Chapter - 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview

Education as envisaged besides an agency of socialisation of individuals at different organisational levels (school, college, university etc.) also puts its impact on various social institutions like family, economy, polity, stratification and religion through its individual and societal functions and in return is impacted by them in modern society. No social institution is immune from each other in any society. The functions of education in totality, while complementing and supplementing each other, influence various social institutions in society. If education enables the individual to internalise ideologies, values, norms, attitudes and behaviour patterns institutionalised in the society, then it also contributes to the formation of social personality, an individual function of education. Formation of social personality of individuals helps them assume the roles of responsible citizens in society and then it leads to social stability, a societal function of education. Acquisition of knowledge and skills through education at different organisational levels enables the individual to earn a livelihood thus putting him/her in a social position in society. Education also provides the individual requisite knowledge, skills and behaviour patterns for placing him/her in higher occupational position called social mobility. Differential forms of education enable individuals to assume different tasks in society, thus resulting in division of labour, the societal function of education. When new values, ideologies, attitudes and behaviour patterns, which are consonant with the social order
that the society aspires for as more desirable, are successfully inculcated, the educational system performs its function towards social change (Aikara 2004).

In this way, the qualitative educational system holds the key to maintain social order in the society. But erosion and decline in the quality of basic education in developing countries has assumed the proportions of global emergency (Chattergee and Khan 2003). In the whole educational system, besides the infrastructural part (buildings, materials, tools etc.) the other component is various role-performers (teachers, students, administrators and parents) whose role performance has a direct bearing on the outcome of the education system. One pivotal role-performer is the teacher, whose status-role performance has a direct bearing on the entire educational system because he is a professional status-role performer. The status-role definition, performance and evaluation of a teacher fall in the jurisdiction of sociology of professions. The emphasis of sociology of professions, a sub-discipline of sociology, is to study the professional organisations, background of professionals and their values and roles. According to Hall (1948) sociological approach to profession is to look at the profession as an organised group that is constantly interacting with the society that forms its matrix, which performs its social functions through a network of formal and informal relationships, and which creates its own sub-culture requiring adjustments to it as a pre-requisite for career success.

The discrepancy between the ideal-typical conception of profession and the way in which many professions are really found to function in India is so alarmingly wide as to render their title as profession of exceedingly doubtful value. While this is to some extent understandable in the case of relatively new professions, it can hardly be justified in the case of the oldest professions of medicine, law and teaching. These are not merely the oldest, but at the same time also the true classic model of professions and often described as the learned professions.
1.2 Profession as Defined

According to Webster (1969) it is believed that profession comes from the word ‘profess’ which means to receive formally into a religious community following a novitiate by acceptance of required vows. It might have something to do with the word ‘priest’ who is authorised to perform the sacred rites of a religion especially as a mediatory agent between man and God. According to Shaffer (1968) may be that priesthood was the oldest profession with special knowledge. A priest was capable of doing such things, which an ordinary person could not do. Seen in this context, profession is originally meant to be a calling requiring specialised knowledge and often long and intense academic preparation. Oxford English Dictionary defines a profession as “a vocation in which professed knowledge of some department of learning or science is used in its application to affairs of others or in the practice of an art founded on it”. Cambridge International Dictionary of English defines a profession as “any type of work which needs a special training or a particular skill, often which is respected because it involves a high level of education”. Both definitions lay emphasis on intellectual and skill aspects of the profession.

1.3 Sociological Orientation of a Profession

A brief review of literature into the work done by Hall (1948); Shaffer (1968); Webster (1969); Chatterjee and Khan (2003) and Aikara (2004) on the study of professions clearly indicates that the sociologists have held a special fascination for this area of investigation since the last part of nineteenth century but the work done is not as much as compared to other sub-disciplines of sociology.

There are two major approaches pertaining to the study of professions:-
1.3.1 **Structural-functional Approach:** Discarding the definitional approach and cynicism towards professions, structural-functionalists talked of emphasising on evolving attributed or ‘ideal type’ of professions. Max Weber while describing the concept of ‘process of rationalising’ used some variant of ‘rational’ as synonymous with systematic, profitable, intellectualised, efficient, logical, accumulative, cognitively encompassing, disenchanted, and/or as any change from status quo (Gerth and Mills 1948). The approach found its best exposition in Durkheim’s (1933) ‘division of labour’ and its function in maintaining ‘social order’ and ‘cohesion’. To avoid ‘anomic’ form of division of labour, Durkheim emphasised on the increasing roles of occupational professional groups and syndicates. They were to his mind a mid-point between state and the family. Professions did not represent only the unrestricted economic interest but they were rooted in the moral codes and ethics.

Parsons (1968) saw in the growth of professions, the emergence of a new ‘social force’, which he was inclined to regard as a universal trait of all modern societies, including the socialistic ones. The massive emergence of the ‘professional complex’ had displaced first the ‘state’ in the relatively early modern sense of that term, and then, ‘the capitalist or socialistic’ organisation of economy. He tried to substantiate this by stating that ‘professional men were neither ‘capitalists’ nor ‘workers’, nor were they typically government administrators or ‘bureaucrats’. They certainly were not independent peasant proprietors or members of small urban proprietary groups”. Parsons (1939) gave an ideal-typical view of a profession that involved such attributes as prolonged socialisation, collective identity, control and regulation of the behavior of the professional by the professional body, professional fraternity etc.

According to Carr-Saunders (1928), “a profession may be defined as an occupation based upon specialised intellectual study and training, the purpose of which were to supply skilled service or advice to others for a definite fee or salary”. He was of the opinion that while certain occupational groups were unambiguously professions, in
case of others it was a matter of degree. These groups of specialists sooner or later formed associations to protect their interests, firstly to secure monopoly for members of the association to practice that profession; secondly to prescribe and enforce a proper standard of professional and honourable conduct; and thirdly, to improve the status of the profession, which among other things, was a function of the monetary rewards offered by it.

Greenwood (1957), who also shared the view that the difference between professions and non-professions was a matter of degree and not quality, and attempted to construct an ideal type of professions in terms of five attributes namely (i) systematic theory, (ii) authority, (iii) community sanction, (iv) ethical codes, (v) culture.

There were many other scholars like Webb and Beatrice (1917); Tawney (1920); Marshall (1939); Cogan (1953); Millerson (1963); Goode (1957); Sciulli (2005) and Torstendahl (2005) who listed the characteristics of the profession.

1.3.2 Conflict Approach: The key concepts of this approach are conflict, change and coercion. Marxists viewed professions as a part of stratification and class structure. In their view, knowledge and professional skills is a commodity having its market value. It can be exchanged for money. They defined the ‘profession’ as positions defined with in the technical relations of production and ‘class’ on the other hand, the social relations of production (Marx 1967). Followers of Marxian approach defined the profession as those occupations which are based on practice and ideology of people who call their occupation a profession and claim certain prerogatives, and, in exchange, they offer or claim to offer certain services due to expertise they possess by way of specialised training which, in turn, results in creation and control of a protected, or institutional market (Oppenheimer and Dale 1982).
The Bowles (1972) was of the view that the rise of public education in capitalist economies occurred along with, and as a consequence of advancing capitalism. Capitalism, he argues, first requires a skilled and disciplined labour force, one which cannot be adequately socialised by the traditional institutions of family and church. Secondly, it could supply workers who had already learned the values and behaviour conducive to productive labour. Children could be taught punctuality, discipline, deference to authority, and acceptance of responsibility for their work. The social relations of the school (the relationship between teacher and students for example) could replicate the social relations of the workplace and ease the transition from the family to the world of work. Third, the schools could teach loyalty to the state and obedience to law. This loyalty could be achieved by convincing children that the system was benevolent and just. The schools, then, could provide the capitalist economy with a ready, willing, and able supply of workers, while at same time assimilating foreign and potently disruptive groups within the population. Bowles argues that it was for these reasons that a system of mass education was finally established in capitalist economies.

Waller (1961) sees the school as a coercive institution. At the top are teachers, given their authority by the community outside the school. At the bottom are the children, relatively (but not totally) helpless under their yoke. Here, the interests of teachers are in unavoidable and universal conflict with the interests of the children. The teacher is the task-master, attempting to make the students learn the formal curriculum. The students are subordinate to them, but are much less interested in schoolbooks than in their classmates and informal activities. The teacher then must coerce the students into obedience and learning.

1.3.3 Attributional Analysis of Professions

Because of the difficulties inherent in accepting any one definition; scholars chose a different path; they defined professions by criteria. And various attempts were made to itemise the traits of profession which emerged in response to new market opportunities,
created by industrialisation and the decline of communal warrants of professional probity (Goode 1960; Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933).

1.3.3.1 A Body of Abstract Knowledge: “It is this characteristic, the possession of an intellectual technique acquired by special training, which can be applied to some spheres of everyday life that forms the distinguishing mark of a profession” (Carr-Saunders 1962). Continued employment of the scientific method is nurtured by, and, in turn, reinforces the element of what Parsons, following Weber, calls rationality (Parsons 1939; Weber 1947). The source of abstract knowledge could be a university or a training institution, which culminates in the production of knowledge with the standardised production of professional producers. Higher education is thus, a key variable in professionalisation.

1.3.3.2 Service-orientation: It is assumed that the abstract body of knowledge and skill, acquired through extensive training by the members of the professional group, would be utilised for the other members of the society. The professionals are assumed to be altruistic; for them, their own interest is secondary and the interest of the other members of the society is primary.

1.3.3.3 Professional Authority: The prolonged specialised training in the body of abstract knowledge imparts the professional with a type of knowledge, which is lacking in the common man. This creates a sense of uniqueness, of having claim to a special territory, forbidden to the outsiders. The concept of professional authority can be simplified by drawing a distinction between a ‘customer’ and a ‘client’. A client is related to a professional occupation while a customer to a non-professional occupation. A customer can safeguard his interests through his own judgement in non-professional occupations whereas in professional occupations, the professional has to decide what is good and bad for the client because the client lacks the requisite theoretical knowledge. This monopoly of judgement is limited to the professional field only. Parsons calls it ‘functional specificity’ (Parsons 1939).
1.3.3.4 Community Sanction: The community gives power and authority to the professions in a formal and an informal manner to have control over the training centers run by the professions. The formal authority of the professions is enforced by the community’s state power. This is done through accrediting process. This helps profession in maintaining monopoly over the clients.

1.3.3.5 Professional-client Relationship: Another quality of a profession is professional-client relationship. There are three types of professional-client relationship. The first type of relationship is based on the belief that the client is in the need of the expertise of the professional. The second type of relationship is governed by the norms that require that the interaction be initiated by the client and the termination of interaction be initiated by the professional when the clients' problem has been solved, or the professional has reached the limits of his capability in aiding the client. The third type of relationship is the interaction itself which is based on privileged communication, competency of the professional, duration and type of the client and un-accountability of the professional (Wilensky 1984).

1.3.3.6 Professional Ethics: The monopolies acquired by a profession get abused if its members do not adhere to its ethical code. Rousseau wrote “The strong is never strong enough”, “To be always the master, unless one transforms strength into right and obedience into duty” (Rousseau 1950). No doubt, the ethical codes vary among professions, nevertheless the essentials are uniform. The client-professional ethics comprise cosmopolitanism, emotion neutrality, universalism and disinterestedness (Parsons 1939). The colleague-colleague relations, governing ethics demand behaviour that is co-operative, equalitarian and supportive.

1.3.3.7 Professional Culture: Another characteristic of the profession is that there emerges a professional culture consisting of values, norms and symbols (Bledstein, 1976). One of the central concepts of the professional culture is the career concept. A career is essentially a ‘calling’, a life devoted to ‘good work’.
1.3.3.8 **Professional Associations and Code of Conduct:** Professionals form associations that would nurture the growth of the profession, defend the rights of the members, achieve satisfactory working conditions, and engage in action research and other developmental activities to add to the corpus of prevailing knowledge, maintain standards, enjoy autonomy, be accountable and strive to raise the social status of the practitioners. Members of the association should also be bound by certain ethics and a code of conduct.

1.4 **Professionalisation and Professionalism**

These organisational strategies transform non-professional occupation into a professional occupation and structuralists put this process as professionalisation. These attributes are not the exclusive monopoly of the professions; non-professional occupations also possess them, but to lesser degree. In the Marxist approach professionalisation is a process by which producers of special services seek to constitute and control a market for their expertise. Professionalisation is, thus, an attempt to translate one order of scarce resource, special energy and skills into other social and economic rewards (Larson 1977). Professionalisation is a process by which persons in an occupational category struggle to gain the advantage of being professional (Oppenheimer 1982).

The professionalism is used to denote the ideology and value system of professions. The professional ideology is related with culture and value system of a society. Social values and the culture settings, to a great extent, decide attitudes towards work, and provide norms and standards of work, performance and techniques for the application of knowledge. Structural-functionalisists view professionalism as observance of codes and ethics, service, community orientation, effectual-neutrality, rationality and objectivity. According to Marxists professionalism may be characterised by the extension of exchange relations and use value. Thus, the professions are labor market (Larson 1977). Many scholars studied the work and non-work activities of professional groups
and how they and allied parties use the discourse of professionalism to realise their goals (Aldridge and Evetts 2003; Cohen et al. 2005; Hanlon 1998). Evetts (2006) viewed how and in what ways the discourse of professionalism is being used (by states, by employers and managers, and by some relatively powerful occupational groups themselves) as an instrument of occupational change (and resistance to change) and social control.

1.5 A Review of Literature

The preoccupation of sociologists in India was with the study of tribes, castes, families and rural/urban India. There are certain studies on occupations such as Mukerji (1958) and Ghurye (1961) but they studied occupations in the framework of caste only. It was in seventies only; the need for the study of professions was felt after Nehru’s efforts to modernize India and United Nations Organisation declaration of sixties as the decade of development. All these studies of professions emerged as a part of the study of class structure. The review of study of professions published between 1960 and 2005 according to frequency of country, frequency of professions and frequency of themes/content areas are presented in Appendix-(i),

Notable contributions have been made by Madan (1972, 1980); Chandani (1985); Oommen (1978); Rika and Wegar (1993); Johnson et al. (1995); Benoit and Heitlinger (1998) and De Vries et al. (2001) on the medical profession, by Galanter (1972); Morrison (1972); Gandhi (1982) and Orzack (1998) on legal profession, by Aurora and Rao (1977) and Evetts (1999) on scientific and technological profession, by Mishra (1961); Swanson (1971); Dubey (1975); Tilly (1975); Skocpol (1979); Wallerstein (1984); Abbott (1988); Torstendahl and Burrage (1990); Burrage and Torstendahl (1990); Brint (1994); Esping-Andersen (1996); Hanlon (1998); Hellberg et al. (1999); Swank (2002); Abbott (2002); Torstendahl (2005); Sciulli (2005) and Evetts (2006) on professions in general and Damale (1970); Ruhela (1970c); Dutt (1970); Malavika
1.5.1 Teaching Profession

Teaching profession falls under a special category among other professions. For instance, the job of a doctor as a professional is finished when the cure is attained and that of a lawyer when the case is decided in the court of law. But the influence of a teacher as a professional does not cease merely after passing of an examination by a student. The professional role of a teacher is not analogous to that of a lawyer or a doctor, because the former’s influence endures and is reflected in the minds sharpened (or not sharpened), personalities shaped (or not shaped) and characters moulded (or not moulded). Moreover, the teacher as a professional is the maker of other professionals.

In the light of these observations, it seems pertinent to investigate to what extent teachers as professionals have fulfilled their social obligations.

Ruhela’s work (1970c) on schools is based on the collection of articles contributed by educationalists, psychologists and sociologists. It covers the rich variety of issues relating to the social backgrounds, professional equipment and professional behaviour of teachers. It also covers an equally impressive range of issues relating to the structure of the school system, teachers’ role, status and problems of the teachers. In a
systematic study of professional role of secondary school teachers, Shah (1970) notices considerable evidence of role consensus among various role definers in that they almost unanimously rejected the old authoritarian concept of the teacher's role and, instead, conceived of it in more diffuse terms. Comparing school teachers with other white-collar professionals, Dutt (1970) finds the former lacking in professional attributes such as extended training, code of professional ethics, strong professional associations, work autonomy, etc. Examining the attitudes and values of teachers, Gore et al. (1970a) discerns college teachers to be secular and activist. Majority of them seemed to regard the simplification of ideas as their major pedagogic function and that between one-third and two-third had never published anything.

Chitnis (1973) in her study opines that, college teachers do not seem to measure up as professionals. From among the seven indicators in terms of which their occupational standing has been examined, they seem to qualify satisfactorily on only one; their idealism and their commitment to their work. On the other six indicators— their foundation upon advanced learning, the importance of function the occupation fulfills in society, their organisation and solidarity, their autonomy and the status accorded to their occupation – they fail to fit in the concept of professionals. Khanna's (1979) study of the teachers of Jodhpur University examines the level of aspiration and commitment of teachers, and comes to the conclusion that majority of the university teachers have neither high aspirations nor high commitment. The work of Derebello (1979) is on the impact of schooling on students. It presents a research project to be tried in Hyderabad and Secunderabad as a replication of a study done in California on the relationship between schooling and personal efficacy. The findings of the California study is that the more formal schooling a child received, the higher would be its rating on the personal efficacy scale.

Singh (1979) has tried to measure the extent of modernisation in the attitudes and values of university teachers. He have found that teachers of social sciences seemed to
have better understood the values of objectivity and rationality, while the science teachers appeared to have imbibed the mechanistic aspects of science without having grasped its basic stance of skepticism and inquiry. He finds teachers role structures as more transitional than either purely traditional or purely modern. Those who were pure modern in their outlook— that is committed, having high aspirations and demanding autonomy in the pursuit of their profession— were a small majority and so were pure traditional— that is, those low in aspirations, low in commitment and prone to acquiesce in the decisions made by those in authority.

Sharma’s (1979) study of 770 students of Punjab University is based on to see the effect of education on modernity. He discovers that the quality and content of education and the type of early schooling, rather than education per se, have a role to play in inculcating modern attitudes and values. Analysing the role preference of university teachers, he finds that the majority of them rated the teaching role (conserver and conveyer of knowledge) as the most important, the research role (creator of knowledge) as of considerable importance, the character-building role as relatively less important, and the perspective-shaping role (socio-political outlook molding) as the least important. At any rate, the fact remains that teachers perceive their professional self-image more as ‘subject specialist’ than as ‘student welfarist’. In his study of college teachers of Bombay University, Altbach (1979) observes that the college teaching role is marked by a sense of ‘ambivalence’ — a conflict between the broader ideology of the academics, which does stress research and writing, and his or her own reality, which does not. The basic structure of the college in India is autocratic with little pretence of the collegial decision-making and for this as well as several other reasons college teaching according to him, has failed to develop fully into a profession.

In a study of Bangalore University Teachers Association, Jayaram and Sivaramakrishna (1979) notices that teachers viewed their union as some sort of
insurance agency, expecting the office-bearers to ‘cover their risks’. They were reluctant to accept responsibilities or participate in deliberations. In effect, even as the union was complete in terms of enrolment of members, it was weak in terms of the involvement of members. Thus, unlike trade unions, teachers unions evoke neither feeling of solidarity nor of professional pride, despite the often-high calibre of leadership. Most important of all, the authors point out that teacher organisations function more as economically oriented unions than as learned societies, with teacher’s interest in them being one of economism rather than professionalism. Analysing the internal organisational environment of college academics in Bombay, Heredia (1979) has advanced significant evidence of centralisation of authority and of heavy reliance on bureaucratic criteria for decision-making. This means that there is little scope for professional autonomy among college teachers. Making a distinction between unionisation and professionalisation, he has drawn attention to such consequences of the former as the increased magnitude of bureaucratisation and politicisation, which, in turn, undermine the professionalisation potential of teacher organisation.

Wadhawan’s work (1980) on schoolteachers of Delhi has found that they generally belong to low socio-economic background. Social background of women teachers is slightly better than their men counterparts but men are more professional than women teachers. They hardly tried to enhance their subject knowledge and expressed no utility of in-service training programmes. The overall assessment in the light of the variables like evaluation of principals, evaluation of colleagues, colleague-group orientation and teacher autonomy, general ability of teachers, evaluation of students, evaluation of parents attitude, teaching assignment, professional aspirations and job satisfaction, the teachers included in the sample turned out to be less professional and less satisfied with teaching as their career. Sinha’s study (1982) of the professional and social problems faced by the university teachers in Bihar finds widespread dissatisfaction among the teachers with respect to their family, professional and social life. Rao (1986) examines work adjustment and job satisfaction of teachers with rural and urban background.
Ramana (1986) focuses her study on women schoolteachers and their role performance and does not specifically discuss the issue of gender inequality. She finds that the role performance of teachers is affected by their socio-economic background, modernity and professional aspirations and commitment. Britto (1987) analyses the issue of education and equality from a different perspective. Her study of three schools in Bombay – elite, middle-class and municipal – shows how the schools with unequal infrastructure and inputs function as a source of creating and maintaining inequality. The studies conducted by Bhoite (1987) and Malaviya (1984) on the whole deal with the socio-economic background of teachers. While Bhoite studied teachers of arts and science colleges situated in the Mofussil areas of Marthwada region in Maharashtra, Malaviya studied the background of home science teachers. Singhal’s study (1988) of teacher-pupil ratio touches upon another aspect of teacher role in the schools in India. The study has shown that the existing norm of teacher-pupil ratio is different in the different states in India. Srivastava (1988) in his observation on university teaching, which is considered as the sacred ‘mother’ of professions, happen to be suffering from the combined effects of both, alienation and anomie. The noble, peace loving, truth-seeking, teaching-preaching-researching, intellectual-service-oriented life of the university teacher is not free from role ambivalence and conflicting ideologies. The first role conflict of the salaried university teacher is between his university authorities and his colleagues, both junior and senior; the second, closely linked, is the conflict between loyalty to the employer (Chancellor, Vice-chancellor, Syndicate, Senate etc.) and to clients (students who are not the pay masters) where the two parties are not one and the same.

The study conducted by Gupta and Rani (1988) is based on 183 teachers of three higher secondary schools of a small town Samana in Punjab and six high schools from the nearby villages. The study reveals that higher is the age more is the commitment towards the profession. Teachers in urban areas are more committed as compared to their rural counterparts. The male teachers from rural and urban areas are more committed than female teachers. Among the females, urban teachers are more committed.
The study of Tapodhan (1991) is based on 480 Gujarati speaking secondary school teachers of 19 districts of the state of Gujarat. The study is intended to measure the attitude of teachers towards the profession in relation to various variables as sex, area, caste, qualification, type of the school, marital status, and various faculties of education, age and experience. The findings of the study are that female teachers have more favourable professional attitudes than male teachers, urban teachers have more favourable professional attitudes than rural teachers, B.C. teachers have more favorable professional attitudes than non-B.C. teachers, qualification has no effect on professional attitudes, non-government teachers have more favourable professional attitudes than government teachers, marital status has no effect on professional attitudes, arts teachers have more favourable professional attitudes than science and commerce teachers, age and experience have no effect on professional attitudes of the teachers.

Raju’s work (1992) is carried out with a sample of 454 teachers of senior secondary schools drawn from 28 schools of Delhi, to study the factors contributing to the commitment to teaching profession using 18 psychosocial variables. The five predictor-factors identified from 18 psychosocial variables that contribute more to less significantly contribute towards the professional commitment of the teachers are perceived characteristics of the profession, work-related personality, professional satisfaction and importance, desire for skill improvement and professional choice satisfaction.

John’s study (1992) is based on 390 teachers of 27 colleges affiliated to Gorakhpur University. His findings infer that gender difference, teaching experience and rural/urban background have no bearing on teachers’ professional values but minority community managed college teachers have higher professional values than their counterparts of non-minority community managed colleges. Same trend is found in terms of professional growth of the college teachers. In terms of principal’s decision making
style, those who followed heuristic type of decision making style have direct bearing on
teacher's professional growth and values, than those, who followed supportive,
compromise and routine type of decision making style. Chauhan's work (1995) is based
on 700 teachers working in 52 government and privately managed high schools in the
state of Haryana. The study is based mainly on three professional aspects of teachers,
namely, professional responsibility, teaching attitude and organisational climate. One of
the significant findings of the study is that gender difference and type of the school have
no bearing on the professional responsibility of the teachers. In terms of attitude towards
teaching, government schoolteachers have higher degree as compared to their private
school counterparts but gender difference has no bearing towards teaching attitude. He
found that there is hardly any difference in the organisational climate of both type of
schools. Teaching attitude and organisational climate jointly contribute for the variance
of teacher's professional responsibility.

The study of Saroha (1995) is based on 104 male and 96 female teachers working
in 16 government high schools of Faridabad district of the state of Haryana. The three
variables used in the study are self-concept, socio-economic status and social adjustment.
The findings of the study are that gender has no role to play in achieved or ascribed
socio-economic status, self-concept and social adjustment. An association has been found
between socio-economic status and self-concept in terms of male and female as well as
ascribed and achieved. An association has also been found between socio-economic
status and social adjustment in terms of male and female as well as ascribed and
achieved. A close association is found between self-concept and social adjustment in
terms of male and female teachers.

Kapoor's study (2000) is based on the students and teachers of an Arunachal
Pradesh school. He tried to investigate the affect of socio-economic background of
students and teachers towards the acquisition of environmental education and attitude
towards the environment awareness. The study of Singh (2001) is based on the teachers of a physical education college. In his study, he has tried to investigate socio-personal background, achievements, adjustment and job satisfaction of the teachers. Harinder's work (2002) is based upon the students of Punjab studying in urban primary schools. An attempt is made to study the television viewing behaviour of the students.

1.5.2 School Teaching: A Critical Review

From the brief review of the literature on teaching profession in general, it is found that college and university teaching has had been the preferred area of investigation for sociologists as compared to school teaching. Ruhela's work (1970c) on schools is a collection of articles based upon the theoretical principles of psychology, sociology and education. Shah's work (1970) on schoolteachers covers only a single professional aspect of role transition from authoritarian to liberal. Dutt in her study (1970) compared schoolteachers with other white-collar professionals in terms of degree of professionalisation. The work of Derebello (1979) is on the impact of formal schooling on the personal efficacy of the students. He compared his sample of California with that of Hyderabad and Secunderabad.

Wadhawan's work (1980) is a notable study on 375 schoolteachers of Delhi. The set of criteria adopted to judge the degree of professionalisation of teachers is drawn from the sociology of professions. The overall assessment of data reveal that the teachers included in the sample turned out to be less professional and less satisfied with school teaching as their career. The type of schools whether government or private is not mentioned in the study. The findings based on the teachers of a metropolitan city can hardly represent the state of affairs of the teachers coming from the major rural India. Raman's study (1986) is limited only to the women school teachers of Vishakhapatnam municipal schools and does not specifically discuss the issue of sex inequality. In his study Singhal (1988) touches upon only a single aspect of teacher-pupil ratio of a
teacher's role. The study of Gupta and Rani (1988) is based on 183 schoolteachers of a small town Samana in Punjab. The professional commitment of the teachers is measured in terms of their professional training, earlier occupation, future plans, and responsibility they feel towards students and membership of teacher organisations. Certain significant attributes of professionalisation like attitude towards work, observance of professional ethics, professional authority and autonomy, prevalence of professional culture etc., are missing in the measurement of professional commitment of the teachers. The type of the schools covered for the study is not clear. Moreover the small size of the sample put it in the doubtful value in terms its statistical significance.

The study of Tapodhan (1991) of 480 Gujarati speaking secondary school teachers restricted to individualistic characteristics of the schoolteachers based on the discipline of psychology of education. The whole state of affairs cannot be described on the base of individualistic characteristics. Raju's work (1992) is carried out with a sample of 454 teachers of 28 senior secondary schools of Delhi, covers the behavioural aspect of the teachers. It is not mentioned whether the schools selected are government or private schools. This study may have relevance while selecting the schoolteachers that only right people join the profession. The work of Saroha (1994) based on 104 male and 96 female teachers working in 16 government high schools of Faridabad district of the state of Haryana, is again limited to behavioural attributes of the teachers based on the principles of psychology of education.

Chauhan's work (1995) is based on 700 teachers working in 52 government and privately managed high schools. The study is based on to find the inter-relationship between three behavioural aspects namely professional responsibility, teaching attitude and organisational climate, drawn from the theoretical principles of educational psychology. It is not mentioned whether the schools included in the sample are rural or urban. Kapoor's (2000) research project is based on the students and teachers selected
from a single school of Arunachal Pradesh. The sample is too small to generalize the findings of the study. Harinder’s work (2002) is based on primary school students and is restricted to the urban schools. Sharma (1979) in his study of 770 students of Punjab University finds that the quality and content of education and the type of early schooling, rather than education per se, has a role to play in inculcating modern attitudes and values.

Atal (2003) in his review of education profession has discovered some priority areas of study in school system as: teachers as role models, monitoring teaching-learning process in formal educational institutions, work culture in educational institutions etc.

There is no dearth of studies like Gore et al. (1970a); Chitnis (1973); Altbach (1979); Heredia (1979); Bhoite (1987) and Malaviya (1984); John (1992); Singh (2001) on college teachers and Khanna (1979); Singh (1979); Sharma (1979); Jayaram and Sivaramakrishna (1979); Sinha (1982); Srivastava (1988) on university teachers, which are based on the theory and principles drawn from sociology of professions. Except the studies conducted by Wadhawan (1980); Gupta and Rani (1988); Chubb and Moe (1990); Davis and Guppy (1997) and Davis and Quirke (2007), all other studies on school teachers are either based on to study the behavioural aspects of the teachers or investigated one or two attributes of professionalisation of teachers.

Education being a social institution has individual level functions (formation of social personality, social placement and social mobility) as well as societal level functions (social stability, division of labour and social change) to perform (Aikara 2004). In the process of acquisition of formal education the desirable status-roles, contents and context of learning are predefined and determined. For the education to be functional is dependent to a large extent upon the roles performed by various status-role performers at different organisational levels (school, college and university). Various status-role performers in education can be broadly classified into two categories as ultimate beneficiaries and supportive role performers. Students and parents constitute the first category whereas teachers and administrators (members of management in privately run educational institutions and officials in the upper hierarchy in state run educational
institutions) fall in the second category of status-role performers. In any context the status roles (student, teacher and administrator) generate six types of social relationships. These are student-teacher, student-administrator, teacher-administrator, student-student, teacher-teacher, and administrator-administrator.

Another status-role of parent adds four more social relationships viz. student-parent, teacher-parent, administrator-parent and parent-parent. The various social relationships generated by these status-roles are characterised either by cooperation and healthy competition or by conflict. In any context if a social relationship is based on cooperation and healthy competition then it is functional to education and if it is based on conflict then it is dysfunctional to education. In case of education the hub of the structure of social relationships is that of teacher-student and all other social relationships are supportive of it. The status-role of a teacher is characterised by the possession of knowledge and the required skill to communicate it to the student effectively and the status-role of the student is defined to acquire the knowledge. If the teacher does not have competence (knowledge and skill to impart it) and his/her commitment to role performance and the student does not accept it as a value then the outcome of this social relationship will not materialise. Other additional status-roles of administrator and parent form the part of the social structure in education in order to facilitate the teacher-student interaction.

The World Bank report authored by Chand and Mishra (2004) reveals another gloomy dimension of the schools of the state of Punjab. The report says “On any one day 36 percent of Punjab’s primary school teachers are absent from school. The rate is third highest across Indian states, following Bihar and Jharkhand”.

An IIM-A study (2006) of 400 districts of 13 states, have found that Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, the Centre’s flagship scheme to improve primary education, is a success in numbers. The study explains that more than 50 percent of Indian children are dependent on private schools, among the highest in the world, due to the failure of state-run schools to provide quality education. Study suggests that quality can be assured if
besides infrastructure, teaching staff, support staff and monitoring system, are in place. Field reports reveal that state-run schools in both rural and urban India now cater only to the most deprived sections of the population. In many parts of rural India, it is now rare to find children of the professional class or the village elite attending a local school. Such segregation of children along caste and class lines, even if not by design, is unwelcome and needs to be addressed immediately. Involvement of communities, in the running of state schools, say parent-teacher associations, has had significant impact in Kerala and Nagaland. The study explored the significance of another status-role of that of community (parent-teacher association and village educational development committee) in ensuring the quality education, in the form of four more social relationships viz. community-teacher, community-student, community-parent and community-administrator.

The UNESCO’s International Institute of Educational Planning study (2007) on corruption in education says that 25 per cent teacher absenteeism in India is among the highest in the world and second only after Uganda that has a higher rate. It also says teacher absenteeism not only affects quality of education but also a huge drain on resources, resulting in the wastage of 22.5 per cent educational funds in India. Teachers also believe strongly in private tutoring, a practice identified by UNESCO as unethical. "It (private tuition) does not complement learning at school and leads to corruption", the report said. The practice of ghost teachers and involvement of teachers in mismanagement of schools were other grey areas identified in Indian education system. The recruitment of school teachers, which has been a rare thing in the state of Punjab, if it happens, is full of corrupt practices. A recent enquiry report has found that many teachers made to the selection list by acquiring fake experience certificates countersigned by higher officials.

An analytical report of education indicators by National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) for (2005-06) revealed the fact that the teachers were not only to blame for this, sometime they were working as paramedic, enumerator and election staff at the cost of children and teaching. The Punjab Education
Development (amendment) Bill, (2007) which makes provision for private-public partnership for Adarsh schools to be set up at the cost of 500 crore to take care of 75,000 children neglecting 34 lakh students studying in public schools, is another measure of the state to segregate the children in terms of equality in access to quality education. The situation is so grim that community has come forward through Public Interest Litigations (PIL), (2007) in the court of law quoting the alarming drop-out rate in public schools due to the shortage of teachers. The majority of sufferers were the rural poor residing in far flung areas and the state has not devised any plan to ensure their return.

A survey conducted by People Forum (2008), on education and social reforms in 15 public schools of Faridkot district in the state of Punjab, have revealed that the number of general category students in public schools is continuously falling. The percentage of general category students in 2000-01 was 42.5 per cent and continuously decreased to 22.8 per cent in 2008-09. Since most of the educated persons and middle class families prefer private schools for their children, this has led to poor quality of education in public schools. As most of the students in public schools are the children of labourers and daily wagers, so there is no one to question the teachers to make them responsible. The survey put it a very disturbing trend, which is hitting the concept of social equality and harmony hard.

Sen (2008) while talking about a just society in reality in the era of globalisation, emphasised the indispensable role of qualitative and quantitative public school education system for the marginalised. Blaming the broken down inspection system of Indian public schools, for teacher absenteeism, delayed arrival in the school and private tutoring, that has a profound effect on the schooling of poor and underprivileged children - sometimes first-generation school goers - unsure of their rights and unable to raise their voice. He advocated the role of parents and teacher associations instead of teacher unions, in inculcating the work culture among the school teachers, in the delivery of school education.
The rural school education is more in a state of neglect as compared to urban school education in the state of Punjab. The phenomenon had begun more than a decade back and state may have to pay a heavy price in the form of lack of availability of skilled workers for lower category jobs and rural unemployment thus leading to unrest and chaos in the countryside. A study conducted by Ghuman (2006) of Punjabi University, Patiala, depict this fact that only 4.07 percent students were from rural areas in the universities and professional colleges of the state of Punjab against 66 percent of rural population. Another, similar study (2006) conducted by PRATHAM, an NGO in its ASER (rural) report, reveal the extent of poor quality of education being delivered in the rural schools of India. The data collected from 10726 households of 522 villages, from 18 districts of the state of Punjab, depict that 5 percent children were out of school, 60 percent of the 4th standard and 36.5 percent of the 5th standard students could not read a 2nd standard textbook in the state of Punjab. The condition of rural school education is more shocking in educationally backward and border districts of the state of Punjab.

A survey report (2008) brought out by a daily about Tarn Taran, a border district; reveal that 40 primary and middle schools have been closed due to non-availability of teachers and in others, 50 percent of posts of teachers have been lying vacant since last five years. In the district, 51 out of total 52 public secondary schools sans principals while 74 posts of headmasters are lying vacant. The inspection system is totally shattered due to the non-availability of vehicles and financial resources to maintain and ply them. In the Public Interest Litigation (2007), submitted before the court of law, it is mentioned that the shortage of 25000 posts of teachers and 2200 posts of heads, are taking the toll of public school education in the state of Punjab besides other factors.

Due to lack of effective governance and monitoring of the system, school teachers have started practising unprofessional practices. The prevalence of unprofessional practices among schoolteachers like absenteeism, dereliction of duty etc., have further added to the plight of trailing and frailing school system of Punjab what to talk of professionalisation or professionalism. It seems that the effect of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation have changed the role of the ‘Guru’ of the traditional
Indian educational system of ‘Gurukul’ from ‘social good’ to ‘self good’. The dependency of more than 50 percent of Indian children on private schools is a shift in paradigm of state from a ‘welfare state’ to ‘laissez-faire’ in the era of privatisation and liberalisation.

At the core of Michel Foucault’s picture of modern ‘disciplinary’ society are three primary techniques of control: hierarchal observation, normalising judgment, and the examination. From hierarchal observation, he was of the view that, there is a need for ‘relays’ of observers, hierarchically ordered, through whom observed data passes from lower to higher levels. From normalising judgment, Foucault meant the discipline through imposing precise norms that are pervasive in society, though different for different social institutions. The examination is a method of control that combines hierarchal observation with normalising judgment. It is a prime example of what Foucault calls power/knowledge, since it combines into a unified whole “the deployment of force and the establishment of truth” (Foucault 1975). It is obvious from the account of Foucault that a well-oiled hierarchal monitoring system in social institutions is indispensable for the thought of a ‘Good Society’.

According to Giddens, “the driving force of the new globalisation is the communication revolution”, and beyond its effects on the individual, this revolution is fundamentally altering the way public institutions interact (Giddens 2000). Giddens talk of the nation, the family, work, tradition, nature, as if they were all the same as in the past. They are not. They are institutions that have become inadequate to the tasks they are called upon to perform. The pessimistic view of globalisation would see it as destroying local culture, widening world inequalities and worsening the lot of impoverished, in the developing societies. Globalisation, creates a world of winners and losers, a few on the fast track to prosperity, the majority condemned to a life misery and despair (Giddens 1999). Neo-liberal political philosophy of the world nations have too much dominance by the marketplace over the effective modes of active governments and a more effective global civil society, thus leading to all troubles (Giddens 2000). Education, a public institution, is not an exception in the globalised world. The beneficiaries of the globalised
world are those who have access to or are a part of the knowledge-based society. That is
to say, those who have access to globalised educational institutions, not those who are
devoid of these institutions. The role of the welfare-state is either intentional or
ineffective, in creating inequalities in this public institution.

In the era of globalised knowledge-based society, Pierre Bordieu’s concern for
those who benefited least from it, deserve to be mentioned here. Pierre Bordieu’s work
emphasized how social classes, especially the ruling and intellectual classes preserve
their social privileges across generations despite the myth that contemporary post-
industrial society boasts equality of opportunity and high social mobility, achieved
through education. According to Bourdieu, social capital that is the accumulated form of
economic and cultural capital could be used to produce or reproduce social inequality
(Lane 2008). It is obvious from the account of Bordieu that differential forms of
educational institutions could be the potential source of propagation and preservation of
social inequalities in the society.

Durkheim was of the opinion that excessive individualism in education can lead
to personal defeat and social chaos. For him, education is above all a social means to a
social end - the means by which a society guarantees its own survival. The teacher is
society’s agent, the critical link in cultural transmission. It is his task to create a social, a
moral, being. Through, him society creates man in its image. ‘That,’ says Durkheim, ‘is
the task and glory of education’. The family is out since the indulgent warmth of kinship
ties is incompatible with the sterner demands of morality. If the family, small and
intimate as it has become, can provide emotional support and tension release, it is not
setting for cultivating the abstract idea of duty. On the other hand, moral education
cannot be deferred until adulthood, nor it can be entrusted to adult agencies whose
demands are excessive for a young child. So the task of moral education devolves upon
the school (Durkheim 1973).
These observations attract some concern to the state of affairs of the schoolteachers, sometimes called as the descendents of the clergymen and learned professionals and seek the answer to the following queries:

1. Whether the education as a social institution is functional in the age of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation in achieving its objectives in the larger society?
2. Whether various status-role performers in the school education have deviated from their role performance desired by the society.

Keeping these major questions in mind the present study is planned and it has the following aims and objectives.

1.6 Aims and Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the role of socio-economic and demographic profile of schoolteachers in the prevalence of unprofessional practices.
2. To examine the role of the type of the institution in the prevalence of unprofessional practices in schoolteachers.
3. To learn the status-role of the administrators (officials in the upper hierarchy or management) in the prevalence of unprofessional practices among schoolteachers.
4. To understand the status-role of students in the prevalence of unprofessional practices among the schoolteachers.
5. To investigate the status-role of the parents in the prevalence of unprofessional practices among schoolteachers.
6. To explore the importance of the role of the community (members of parent-teacher association and village educational development
committee) in the school system in containing the prevalence of unprofessional practices in school teachers.

The primary objective of this study is to examine the prevalence of unprofessional practices among the school teachers. Six unprofessional practices to be investigated are:

**Absenteeism:** People are not going to work or school when they should be going. Teachers are away from school during their duty hours. Those who have equation with the principal are adjusted with non-teaching duties out of the school. Others take the advantage of higher bureaucratic and political connections in abstaining from school. Kin of the members of the management in private schools, working as teachers in the school, misuse their connections in abstaining from school.

**Dereliction of Duty:** Dereliction of duty is the failure on the part of the people to do something that they have to do because it is the part of their job. While in the school, teachers do not teach during their teaching hours. Other leisure activities like gossiping, sitting idle in the classroom or in school canteen etc. take priority over teaching.

**Lack of Responsibility:** People do not have a sense of being accountable for the work or job that is necessary or wanted. School teachers are supposed to possess the knowledge and desired skill to impart that knowledge to the students. Besides transmission of knowledge, they are expected to reconstitute personalities and create productive, moral and responsible social beings. On the contrary, they lack the required zeal and commitment to do this.

**Discrimination:** To treat a person or a group of people differently on the basis of their skin colour, caste, class, race, religion, sex etc. A sense of universality is lacking in
the teachers. Personal whims do play a role while doing one’s duties. Students are not treated without the distinction of caste, class and creed.

**Authoritarianism**: A manner in which total acquiescence is demanded and there is no freedom for the people to act as they wish. Total obedience is expected from the students and there is no space for empathetic understanding of their feelings.

**Commercial Venality**: Commercial venality is a corrupt practice that is connected with, profit, and not quality or morality. Public funding funds the professional knowledge and skill acquired by the teachers. This knowledge should be used for the welfare of the society and students, but on the contrary, it is used for individual welfare and self-development of the teachers through private tutoring.

1.7 Method of Research

The universe of present study is Roopnagar district in the state of Punjab. The district of Roopnagar is named after its district headquarters, the town of Roopnagar. Formerly known as Ropar, is said to have been founded by a Raja called Rokeshar, who ruled during the 11th century and named it after his son Roop Sen. Roopnagar district, falls in Patiala Division of Punjab, between north latitude 30°-32° and 31°-24° and east latitude 76°-18° and 76°-55°. It is 42 Km from Chandigarh, the state capital. The district adjoins Una district (Himachal Pradesh) in the north, Hoshiarpur district in the northwest, Ludhiana and Patiala districts in the southwest and Chandigarh in the southeast. The district comprised of 4 Tehsils, 894 villages and 9 towns. The population of the district was 1110000, with 593638 males and 516362 females (Census 2001). With the formation of Mohali as a new district in the state of Punjab some towns of Roopnagar district have become a part of Mohali. There were total 708 schools in the Roopnagar district. Of which, 257 were government schools and 451 were private schools. There were total 4763 teachers in the upper primary public schools. Of that 3336 were posted in rural
schools and 1427 in urban schools. The number of female teachers was 3119 and that of male was 1644 (SAIES 2002). Data was not available regarding the private school teachers.

To achieve the set objectives of the study, four types of respondents namely teachers, inspectors, students and parents were included in the sample. The reason behind selecting four types of respondents in the sample was that their status-roles form the part of the structure of various social relationships in education as a social institution, and has a cause and effect role to play, in the prevalence of unprofessional practices in schoolteachers. Nevertheless, the teacher respondents were the real core of the sample because they are professional role performers in student-teacher social relationship which has a direct bearing on the outcome of education as a social institution. To achieve the second objective of the study, the respondents were chosen from government as well as private schools of Roopnagar district. To observe the preferred area of prevalence of unprofessional practices in schoolteachers, rural and urban schools were included in the sample. To examine the role of gender in the prevalence of unprofessional practices among schoolteachers, male and female teachers formed part of the sample. The administrator category of respondents included principals, other officers in the upper hierarchy and members of the management. The student category of the respondents included high and secondary standard students of both rural and urban schools. Parents of the students who were frequent visitors to the school formed parent category of the respondents.

Interview schedule that has been attached at Appendix-(ii) was used as the technique for data collection in terms of teachers as respondents. Case study method was used for all other categories of respondents to supplement the empirical findings of the study. The core for the choice of various unprofessional practices to be studied and questions for the interview schedule was based on the inputs collected from the students and parents. Students were asked to name the most liked and most disliked teacher of their school. They were then asked which qualities made that teacher the most liked teacher. Soft spoken, regular and empathetic towards students coming from low socio-
economic background were some qualities stated by them for the most favoured teacher of their school. Those who guided them regarding medical health and nutrition, personal hygiene, cleanliness; guided them in solving psychological/personal problems and maintained discipline in the classroom were in the list of favourite teachers. Those who involved themselves with students through co-curricular activities in the school, maintained good communication with the students and took pains to develop the personalities of the students were the most liked teachers by the students. On the contrary, who were arrogant, did not take interest in school affairs, did not maintain good relations with fellow teachers, always looked for opportunities to run away from school, indulged in factionalism to spoil the atmosphere of the school, behaved badly with the students and humiliated students in the presence of peer groups and other teachers were the most disliked teachers. Those who were always burdened by fatigue and personal problems in the classroom, did not attend the Morning Assembly rather chose to have breakfast in the staffroom, indulged in gossiping/reading newspapers or sitting in the principal’s office, took overtime to cover up the absence from scheduled classes, were in the list of disliked teachers among the student community.

Some of the parents, who were aware of the future prospects of their wards, were also critical about such teachers who boycotted or punished students over frivolous reasons. Parents play an active role in pinpointing such type of teachers in private schools due to direct access to the members of management who happen to be locals. On the other hand, the parents most of them labourers and petty shopkeepers whose children study in urban government schools have no courage to raise voice against such type of teachers. If some one has the courage to raise voice against such teachers he/she has no access to higher authorities or to the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) of the school whose members happen to be politically ambitious locals having no wards in the school. At the most if a parent approaches the principal of the school against the teacher he is persuaded to settle down the matter by the principal and the school staff using lip service and the concerned teacher is left unscathed and morally boosted to keep up the conduct.
The 73rd and 74th amendment in Act (1992) of the Constitution have delegated powers to members of the community to have a say in the running of day to day affairs of the educational institutions of their area in the form of self government.

The formation of Village Education Development Committees in rural areas and PTAs in urban areas are the result of this empowerment through 73rd and 74th amendment in the Constitution respectively. Their effectiveness seems doubtful after getting the inputs from the parents. Members of PTAs are either politically ambitious people or members of political parties and are selected by the principal of the school to maintain links with the political masters to settle down problems arising out of administrative lapses on his/her part. They are hardly approachable to the humble parents of the students. Even if they are approachable they are hardly enthusiastic to raise a voice against the teacher of the school in order to maintain his/her legacy of being member of PTA without being a parent of a ward in the school. On the other hand, VEDC members are found proactive as compared to members of PTA in taking interest in school affairs due to the small size of village community and better interpersonal communication. Members of VEDC have greater participation in school development programmes and thus greater interaction with the teachers. There have been many instances of locking of schools by the members of VEDC due to teacher absenteeism, unacceptable behaviour of the teachers, poor results etc. But such instances are hardly found in the urban schools.

Inputs from the members of school teaching community were highly useful in the construction of interview schedule. Having cordial and supportive relations between the teachers of the same subject was a rare thing in urban schools with few exceptions in rural schools. Desire to maintain supremacy over the other led them to adopt all possible means to degrade the other. Factionalism on the basis of caste, class, classes being taught, designation, religion, rural/urban background, subject being taught, sincerity towards duty, relationship with the principal etc. was a common thing in schools with few exceptions of rural schools. Private schools were virtually immune to it due to two tier
governing system. Teachers of private schools hardly find time to indulge in such type of practices. Female teachers do have some exceptions in doing such things but they indulge in other type of practices like indulging in group gossiping at the cost of teaching, taking their children to the school, usual refusal to do an extra work, sleeping in the classroom, always looking for excuses to run away from the school, coming late etc.

The inputs got from administrative staff to monitor the public schools reveal that it is indeed very cumbersome to back on rails highly deteriorated school system which suffers from many flaws. In a highly bureaucratic and politicised system the administrative staff has little autonomy and powers to act against the erratic teachers. Due to the shortage of clerical staff and regular summoning from the upper hierarchy there is hardly any time left to monitor the schools. Even if the administrators are determined to take action against the teachers the clerical staff at district and state level connive with the erratic teachers in tampering the charge sheets and they walk scot-free. In highly a politicised system of school education it is very cumbersome to bring to book the erratic teachers. The interview schedule contained both open-ended and closed questions. It was pre-tested. The questions that seemed difficult to answer were either dropped or changed. This process made the interview schedule precise and specific.

It was very difficult to find adequate number of respondent teachers for the study to represent rural/urban, male/female and government/private categories. Most of the private as well as government schools were dominated by female teachers. Moreover, the percentage of female teachers was quite high even in the rural schools of Roopnagar district due to its easy approach from state capital of Chandigarh and its satellite towns of Mohali and Panchkulla. A great number of female teachers who were supposed to be either spouses, daughters or daughters-in-law of the high rank officials in the state capitals of Punjab and Haryana who had the arrangement to get posting near Chandigarh, ply by chartered vehicles to attend schools in the Roopnagar district. In the absence of new appointment of teachers in government schools for several years it was very difficult to find young respondents for the sample in government schools. To overcome this
problem male and young teacher from government schools were interviewed when they were in the district headquarters to attend in service training seminars at In-service Training Centre, District Institute of Education and Training and Senior Secondary Schools at district headquarter. Most of the teachers in this group were either Computer Teachers or Art and Craft Teachers who were recently appointed in government schools. Private schools also had a high representation of female teachers in rural as well as urban schools. Female teachers of private schools and experienced male teachers were interviewed in their respective schools.

A total of 385 respondent teachers were interviewed to make the sample statistically significant. To achieve the set objective of the role of the type of school in the prevalence of various unprofessional practices (UPPs) among the teachers, 195 teachers were interviewed from public schools and 190 from private schools. In the category of private schools both philanthropic and individual run schools affiliated to state school education board, made to the sample. Previously the salaries of the teachers run by philanthropic organisations were shared by the state and the management in the form of paid posts of teachers but now most of the teachers are recruited and paid by the school management. Among the interviewed teachers of private schools, 177 were male and 208 female. The number of teachers interviewed from rural schools was 200 and that from urban schools was 185. The criteria adopted to differentiate urban and rural schools was that the schools falling in towns having Municipal Committees were considered urban schools and those having Gram Panchayats were considered as rural schools.

Keeping in mind the obvious reluctance of the teacher respondents to admit to the prevalence of a particular unprofessional practice among them, they were asked, whether it is present among the teachers of their school or teachers of other schools. Even if they responded in ‘No’, they were asked to give the suggestions to contain that particular unprofessional practice. Many of them responded to many suggestions listed in the interview schedule to contain that practice although they did not admit to it. While listing
the reasons and suggestions for a particular UPP in the interview schedule 'others' item was placed in the end of each table to entertain the reasons and suggestions not covered in the list to supplement the findings. At the end of the interview schedule respondents were asked to rate the prevalence of each of the UPP to be studied on a five point scale to avail another chance for the admittance to various UPPs under investigation. All respondents attempted even though did not admit to that UPP earlier. The objective behind this was to reassess the obviously deniable practice among the respondent teachers.

The data thus collected were posted to the coding forms for each respondent before posting to computer to minimise the posting errors, on a spread sheet in MS-Excel. All the columns on the spread sheet were checked for correctness against the response code. Data were then sorted out after copying on temporary spread sheet according to the different variables and responses summated to form frequency tables manually. Percentages for making comparisons were calculated manually but Standard Deviations and Means were computed using mathematical functions in MS-Excel.

This study consists of six chapters. In the first chapter the significance of the study is highlighted in the light of sociological orientation of the school teaching profession and the plight of the profession as depicted in numerous survey reports. The second chapter is dedicated to know the socio-economic profile of the school teachers. In the third chapter prevalence of six unprofessional practices among teachers are presented against type of the institution, sex and place of posting. The fourth chapter depicts the, correlation between socio-economic variables and the prevalence of various UPP. Reasons and remedies for the prevalence of various UPP in the light of type of the institution, sex and place of posting are presented in chapter five. The sixth chapter contains a brief discourse on major findings of the study.
In the process of acquisition of formal education the desirable status-roles, contents and context of learning are predefined and determined. Desirable status-role is the action or behaviour expected of the individual holding a particular status in a particular situation of interaction. Sometimes personal belief system, priorities of life, context of activity cast such an effect that a particular status-role holder deviates from the desired role. If the deviance is to such an extent that it starts affecting the outcome of a particular activity, then the role of the particular status-role holder becomes undesirable. If the status-role holder is a professional then his/her role becomes unprofessional.

In case of education if various status-role holders deviate from the desired roles then the structure of social relationships change, which ultimately affect the functions of education in society. To study the change in the social structure of education as a social institution is the concern of sociology. To study the change in the behavioural pattern of a professional (school teacher in this case) is the concern of sociology of professions.

The present study is an endeavour to assess the prevalence of unprofessional practices, reasons behind the prevalence of a particular unprofessional practice and remedial measures in containing that unprofessional practice among school teachers. Findings of the study may help the policy makers for the prevention and remedy of the prevalence of unprofessional practices among school teachers in general. Inferences drawn from the study may also help the researchers for doing the comparative studies and formulating hypothesis for the future studies.
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