meet standards, (c) teachers may become frustrated and ignore those who are not performing well, and (d) teachers may not be attempting to meet the needs of the clientele being taught.

Mayo (1983), Selznick (1975) and Parsons (1968) suggested certain factors which have been typified as Human Relations Model (importance of social norms, recognition of information groups and leaders, awareness of feelings and sentiments, and participative goal setting.) This
results in teachers being recognized as experts. Teachers, because of
the effort of motivator factors (Hertzbert, 1966), become competent
and develop mastery at jobs. Principals are more supportive and facili-
tative. As work and organizational structure become related to needs of
teachers, morale is heightened. Teachers would be executing their
tasks more efficiently, thus, contributing to self-efficacy.

In the Human Resource Model (Getzels and Guba, 1957), the principal
mediates the nomothetic, socio-psychological and idiographic dimensions
for organizational productivity and individual satisfaction. The
principal would expect the teacher to perform his tasks. However, he
would be concerned to develop groups to assist in goal setting and
program implementation. The development of groups and their contribu-
tions would increase morale. The principal would recognize the impor-
tance of considering the personality of individuals—assisting them to
fulfill their needs. Teachers in this model would be concerned for
students and have greater empathy. Teachers would have greater flexi-
bility to structure learning environment of students to meet their
needs. Therefore, the scope of planning for instruction would be
increased and enjoyed. The teacher would initiate dialogue with super-
visor, principal, and other colleagues on an ongoing basis to ensure
students' needs are catered to. As a result his encounters with stu-
dents would be positive. The teacher would need to have a wealth of
experience from several situations to meet needs of students. Teachers
who have had positive and varied socializing experiences would show a
high level of performance and efficacy. Students, whatever their
abilities, would find opportunities for success.
Teachers working in the bureaucratic model whose socializing experience have been limited may find the bureaucratic model suitable. It requires the minimum which their academic and professional training may provide and also accommodate their level of maturity. Teachers who have a dearth of socializing experiences may be thwarted by the rigidity of established rules and regulations and close supervision incongruent with their level of maturity but nonetheless would seek opportunities to vary the scope of experiences for students.

Teachers in the Human Resource Model with limited socializing experiences may initially provide narrow experiences for the student, find adaptation difficult and a chore, continually wish that students had more abilities, and bemoan the parent's or society's inability to help students. However, participation in this model would bring about change in teachers. Teachers in the Human Resource Model with a wealth of socializing experiences would find it a challenge to provide for the abilities of all children. Such teachers would be able to provide success opportunities for all students, such teachers would show positive interaction with all students.

The organizational structure provided dimensions of organizational interaction which allows minimum performance and low efficacy to high efficacy and job performance dependent on the prior and present socializing experiences of teachers.

The concerns of this investigation, therefore, can be summarized as follows; (a) determining the strength of sub-variables that contribute to socializing experiences of teachers, (b) determining quality of performance of teachers, (c) determining the level of efficacy among
teachers, (d) determining whether a relationship exists between socialization experiences of teacher, and teacher performance/teacher efficacy, (e) determining the sub-variables in socializing experiences that contribute to teacher efficacy and teacher performance, and (f) determining influence of socializing experience and organizational interaction on teacher performance and teacher efficacy. The study would demonstrate whether teacher performance and teacher efficacy exist among teachers at senior comprehensive schools which are perceived as low status, educating students with low achievement.
Hypotheses

1. Teachers' perceptions of sub-variable in school environment will relate significantly to teacher performance.
2. Teachers' perception of sub-variables of school environment will relate significantly to teacher efficacy.
3. Teachers' perception of sub-variables of teacher development will relate significantly to teacher efficacy.
4. Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of teacher development will relate significantly to teacher performance.
5. Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of social environment will relate significantly to teacher performance.
6. Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of social environment will relate significantly to teacher efficacy.
Population

The population for the research on socializing experiences of teachers, teacher performance and teacher efficacy would be academic and technical/vocational teachers in selected senior comprehensive schools in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.

Sample

Selection of Schools

There are ninety-five (95) public secondary schools in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago operated by the Ministry of Education. Sixty-seven (67) are state owned and twenty-eight (28) are denominational schools assisted by state funds. These schools can be classified as follows; (a) a sixth form college (one [1] school), (b) traditional secondary schools having forms 1-5/6 (forty-six [46] schools), (c) junior secondary schools having forms 1-3 (twenty-three [23] schools), (d) senior secondary school having forms 4-5/6 with limited vocational subjects (three [3] schools), and (e) senior comprehensive schools having forms 4-5/6 with full technical/vocational sections (seventeen [17] schools), and (f) composite schools having forms 1-5 with limited vocational courses (seven [7] schools). The denominational boards (church schools) have only traditional schools (twenty-eight [28] schools).
The secondary schools are allocated to six (6) educational districts; (a) head office, (b) Port-of-Spain, (c) north-east, (d) south, (e) south-west, and (f) Tobago. The Port-of-Spain district contains urban and rural secondary schools.

The schools for the sample consisted of eight (8) senior comprehensive schools located in rural and urban areas:

Schools in Urban Areas

Barataria Senior Comprehensive School
Malick Senior Comprehensive School
Pleasantville Senior Comprehensive School
*Signal Hill Senior Comprehensive School (Tobago)

Schools in Rural Areas

Siparia Senior Comprehensive School
Princes Town Senior Comprehensive School
Arima Senior Comprehensive School
Chaguanas Senior Comprehensive School

*Signal Hill Senior Comprehensive School does not carry wide range of curriculum offerings as the other senior comprehensive schools. (This was found out when school was visited to distribute questionnaires.)
The curriculum in the senior secondary comprehensive school is extensive. Students are allowed to select certain options as developed by a particular school. Three examples of the options follow:

Option 1: Electrical installation, electrical installation practice, technical drawing, applied science, mathematics, English, and social studies.

Option 2: English language, mathematics, integrated science, principles of business, and bookkeeping.

Option 3: English language, mathematics, surveying, art, and social studies.

Selection of Teachers for Sample

The sample of teachers for the research work in the above mentioned eight (8) senior comprehensive schools. Teachers in these schools are assigned to departments where they teach specific subjects based on their qualifications and the needs of the school during a particular school year. The departments are mathematics/natural sciences, modern studies, humanities/foreign languages, business education/home economics, mechanical craft, building craft, and electrical craft.

Procedures

The authorization and cooperation of the Ministry of Education and principals of selected schools were sought to administer the questionnaire.
The researcher visited the school site for a school day. The researcher explained the purpose and nature of the research at a staff meeting and distributed the questionnaires. Most teachers talked informally to the researcher about school problems during the day. The questionnaire included statements to obtain teachers perceptions on socializing experiences, efficacy, performance, and demographic variables.

Questionnaire Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Numbers</th>
<th>Data Tapped</th>
<th>Related Variable</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-13</td>
<td>School Climate (SCHCLIME)</td>
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<td>23-29</td>
<td>Staff Support (STAFSUP)</td>
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<td>30-39</td>
<td>Principal's Instructional Role Set (PRININST)</td>
<td>School</td>
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<td>40-45</td>
<td>Teacher Expectations (TEACHEXP)</td>
<td>Environment</td>
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<td>57-63</td>
<td>Principal's Participatory Style (PRINSTYL)</td>
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<td>46-56</td>
<td>Curriculum Officers Role Set (CURDLE)</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>14-22</td>
<td>Teacher Education Program (TEACHED)</td>
<td>Development</td>
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<td>98-101</td>
<td>Parental Attributes (PATTRIBU)</td>
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<tr>
<td>113-115</td>
<td>Cultural Experiences/Involvement (CULINV)</td>
<td>Social Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116-117</td>
<td>Parents SES (PAYSES)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102-111</td>
<td>Sex, Age, ethnic, School location (SCHLOC), subject area taught (TAREA), Qualifications (TQUAL), years since teacher training (LTRAINED), type of secondary school (TYPSEC), sex of school attended (SCATTEND), cultural involvement (COLINV), leadership position (LEADPOS), parents</td>
<td>Demographic Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118-121</td>
<td>SES (PAYSES), level at which teachers liked (TIMPACT), qualities liked in teachers (TEALIKE), level at which teacher disliked (TDISLEV), qualities disliked in teacher (TDISLIKE)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 64-75            | Teacher Efficacy (TEFICAC) | Teacher Efficacy |
| 76-97            | Teacher Performance (TPERF) | Teacher Performance |
Definition of Variables/Questionnaire Items

School Climate refers to the satisfied feelings teachers have of their co-workers, students, and their work environment.

1. I am proud of the work that is done in this school by other teachers in this school.
2. I am proud of the way our students represent their school.
3. I am proud of the way staff members represent this school.
4. I am proud of the way principal represents this school.
5. I am proud of the professional opinions of teachers in this school.
6. I am proud of the professional opinion of the principal of this school.
7. I am proud of the opinions of parents of children in this school.
8. The principal and staff of students have high expectations for student achievement.
9. There is a feeling of togetherness among staff of school.
10. Teachers feel satisfied that all their talents are fully utilized in this school.
11. The teachers in this school enjoy their work.
12. Teachers are satisfied with procedures established for evaluating teachers.
13. Most teachers would rather teach in this school than some place else.
Staff Support refers to the cooperation of staff in planning and implementing of programs related to student academic achievement.

23. Teaching staff readily support programs to improve student achievement.
24. Teaching staff have positive discussions on improving student achievement.
25. Teaching staff jointly determine objectives to improve student achievement.
26. Teaching staff readily plan activities for students and parents.
27. Teaching staff support their colleagues when they pursue innovative programs.
28. Teaching staff feel comfortable in asking each other advice on teaching/learning problems.
29. Teaching staff give constructive criticism to alternative plans.

Principal's Instructional Role Set refers to activities principal performs to improve teacher competence in instruction and in promoting use of alternative approaches to improve student learning.

30. Principal organizes staff development programs for teachers on school site.
31. Principal encourages teachers to attend workshops.
32. Principal readily gives guidance on instructional matters.
33. Principal examines forecasts, schedules, and discusses them with teachers.
34. Principal provides financial support to carry out alternative instructional programs.

35. Principal evaluates performance of students on internal and external examinations to develop strategies to improve students' achievement.

36. Principal recommends books/journals to teachers to improve instruction.

37. Principal encourages teachers to take part in non-academic activities of students.

38. Principal explains to parents at PTA meetings planned activities to improve student achievement.

39. Principal observes classroom teaching and suggests ways to improve teacher-student interaction for student achievement.

**Teacher's Expectation** refers to teachers' perception and beliefs about students' performance and future goals.

40. Students are not able to pass examination.

41. Students have little interest in my subject area.

42. Students do not seem to have skills to pursue learning in my subject area.

43. Students seem to have poor behavior.

44. These students seem to have little to look forward to in their adult life.

45. All students are capable of doing well in my subject area.
Principal's Participatory Style refers to teachers' perceptions of principal as being open to suggestions, criticisms, and his perception of their maturity.

57. Principal invites suggestions from subordinates and implements them.

58. Suggestions from PTA are invited and implemented.

59. Staff who deviate from principal's policy are not penalized.

60. Principal does not push through his ideas at staff meetings.

61. Staff can criticize plans and programs of principal at staff meetings without fear of victimization.

62. The principal is known to question policy and plans of Ministry of Education.

63. Principal interacts with staff as if they were mature individuals.

Curriculum Officers's Role-Set refers to the activities performed by this central office personnel for development of teacher adequacy at instructional endeavors.

46. The curriculum officer organizes workshops to assist teachers with observed difficulties in classroom.

47. The curriculum officer discusses organization of work with teachers.

48. The curriculum officer discusses and plans work with head of department.
49. The curriculum officer discusses with teachers or head of department internal and external examination results.

50. The curriculum officer devises plans with teachers to improve student achievement.

51. The curriculum officer is readily available to provide support of instructional alternatives and assistance as requested by teachers.

52. The curriculum officer visits schools for on-site observation of curriculum implementation.

53. The curriculum officer recommends books, journals, audio-visual aids, and teaching strategies.

54. The curriculum officer encourages teachers to participate in planning and evaluating syllabus.

55. The curriculum officer encourages teachers to assist students with non-academic activities.

56. The curriculum officer motivates me to engage in developing strategies to assist student to achieve.

**Parental Attributes** refers to parent's example of involvement and encouragement to children in self-development.

98. My parents were active in community activities.

99. My parents encourage me to help others.

100. My parents allowed me to make my own decisions.

101. My parents encouraged me to choose solutions to my problems.
Parents' Socio-Economic Status refers to perceived status of parents in the social stratification system of society.

116. What was your father's occupation while attending high school?

117. What was the highest level of education of your mother while you were attending high school?

Cultural Experiences/Involvement refers to an individual's participation in society/community related activities.

113. Which of the following activities did you take part in?
   - Scouts/girl guides/cadets
   - Choir/dance/drama
   - Junior achievement
   - Sports
   - Other

114. Which of the following activities were you active in since leaving school?
   - Community organizations (village council/credit union
   - Cultural clubs (drama/dance/steelband)
   - Sports clubs
   - Service organizations (Lions/Kiwanis)
   - Paramilitary (cadets/volunteer force)

115. Were you in any leadership positions in any group or organization?
Teacher Education Program refers to appropriateness of content and methodology, occurrence of involvement of students.

14. In my teacher education program, lecturers discussed alternative teaching methods but never used them.

15. In my teacher education program, lecturers used a variety of audio-visual aids.

16. In my teacher education program, students were involved in decision-making activities that changed the program.

17. In my teacher education program, group activities were practiced.

18. In my teacher education program, course activities were related to solving problems for student achievement.

19. In my teacher education program, assignments given were appropriate.

20. In my teacher education program, students were encouraged to take part in community activities.

21. In my teacher education program, aims and objectives were related to present and future needs.

22. In my teacher education program, I felt my needs as a student were being met.

Teacher Efficacy refers to the confidence teachers have about their performance capabilities and the positive feeling of acceptance of themselves.

64. I am efficient in this school as the most effective teacher in another school.

65. Sometimes I feel discouraged by these students.
66. Sometimes I feel I wish I had more skills to deal with problems in this school.

67. The other teachers make excellent suggestions which I often accept.

68. My principal makes excellent suggestions for teaching which I accept.

69. Parents make excellent suggestions for teaching which I accept.

70. Students make excellent suggestions for changing teaching which I accept.

71. I continue to feel challenged as I perform my teaching duties in this school.

72. The quality of students I teach do not bring out the best in me.

73. It is difficult to work hard when the students lack interest in the subject.

74. Innovative ideas cannot be practiced given the discipline problems of students.

75. It is difficult to know how to prepare for teaching when the students do not have basic skills.

Teacher Performance refers to the activities performed by teachers in the classroom and school to motivate students to improve their academic achievement.

76. I arrive at my teaching location on time.
I use a variety of texts, magazines, etc. to prepare work for students.
I use a variety of audio-visual equipment in teaching.
I plan lessons according to behavioral objectives.
I make sure that students have mastered prerequisite learning before introducing new materials.
I make sure that my instructions to students are clear and organized.
I use examples that are linked to students actual and potential interests.
I ask questions that call for memorization of information.
I ask questions that cause students to analyze and suggest alternatives.
I utilize group involvement in my teaching.
I give students sufficient time to complete tasks.
I evaluate content and methods to see that students needs are met.
I evaluate why students have difficulty performing orally.
I have students appropriate homework, mark them, and return them without delay.
I use results of tests to plan corrective feedback exercises for students.
I discuss problems for student achievement with principal to get his input to improve student achievement.
92. I attend staff meetings/departamental meetings and contribute to discussion and planning for improving student achievement.
93. I encourage students to discuss their problems with me.
94. I attend school assemblies.
95. I have continuous contact with parents about their cooperation in student achievement.
96. I make students aware that it is possible to achieve.
97. I assist students in planning non-academic activities.

Teacher Qualifications refers to the type of certification teachers have received.

108. What is your highest academic qualification received?
109. What is your highest professional qualification received?
110. What is your highest professional qualification received?
111. Which of the following best describes your secondary school career?
112. Which of the following type school did you attend?

For questions 1-102, a Likert Scale format would be used.
**Instrument Validity and Reliability**

Each item was matched against the definition of the variable used in the research. The items on an original questionnaire were distributed to a sample of academic and technical/vocational teachers at a senior comprehensive school, a vice-principal, and a curriculum supervisor in the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago. Based on their responses and comments, some of the items were rephrased to form the research instrument.

Kozioł and Burns (1986), in studying accuracy of teacher self-reporting reported that teachers can be accurate when the procedures involved patterns of instructional practices that occur over a year long period and reporting on specific practices occurring during a very brief instructional period. They observed, however, that teachers' accuracies improved when teachers completed self-report instruments on more than one occasion.

**Statistical Analysis**

The data would be analyzed using (i) Simple Statistics, (ii) Pearson Product Moment Correlation, (iii) Multiple Regression, and (iv) Factor Analysis.
CHAPTER V
Data Analysis

The theoretical framework which guided the research was that school environment more than the variables teacher development, social environment, and demographic variables would influence teacher performance and efficacy.

In this chapter, selected relationships between sub-variables of the variable, socializing experiences, and the dependent variables, teacher performance and efficacy, as stated in the hypotheses, are examined. As a result of the multiplicity of sub-variables in the domain socializing experiences and the two dependent variables, teacher performance and efficacy, factor analysis is done. This is to determine whether teacher performance and teacher efficacy cohere in the same factor as teacher performance and which other factors would locate in the same factor as teacher performance, efficacy, and school environment.

Observation on Correlations

The correlation matrix between variables and sub-variables is shown in Appendix H. A summary of the correlation matrix in respect to hypotheses is shown in Table 5.1.

Hypothesis 1

Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of school environment will not relate significantly to teacher performance.
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<tr>
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n = 266
200 df = .138
The variable, school environment, includes sub-variables of school climate, staff support, teacher's expectations, principal's participatory style, and principal's instructional role-set. The correlation coefficient between sub-variables of school environment and teacher performance (Table 5.1) are as follows; school climate ($r=.11731$), staff support ($r=.17693$), teacher's expectations ($r=.25982$), principal's instructional role-set ($r=.17043$), and principal's participatory style ($r=.20611$).

At .05 level of significance, all the sub-variables except school climate of school environment are significantly related to teacher performance. The null hypothesis is, therefore, accepted for school climate and teacher performance. It is rejected for the other sub-variables of school environment and teacher performance.

**Hypothesis 2**

Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of school environment will not relate significantly to teacher efficacy. School environment variables includes school climate, staff support, teacher's expectations, principals' instructional role-set and principals' participatory style. Table 5.1 shows the correlation coefficient between sub-variables of school environment and teacher efficacy: school climate ($r=.24397$), staff support ($r=.12234$), teacher's expectations ($r=.37381$), principal's instructional role-set ($r=.21914$), principal's participatory style ($r=.20676$). At .05 level of significance, all the sub-variables except
staff support are significant. The null hypothesis is accepted for staff support and teacher efficacy. It is rejected for all other sub-variables of school environment and teacher efficacy.

**Hypothesis 3**

Teachers' perception of sub-variable of teacher development will not relate significantly to teacher performance.

Teacher development includes the sub-variables curriculum officer's role-set and teacher education program. The correlation coefficient between sub-variables and teacher performance (Table 5.1) are as follows: curriculum officer's role set (r=.10903), and teacher education program (r=.17853). The score for teacher education program at .05 level of significance is not significant. The null hypothesis is accepted for curriculum officer's role-set and teacher performance. It is rejected for teacher education program and teacher performance.

**Hypothesis 4**

Teachers' perceptions of sub-variables of teacher development, will not relate significantly to teacher efficacy.

Teacher development variable includes curriculum officer's role-set and teacher education program. The correlation coefficient between the sub-variables teacher development (Table 5.1) and teacher efficacy are as follows: curriculum officer's role-set (r=.16339), and teacher education program (r=.13592).
At .05 level of significance, only curriculum officer's role-set is significance. The null hypothesis is accepted for teacher education program and teacher performance. It is rejected for other sub-variables of teacher development and teacher efficacy.

**Hypothesis 5**

Teachers' perceptions of the sub-variables of social environment will not relate significantly to teacher performance.

Social environment variable includes parental attributes, cultural involvement, and parents' SES. The correlation coefficient between the sub-variables of social environment (Table 5.1) and teacher performance are as follows: parental attributes \((r=.38982)\), cultural involvement \((r=.17812)\), parents' SES \((r=.00923)\).

At .05 level of significance only parents' SES is not significant. The null hypothesis is accepted for parents' SES and teacher performance. It is rejected for parental attributes, cultural involvement and teacher performance.

**Hypothesis 6**

Teachers' perceptions of the sub-variables of social environment will not relate significantly to teacher efficacy.

Social environment variable includes parental attributes, cultural involvement and parents' SES. The correlation coefficient between the sub-variables of social environment (Table 5.1) and teacher efficacy are as follows: parental attributes \((r=.13360)\), cultural involvement \((r=.07788)\), parents SES \((r=.02811)\).
At .05 level of significance, none of the sub-variables are significant. The null hypothesis is accepted for parental attributes, cultural involvement, parents' SES, teacher efficacy.

**Factor Analysis**

The correlation matrix (Appendix H) indicates that some scores between sub-variables of socializing experiences and teacher performance and efficacy are not significant. It is necessary to find out whether statistical relationships exist among variables and whether the variables are structured in the best possible way. Factor analysis is used to help in this process, the first principal factor gives the best linear combination of variables that would predict more of the variance. Each successive factor explains less of the co-variance among observed factor. In the theoretical framework (Chapter III), the variables were arranged as follows;

**Dependent Variables** - teacher performance and teacher efficacy.

**Independent Variables** -

School Environment - school climate, staff support, teacher's expectations, principal's instructional role-set, and principal's participatory style.

Teacher Development - curriculum officer's role-set and teacher education program.

Selected Demographic Variables - age, sex, ethnicity, school location, qualifications, leadership position, subject area, type of secondary school attended, sex, type of secondary school attended,
years since teacher training, level at which one liked teacher, level at which one disliked teacher, qualities one liked in a teacher, and qualities one disliked in a teacher.

Social Environment - parental attributes, cultural involvement, and parents' SES.

The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 5.2 and are summarized below:

Factor 1 Principal's instructional role-set, school climate, staff support, principal's participatory style, and curriculum officer's role-set.

Factor 2 Teacher qualifications, teacher education program, and sex.

Factor 3 School location, subject area taught, and years since teacher training.

Factor 4 Teachers' expectations, teacher efficacy, and qualities disliked in a teacher.

Factor 5 Parental attributes, and teacher performance.

Factor 6 Cultural involvement, and sex of school attended (male or female or co-educational).

Factor 7 Leadership position held in a group, and parents SES.

Factor 8 Type of school attended, level of school system dislike for teacher occurred, and qualities liked in a teacher.

Factor 9 Age, ethnicity, and level of school system one liked teacher.
Several of the sub-variables of the independent variables and the dependent variables as stated in the theoretical framework have been regrouped in the factor analysis.
Table 5.2

Rotated Factor Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables

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Table 5.2
Rotated Factor Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables
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150
The sub-variables of the variable school environment have all remained with the exception of teachers' expectations which has been replaced by curriculum officers' role-set. In the theoretical framework, the two dependent variables, teacher performance and teacher efficacy, were related. Factor analysis shows a relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher's expectation (originally a subvariable in school environment) and qualities disliked in a teacher (originally in demographic variables). Teacher performance, a dependent variable, shows a relationship with parents' attributes which was a sub-variable originally in social environment. The sub-variables in teacher development were split, curriculum officer's role-set now formed part of school environment, while teacher education was placed with sex, and teacher qualifications. Sub-variables in demographic variables in social environment were all regrouped.

Overall, the findings of the factor analysis are that: (a) teacher performance is placed with parental attributes of teachers in the same commonality in Factor 5. This indicates that participatory home environment is more conducive to high teacher performance than all the other selected variables, (b) teacher efficacy is placed with teacher's expectations and qualities disliked in a teacher (disliking negative behaviors and style of teaching) in the same commonality Factor 4. This indicates that efficacious teachers have high teacher expectations for student performance and also disliked negative behaviors and teaching styles of former teachers.
Regression Analysis

Multiple regression shows the relationship of independent variables to dependent variables. The purpose is to determine the value in which the independent variables predict the dependent variables.

Table 5.3 shows the regression analysis of independent variables on teacher performance. The beta coefficient in Table 5.3 show the sub-variables of school environment having low predictive values of teacher performance. Parents' attributes (.310850) contribute the most significant variance to the variable teacher performance followed by principal's participatory style (.164123), sex of school attended (.139500), teacher efficacy (.132830), age (-.128095), teacher's expectation (.120497), teacher qualifications (-.119934), and teaching area (-.104735). All other sub-variables contribute near zero correlation to the variance of teacher performance.

Table 5.4 shows the regression analysis of independent variables to teacher efficacy. Teacher's expectation with a beta coefficient of .308767 contributes highest to the prediction of the variable teacher performance followed by school climate (.224323), staff support (-.172200), teacher qualifications (.166772), ethnicity (.162165), teacher performance (.144177), teacher education (.135936), and level at which teacher disliked (-.108720).
In Table 5.3 and 5.4, the variables are to be read as follows:

PATTRIBU - Parent's attributes
TEACHEXP - Teacher's expectations
TEACHED - Teacher education
SCATTEND - Sex of school attended
AGE - Age
PRINTSTY - Principal's participatory style
TDISLELV - Level at which teacher disliked
LEADPOS - Leadership position
TIMPACT - Level at which teacher liked
TYPSEC - Type of secondary school attended
PAYSEC - Parents' SES
ETHNIC - Ethnicity
TAREA - Subject area taught
SEX - Sex
TDISLIKE - Qualities disliked in teacher
CULINV - Cultural involvement
TEALIKE - Qualities like in teacher
LTRAINED - Years since teacher training
TEFFICAL - Teacher efficacy
STAFSUP - Staff support
CURDLE - Curriculum officer's role-set
SCHLOC - School location
PRINCINST - Principal's instructional role-set
SCHLIME - School climate
TQUAL - Teacher qualifications
Table 5.3
Regression Analysis of Independent Variables on Teacher Performance

**EQUATION NUMBER 1**  
**DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TEACHER PERFORMANCE**

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<th>T</th>
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Table 5.4  
Regression Analysis of Independent Variables  
on Teacher Efficacy

EQUATION NUMBER 1  
DEPENDENT VARIABLE  
TEACHER EFFICACY

-----------VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION-----------

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Discussion

Parental attributes were shown to be the best predictor of teacher performance in both the factor analysis and regression analysis. Fox (1980) wrote that attitude to work was socially and culturally molded and that society made its efforts to influence socialization through parenting roles. The items used to tap parental attributes were Q98 - My parents took part in community affairs, Q99 - My parents encouraged me to help others, Q100 - My parents allowed me to make decisions, and Q101 - My parents encouraged me to choose solutions to problems. Teachers, therefore, perceived their parents influence to be most important.

It would seem that teachers who are brought up in homes which are supportive of decision-making, problem solving, and helping relationships tend to see themselves as performing highly. Thus, high performing teachers see themselves being helped by strong parental support.

Assuming these skills are also important in teaching, lack of early socialization in them means that teacher education program should emphasize them.

The following sub-variables of school environment made smaller but significant contributions to teacher performance: principal's participatory style, sex type of school attended, teacher efficacy, teacher's expectations, teacher qualifications, and teaching areas.

It would seem that teachers who worked harder (than other teachers) with students, were younger and seemed to be in schools with supportive leadership style. They also had high expectations
and were efficacious. It appears that teachers with high qualifications were not performing highly and performance of teachers varied with the subject departments. It suggests that as teachers get old, their performance level drops. Perhaps school staff development experiences should be retrained to provide participatory leadership. Teachers who worked harder seemed to have attended co-educational schools. Male teachers perceived themselves to be working harder than female teachers.

For the regression analysis of the dependent variable, teacher efficacy with the selected independent variable (Table 5.4) teacher efficacy is predicted by teacher's expectation, ethnicity, teacher performance, and teacher qualification, ethnicity, teacher performance, and teacher education in that order. It would seem more teachers with self-efficacy have high expectations and work in schools with positive school climates. Teachers with advanced academic certification and teachers who have had some teacher education seem also to be more efficacious.

Teachers who went to seven-year schools seem to be less efficacious. The seven-year schools are predominantly single-sexed schools. These schools have as their student population a majority of students from middle and upper income groups.

Teachers who have recently undergone teacher education programs seem to be more efficacious. Females seem to be more efficacious than males.
Table 5.6 shows the results of the mean and standard deviation scores of the sub-variables school environment and total score of school environment. These scores reflect a wide dispersion of scores among the respondents. The results are as follows: teachers' expectations (SD=4.0107), principal's participatory style (SD=4.1983), staff support (SD=5.5693), principal's instructional role set (SE=7.4799), and school climate (SD=7.8285). Further, the standard deviation score for total school environment was 21.642.

Rowan, Bossert, Dwey (1983) indicated that strong instructional leadership was a correlate of effective schools. Keefe (1987) emphasized the importance of instructional role of principal for improvement of teaching and learning. Tanner and Tanner (1987) and Lane and Walberg (1987) noted the responsibility of principals for resource allocation, staff development, providing activities conducive to learning environment. Tanner and Tanner (1987) concluded that lower achieving schools' principals spent most of their time on administrative tasks and did not demonstrate attitudes conducive to higher achievement. MacKensie (1983) noted that positive climate and overall atmosphere were essential for improvement of teaching and learning.

Curriculum officer's role appears to have negative near zero relationship with teacher performance and teacher efficacy. Staff support, another sub-variable in school environment, has negative relationship with teacher efficacy. The beta coefficient of teacher education and school climate in relation to teacher performance is
Table 5.5

Mean and Standard Deviation of School Environment Variables

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<td>Principal's Instructional Role-Set</td>
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almost near zero. The sub-variables connected to school environment have minimal contributions to the total variance of teacher performance, likewise, teacher development sub-variables of curriculum officer's role-set and teacher education programs.

Teachers in senior comprehensive schools perceive themselves as performing their teacher related duties highly.

Forty-seven to fifty-six percent of teachers scored three items positive, sixty-seven to seventy-six percent of teacher scored two items positive, seventy-seven to eighty-six percent of teachers scored twelve items positive. Obtaining the least percentage score of forty seven percent (47%) was Q78 - I use audio-visual equipment in teaching and scoring the highest percentage was Q86 - I give students sufficient time to complete tasks.

Teacher perceived themselves highly on the self report of teacher performance but student achievement continues to be low. Students have low achievement in basic subject areas when they enter the senior comprehensive schools. The items on performance are at best indicative of a global picture of teachers' perceptions of their performance and a more detailed analysis of these performance are necessary to discriminate among the quality of teachers' interactions in the classroom either through another format of a questionnaire and actual classroom observations. Following are some questions which would make more explicit the evaluation of teacher performance; (a) Q86 - I give student sufficient time to complete tasks - one could find the nature
of the task given, the appropriateness of the task given, the correctness of the task on its completion, and the numbers who complete tasks in the required time; (b) Q90 - I use results of tests to plan corrective feedback and exercises for students - one could also ask which test results were used. Is it the results of oral or verbal tests after teaching a lesson or is it tests at the end of teaching a unit or tests at the end of the term?; (c) Q85 - I utilize group involvement in my teaching - one could seek further information as to the nature of the work in groups, the composition of individuals in the groups that would allow for learning to take place, teacher support and direction in group activity for learning to take place, and whether participants kept to the task and completed the task; (d) Q84 - I ask students questions that cause them to analyze them and suggest alternatives - one would like to know how often is this activity done, whether all students are given opportunities to participate and whether the teacher is really framing questions to pose to the class that would demand analysis and suggestion of alternatives; (e) Q89 - I give appropriate homework to students mark them and return them without delay - one would seek information on the frequency of homework given, the actual completion of homework by students and whether the task given is for reinforcement of previous learning or inquiry; and (d) Q92 - I attend staff meetings and contribute to discussion and planning for improving student achievement - one could seek additional information about the nature of
the plans suggested, whether the staff have implemented plans, were there any evaluation of the plans implemented, and what was the duration of the plan executed?

One also notes that the following questions received less than seventy percent (70%) of teachers' scores:

Q83 - I asked students questions that call for memorization of information (69%).

Q80 - I make sure that students have mastered pre-requisite learning before introducing new materials (68%).

Q76 - I arrive at my teaching location on time (65%).

Q79 - I plan lessons according to behavioral objectives (59%).

Q95 - I have continuous contact with parents about their cooperation in student achievement (54%).

Q91 - I discuss problems of student achievement with principal to get his input for improving achievement (48%).

Q78 - I use a variety of audio-visual equipment in teaching (47%).

At best, the results of the data on teacher performance suggest an urgent necessity to seek information deeper than the general notions expressed in teacher performance. The questions receiving low scores indicate that important inputs for effective teaching of low achievers are not being stressed. These include quality time in classrooms, variety in teaching to suit learning styles, support of home and school, and goal setting to achieve a particular objective, principal interaction on instructional matters.
Table 5.6 illustrated the distribution of scores on efficacy. A little over 50% of teachers in sample comprehensive schools perceive themselves as efficacious.

Efficacious teachers would not only perform their jobs well but would encourage their students to perform to their highest potential.

The findings suggest relatively high teacher performances and moderate feelings of self-efficacy among teachers.
**Table 5.6**

Distribution of Scores on Efficacy

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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>Uncertain</td>
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CHAPTER 6

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary and Conclusions

The problem statement questioned the level of performance and sense of efficacy of teachers in senior comprehensive schools. It hoped to identify factors that were influencing performance and efficacy. The senior comprehensive schools in which teachers worked had a student population of low achieving and low socio-economic status.

The review of the research literature indicated that efficacy of teachers would be related to school decision-making ability and principal support. The literature suggested that job satisfaction could be explained by organizational structure, sex differences, ethnic origin and motivation. Socialization of teachers was done through students, peers, administrators, and school climate.

The historical outline explained that the expansion of secondary school system was a result of industrialization, modernization, and politicization. It was aimed at equilizing access to secondary school. The reasons for the inadequacies in the preparation of personnel for roles in a new and developing education system could be discerned in the historical development of a secondary school system. The discriminatory nature of curriculum in the secondary cycle of education is also observed. Different curriculum for different students also implies different expectations.
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE
QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 1

You are to circle the correct letter(s) which BEST describes your response to the following statements.

SA - Strongly Agree  U - Uncertain  D - Disagree  SD - Strongly Disagree

A - Agree

1. I am proud of the work that is done in this school by other teachers in this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

2. I am proud of the way our students represent his school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

3. I am proud of the way staff members represent this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

4. I am proud of the way the principal represents this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

5. I am proud of the professional opinions of teachers in this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

6. I am proud of the professional opinion of the principal of this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

7. I am proud of the opinions of parents of children in this school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

8. The principal and staff of parents have high expectations for students' achievement.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

9. There is a feeling of togetherness among staff of school.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

10. Teachers feel satisfied that all their talents are fully utilized in this school.
    SA   A   U   D   SD

11. The teachers in this school enjoy their work.
    SA   A   U   D   SD
12. Teachers are satisfied with the procedures established for evaluating teachers.

13. Most teachers would rather teach in this than someplace.

14. In our teacher education program, lecturers talked about alternative teaching methods but never used them.

15. In our teacher education program, lecturers used audio-video aids.

16. In my teacher education program, students were involved in decision-making activities that changed the program.

17. In my teacher education program, group activities were practiced.

18. In my teacher education program, course activities were related to solving problems for student achievement.

19. In my teacher education program, assignments given were always appropriate.

20. In my teacher education, students were encouraged to take part in community activities.

21. In my teacher education program, aims and objectives were related to present and future needs.

22. In my teacher education program, I felt my needs as a teacher were being met.

23. Teaching staff readily support programs to improve student achievement.
24. Teaching staff have positive discussions on improving student achievement.
SA A U D SD

25. Teaching staff jointly determine objectives to improve student achievement.
SA A U D SD

26. Teaching staff readily plan activities for students and parents.
SA A U D SD

27. Teaching staff support their colleagues when they pursue innovative programs.
SA A U D SD

28. Teaching staff feel comfortable in asking each other advice on teaching/learning problems.
SA A U D SD

29. Teaching staff give constructive criticism to alternative plans.
SA A U D SD

30. Principal organizes staff development programs for teaching on school site.
SA A U D SD

31. Principal encourages teachers to attend workshops.
SA A U D SD

32. Principal readily gives guidance on instructional matters.
SA A U D SD

33. Principal examines forecasts, schedules and discusses them with teachers.
SA A U D SD

34. Principal recommends books/journals to improve instruction.
SA A U D SD

35. Principal gives financial support to carry out alternative instructional programs.
SA A U D SD

36. Principal evaluates performance of students on internal and external examinations to develop strategies to improve students' achievement.
SA A U D SD
37. Principal encourages teachers to take part in non-academic activities of students.
SA A U D SD

38. Principal explains to parents at P.T.A. meetings planned activities to improve student achievement.
SA A U D SD

39. Principal observes classroom teaching and suggests ways to improve teacher-student interaction for student achievement.
SA A U D SD

40. Students are not able to pass examination.
SA A U D SD

41. Students have little interest in my subjects.
SA A U D SD

42. Students do not seem to have skills to pursue learning in my subject area.
SA A U D SD

43. Students seem to have poor behaviour.
SA A U D SD

44. These students seem to have little to look forward to in their adult life.
SA A U D SD

45. All students are capable of doing well in my subject area.
SA A U D SD

46. The curriculum supervisor organizes workshops to assist teachers with observed difficulties in classroom.
SA A U D SD

47. The curriculum supervisor discusses organization of work with teachers.
SA A U D SD

48. The curriculum supervisor discusses and plans work with head of department.
SA A U D SD

49. The curriculum supervisor discusses with teachers or heads of department internal and external examination results.
SA A U D SD
50. The curriculum supervisor devises plans with teachers to improve student achievement.
SA A U D SD

51. The curriculum supervisor recommends books, journals, audio-visual aids, and teaching strategies.
SA A U D SD

52. The curriculum supervisor is readily available to provide support for instructional alternatives and assistance as requested by teachers.
SA A U D SD

53. The curriculum supervisor visits school for on-site observation of curriculum implementation.
SA A U D SD

54. The curriculum supervisor encourages teachers to participate in planning and evaluating syllabus.
SA A U D SD

55. The curriculum supervisor encourages teachers to assist students with non-academic activities.
SA A U D SD

56. The curriculum supervisor motivates me to engage in developing strategies to assist my students to achieve.
SA A U D SD

57. Principal invites suggestions from subordinates and implements them.
SA A U D SD

58. Suggestions from P.T.A. are invited and implemented.
SA A U D SD

59. Staff who deviate from principal's policy are not penalized.
SA A U D SD

60. Principal does not push through his ideas at staff meetings.
SA A U D SD

61. Staff can criticize plans, programs or principal at staff meetings without fear of victimization.
SA A U D SD

62. The principal is know to question policy and plans from Ministry of Education.
SA A U D SD
63. Principal interacts with staff as if they were mature individuals.
   SA A U D SD

64. I am efficient in this school as the most effective teacher in another school.
   SA A U D SD

65. Sometimes I feel discouraged by these students.
   SA A U D SD

66. Sometimes I feel I wish I had more skills to deal with problems in this school.
   SA A U D SD

67. The other teachers make excellent suggestions which I often accept.
   SA A U D SD

68. My principal makes suggestions which I accept.
   SA A U D SD

69. Parents make excellent suggestions for changing teaching which I accept.
   SA A U D SD

70. Students make excellent suggestions for changing teaching which I accept.
   SA A U D SD

71. I continue to feel challenged as I perform my teaching duties with children in this school.
   SA A U D SD

72. The quality of students I have do not bring out the best in me.
   SA A U D SD

73. It is difficult to work hard when the students lack interest in subject matter.
   SA A U D SD

74. Innovative ideas cannot be practiced given the discipline problems of students.
   SA A U D SD

75. It is difficult to know how to prepare for teaching when the students do not have basic skills.
   SA A U D SD

76. I arrive at my teaching location on time.
   SA A U D SD
77. I use a variety of texts, magazines, etc. to prepare work for students.
   SA A U D SD

78. I use a variety of audio-visual equipment in teaching.
   SA A U D SD

79. I plan lessons according to behavioral objectives.
   SA A U D SD

80. I make sure that students have mastered pre-requisite learning before introducing new materials.
   SA A U D SD

81. I make sure that my instructions to students are clear and organized.
   SA A U D SD

82. I use examples that are linked to students actual and potential interests.
   SA A U D SD

83. I ask students questions that call for memorization of information.
   SA A U D SD

84. I ask students questions that cause them to analyze and suggest alternatives.
   SA A U D SD

85. I utilize group involvement in my teaching.
   SA A U D SD

86. I give students sufficient time to complete tasks.
   SA A U D SD

87. I evaluate content, and methods to see that students' needs are met.
   SA A U D SD

88. I evaluate why students have difficulty performing orally and verbally.
   SA A U D SD

89. I give students appropriate homework to students, mark them, and return them without delay.
   SA A U D SD

90. I use results of tests to plan corrective feedback exercises for students.
   SA A U D SD
91. I discuss problems of student achievement with principal to get his input for achievement.
   SA A U D SD

92. I attend staff/departmental meetings and contribute to discussion and planning for improving student achievement.
   SA A U D SD

93. I encourage students to discuss their problems with me.
   SA A U D SD

94. I attend school assemblies.
   SA A U D SD

95. I have continuous contact with parents about their cooperation in student achievement.
   SA A U D SD

96. I make students aware that it is possible to achieve.
   SA A U D SD

97. I assist students in planning non-academic activities.
   SA A U D SD

98. My parents took active part in community activities.
   SA A U D SD

99. My parents encourage me to help others.
   SA A U D SD

100. My parents allowed me to make my own decisions.
   SA A U D SD

101. My parents encouraged me to choose solutions to my problems.
   SA A U D SD

You are to place a tick in the bracket ( ) for your correct response to the following questions.

102. Male ( ) Female ( )

103. Below 25 years ( ) 36-40 years ( )
    20-30 years ( ) 41 plus ( )
    31-35 years ( )

104. East Indian ( ) African ( )

105. Where is your school located?
    rural ( ) urban ( )
106. What is your major teaching area in this school?

- Mechanical Craft
- Electrical Craft
- Building Craft
- Secretarial Practice
- Home Economics
- Art/Craft
- Music
- Business Education
- Mathematics
- English Language
- Foreign Language
- Social Sciences
- Natural Sciences
- Other (Specify)

107. What is your highest academic qualifications?

- NEC (Craft Diploma)
- NEC (Technician's Diploma)
- B.A./B.Sc.
- M.A./M.Sc.
- Other

108. What is your highest professional qualifications?

- Teachers' Diploma (primary)
- B.Ed.

109. How long ago did you receive teacher training?

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21+

110. Which of the following BEST describes your secondary school career?

- junior secondary/senior comprehensive
- 5 year secondary denominational
- 5 year secondary government
- 7 year secondary government
- 7 year secondary denominational
- other (specify)

111. Which of the following type of school did you attend?

- all male
- all female
- co-educational

112. Which of the following school activities did you take part in?

- scouts/girl guides/cadets
- choir/dance/drama
- junior achievement
- sports
- other (specify)
113. Which of the following activities were you active in since leaving school? (a minimum of two years)

Community organizations (e.g. village council, credit union, etc.)
Cultural clubs (e.g. drama, dance, steeband, etc.)
Sports clubs
Service organizations (Lions, Kiwanis, etc.)
Para-military (e.g. cadets, volunteer force)
Other

114. Were you in any leadership position in any groups or organizations?
yes ( ) no ( )

115. What was your father's occupation while attending high school?

Elementary school
Secondary School
Secondary school
Teacher training college
Nursing school
University education
Other (specify)

116. What was the highest level of education did your mother receive while attending high school?

Elementary school
Secondary School
Secondary school
Teacher training college
Nursing school
University education
Other (specify)

117. Identify a level of your formal education where a teacher had the most impact on you.

Elementary ( ) Secondary ( ) Teacher's college ( )
Secondary ( ) University ( )
Technical/vocational ( )

118. What impressed you most about the teacher in Q1?

Behaviour ( ) Knowledge ( )
Style of teaching ( ) Other ( )

119. At what level of your formal education did you dislike a teacher most?

Elementary ( ) Teachers' college ( )
Secondary ( ) University ( )
Technical/vocational ( )
120. What did you dislike most about that teacher?

***THANK YOU***
Appendix B

Placing of students by last score on 11 plus examinations, sex, secondary school.

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Source: Ministry of Education Common Entrance Report 1986
### Appendix C

Students of Senior Comprehensive Schools who Sat CXC Examinations

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<th>School</th>
<th>Number of Fifth Form Students</th>
<th>Number of Fifth Form Students Who Sat CXC General/Basic in Selected Subjects *</th>
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*represents total number of students entered for a subject
*students could be entered at one level only for a subject
*students could be entered for one or more subjects
-data not received
## Appendix D
### CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Arima Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
## Appendix D
CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Arima Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
## Appendix D
CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Signal Hill Senior Comprehensive

* Total Students
# Appendix D

## CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Signal Hill Senior Comprehensive

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Source: Pleasantville Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
### CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Pleasantville Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
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**CXC Examination Results 1986**

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Source: Princes Town Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
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CXC Examination Results 1986

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*Total Students

Source: Princes Town Senior Comprehensive School
## Appendix D

**CXC Examination Results 1986**

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*Source: Malick Senior Comprehensive School*

* Total Students
### Appendix D
CXC Examination Results 1986

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Source: Malick Senior Comprehensive School

* Total Students
Appendix E

Enrollment in Secondary Schools by School Type, Form, Sex
1983/1986

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Source: Adapted from Report on Education Statistics 1983/1984
Central Statistical Office Republic of Trinidad and Tobago
## Appendix F

### Number of Teachers by Qualifications

**School Type, Sex 1983/1984**

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Source: Adapted from Report on Education Statistics 1983/1984 Central Statistical Office Republic of Trinidad and Tobago
Appendix G

Number of teachers in secondary schools of Trinidad and Tobago by school type, sex 1983/1984

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Source: Adapted from Report on Education Statistics 1983/1984
Central Statistical Office Republic of Trinidad and Tobago
### Appendix H

**Correlation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables**

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## Correlation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables

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Correlation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables

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