

**THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF TEACHING AS A PROFESSION: A  
PHENOMENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF TEACHERS IN LUSAKA  
URBAN**

**By**

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## DECLARATION

I **DANIEL MAPULANGA** do hereby declare that this dissertation is a product of my individual effort; however scholarly content obtained from various literature has been acknowledged. This dissertation has not been submitted previously at this University or indeed any other University elsewhere for a degree qualification.

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## CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

This dissertation by **DANIEL MAPULANGA** has been approved as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Education in Sociology of Education by the University of Zambia.

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## ABSTRACT

There have been heated controversies on the definition and construction of teaching as a profession. The trait model school of thought presents a list of defining features of trait that every occupation ought to possess in order to be classified as a profession, but it ignores the social actors' accounts or constructions.

The study was set to construct the concept profession from the lenses of the actors, amidst positivist thinking and determine the extent to which the modified Millersonian and Wilenskyan trait models of professionalism apply.

This was an exploratory and descriptive mixed study design informed by rationalism and idealism. A sum of 5,613, teachers was randomised to yield 382 units of analysis for quantitative paradigm in this study. Quantitative data was collected by way of self administered structured questionnaire. For the qualitative sample, data was collected through Focus Group Discussions, and the number of Focus Group Discussions was determined 'until saturation' was attained as informed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS version 17 and qualitative data was analysed using qualitative descriptive analysis (QDA) which is embraced within phenomenology.

The results generally show that on all Millersonian professional traits teachers hold the view that they are professionals ( $n = 302, 79\%$ ), except on the two variables which are (i) teaching fails to meet the attributes of a profession because teachers easily leave their careers to take up other jobs (ii) teaching is not a profession because teachers take up this occupation as employment of the last resort after unsuccessful attempts at other careers of choice. As for Wilenskyan traits on the other hand, teaching emphatically qualifies as a profession ( $n=356 (93.19\%)$ ). Comparing the two trait models to verify which one had more explanatory power on teaching as a profession, the statistics show that respondents believed Wilensky  $n=356, (93.19\%)$  defined teaching as a profession better than Millerson,  $n=302, 79\%$ ). While teachers agreed with the Wilenskyan and Millersonian traits that they were professionals, their social constructions had similar and dissimilar descriptions. These descriptions were elaborate. The descriptions can be broadly classified in three (a) defining positive traits (b) defining negative traits and attempts to attain professional status. Based on the themes, teachers constructed teaching as a profession, but recognized that the occupation hosted a lot of negative attributes that militated against its professional claim. Government attempts have focussed on passing legislation toward recognising teaching as a profession, while advocacy has been influenced by accelerated agitation by teachers towards purifying the occupation against negative attributes with a view to attaining professional status.

It has been established that teaching is a profession from a positivist approach and that it is also a profession from an anti positivist or constructivist approach but amidst controversy that it is or it is not. The research unveils that the term profession is a social construction whose defining features are internally situated in the inclinations of the social actors. Professionalism has emerged to be the quality of practice and service to the client, and not the status of the advocates. The fact that teachers do not live in plush neighbourhoods in Zambia does not subtract from the reality that they are in fact the frame under which national development hinges. Annihilate education (teachers) then the whole nation is dead. This is how teaching is contextualised as a profession. It is about functional relevance to society. This study recommends that teaching be legislated as a profession and run on self regulated principles, in order that the occupation is underpinned on professional culture.

## **DEDICATION**

To the Memory of my parents  
Aram Chabala Mapulanga & Esther Chinyanta  
(Kambwali-Nchelenge District)

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I recognize the help I received from the Ministry of Education headquarters Department of Procurement and Supply for their acceptance to offer me a photo copier after advice from the Directorate of Human Resource and Administration. The officers at the Procurement section accorded me tremendous rare respect and decorum befitting a colleague pursuing advanced university education. They surprisingly assigned a clerical officer to physically operate the photo copier for me for 382 x 32 questionnaire copies. May the Almighty God richly bless you colleagues.

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## CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

### *Overview*

*In the face of a century old show down of heated controversy of what profession is and which occupations qualify to be classified as professions, those who write on sociology of professions, have dismissed teaching as an occupation that can never be referred to as a profession. As Freidson (1986) notes, reasons advanced thereto do not lead to any conclusion at all, but mere cynicism. This study henceforth constructs profession from the lenses of the teachers and illuminates a voice of these social actors in literature. This chapter is premised on the following subthemes: Background, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives and research questions, significant of the study, definition of terms and limitations of the study.*

### **1.0 Background**

A great deal of work on the professions has historically been dominated by the attempt to provide universal definitions of what constitutes the foundations of professionalism. However, Hanlon, for example, defines this approach as sterile and laments the ink that has been wasted on semantic nuances; after all, professionalism is not a static concept but ‘the product of a dialectical relationship with its environment’, (Hanlon, 1999:3). Larson (1977) on the other hand reflects that the study of professionalism has moved beyond an earlier taxonomic concern with who is in and who is out to the historically grounded study; the processes and circumstances through which occupations pursue, negotiate and maintain professionalism. At the heart of this lies the concept of the professional project (as Larson 1977 puts it) which can be defined as the systematic attempt by occupations to translate a scarce set of cultural and technical resources into a secure and institutionalised system of occupational and financial rewards so as to pave the way for collective mobility and social advancement.

Using ‘professional project’ as a conceptual tool usefully establishes the ‘concrete, historically bounded character of professionals as empirical entities’ (Witz, 1992: 64). These ‘empirical entities’ may become established through occupational claims to professionalisation – even if such a claim is never

realised (Freidson, 1983; Witz, 1992). Following from this, different occupations, due to their own individual circumstances, may present different stages, as well as different patterns, of professionalisation. Law, together with medicine, represents the archetypal model of the established profession. It presents the formal traits traditionally associated with professionalism, thus providing an authoritative example and benchmark for occupations embarking on professional projects (Johnson, 1972). Teaching and other occupations like nursing have been treated as semi professions (Brock et al., 1999). Whilst teaching presents many of the structural and organisational traits usually associated with checklist or trait based approaches to professionalism (MacDonald, 1995), alas! It is dismissed as a semi-profession by trait model writers.

On the other hand, occupations such as management and various forms of consultancy, may have historically displayed an unwillingness or incapability to professionalise. However, certain sections of these broad occupational groups are increasingly entertaining professional ambitions as illustrated by a preoccupation with formal closure, a growing attention to occupational self regulation and the development of strong professional institutions. Thus, these occupations can be considered as new or aspiring professions (Johnson, 1972).

Literature on the Sociology of professions therefore guides that the definition of the concept profession has been a source of debate since history. Abduquddus (2006) notes that eminent scholars like Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933), Marshall (1939, 1969), Wilensky (1964), Talcott Parsons (1939, 1964), Johnson (1967, 1972), Millerson (1964), Freidson (1970a, 1970b, 1986, 2001), are among the many key authors cited in the study of professions, but do not agree on how the concept must be defined. Trait model writers however, define profession as an occupational group with particular features of trait. Carr-Saunders & Wilson (1933), Marshall (1938), Talcott Parsons (1951) Millerson (1964), Wilensky (1964) are some of the remarkable scholars of this tradition.

Teaching has been defined and dismissed as a semi-profession by critics. The rules of natural justice demand that all parts to an argument be afforded an opportunity to be heard. It is against this background that this study employed a Phenomenological ideology with a view to constructing profession from the lenses of the actor. Witz (1992) cautions that sociologists, who work with the trait paradigm:

“need to address the central concerns of whose standards do students of sociology of professions conform to. The most significant argument concerns not what constitutes professionalism, but who decides the definition of professionalism and why?”

When people talk about classifying occupations as professions, they unknowingly espouse the defining attributes of the trait model. Johnson (1972) contends that the weakness of the trait model is its narrow definition of profession from the constructs of Medicine and Law, simply because these two occupations existed in the Anglo-American culture at a particular instance in the history of professions. Therefore all occupations claiming professional status are measured through the lenses of medicine and law.

It is however interesting to note that even among the trait model proponents, there is no consensus as to what the ideal defining elements are. Johnson (1972) indicates that among the trait model writers “there is no single trait that is accepted by all” as essential to a profession. Each of these writers includes or excludes the colleague’s proposed defining elements depending on which occupation one wants to pamper with or deprive of the professional status. This view is well supported by Leicht and Fennell (2001) who dismiss the trait model’s defining elements as arbitrary with no general consensus as to which of the proposed features of trait are essential and which ones are superfluous in their inclusion.

Millerson (1964) adds that as a matter of fact authors about the sociology of professions begin as Lawyers, accountants, sociologists, engineers, philosophers, historians, architects, and so forth. As a result, their occupational group affiliations determine a bias for the choice of defining items as attributes



for an occupation to be classified as a profession. As a consequence therefore, the trait models' checklist of defining features cannot be applicable to all occupations, obviously because occupations are unique from one another.

Johnson (1975:25) reflects that to accept the trait model school of thought unquestioningly as a sociological law is, in the least, naive, as it implies validating its abstract and biased constructs. It is therefore unacceptable to assume that occupations sprouting out of the medieval Anglo-American tradition such as medicine and law were the only professions, whose perspectives must mirror all other occupations. Granted they may be exceptions just like any other, but definitely not the rule.

Symbolic interactionists on the other hand, argue that the term profession is a relative construct which can be subjected to different constructions according to the inclinations of its advocates, (Hargreave and Goodson, 1996). Interactionists dismiss the trait theory's notion that 'every size fits all'.

A similar study to this one was conducted in Lusaka district looking at perceptions secondary school teachers held on whether or not they were professionals. Kamwengo (2010:45) reports that 87.5% of the respondents indicated that teaching was a profession. Surprisingly, Kamwengo dismisses the views of the social-actors and concludes that teaching was a semi-profession. She arrived at that conclusion by relying on the positivist variables from the trait model which she was not testing and was not part of her objectives. This was the undoing of that study, and created a point of departure for this current research which sought to construct teaching from an emic perspective.

## **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

Despite heated controversy on the definition of profession, the trait model school of thought and without theory, presents a list of defining features of trait that every occupation ought to possess in order to be classified as a profession. Using these defining elements, the trait model dismisses teaching as a semi-profession (lacking attributes required to be classified as a profession). However, the teachers' own constructs of what makes an occupation to be classified as a profession remain a gap in literature.

When people talk about classifying teaching as a profession, they argue from many vantage points and their arguments do not lead to any conclusion at all (Freidson, 1986). There are contradictions because the trait approach is a polarised phenomenon, and not founded on any theory to ring-fence its tentacles. As a consequence, some people argue from the Wilenskyan tradition; others use the Millersonian points of view, while others indeed argue from the generic point of view. In spite of these contradictions, research has not demonstrated the insufficiency or sufficiency of testing the positivist thinking by pitting it against social constructionism. In the face of sectarian interests in defining teaching as a profession, this study, invoked a mixed methods approach and was set to show the power of constructivism or interpretivism from the point of view of the actor over the positivist orientations described by Millerson and Wilensky.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

Using the strength of phenomenology as an epistemology and method (Benner, 1994; Crotty, 1998), the study was set to construct the concept profession from the lenses of the actor amidst positivist thinking and determine the extent to which the modified Millersonian and Wilenskyan trait models of professionalism apply. This purpose led to the development of specific research objectives listed below:

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

Research objectives according to Balikie (2000:6-12) stem from the purpose and tend to show how knowledge (epistemology) based on the research questions is grounded and presented and what world (ontology) the researcher desires to focus on. Therefore, the research objectives below are deductive and adductive in nature and the researcher desires to:

- 1) To tease-out the defining characteristics of teaching as a profession that teachers may select from Millersonian and Wilenskian models.
- 2) To test Millersonian and Wilenskian models with a view to determine the most competing theory in explaining teaching as a profession.
- 3) Understand the meaning of the constructs of teaching as a profession from phenomenological approach thorough lived experiences of teachers.
- 4) To describe steps that have been employed to make teaching attain the status of a profession.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

The primary concern about research, according to Creswell (2005: 117) and Maxwell (2005:69), is answering critical issues presented in the research problem or to learn about what is unknown or partially unknown. Therefore, this study sought answers to the following research questions:

- 1) Using the modified Millersonian and Wilenskian trait models of professional classification, what are the defining elements of teaching as a profession among teachers in Lusaka?

- 2) Which one of the two trait models under inquiry (Millersonian or Wilenskian) has greater explanatory power of teaching as a profession?
- 3) From the teachers' interpretation of professionalism, what are the constructs of teaching as a profession?
- 4) What attempts have been made in professionalising teachers?

### **1.5 Significance of the study**

This study is premiere in Zambia and as such, the methodology it has used may be replicated or broadened to cover more districts. Using both the nomothetic and idiographic tools of inquiry over the presented research problem, the findings of this study add to the existing pool of knowledge in the sociology of professions and thus give students of Sociology of Education an authentic and instructive empirical position.

### **1.6 Definition of terms**

Definition of terms provides situated meaning to the terminologies that constitute the research title.

**Phenomenological perspective:** A perspective denoting lived experiences of social actors.

**Profession:** Socially constructed occupational phenomenon whose defining elements are conceptualized by particular actors.

**Social construction:** The conceptualization of social reality based on actors live-life, and the way social phenomenon is institutionalized into particular people's traditions.

**Teaching:** Career occupation whose service is packaged in imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes into learners as well as moulding their behaviors in order to accomplish a variety of societal goals.

### **1.7 Limitations of this Study**

Like all studies, this study has notable limitations and caution ought to be considered when making interpretations. The study was done among teachers in Lusaka District Education. This means that results are locally specific and confined to the population studied and are not generalisable to other districts.

The trait model is a slippery paradigm with a huge number of authors contributing their own perspectives on professionalism. This study did not test all variables from individual writers on sociology of professions otherwise that was tantamount to studying the entire universe, but only took on those that are highly cited by eminent scholars.

The over reliance on the social constructions in this study, reduced the positivist outcome to a mere 'pedestrian.' The strength hereof however, lies in the realisation that humans are incapable of total objectivity because they are situated in reality constructed by their own subjective experiences, (Creswell, 1998). Thus the objective epistemology ('every size fits all') as espoused by the positivist trait model on professionalism is hence declared redundant. This study holds that profession is a social construction with constituent facets of defining elements symbolically inherent in individual occupations.

### **1.8 Theoretical Framework**

This study is idiographic and nomothetic in nature and as such there is no single framework guiding the inquiry. For the nomothetic component, it will be driven by the epistemology advanced by Karl Popper - rationalism. This kind

of epistemology impresses on the researcher to derive study variables which are called traits of professionalism from existing theories or trait models. The traits on professionalism will be extracted from Millersonian and Wilensian models. These are depicted in abstract below.

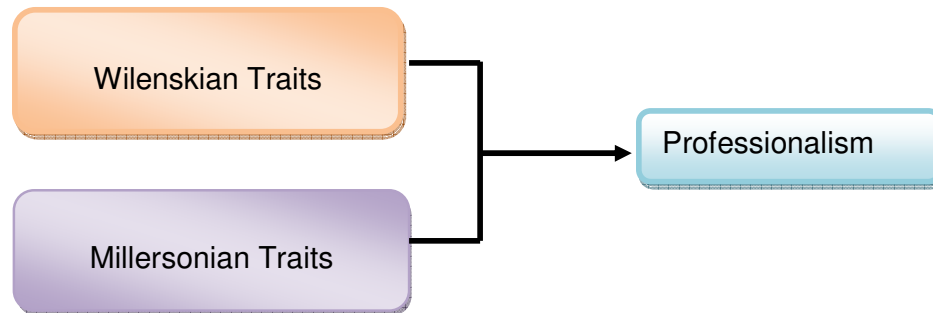


Figure 1.1 Wilensian and Millersonian Trait Models

The second is related to interpretivism and constructivism. Interpretivism (more generally conventionalism) (Lee, 1999; Lee et al., 1997; Walsham, 1995a, b) emphasizes the inherent meaningfulness of the social world. The concept of interpretivism relates well with phenomenology and calls for the researcher to use Weberian arguments that only when we come to understand the individual experience and its subjective interpretation that we begin to understand why social actors behave in particular ways. Interpretivists argue that only when we understand social actors' meanings and their interpretations that we could explain why things are the way they appear. In order to make interpretations, people have to rely on their social historical perspectives.

The other component of idiography is constructivism. Constructivism as Polkinghorne (1992) uses the term is closely related to foundationlessness, and refers to the notion that: Human knowledge is not a mirrored reflection of reality, neither the reality of surface chaos nor that of (if they exist) universal structures. "Human knowledge is a construction built from the cognitive processes (which mainly operate out of awareness) and embodied interactions with the world of

material objects with others and with the self" (Polkinghorne, 1992:150). Polkinghorne's definition refers to the philosophical belief that people assimilate a body of knowledge about one's world and environment by active participation in social action. While in their environment, people construct their own understanding of reality. Rather than assimilate a body of knowledge about one's world and environment, constructivists believe we 'construct' meaning based upon our interactions with our "local and specific constructed realities" wherein social phenomena are products of "meaning-making activities of groups and individuals" (Lincoln and Guba, 2000:165,167).

Constructivists believe that there is no reality except for what we create with our own senses. There are two types of constructivism and these are individual constructivism and social constructivism. Individual constructivism assumes that an individual attempts to reach coherence among the different pieces of knowledge. Constructions that are inconsistent with the bulk of other knowledge that the individual has will tend to be rejected. Constructions that succeed in integrating previously incoherent pieces of knowledge will be maintained. The second, to be called social constructivism, sees consensus between different subjects as the ultimate criterion to judge knowledge. 'Truth' or 'reality' will be accorded only to those constructions on which most people of a social group agree.

Given the descriptions above, the qualitative component of the study can be described as inductive a theoretical or concept/theory-generating research. This means that the purpose of the study is to develop constructs or theory not testing it. Therefore, the researcher does not use an existing or known theory to direct the part of the study. This approach, which is heavily based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967), is known as grounded theory.

## CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

### Overview

*This chapter evaluates the literature on the sociology of professions from the old school, the medieval Anglo-American tradition and the contemporary thinking. The chapter further chronicles debates on professionalism and the role and position of governments on professional claim. The second part of this chapter brings out instructive defining elements of professions from Millersonian and Wilenskiian trait models. The chapter ends by presenting contemporary reflections of teaching and its professional claim.*

### 2.0 Debates on Professionalism

Professionalism is inevitably a politically charged project accomplished through a sustained tactical campaign which includes the nurturing and mobilization of strategic alliances, which capitalise on their proximity with centres of established power (Larson, 1977; MacDonald, 1995). Further entails the deployment of material and ideological resources such as appeals to technical competence, ethical standards and public interest, so as to render their privileges and monopolistic claims more palatable (Freidson, 1970), and the fending off of jurisdictional challenges posed by competing groups equipped with alternative forms of cultural capital (Abbott, 1988). Gendered and other ascriptive criteria such as class and race, have historically played an important role in the unfolding of professionalisation projects, after all the establishment and maintenance of professional jurisdictions involve processes of occupational and social closure which restrict 'access to rewards and opportunities to a limited circles of eligibles' (Perkin, 1974: 3) thus excluding the incompetent, the undesirable or simply the outsider. Such exclusionary mechanisms continue to be reproduced and reinforced through the defensive strategies, ingrained beliefs and everyday practices of those who hold power in these institutions; normally white, male and middleclass (Davies, 1996; Witz, 1992).



This literature has only scratched the surface of a century old scholarly debate in the sociology of the professions. Firstly, it is clear why the task of defining, teaching as a profession has been so problematic. It has been used as a ladder to achieving power and status. Adams (2000) argues that the cultural traits associated with the middle-class men of the Anglo-American traditions were the ones that constructed what it meant to be a professional by projecting their own traits. They were for instance driven by male chauvinism to the extent that they dismissed occupations with elements of female presence as feminine vocations which can never break into the ranks of professional realm.

Kuper, Reeves, Albert and Hodges (2007) observe that there is a growing awareness that professionalism is too complex a construct to be reduced to a simple checklist of individual characteristics and behaviours. To this effect psychometric measurement approaches may not be the best way to capture professionalism. It is this reason that the researcher opted to have a mixed methods study.

Witz (1992) adds that sociologists, who work with the trait paradigm, need to address the central concerns of whose standards do students of sociology of professions conform to. The most significant argument concerns not what constitutes professionalism, but who decides the definition of professionalism and why? As De Montigny (1995) puts it, there is power in being a professional, and this power is realised in several ways with inherent benefits that accrue to the person who wields it. Hughes (1994) notes that professionals profess. They profess to know better than others about the nature of certain matters, and to know better than their clients. For Hughes, this was the hallmark of the professional idea and the professional claim. Hughes thus reframed the approach to professionalism, by moving away from the practice of listing of the characteristics that define and distinguish professions from other occupations, to an examination of how professions passionately serve society.

The concept “profession” has been a contested construct since history and arguments thereof are endless. Despite lack of consensus on the definition of profession, writers belonging to the trait model school of thought find ground to dismiss teaching as a semi-profession; arguing that the occupation lacks necessary attributes required to be classified as a profession. Trait model authors define profession as an occupational group with particular features of trait. Carr-Saunders & Wilson (1933), Marshall (1938), Talcott Parsons (1951) Millerson (1964), Wilensky (1964), Kibera and Kimokoti (2007) are among the remarkable scholars of this tradition.

Leitch and Fennell (2001) on the other hand, dismiss the trait model's arguments as arbitrary with no general consensus as to which of their proposed features of trait are essential to a profession and which ones are superfluous in their inclusion. “Among the trait model defining features, there is no single trait that is accepted by other sociologists of profession as essential to a profession”. This means that every single defining element is disputed by other authors as ultravires. Each of the trait-approach writers includes or excludes the colleague's proposed elements depending on which occupation one wants to pamper with or deprive of the professional claim.

The weakness with the trait-approach is that authors use defining elements from their individual occupational backgrounds and force them onto other occupations. Hewitt and Thomas (2007) point out that “the trait model merely accepts a profession's own definition of itself, this perhaps is the reality: namely, professions exist to project an image, as a means of differentiating themselves from other occupations. The problem with trait model however is its propensity to view all occupations from the lenses of other professions.”

This explanation is consistent with the argument by symbolic interactionists who reflect that profession is a relative concept which can be subjected to different constructions according to the inclinations of its advocates, (Hargreaves & Goodson1996). Johnson (1972:29) on the other hand notes that the definition of profession needs to critically pay attention to cultural variations.

“Defining profession must take recognisance of the fact that it is driven by historically specific and cultural bound dynamics. This means that apart from using the concept in its generic terms it is important to note that such variations by and large influence the true definition of the concept. A simple instructive example of cultural variation is England where, in the case of the established professions, there was a particularly clear variation in the sequence. In England generally speaking, the professional association emerged before the founding of a training school” (Johnson 1972:29).

Barber (1963) as quoted in Johnson (1972: 33) argues that a Sociological definition of profession should limit itself in so far as possible to the *differentia specifica* of professional community. Barber implies that it is not right to insinuate that traits of one occupation must be reflected in all other occupations. This is simply because occupations differ from one another. The trait-approach to theorising about professionalism is therefore jaundiced, as it ignores variations in the historical conditions under which variant forms of occupational activities develop.

Johnson (1972) on the other hand notes that the modern accounting profession was never a product of research and University training. Accountancy emerged as an offshoot of capitalism arising from the industrial revolution. With the emergence of privately owned industries, independent auditing/accounting firms also developed. Their *modus-operandi* was to report on financial position of respective client companies directly to shareholders and the public. Share holders were more comfortable with financial reports from auditing firms than management. To this effect accounting firms employed untrained people and trained them with skills, rose through the ranks and acquired expertise in accountancy. Subsequently a modern accounting profession emerged as it is known. Notwithstanding the educational inadequacies as highlighted, accountancy is regarded as possessing all it takes to be classified as a profession. “Suffice to indicate that it is only in recent years that accounting has developed at university level in Britain. Despite this development, an increasing number of accountants still

do receive their training within large corporate businesses as job-on-training”, (Johnson 1972:71).

The debate on professionalism cannot end without drawing in the role of the State on this phenomenon. Literature describes the State as having a role to play in the whole issue of professionalism. It is noted that when a service offered is of public good the State intervenes on behalf of the people. Johnson (1972) reflects that the State does encroach upon existing systems of professionalism in order that services administered by concerned occupations of public good reach every citizen. This observation means that the State cannot allow occupations that are of paramount public good to operate autonomously with zero government encroachment.

This encroachment varies from one tradition to the other. Lester (2010) adds that elements of professionalism must not be viewed as implying universal usage in all cultural orientations. A case in point here is France, where for instance there is a history of little or no tradition of autonomous professional associations. The thinking around this emanates from the past suspicions where professional autonomy was viewed as being anti-egalitarian, and perpetuating a culture of unbridled elitism.

Johnson (1972:77) stresses that the State has a mandate to intervene on behalf of the people in order to ensure that citizens are not exploited by a cartel of professional institutions. Education is defined by Sociologists as the transmission of a culture of a people (Ezewu, 1990). Such a huge obligation therefore cannot be relegated to a small group of people, whose main interest is profit making, lest the nation slides into a skewed society against the have-nots.

Such actions by the State are defined in literature as mediation. The objective of State mediation is to extend critical services to all consumers who are defined on the basis of citizenship. Johnson (1972) notes that State mediation

undermines social bases of recruitment for those occupations that are defined as of universal public good in order to ensure that every citizen gets a fair service. Under professionalism, entry to an occupation is regulated by professionally controlled training schools and professional bodies. State mediation places greater power in the hands of government controlled academic institutions such as universities and training colleges.

Under State mediation, solo practice of client based by professionals is eliminated or modified. The income of practitioners is in the form of salaries. The state wears the 'jacket' and personifies as a client on behalf of the citizens. It buys the services rendered by professionals for all citizens. The literature in the foregoing narratives is relevant to this study taking into account the fact that teaching is the domain of the State and ramifications thereof in Zambia are exemplary.

### **Harold Wilensky Model of Professionalism**

The Social Sciences Citation Index® (SSCITM) (1980) reveals that Wilensky's defining attributes of a profession had been cited over 195 times since 1966 by 1980. This evidence of the popularity of Wilenskian defining elements among the trait model writers on professionalism justifies the inclusion of his features of trait in this study, and determines the extent to which they capture teaching as a profession.

In 1964, Harold Wilensky noted that an increasing number of full-time occupations were seeking to become recognized as professions. He laid out a fairly typical sequence in which new institutions would be established along the path to "professionalization": establishment of a training school, emergence of full-time occupation, university schools, local associations, national associations, state licensing laws, and (finally) a code of ethics. He also observed that "the traditional model of professionalism emphasizes... autonomous expertise and the service ideal" and suggested that "exclusive jurisdiction and professional authority" are ideally based on "knowledge that is

neither too general nor vague (thereby familiar to laymen) nor too narrow and specific (therefore easily programmed) (Wilensky, 1964).

Johnson (1972:28) on the other hand, reflects that the Wilenskyan natural history of professionalism in the United States consisted of five sequential stages in pursuit of professional classification for any occupation. According to Wilensky (1964) features of trait reflect a determinate historical sequence of events through which all professionalising occupations needed to undergo an identical series of stages to an end state of professional classification. Wilensky defined these events as:

*“1. The emergence of a full time occupation, 2. Establishment of a training school, 3. Professional association, 4. Political agitation to protect the profession by law, 5. Adoption of a formal code of ethics and conduct”.*

### **Millersonian trait Model**

Millerson on the other hand, as Johnson (1972) indicates, is credited as having identified twenty-three ‘essential elements’ of a profession, collected from twenty-one independent authors on sociology of professions. However, the twenty-three Millersonian traits were rejected by other trait-approach writers and only six were hesitantly accepted as defining elements befitting a profession. The six features of Millersonian traits however have been included in various literature as instructive defining elements of a profession, and hence forming part this study. The classical defining elements of a profession by Millerson and Wilensky had over the years been modified with new perspectives added as trait model features of trait on profession. This study therefore refers to them as the modified Millersonian and Wilenskyan trait model of professional classification.

Millerson suggests: “a type of higher-grade, non-manual occupation, with both subjectively and objectively recognised occupational status, possessing a

well-defined area of study or concern and providing a definite service, after advanced training and education". The following however, is the modified trait model perspectives from the Millersonian tradition which many scholars cite as defining attributes of a profession (Millerson, 1964):

- 1) Specialized unique body with theoretical knowledge and skill
- 2) Power and autonomy,
- 3) Life commitment to an occupation,
- 4) Lengthy Intellectual training and education
- 5) Code of professional ethics,
- 6) Professional association,
- 7) Licensure by closure of the profession through restrictive organisation
- 8) High status and prestige,
- 9) Altruistic service in the affairs of others.

The details of Millersonian traits are described below by his supporters.

### ***Specialized unique body of knowledge***

Webb (1999) argues that professions are occupations which harbour a unique complex body of knowledge which lay people find farfetched to comprehend. Professions boast of an extensive monopoly of knowledge which is only shared by fellow experts in the same field. Yusuf (2007) notes that professions are highly specialized occupations whose knowledge and skills are not easily acquired but only so through a good number of University training and practical orientation. Sociologists refer to this specialized knowledge as possessing an esoteric knowledge base. This is knowledge that is highly specialized and not easily acquired. Kamwengo (2010) paints a picture that the above explanation technically disqualifies teaching as a profession. This is premised on the fact that as many people pass through the hands of a teacher, they retrospectively dismiss it as lacking unique knowledge to categorize it as a profession. Kamwengo adds that anyone who has gone through school at a higher level can actually teach.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards® (NBPTS) (2002) indicates that “teachers command specialized knowledge of how to convey and reveal the subject matter to students. They are aware of the preconceptions and background knowledge that students typically bring to each subject and of strategies and instructional materials that can be of assistance. Teachers understand where difficulties are likely to arise and modify their practice accordingly. Their instructional repertoire allows them to create multiple paths to the subjects they teach, and they are adept at teaching students how to pose and solve their own problems.

### **Power and autonomy**

Bayles (1981) indicates that professions tend to be autonomous in their practice. This means that they have a high degree of control of their own affairs. Members of a profession enjoy freedom of practice without interference, not even from the State. Johnson (1972) opines that all professions have power. This power is used to control its own members and ring fence its area of expertise from infiltration by quacks. Larkin (1983) adds that the dominance nature of professions is also to rebuff competition from the ancillary occupations and trades, as well as subordinating them to the lowest echelons where they belong. Power and autonomy therefore bestows high prestige on professions. Kibera (2007:160) argues that established professions like those in medicine and law influence the conditions and contents of their own training and licensing. Teaching according to Kibera falls short in this regard, because teachers are often subjected to rules and regulations, and their terms and conditions of service are decided by even non teachers.

### ***Lifelong commitment to an occupation***

According to Larkin (1983)), established professions enjoy undisturbed commitment to their occupation and do not easily leave their careers to take up other jobs. Webb (1999) further indicates that a professional is committed



to a feeling of public service and lifelong commitment to one's career. Sociologists refer to this quality as disinterestedness. It means putting public service first and material gain in the periphery. The foregoing can also be referred to as altruism, putting professional considerations above all others.

Kibera (2007) on the other hand argues that teachers do not stay in their occupation for life partly because their job has diminished career progression prospects. Kibera (2007) on the other hand argues that the fact that teachers resign from their occupation for 'greener pastures' reflects a failure to adhere to altruistic principles synonymous with professions. It is further argued that teaching can never be a profession because it is regarded as a transient career owing to the fact that a reasonable number of teachers resign to take up other obligations in the world of employment.

“The fact that teachers are poorly remunerated, coupled with a diminished career progression prospects renders life-long commitment to their career untenable. Teaching is usually taken by many as a stepping stone to other better remunerating occupations, or indeed a means of financing one's studies for better paying careers” Kibera (2007).

On the strength of the foregoing, teaching is dismissed as falling short of the defining criteria to be credited as a profession. However Warrior (2002) punctuates Kibera's argument and reflects that in terms of hierarchy, teachers do progress to become lecturers, senior lecturers, then principal lecturers, heads of department, or professors. This by and large offers individuals a logical career pathway if they so wish, (Warrior, 2002).

### ***Lengthy of Training***

Yusuf (2007) opines that a profession is a highly specialized career. This means that for an individual to master a field of specialization and have it personified as an expert, a long period of training is indispensable. Whitty (2008) adds that a long period of training is necessary because it enriches an individual's expertise with well founded theoretical know-how, which anchors

practice. A long period of intensive training enables an individual to acquire necessary competencies and skills to practice a profession. Fakoya (2009) indicates that teaching being a generic term, with stratifications based on qualifications coupled with differences in length of training and level of expertise is seen as placed outside of professional classification. It is argued that the fact that everyone is referred to as a teacher especially from the spectacles of the humblest within the stratification, waters down any meaningful efforts at classifying this trade as a profession.

On training, Perkin (1985) endorses Sockett's (1985) definition by suggesting that the word professional is used to define a dignified occupation with an element of intellectual training or large mental expertise. Hence someone working as a lawyer, doctor or teacher is a professional, but they will have distinctive characteristics that distinguish their occupation from another (Hoyle, 1985). Thus the organisational context of a profession is important, as it is distinctively different from the individualised context of being a professional. This is illustrated if the features or characteristics of a profession are compared to that of a professional.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards® (NBPTS) (2002) on the other hand reflects that

“teaching is a public good whose ethical dimensions distinguish it from other professions. It is unique because the client's attendance is compulsory by law, and more importantly that the clients are children. Elementary, middle and high school teachers are obligated to meet a stringent ethical standard. Other ethical demands derive from the teacher's role as a model of an educated person”.

### ***Licensure (control of entry)***

Giddens (2006) notes that entry into a profession is restricted to qualified people who meet a strict set of defined criteria. Such stringent display of ‘professional closure’ makes professional associations able to sustain exclusion of unwanted elements from the profession, and enhance the market

position of their bonafide members, (Webb 1999). Typically individuals are required by law in established professions to be certified by a local professional body before they are permitted to practice. Kamwengo (2010) indicates that candidates seeking to join a profession are screened and licensed before beginning to operate.

### ***High status and prestige***

Tinsley and Hardy (2009) indicate that professions enjoy a high social status, respect and admiration conferred upon them by society. The high esteem professionals carry arises primarily from the higher social function of their work, which society regards as vital. Liana and Laing (2004) postulate that all professions possess specialized technical expertise. This also requires refresher training to keep abreast with the latest trends emerging in the career. This makes professionals well able in executing their work to the admiration of society. The fact that professions perform complex specialized jobs makes them synonymous with good remunerations. This earns them respect and status. For the teaching career, Johnson (1972:30) argues that the low prestige of the child as their client quashes any attempts at classifying teaching as a profession.

### ***Emergence of a full-time occupation***

Wilensky reflects that for an occupation to gravitate into a professional realm, it must be of a structured full-time job. Since history most jobs were of part-time status in the United States for example. Ballantine and Hammarck (2007:186) indicate that teaching in the United States was in fact not a regular job until well after mid-1830s. Donaldson and Moore-Johnson (2010) present a picture that even at present there is a huge problem of retaining teachers in the United States. The rate at which teachers resign is alarming. Fakoya (2009) posits that teaching in most countries is regarded as employment of the last resort. In this perspective teachers are viewed as lacking a long-term commitment to their vocation. Warrior (2002:2) endorses Wilensky's opinion arguing that "Regardless of the change in meaning of the word professional,

the common theme of the concept is that it involves some form of regular employment which results in paid remuneration.” Allison (2001) equally agrees with Wilensky in principle and adds that professionalism is about having a fulltime career such as sports men and women, who dedicate their lives to plying this trade, and recoup vast salaries owing to a relative short span that sports talent lasts.

### ***Establishment of a training School***

Wilensky (1964) guides that any occupation seeking recognition as a profession needs to have an established training school. Obviously Wilensky’s reflection is coming from a background that most occupations from the American tradition lacked training institutes and workers acquired skills under job on training. This comment is supported by Friedson (1986:23) who observes that the medieval Universities of Europe (and this was equally true of the United States) produced only three ‘learned professions’, medicine, law and the clergy. This invariably meant therefore that all occupations seeking recognition later on as professions were to be measured through the lenses of these medieval highly rated occupations. Training served as preparation for professional status. Sockett (1985:26) on the other hand indicates that the word profession denotes a dignified occupation with elements of intellectual training or large mental expertise. Gordon (1985) indicates that teaching as a profession emerged a little over a century ago, but the formal development of universities and colleges awarding recognised teaching qualifications to students is however far more recent. This recent development invariably puts teaching well in the ambit of professional realm.

### ***Professional association***

Professions are run by professional bodies which organize their members and guard against infiltration. Giddens (2006) opines that a professional association monitors and disciplines the conduct and performance of its members. A professional body works hand-in-hand with institutions of learning

training their- would be members. In the sporting context (Horne et al) 1999) indicate that: “professional associations have been developed to represent and guard the interests of members from quacks and charlatans. Professional associations therefore act as defenders of the interest practitioners.

### ***Code of professional ethics***

Professions have self regulatory instruments which oblige members to observe ethical conduct, and carry themselves as a mirror of society. Codes of ethics are rules of engagement placed on members in the pursuit of their careers. Kamwengo quoting Illingworth (2000) indicates that members of a particular occupation are held accountable to their own agreed upon principles of practice. Members of a profession are expected to be highly exemplary with integrity, honesty and impeccable behaviour. Abdu-quddus (2006) notes that all established professions operate on the spirit of self regulation and freedom to pursue their self determination. Kamwengo quoting Banja (2006) argues that for teaching, although there is an occupational code of conduct, the instrument was done by non teachers, (the government) and imposed onto the teachers to adhere to.

### ***Reflections in support of teaching as a profession***

Notwithstanding the trait model's position that teaching is not a profession, other scholars do maintain that teaching indeed is a profession. Soder (1990) posits that the nature of teaching, the context in which it is performed, and the process by which occupations traditionally have become professions, make it impractical and undesirable to use traditional models of professionalization deciding whether or not teaching qualifies as a profession. Bryman (2001) adds that teaching was not a full time job in the United States during the formative period of professional history, but later on acquired that status. Friedson (1986) suggests that any definition of a profession should reflect that it is a changing concept with roots in industrial nations strongly influenced by Anglo-American institutions. As Friedson guides if the same defining

standards that applied to medieval careers can be used now without shifting goal posts, then automatically teaching qualifies as a profession.

Ukpo (2007:9) observes that critics of teaching believe that teaching the young children and adolescents cannot make teaching qualify as a profession, but rather as a craft which any untrained person can engage into.

This is unfounded because unfolding events in the teaching career have proven that teaching in this modern day scenario goes beyond 'talk and chalk'. It involves moulding young lives, guiding youths, motivating students and general character training. Similarly, classroom teaching does not succeed by itself without discipline and adequate guidance which then moves teaching convincingly into the professional realm (Ukpo, 2007).

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards® (NBPTS) (2002) indicates that “**accomplished** teachers are professionals because they have a rich understanding of the subject(s) they teach and appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines and applied to real-world settings. Qualified teachers are representatives of the collective wisdom and value consensus of our culture. Accomplished teachers uphold and reinforce the value of disciplinary knowledge. Qualified teachers possess the knowhow of developing the critical and analytical capacities of their students”.

Levine (1988) on the other hand reflects that the context of teaching is closer in texture to parenting than to debating in a courtroom or overseeing surgery in some operating room. To this end it takes a professional teacher to deal with the emotions surrounding educating a growing human being. Levine further argues that it is therefore wrong to arbitrarily subject teaching to the classifying tools of other professions because teaching is the mother of all careers. Additionally Perkin (1985) reflects that educating pupils whether children or adults is a service, and it is a service which combines both

knowledge with practice. In this respect the client demands not only theoretical knowledge but also procedural skills. It is the procedural skills that make teachers professionally unique from lay people.

NBPTS® (2002) notes that qualified teachers command specialized knowledge of how to convey and reveal subject matter to students. Qualified teachers are aware of the preconceptions and background knowledge that students typically bring to each subject and of strategies and instructional materials that can be of assistance. They understand where difficulties are likely to arise and modify their practice accordingly. Their instructional repertoire allows them to create multiple paths to the subjects they teach, and they are adept at teaching students how to pose and solve their own problems.

Datta (1984:116) instructs that a teacher is an explorer in the world of ideas and an expert in child development. A teacher is a surrogate of societal morality as reflected in their correct speech, good manners, modesty, prudence, honesty, responsibility, friendliness and so forth. In the American tradition, such virtuous traits make teachers a marvelled cadre of professionals. They participate in various community affairs leading in many instances to their assumption of community leadership.

These elements obviously imply a mammoth responsibility placed on the teacher. Simple logic would reveal that these are the tenets of professionalism that society preaches about, and would want bequeathed to the new generation. The NBPTS® (2002) further submit that qualified teachers are models of the educated persons. They exemplify virtues they seek to inspire in students: curiosity, tolerance, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity and appreciation of cultural differences. These capacities are the prerequisites for intellectual growth; the ability to reason and take multiple perspectives; to be creative and take risks; to adopt an experimental and problem solving orientation". Such are the some of the professional virtues that teachers

possess and strive to have them replicated into their learners in order for holistic learning to take place.

Gordon (1985) notes that professions do not exist without clients, so students are an important component in the teaching service. This provides further evidence of how education is contextualised as a profession. In essence, Gordon continues by emphasising that the societal values associated with the commonalties of the profession, compared to the personal values and working practices that an individual brings to the job, anchor well with teaching as a profession.

Literature refers to teaching as the most democratic and selfless of all professions. Teachers apply their unlimited knowledge and skill on learners. They strive to empower students to continue with the quest for more understanding so that one day the pupil may surpass the instructor. This in fact is the hallmark of the teaching tradition (NBPTS®, 2002).

The foregoing observation is totally at variance with the traditions of established professions. Their hallmark is profiteering at the expense of the client. This is one of the reasons why the trait model disparages teaching as an occupation whose client is of low status and prestige, (Johnson 1972:30). The reason is that the child does not spin money they so sniff in every client.

Occupations that claim professionalism in fact only serve their own narrow interests. Johnson (1972) highlights that professional occupations create a social distance between the practitioner and the client so that the client could appear more ignorant and get charged astronomical fees for the service being sought. The greater the social distance the greater the helplessness of the client and the greater the exposure to possible exploitation. To achieve these clandestine interests occupations conventionally regarded as professions develop a community of language otherwise known as jargon to maintain an internal homogeneity and increasing autonomy from outsiders (lay men ); but even from competing fellow specialists. The idea is to prevent their concepts



and knowledge from entering into the public domain where they would get debased (Johnson, 1972:35:44:56).

The concept of profession as it is being promulgated by the trait model as a basis for dismissing teaching as a semi-profession is fallacious. One of tenets of professionalism is disinterestedness, but the revelation by Johnson (1972) as highlighted in the preceding paragraph justifies the opposite of their claim. Lester (2010) reflects that structuralists hold the view that functional relevance to society is the main determinant of which occupation breaks into the ranks of professional classification. Occupations are segregated on account of their importance to society. They are seen as providing a service of common good to society. This observation is shared by Devarai and Ramesh (1999) who indicate that the functional approach to theorising on professionalism assumes that society has certain needs and therefore it develops certain institutional structures in order to fulfil such needs. Following this assumption the functional perspective points to the existence of a functional linkage between profession and society.

The foregoing account is enough to show that there is no unanimity of view on the question whether entering salaried employment makes a qualified member of a profession lose his professional status. This is probably because the proposition is virtually meaningless in view of the uncertainty as to what “professional” really signifies. It is clear however that some at least of the qualities often associated with professionalism can be displayed less easily, or not at all, outside the direct relationship which exists between the independent practitioner and his client.

Time has now come to try and identify more precisely the characteristics which distinguish teaching as a profession. We are looking for characteristics that are present in teaching with the prospect of general acceptance that the occupation falls within a definite category unequivocally labelled “professional”.

## CHAPTER THREE – METHODOLOGY

### Overview

*This chapter presents the 'roadmap' (plan) that the researcher used in interrogating the century old debate on professionalism and determine whether or not teaching is contextualised as a profession. The following subthemes form part of this chapter: research design, target population, sample size, data collection techniques and process, instruments for data collection, data analysis and ethical issues.*

### 3.0 Research Design

A mixed study design exploratory in nature was used to ground this study. This entailed using two types of *verstehens* as sociologists would like to call them and these are *aktuelles verstehen* (understanding *based on actors' lived-life*) and *erklären verstehen* (law governed explanatory understanding). This thinking of a mixed study embraces the thinking of modern researchers like Foss and Ellefsen (2002); Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Creswell (2009). Quantitative (nomothetic) and qualitative (idiographic) data was collected for different purposes, being generalization vs. in-depth description, respectively. The justification in this study of using mixed methods was based on the search for new knowledge about professionalism through synthesis of the findings from nomothetic assumptions of two trait models by Millerson and Wilensky and the constructivist /interpretivist thinking of phenomenologists with a view to generating a typical description of teaching as a profession among teachers in Lusaka. This approach seeks to weigh equally each of the methods used (Foss and Ellefsen, 2002), and to develop a new epistemology which reflects the complexity and multi-faceted ontology of the phenomenon under study. Indeed it is argued that integration or synthesis is only possible where methods, and hence data, are treated equally.

Idiographic research or qualitative research has *verstehen's* roots in Weber's *aktuelles verstehen* goal of understanding the meaning of a contingent (group of people sharing a common feature and forming part of a larger group), as

opposed to Durkheim's nomothetic research explanation of social facts using law governed explanation (*verstehen erklären*), (Schwartz and Jacobs, (1979); Smelser and Baltes, 2001). There is need to elaborate this point further. The originally German tradition of *verstehen* (understanding) insists that the social sciences are unlike the natural sciences in that making merely explanatory sense of social phenomena can never lead to comprehensive knowledge of these phenomena; even if explanation would be enough, and indeed is all there is to comprehensive knowledge of natural phenomena. To hit the nail on the head, the argument is that originally the tradition of defining professions insists that the trait model which is a replicated thinking of the natural sciences (positivism) be used to test assumptions. This is making merely explanatory sense of social phenomena and can never lead to comprehensive knowledge of phenomena linked to professionalism, even if explanation would be enough. Therefore to begin where *verstehen erklären* (law governed explanatory understanding) ends, we continue with *aktuelles verstehen* (understanding based on actors' lived-life). In this way the researcher is arguing that a holistic picture of professionalism will be constructed which is the essence of the topic under inquiry.

Although the study used a mixed study design in which both qualitative and quantitative paradigms were employed, the research heavily tilted onto the phenomenological orientation. This is the part that is constructive and sociological within the field of education. This means that the actors' own lived-life narratives become the hallmark of this study. Quantitative paradigm in this study was relevant to the extent that it tested the variables that the critics of teachers (the trait model) use in dismissing the teaching as a semi-profession. These variables were tested on teachers in order to accept or reject the trait model's hypothesis that teaching was not associated with trait model of professional classification. The researcher relied on the guidance by renowned researchers (Mingers and Brocklesby, 1997; Foss and Ellefsen, 2002; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2009) that the use of a multi-methodology makes the most effective contribution to the richness of the real world under investigation.

Conducting mixed methods research involves collecting, analyzing, and interpreting qualitative and quantitative data in a single study that investigates the same underlying phenomenon. “Its logic of inquiry includes the use of induction (discovery of patterns) and deduction (testing of theories and hypotheses), (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 17).

### **3.1 Target population**

The study was conducted in Lusaka District. Three categories of the population provided sample to this study, typical of participant triangulation. The population included all primary, secondary school and one college of education teachers on public service list in Lusaka district. A sum of 5,613, teachers was randomised to yield 382 units of analysis for the quantitative paradigm in this study. (Source of sampling frame: Ministry of Education electronic register-September, 2012). Brown et al (1982) reflect that whilst differences may exist between primary, secondary, and higher education teachers, in essence all are teachers working within the teaching sector. “In terms of career progression, teachers, do become lecturers, senior lecturers, then principal lecturers, and professors”, (Warrior, 2002:59)

#### **3.1.1 Sample size**

A sum of 5,613, teachers was randomised to yield 382 units of analysis for quantitative paradigm in this study. For the qualitative sample, the number of Focus Group Discussions were determined ‘until saturation’ was attained as informed by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

#### **3.1.2 Sampling Procedure**

The sample size for the quantitative paradigm was drawn using a theoretical formula designed by eminent scholar Yamane (1973). The sample size was above the formulaic ceiling of 375 to 382. The teachers’ population serving in Lusaka district stood at 5,613 as at September 2012. Broken down as follows: 3,390 primary school female teachers, 1,025 male primary school teachers of

varying qualifications, certificates, diplomas and degrees, 563 female secondary school teachers and 603 male secondary school teachers. A College of Education added 17 males and 15 female lecturers. The study used the Yamane's (1973) sampling formula described below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where: **n** is the desired sample size

**N** is the known population size and

**e** is the precision set at .05

The level of precision **e** (or reasonable certainty, otherwise known as margin of error or sampling error), is the range in which the true value of the population is estimated to be. This range is often expressed in percentage points this study takes 5% precision (e.g.,  $\pm 5$ ). In other words, this means that, if a 95% confidence level is selected, 95 out of 100 samples will have the true population value within the range of precision specified earlier. The researcher was alive to the reality that there is always a chance that the sample that one obtains does not represent the true population value. This is the more reason why Yamane's formula was chosen because it factors in an inherent 10% to the sample size in order to compensate for persons that the researcher might not be able to contact. Further the formula embodies 30% to compensate for non response. It is an all-rounder henceforth.

Given a known sampling frame/population of 5,613, the sample size was estimated to be 375. The sample additionally added all the seven college lecturers with master's degree in order to capture the views of lecturers with those qualifications, raising the sample size to 382. In the foregoing target population, the number representing college lecturers was 32, wherein only seven were holders of master's degree at the time of this study. The other college lecturers were first degree holders similar to other class teachers within the bracket, hence presenting no special variability from the other teachers.

With a known sampling population (5613), a comprehensive sampling frame of all teachers was made using an electronic register that was obtained from the District Education Office. Each school and college was considered as cohorts. All members of the cohorts were placed on the sampling frame with one cohort being placed mutually and serially preceding another to ensure that the researcher sampled from each cohort (strata). This sampling procedure is sometimes referred to as quota random sampling. Systematic sampling was then done from this ordered sampling frame basing on the inclusion criteria.

To commence the sampling, the first element was chosen at random and subsequent elements were chosen using a fixed interval until the desired sample size was attained in each cohort.

For qualitative paradigm a phenomenological orientation was used. Phenomenological studies according to Glaser and Strauss (1967) are not colonised by psychometric rules of sample sizes. Instead phenomenological studies are self standard; continue to collect data until saturation point is reached, where no new information emerges from the ground. It is flexible and enables new issues to emerge which the researcher may not have thought about previously. This as a matter of fact is the gist of qualitative research. In this study five focus group discussions were conducted, each consisting of ten participants. Additionally, two key informant interviews with purposively selected Deputy Head teachers were conducted. Real lived-life of the teachers' world was constructed.

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is flexible and enables new issues to emerge that which the researcher may not have thought about previously. In this study five focus group discussions were conducted, each consisting of ten participants. Additionally, two key informant interviews with two purposively selected Deputy Head teachers were conducted.

### **3.1.3 Instruments for data collection**

The study used a self administered structured questionnaire to collect quantitative data. For qualitative paradigm the focus group discussions were used to collect teachers' social constructions while key informant interview schedule collected lived life views from the two purposively selected deputy head teachers.

### **3.1.4 Data collection techniques and Process**

Although the study gave equal status to both quantitative and qualitative designs, it tilted more to phenomenological underpinnings, drawing on the lived life of the Actor's perspectives.

Quantitative design in this study was used to test the modified Millersonian and Wilensian trait model variables which hypothetically dismiss teaching as a semi-profession.

Data was collected separately with none influencing or undermining the other. The study used interpretivism/ constructivism, and positivism. Positivism involved administering a structured questionnaire. It tested the Millersonian and Wilensian trait model variables which hypothetically dismiss teaching as failing on those parameters to be classified as a profession. Qualitative data relied on the use of in-depth key informant interviews and focus group

discussions, drawing on the lived life, the Actor's point of view. This is the domain of interpretivist or constructivist epistemology.

### **3.1.5 Data analysis**

Qualitative data was analysed using qualitative descriptive analysis (QDA). The initial task in selecting qualitative descriptive analysis (QDA) was to find the concepts that helped to make sense of what was going on. The study used induction as the basis for its analysis. Patton (1990: 44) holds that 'The strategy of inductive analysis of qualitative data is to allow the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns in the cases under study without presupposing in advance what the important dimension would be.

In this study, constructs, themes, and patterns were identified from the interviews, focus group discussions and review of documents to get a description of phenomenon that were being studied (Gall et al., 1996). The understanding of the phenomenon under study and outcomes emerging from experience with the setting were noted.

The focus group discussions and open ended interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed before the analysis. The objective of the analysis of the open ended interviews and Focus group discussions was to understand and explain the impact of culture and context from the narratives. Transcriptions and written texts of interviews were independently read and analysed by two analysts one being the researcher and the other being a research assistant. Qualitative descriptive analysis involved:

- a) Developing codes that represented a category or theme found in the data and these were put directly into the text by attaching to segments of text.
- b) Each teacher interviewed was evaluated by the set of thematic codes developed.
- c) Recording insights and reflections on the data across the codes.



- d) Sorting through the data to identify similar phrases, patterns, themes, subthemes sequences and important features.
- e) Looking for commonalities and differences among the data and extracting them for further consideration and analysis.
- f) Gradually deciding on a small group or generalizations that hold true for the data.
- g) Examining these generalizations in the light of existing knowledge.

The analysis in QD differs from other qualitative methods in several ways. Firstly, in terms of analysis, the aim of QD is neither thick description (ethnography), theory development (grounded theory) nor interpretative meaning of an experience (phenomenology), but a rich, straight description of an experience or an event. This means that in the analytical process and presentation of data, researchers using QD stay closer to the data (Neergaard, et al., 2009:2).

Quantitative data was analysed using Statistical package for Social Sciences. It relied on the descriptive statistics which produced frequency distributions upon which inferences were drawn.

## CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH FINDINGS

### Overview

*In this chapter, the researcher presents the research findings using themes drawn from the research questions. There were four research questions that needed answers from a broader perspective. The themes are as follows:*

- a) The defining elements of teaching as a profession.
- b) The theory with greater explanatory power of teaching as a profession.
- c) Constructs of teaching as a profession.
- d) Attempts to make Teachers as Professionals

However, before delving into the demands of the research questions, the researcher desires to describe the sample that was studied. This is done with a view to grounding the study and super imposing of the critical findings onto the sample. This helps to appreciate associations and correlations when needed (Blaikie, 1997:2000).

### 4.1 Demographic profile of the respondents

The results are based on 382 teachers who have been working in Lusaka District. Just over half of the sample were females at 56.3 (%)  $n = 215$  and 43.7%  $n = 167$  were males. This distribution was expected noting that Lusaka District Education is predominantly serviced by female teachers; being an urban setting where females tend to be concentrated around marital factors. The sample was relatively youthful, and the age ranged from 23 to 49 years, with the modal age being 27 years. The mean age was 33 ( $SD \pm 7.2$ ). The

sample had served long enough (long service in Public service is taken to be having served for ten years or more). The longest service was 31 and the shortest service was 5 years. The mean service period was 12 (SD  $\pm$  0.8). Overall, college diploma holders were dominant  $n = 166$  (43.5%). Holders of master's degree were in the minority  $n = 14$  (3.7%) (See table 4.1.1).

**Table 4.1.1 Demographic profile**

Parameter		
Sex	n	%
Male	167	43.7
Female	215	56.3
Total	382	100.0
Educational Qualifications		
Holders of College teachers' Certificate	99	25.9
Holders of College teachers' Diploma	166	43.5
Holders of University first Degree	103	27.0
Holders of Master's Degree	14	3.7
Total	382	100.0

#### **4.2 Defining elements of teaching as a profession which teachers may select from Millersonian and Wilensian models of professionalism.**

Before describing the defining elements of a profession using Millersonian and Wilensian traits of what accounts to a profession, the researcher presents what the teachers consider a person to possess to qualify as a professional in terms of paper qualification. All teachers were asked to determine whether a teacher could be considered to be a professional if they held a particular paper. In this study, generally teachers hold that they were professionals as long as they held a teaching qualification. This is withstanding the fact that there are more agreed responses (more than seventy percent) to the right of somewhat agree than to the left. However, the perception or labeling teaching as a profession seems to be firmer with upward social mobility or training attained by a teacher (see table 4.2.1).

**Table 4.2.1 Extent of agreement that qualifications merit professionalism**

**professionalism**

	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Somewhat agree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Master's degree	15	3.9	2	0.5	23	6.0	132	34.6	210	55.0
Bachelor's degree	13	3.4	5	1.3	34	8.9	129	33.8	201	52.6
College diploma	16	4.2	14	3.7	32	8.4	144	37.7	176	46.1
College certificate	26	6.8	13	3.4	38	9.9	144	37.7	161	42.1

In this study, the defining elements of teaching as a profession using Millersonian and Wilensian traits are set as described below. The presentation first is about Millersonian traits. Table 4.2.2, shows that teachers were not professionals on only two Likert items out of 12. This is because there were more individual scores on the left of the table of the following defining elements:

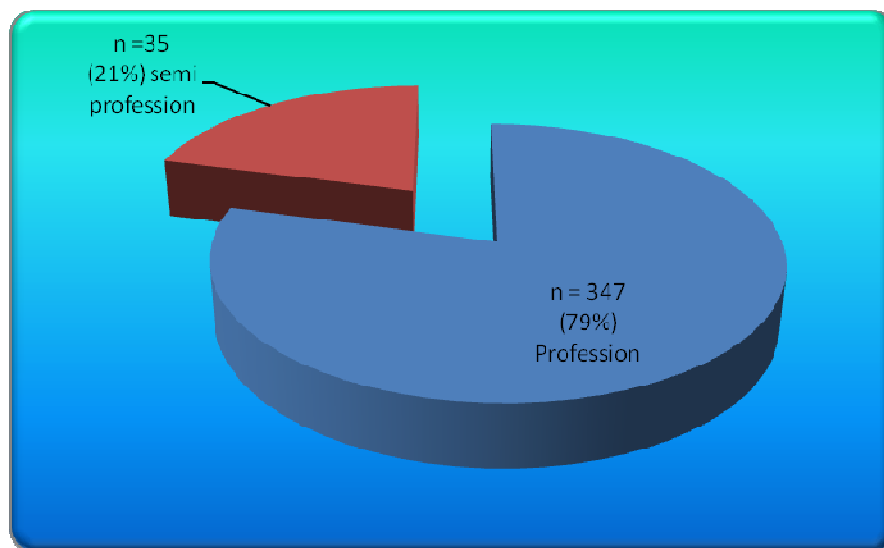
- 1) Teaching fails to meet the attributes of a profession because teachers easily leave their careers to take up other jobs.
- 2) Teaching is not a profession because teachers take up this occupation as employment of the last resort after unsuccessful attempts at other careers of choice.

**Table 4.2.2 Defining elements of Millersonian Profession**

Defining elements	11 Point Score										
	Not a profession				Semi profession			Profession			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Teaching possesses an exceptional body of knowledge such that those who are not teachers or lay people do not have.	4	4	1	2	5	12	7	24	25	70	228
Teaching possesses an exceptional skill of delivery to bring out change such that those who are not teachers or lay people do not have.	8	5	2	0	4	7	12	13	21	116	194
Teaching is a profession because teachers are highly specialized whose knowledge and skills are not easily acquired but only so through a good number of University training and practical orientation.	50	78	3	2	11	16	8	14	31	77	92
Teaching in Zambia is a profession because it is a dignified occupation with an element of intellectual training with large mental expertise	15	6	2	3	11	11	8	15	23	120	168
Teaching fails to meet the attributes of a profession because teachers' terms and conditions of service are decided by non-teachers.	67	77	17	8	15	8	3	4	20	89	74
Teaching fails to meet the attributes of a profession because teachers easily leave their careers to take up other jobs.	2	221	0	66	1	50	0	9	1	32	0
Teaching meets the attributes of a profession because they are committed to a feeling of selfless public service. Sociologists refer to this quality as disinterestedness or altruism (putting service above personal interests).	0	6	0	14	0	46	0	109	0	208	0
Teaching is not a profession because teachers take up this occupation as employment of the last resort after unsuccessful attempts at other careers of choice.	212	94	43	18	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
Teaching is not a profession because teachers resign from their jobs to take up other occupations	182	137	34	17	12	0	0	0	0	0	0
It is important that an occupation like teaching had a code of conduct designed by teachers themselves.	0	4	0	6	1	45	0	172	0	148	0
Teaching is a profession because as clients are children, teachers are obligated to meet stringent ethical standards.	0	5	1	14	1	34	0	163	0	164	0
Teaching is a profession whose service is an indispensable public good with ethical dimensions distinguishing it from other professions such as clients' compulsory attendance by law.	0	5	0	10	2	45	0	174	0	146	0

In order to get the general outlook of professionalism using Millersonian traits, the score on each of the twelve Likert items for every respondent was summed together to get a composite score. From the summed up scores, three interval scales were created a priori as follows: 6 to 28 not a profession, 29 to 67 semi profession and 68 to 96 profession. When the aggregate scores of each professional variable were calculated, teaching generally qualifies according to the teachers to be a profession if we used Millersonian traits figure 4.2.1. This is because the mean score 68.9 (SD  $\pm$  10.6) falls within the profession interval of 68 to 96. Figure 4.2.1 shows the composite scores and the sector in the pie chart shows that teaching is a profession.

***Figure 4.2.1 Sectoral Millersonian representation of teaching as a profession***



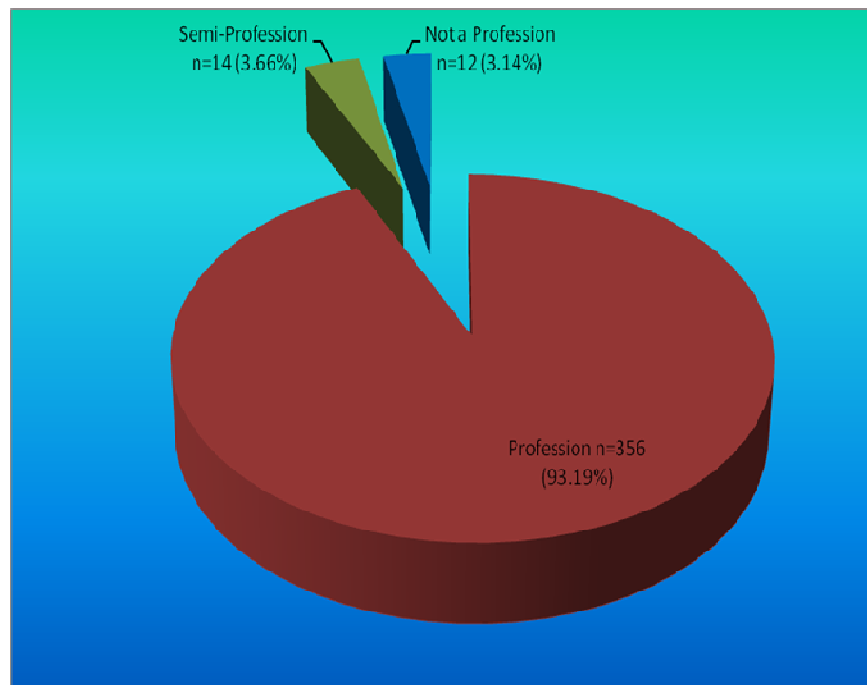
As for Wilensian traits, the variable profile is described below. Table 4.2.3, shows that the scores on the 11 point scale are skewed to the right of the median scores (5-7) indicating that teachers view themselves as professionals.

**Table 4.2.3 Defining Elements of Wilensian Profession**

Defining elements	11 Point Score										
	Not a profession				Semi profession			Profession			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Teaching qualifies as a profession in Zambia because it is a full-time occupation.	1	5	1	16	0	19	0	110	0	223	0
Teaching is a profession because it is of regular employment with paid remuneration.	0	2	0	9	1	28	0	135	0	207	0
Teaching is a profession in Zambia because teachers have training institutions where they are trained from?	0	1	0	7	0	20	0	132	0	221	0
Teaching is a profession because teachers are also learned men and women as do other professional occupations such as accountants and lawyers.	0	4	0	10	0	20	0	157	0	191	0
Teaching is a profession because the vocation boasts of high level of education and lengthy of training that is protected by state policy.	0	7	0	17	0	24	0	163	0	171	0
As a teacher, I do not regard my occupation as a profession	54	244	2	56	3	11	0	7	0	5	0

In order to get the general outlook of professionalism using Wilensian traits, the score on each of the six Likert items for every respondent was summed together to get a composite score. From the summed up scores, three interval scales were created a priori as follows: 5 to 15 not a profession, 16 to 24 semi profession and 25 to 30 profession. When the aggregate scores of each professional variable were calculated, teaching generally qualifies according to the teachers to be a profession using Wilensian traits, figure 4.2.1. This is because the mean score 26.4 (SD  $\pm$  3.6) falls within the profession interval of 25 to 30. Figure 4.2.2 shows the composite scores and the sector in the pie chart shows that teaching is a profession.

***Figure 4.2.2 Sectoral Wilensian representation of teaching as a profession***



#### **4.3 Theory with greater explanatory power of teaching as a profession**

In determining which model has greater explanatory power in defining teaching as a profession, the researcher opted to compare the relative frequencies of responses based on the composite scores. The composite



score for Wilensky was  $n = 356$  (93.19%) and that of Millerson was  $n = 302$ , (79%). This implies that more teachers scored higher on the defining elements of Wilensky than on Millerson. (See also the sectoral shares in figures 4.2.1 and 4.2.2.

#### **4.4 Constructs of teaching as a profession**

During focused group discussions, teachers in Lusaka district were asked to comment on what they considered were defining elements of a profession and whether teaching qualified to be classified as such. Four themes were generated that describe features of professionalism and meanings attached to teaching as a profession. The themes include:

- a) The Meaning of the Concept of Teaching as a Profession<sup>8</sup>
- b) Teachers' Positions Regarding Teachers Being Classified As Professionals
- c) Influence on the occupation of classification and practice of the Profession
- d) Attempts to make Teachers as Professionals

The findings under these are presented below using phenomenology as an epistemology and methodology. The data from the field narratives were comprehensive and a range of themes emerged drawn from the research questions. In presenting the findings, the researcher takes a naturalistic point of view. As a model of qualitative research, naturalism focuses on the factual characteristics of the object under study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The goal is to describe what life (of teaching) is really like based on what was heard and observed. The observations and narratives are intended to reflect what the researcher saw and heard in this real world of teaching. In this section, the researcher is describing an experience or events and has selected only what is critical to describe what the research questions were demanding and, in the process of featuring certain aspects of what is critical. The researcher

presents a personal interactive view and in a number of places uses double phenomenology to transform that experience or event by contextualising it. A double phenomenology necessarily forms part and parcel of what will be called as *verstehen aktuelles*. The first phenomenology that will be presented is Husserlian or descriptive phenomenology. This is the original description of phenomena as lived by the social actors and can be referred to as original meaning. It presents data as spoken to reveal knowledge which transcends human experience (Thevanez, 1962). The second one is hermeneutic in nature. This is because according to Hans Gadamer, there are no original meanings which transcend human experience but only original meaning ascriptions which tend to be personalised. Personalised in the sense that the researcher is human and has also interactions with the lived experiences of others. To use a double phenomenology so as to show the results lucidly, the researcher does this by citing literature and a personal interpretation. Although no description is free of interpretation, basic or fundamental qualitative description, as opposed to Husserlian phenomenological or grounded theory description for example, the approach used in this section entails a kind of interpretation that is low to moderate inference, or likely to result in easier consensus among researchers. This approach borrows heavily from Pearce (1971: 4) and Wolcott (1994: 13).

The illustrations or exemplars in the sections that follow under the themes tend to show the positions teachers took to give meaning to whether or not teaching is a profession. Noting that this second aspect of the inquiry is idiographic and naturalistic as Gubrium and Holstein (1997) and Miles and Huberman (1998), would rather call it, it is prudent in research to present the meanings of the constructs of teaching as a profession as given by social actors. Using Max Weber's approach of interpretive sociology, *verstehen* will be used as a framework to show the positions of teachers on the subject. This is a description of the first-person participatory perspective that agents and in this case teachers have on their individual experience as well as their culture, history, and society's views of teaching as a profession.

### ***Theme I: The Meaning of the Concept of Teaching as a Profession***

Under this theme, the researcher desired to phenomenologically bring out the ordinary “life world” of teachers in terms of the subjective meanings they rendered to teaching as a profession. This called for understanding the way people experience their world, what it is like for them’ (Tesh, 1990: 68; Creswell (2009: 173) and how best to understand their experiences. These are meanings that emphasise the qualities of entities that could not be experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency (Denzin and Lincoln 2000, 8). In order to show the meanings or constructs of teaching as a profession, typical cases or vignettes are used explicitly showing the multiple perspectives of what teachers recounted. The researcher shows what was a collectively common and diverse notion of what was expressed. In this instance, the ontological belief is that reality is local and specifically constructed (relativism); (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). When teachers were asked to discuss the meaning of the concept profession in their own perspective and as they see their job, teachers used varying concepts, definitions, characteristics of what may be considered their profession, metaphors and symbols. Under this theme two mutually exclusive sub themes emerged which are constructing teaching as a profession and interpreting teaching as a profession.

#### *Construction of teaching as a profession*

Most of the teachers in the focus group alluded to the fact that teachers were creators of knowledge and beings. They asserted that teaching was a profession on account of offering a service to the community and creating a person from nothing to what was called something recognisable. Educating pupils, whether children or adults, is a service and as Perkin (1985) suggests, a service which combines knowledge with practice. In this respect the client demands not only theoretical knowledge but also procedural skills. Professions do not exist without clients, so students are an important component in the teaching profession. This provides further evidence of how education is contextualised as a profession.

Under this sub theme, the researcher also develops an understanding for reader that shows teachers as being subjects of their own reality in terms what they do and where they do it from (Leedy, 1997: 161). These acts distinguish them to be professionals. In essence, this component of phenomenology shows an individual's or group's perception of reality (teaching) as he or she constructs it. Below are two constructs. The first one is ascribed to creating professionals and the second one relates to the differences in levels of training and levels of job performance.

#### *Creating professionals*

*"I do realise that teachers work in varying situations and impart knowledge, skills and modify attitudes of learners. They do so under complex salutations beyond the ordinary. They create people from nothing to something ....here I mean learners are built from a base of nothing or something little to something better... So you can see that teaching is about moulding young lives, guiding youths, motivating students and general character training".*

*Imagine a kindergarten becoming a doctor. The fact that a doctor is a professional, then the teacher is one".*

#### *Levels of job performance*

*"Teacher education for early child education for example is highly specialised with the training curriculum tailored in that regard. A teacher trained to teach at a secondary school cannot handle early education unless the motive is to destroy children's future".*

#### *Differences in levels of training*

*"Each level of education builds on the strength of earlier orientation and passes the baton to the next higher level. Within the line every teacher is highly specialised at given levels".*

These exemplars show the amount of power that teachers have inherent of their knowledge and skills to create or recreate. As de Montigny (1995) puts it, there is power in being a professional, and this power is realised in several ways and Hughes (1994) notes that professionals profess and teachers therefore profess to know better than the client.

## ***Interpretive meaning***

Most of the teachers in the focus group alluded to the fact that undergoing training and not just mere training but training in a recognised institution was critical to ascribing teaching as a profession. They also buttressed the point that they had exclusive knowledge which made them qualify as professionals. This was an interpretive component of meaning. The excerpts from the focus group discussions below gave a social collective generation of meaning. The teachers' voices below therefore are illustrations of the meanings that teachers attached to their profession as they interpreted the meaning. These meanings refer to undergoing training and getting trained in accredited institution.

### ***Expertise***

*"In my view, teachers are professionals and my grounds are that teachers have this expertise that is acquired after undergoing in-depth and specialised training".*

### ***Accredited or recognised training***

*"Not every kind of teacher training accounts for one to be called a professional. It has to be an institution that is accredited or recognised..."*

*"There is no dispute that teaching is a profession given that to make a professional you have to impart some explicit knowledge which can only be acquired through training, and then I want to believe teaching is a profession. There is no way one could consider the training I undertook to say I am not a professional person".*

*"When teaching, we command specialized knowledge and some people call it arcane lore. We have a peculiar of knowhow to convey a subject to learners....which no other can".*

*"Teachers possess what is known as pedagogical content knowledge. This particular accomplishment makes teachers stand out as possessing complex unique body of knowledge which qualifies them to be professionals..."*

*"The argument that government employs untrained teachers to serve in the same industry with trained expert teachers does not dilute the fact that trained teachers are professionals. However, we must purge out all masquerades...As a matter of fact, all professional occupations have got*

*charlatans who masquerade as experts. Despite this situation professionals remain professionals”.*

*Subject knowledge is good, but there are a lot of theories about learning that teachers are trained in. This is the more reason why teachers go for training. It is wrong for a person who has not gone through the training I have undertaken to belittle my expertise as ordinary. I think this is a manifestation of unprofessional conduct on the part of those characters that disparage teaching as a semi-profession”.*

The descriptions above by the teachers in Lusaka Urban are indicative of them professing, as Hughes (1994) would put it. They profess to know better than others about the nature of certain matters, and to know better than their clients. For Hughes, this was the hallmark of the professional idea and the professional claim.

### ***Theme II: Teachers’ Positions Regarding Being Classified As Professionals***

Professionalization of teaching was a topic of controversy and, in the discussions, it was an issue of concern and they cited many educators, teachers, administrators, organizations and the public at large of what they felt about teaching. The question of whether teaching is an occupation, a vocation, a calling, a semi profession or a profession has complicated the situation to the extent that members of the public have accorded it low status and recognition. Teachers expressed varied positions when they were asked what they felt about teachers being considered as professionals by others. Nearly every one posited that teachers were considered to be professionals citing some defining elements which truly define teachers as professionals. The defining elements that are presented are not about professing but mere attributes of a profession from positivist lenses. The instances when teachers indicated that teaching was not a profession were related to the absence of defining elements in the practice and training of teachers that rendered a negative label of teaching not as a profession.

Below therefore are illustrations of other positive and negative defining elements that accredit or discredit teaching as a profession submitted by teachers in the focus group discussions.

### ***Positive Defining Elements***

#### *Peculiar practitioners*

*“As teachers we refuse to benchmark our occupation on the whims of other professions because we do not do the same things. You cannot examine teaching through the lenses of other fee paying professions”.*

#### *Public good*

*“We are a public good into public service. They are into money as their motivation number one. They out-do each other for the sake of amassing wealth at the expense of the ‘poor’ client”.*

#### *Certification*

*“Teaching is a profession because after teachers have undergone procedural training they are conferred with some certification in form of a certificate, diploma or degree of education prior to practice”.*

### ***Negative Defining Elements***

While teaching was predominantly called as a profession in the discussions, teachers were able to bring out elements that discredited teaching as a profession. A number of times teachers expressed dissatisfaction for non achievement of some defining elements and the experiences they had as teachers. Status or prestige was one aspect. The following views by teachers were recorded in the focus group discussions.

#### *Power and Status*

*“I do not feel proud to be identified or introduce myself as a teacher in the manner and way a lawyer or a medical doctor would proudly and gladly do. You know now about this 20% housing allowance and the 10% transport allowance... Landlords will not lease their houses to teachers. From bitter experience, they know that the teacher is sure to fall into arrears of rent, not*

*because he/she is a congenital debtor, but because he is poorly paid and because rarely does he get paid on time”.*

These illustrations bring a dimension of income and status in the realm of professionalism. Teachers are lowly paid and are of low status. The illustrations fit De Montigny (1995) arguments about professionalism when he emphasises gains and status. He argues that there is power in being a professional, and this power is demonstrated in the benefits that accrue to the person who wields power. In the above examples teachers do not wield monetary power and do not have status to command other social actors in the economy.

### *Generalities*

There were numerous claims dismissing achievements of teaching as a profession. These covered absence of state policy, ethical standards, job changes, resignations, lack of selfless service and infiltration into the discipline by untrained teachers. The testimonies of dissatisfactions below as recorded from focus group discussions, attest lucidly.

*“Other people argue against us on state policy. They say teaching is not a profession because even though the vocation boasts of high level of education... we now have degree as well as higher degree qualifications providing lengthy of training, however sadly, this training is not protected by state policy....There is no law, no licensure so to speak...”*

*“How can you say that teaching is a profession when teachers easily leave their careers to take up other jobs. They become bankers and some even change to become lawyers. There is an aspect of job dissatisfaction in this change”.*

*“There is a crises now in Zambia, because science and mathematics teachers are joining the mines not to teach but work as scientists. Retention of this cohort of teachers by government has become a great challenge, if not a nightmare”.*

*“Most of the teachers have failed the test of rendering selfless public service on this premise, they follow greener pastures...”*



*"We have spoken and spoken but nothing seems to come to fruition. Up to now though teachers have an indispensable public good attribute, there is nothing to talk about regarding ethical dimensions that could have distinguished us from other professions such as lawyers and doctors...Being a professional, moulding the young children, calls for more than just having qualifications but attitudes and values. But premeditated misdemeanours that teachers get involved into are appalling and a dent on our occupation. The reason is lack of legal instrument to monitor the occupation".*

### **Theme III: Influence on classification and practice of Teaching as a profession**

There is no doubt that teaching meets the more widely accepted criteria of a profession. It is however pertinent to note that there are subverting factors that restrain the advancement of teaching as a profession. Teachers pointed to a number of subverting factors that have created a lag in reaching the level of professionalism and they also described factors that negatively paint teaching as a profession. These factors are highlighted under the following sub themes: government mediated acts, integrity, salary, stigma, education and training, absolute and relative size, self-regulation, public service ethos and professional conduct, the work environment and remuneration.

#### *Government Mediated Acts*

Teaching is said not to be a profession by people outside and some within the teaching fraternity because the Government has littered teaching with unqualified teachers and further there is no gate keeping to teaching. The Government tends to ignore professionalism among teachers because the services are a public good and reach every citizen. This lack of gate keeping, lack of autonomy and stratification has allowed the teaching vocation to face insurmountable problems to achieve the status of professionalism. The illustrations below coming from the teachers' focus group discussions, attest to this.

*"I must say that we have lost the recognition as professionals because teaching is a mass occupation. This militates against professional exclusivity. Look at lawyers....there is always a small pool of lawyers churned out by the school of law. They are further screened at Zambia*

*Institute ZIALE. In the end you have an artificial shortage of practitioners who can get jobs and charge fees unregulated. The teaching force accounts for one-half to two-thirds of public sector employment”.*

*“The act of lumping untrained teachers (meaning those people who have not been trained in pedagogic content knowledge) to work with us, militates against the acquisition of the much desired teaching professional status”.*

*“To date the Government has not considered to legitimise professionalism among teachers by way of licensure so that teachers can practice privately and charge fees to their clients independently as lawyers, engineers and doctors do...We are not saying that we do not recognise the law that allows the creation of private schools, colleges and universities no not at all. Private school licensure is different from individual licensure and this is our concern”.*

### *Education and Training*

A key feature of the teaching force in Zambia is its heterogeneity, particularly with respect to educational attainment and professional training. Teachers range from those with post-graduate qualifications to secondary school leavers with minimal levels of pre-service training. Consequently, as an occupational group, teachers do not have the equivalent level of education and training nor the cohesiveness as of established professions, such as medical doctors, engineers and lawyers, which have uniform high academic entry qualifications. The exemplars below show how education and training which is not uniform has created a difficulty in granting teaching as a profession.

We have been concerned as teachers that the status of professionalism will be hard to achieve as long as we have different qualifications and periods of training.

*“There are untrained graduates in our ranks who are employed by government to serve as teachers. These disparage teaching as a semi-profession. They are inept in several ways...As teachers we refuse to be associated with this ineptitude”.*

*“Take a moment and ponder over it, even the prefix “un-” for “un-trained teacher”, goes to justify that there is something terribly wrong, and that is the absence of unique expertise, being*

*pedagogic content knowledge possessed by trained teachers.... Come to think of it, if a university graduate in chemistry without education is going to be retrained in pedagogic knowledge by a college of education, isn't that reminiscent of how rich trained teachers' unique complex skills of content delivery are?"*

*"Look at the lawyers, doctors and even engineers; they all have uniform high academic entry qualifications".*

*"The final academic award obtained by the majority of professionals can be regarded as a general, indicative of its intellectual standard. Look at the majority of teachers that we have...certificate and diploma holders. A few graduates you will see....But you do not see this in medicine and law. In the teaching profession, a possession of grade II Teachers' Certificate, a diploma in Education and a degree in education and the possessor will all be branded as professional teachers. This has affected the status of teaching as a profession in the eyes of the public and even the government".*

*(Teachers' reflections in the focus group discussions).*

### *Integrity*

The integrity of teachers came out prominently in the focus group discussions. The question of whether teachers have integrity rest upon the evaluation of each teacher. While there are great teachers, there are also others who are mediocre. The teachers were concerned about the numerous negative reports on isolated cases of malpractices that seemed to dent the creation of the image of professionalism among the teaching fraternity. These reports were related to commitment to duty as a professional educator, commitment to the student, commitment to the public, commitment to employment practices. The excerpts below from focus group discussions allude to the faltered integrity of teachers which were considered not common place but affected negatively the image of teachers.

*"Traditionally, society has expected and set very high and at times, stringent ideals for teachers to follow. They are expected to be pace-setters, inspirers, critics and appreciators of excellence and enemies of shoddiness. These attributes seem to have gone after independence".*

*"Teachers are losing out on professionalism. They are not giving in as much as is expected of them. These examination malpractices*

*and defilements show that they are not above reproach... They show less zealousness in their work, and are not self controlled...But this does not include most of the teachers who come with much zeal, confidence and dedication to the profession and keep it to the end”.*

#### *Commitment of teachers as a professional educator*

*“We all know that fundamental to the pursuit of professional status recognition come with skills, intellect, integrity, wisdom, and compassion. In our midst, we have a few teachers that are not committed....some do not exhibit good moral character...What good example can a teacher who is always in drunken stupor and pushed on wheelbarrows be to pupils? These scenes common as they are, belittle teachers before society. Teachers are equally not ashamed because this is what society looks at them, being not professional workers”.*

#### *Commitment to employment practices*

*“The stealing of public funds typical of school administrators would also subside because if found wanting, such head teachers would equally lose the practising license and get proscribed”.*

*“The examination malpractices and defilements show that teachers are not above reproach”.*

#### *Commitment to the student*

*“Some teachers are less mindful that they exist for the purpose of serving the best interest of their pupils...you see no genuine interest, concern, and consideration for the student. They release vital content knowledge to learners in piece-meal with intent to starve learners as bait for extra tuition so that they could recoup more money from learners. Teachers are in the habit of giving useless subject content notes to pupils and reserve the best for the pamphlets to be sold to pupils at great cost. Such actions reduce teachers’ respect in the eyes of expectant public”.*

#### *Commitment to the public*

*“Teaches are losing out on professionalism. They are not giving as much as it is expected”.*

*“Teachers are less zealous and not self controlled...”*

### *Self-Regulation*

*"As teachers we are yet to be established as professionals so as to enjoy a high degree of self-regulation..."*

*"Time must come when we should put on the banner of professionalism. We need to be successful in maintaining high barriers to entry into teaching in terms of setting qualification requirements and registration".*

*"Now we are weak. We are a state-dominated occupation with factions. Look at the divisions in terms of trade unionism....If we can move towards self regulation the better".*

### *Stigma*

*"Teachers are enemies of themselves and the government is at the centre of creating discrimination...Look at this!!!! There are factions in the teaching fraternity. Those teaching Mathematics and Sciences at the moment are held in high esteem than those teaching Arts, Social Sciences and Languages. There is also a policy emphasis on Mathematics and Sciences... Recently government almost implemented a divisive policy of paying retention allowance to Graduate Science and Mathematics teachers only. This ad hoc policy was mooted as a desperate measure in the face of government's failure to come up with a workable solution to deal with the shortage of Science and Mathematics teachers, who opt to resign and join mines or take up other occupations. Owing to a threat of a show-down and paralyze the education sector by other teachers if this divisive policy went ahead, government rescinded this myopic position".*

*"Teachers are not proud to be identified or introduce themselves as such in public. The reason is because society attaches low opinion to this occupation".*

### *Salary and Inducements*

*"Yeah, you can deduce from the salary who a professional is...Teachers generally have low salaries when compared to other professionals with similar qualifications".*

*“Do not talk about private practice or retention allowances. The Government is at the centre of deciding who gets what. For some civil servants, private practice allowance has been retained. But teachers do not get this allowance at all and yet they too practice privately”.*

#### **Theme IV: Attempts to make Teachers as Professionals**

There have been a number of attempts trying to make teaching a profession. These attempts are categorised into two. The first is a government mediated approach and the second one relates to advocacy by teachers. Government attempts have focussed on passing legislation, and advocacy has been looking at meeting the shortfalls in attaining professional status by way of improving working conditions, addressing autonomy and licensure as well as recognising qualifications. The following verbatim accounts from focus group discussions attest lucidly:

##### *Advocacy and Trade Unionism*

*“Teachers on their own cannot do anything to have them recognised as professionals over night. However, we have tried through unions to see if at all recognition could be granted”.*

*“... Not even teacher unions can sustain this campaign because they are divided. The Unions are just a trade and have legitimised teaching as a vocation...or 'trade', with minimal training requirements, ease of entry, low pay. We just have to heighten our agitation”.*

*“We have agitated for licensure for a long time. We hope this will come to pass by legislation of the teaching Council”.*

*“There is no other way of getting out of this. Classifying teaching as a profession would restore teachers’ morale and sense of pride. In the past we have advocated for the creation of a licensing body that could recognise our various attributes and accredit us accordingly”.*

*“In seminars and workshops, we have told authorities about the need to for a code of conduct classifying teaching as a profession”.*

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONS

### Overview

*This chapter is premised on the findings of the study as outlined in chapter four. The findings are organised on the basis of the research questions in order that the research outputs are thematically shown in relation to the problem the study had from the onset. Explaining the meaning of the results of the study to the reader is a prime purpose of the discussion of findings' section, (Dean: 2002).*

### 5.1 The Answers to the Research Questions

It is paramount that at the end of an inquiry, answers to research questions or those using objectives, phenomena related to them are shown (Yin, 2008 ; Creswell, 2005). In this study, the researcher opts to use the research questions model and this is because research questions are the essence of most research conducted and acted as the guiding plan for the investigation (Mertler and Vannatta, 2001). In general, research questions are “specific questions that researchers seek to answer” (Creswell, 2005: 117). According to Maxwell (2005:69), “research questions state what you want to learn”. Therefore, the answers to the four research questions are set as follows:

**Relating to research question one:** *Using the modified Millersonian and Wilensian trait models of professional classification, what are the defining elements of teaching as a profession among teachers in Lusaka?*

The results in (*Table 4.2.1*) generally show that on all Millersonian professional traits teachers hold the view that they are professionals (n=302 (79%)), except on the two variables shown below:

- 1) Teaching fails to meet the attributes of a profession because teachers easily leave their careers to take up other jobs.

- 2) Teaching is not a profession because teachers take up this occupation as employment of the last resort after unsuccessful attempts at other careers of choice.

As for Wilensky traits (n=356 (93.19%)), teaching emphatically qualifies as a profession, according to the teachers' reflections.

***Regarding research question two: Which one of the two trait models (Millersonian or Wilensky) has greater explanatory power of teaching as a profession?***

Comparing the two trait models as to whose variables were highly agreed to in defining teaching as a profession, the statistics show that respondents n=356 (93.19%) believed that Wilensky defined teaching as a profession better than Millerson (n=302, (79%).

***Considering research question three: From the teachers' interpretation of professionalism, what are the constructs of teaching as a profession?*** While teachers agreed with Millerson and Wilensky traits that they were professionals, the constructions that they were professionals had similar and dissimilar descriptions. These descriptions were elaborate. The descriptions can be broadly classified in three (a) defining positive traits (b) defining negative traits and attempts to attain professional status. Three themes construct teaching as a profession and not a profession while one theme demonstrates attempts being made by teachers and the government to facilitate teaching attain the status of a profession. These themes are:

- a) Theme I: The Meaning of the Concept of Teaching as a Profession.
- b) Theme II: Teachers' Positions Regarding Being Classified As Professionals.
- c) Theme III: Influence on classification and practice of Teaching as a profession



Based on the themes, teachers constructed teaching as a profession, but recognized that the occupation hosted a lot of negative attributes that militated against its professional claim. They presented these two positions based on positive and negative attributes that they saw in the job and what society perceived them to be. They noted that negative attributes were influenced by such constructs as: government mediated acts, heterogeneity in education and training, battered integrity, less commitment to the occupation by teachers, lack of occupational gate keeping and self-regulation, stigma, salary and inducements. Teachers felt that these negative constructs were rectifiable and cannot outweigh the gravity of positive constructs which are practical and impacting on societal good. They felt that dwelling on negatives is tantamount to cynicism, arguing that every profession has terrible negative sides but the good always outweigh the shortcomings.

***Relating to research question four: What attempts have been made in professionalising teachers?*** Attempts at classifying teaching as a profession by stakeholders abound. The first is a government mediated approach and the second one relates to advocacy by teachers. Government attempts have focussed on passing legislation toward recognising teaching as a profession, while advocacy has been influenced by accelerated agitation by teachers towards cleansing the occupation against negative attributes with a view to attaining professional status. This advocacy has centred on such things as lobbying government to improving working conditions, addressing autonomy and licensure as well as recognising qualifications. Advocacy has been predicated on general outcry through speeches especially at platforms such as teacher union quadrennial conferences, international teachers' day commemorations and at occasions marking teachers' graduation ceremonies. The response from government has always been rhetoric characterised by lip-service.

## 5.2 The meaning of the study

The trait model variables of Millerson and Wilensky indicate that teaching is a profession and it was not expected that Millerson would score more than Wilensky and yet both argue from a positivist point of view. One possible explanation could be that teaching has made more progress in developing using Millerson's traits than Wilensky's traits.

From the teacher's constructs, professionalism is a politically charged project established by the powerful (Larson, 1977; MacDonald, 1995). The fact that teachers were able to define teaching using their own constructs is in agreement with Adams' (2000) arguments that cultural traits are with occupation construction. This is because any culture selects traits to underpin professionalism. This tends to dismiss the positivists points of view like those of Millerson, Wilensky and Kuper et al. Kuper et al., (2007) observe that there is a growing awareness that professionalism is too complex a construct to be reduced to a simple checklist of individual characteristics and behaviours. To this effect therefore, psychometric measurement approaches may not be the best way to capture professionalism. The descriptions made by teachers (see the exemplars below) from focus group discussion, showing the attributes of a profession possessing creative power which positivists like Millerson and Wilensky fail to demonstrate.

*"...Teachers create people from nothing to something ...here I mean learners are built from a base of nothing or something little to something better... So you can see that teaching is about moulding young lives, guiding youths, motivating students and general character training".*

*"Imagine a kindergarten becoming a doctor. The fact that a doctor is a professional, then the teacher is one".*

De Montigny (1995) puts it very clearly when he argues that there is power in being a professional, and this power is realised in several ways with inherent

benefits that accrue to the person who wields it. In addition, Hughes (1994) notes that professionals profess. They profess to know better than others about the nature of certain matters, and to know better than their clients.

Positivism therefore is riddled with weakness in that the trait-approach that authors use in defining elements stem from their individual occupational backgrounds and force them onto other occupations (Hewitt and Thomas (2007). There is therefore a problem with trait model because of the propensity to view all occupations from the lenses of other professions. Barber (1963) in supporting constructivists argues that a sociological definition of profession should limit itself in so far as possible to the *differentia specifica* of professional community. Barber implies that it is not right to insinuate that traits of one occupation must be reflected in all other occupations. This is simply because occupations differ from one another. The trait-approach to theorising about professionalism is therefore jaundiced, as it ignores variations in the historical conditions under which variant forms of occupational activities develop.

The fact that teachers are yet to be licensed and to develop a code of ethics, does not dismiss them as professionals because in Friedson (1986) eyes, any definition of a profession should reflect that it is a changing concept. As Friedson guides if the same defining standards that applied to medieval careers can be used now without shifting goal posts, then automatically teaching qualifies as a profession.

It should be noted that most of the reasons that were advanced to negate teaching as a profession are linked to a cultural lag. The teaching profession lags behind other professions such as accounting, law and medicine in eight significant areas as shown exemplified below:

**Table 5.2.1 Professional Culture's defining elements**

Defining element		Description
Initial Professional Education		Advanced University programmes for a particular field, such as law school for lawyers and medical school for doctors.
Accreditation		Such advanced University programmes must be accredited by one or more oversight bodies.
Skills Development		Requires a period of actual practice in applying University knowledge before a certification examination can be taken. For accounting professionals for instance, must work for one year in a board-approved organisation before taking the certified accounting examination (CPA)
Certification		An actual examination such as CPA for accountants
Licensing		Mandatory and administered by a governmental authority.
Professional Development		Ongoing professional education, most critically in a profession such as medical doctors with a rapidly changing body of knowledge.
Professional Societies		Group of like-minded individuals who put their professional standards above their individual self-interest or their employers self interest.
Code of ethics		Imposition of a behavioural standard against which to eject professionals from their professional societies or cause them to lose their practising licenses for violating the code.

Source: McConnell (2004).

That teaching does not possess these eight characteristics is a factor pertaining to why teaching has such an ambiguous status as a profession.

### 5.3 Synthesizing the Social Constructions with the literature

Lincoln & Guba (2000) instruct that the ontological belief is that reality is local and specifically constructed (relativism). This position is echoed by Hargreave and Goodson (1996) who reflect that according to symbolic interactionists the concept "profession" is a relative construct and can be subjected to different constructions according to the inclinations of its advocates. Barber (1963) quoted in Johnson (1972: 33) adds that a Sociological definition of profession should limit itself in so far as possible to the *differentia specifica* of professional community. Hewitt and

Thomas (2007) point out that professionals only define their own occupations, adding that professions exist to project an image, as a means of differentiating themselves from other occupations.

The teachers' constructs therefore fall within the ontological framework of the phenomenological orientation. In this study teachers posit that their occupation is a profession. They refer to themselves as creators of knowledge and beings. They assert that teaching is a profession on account of creating a person from nothing to a dignified personality academically. Contrasted with an individual who moved away from teachers' hands, (stopped school mid-way) and now a destitute, teaching exemplifies the definition of profession because it heightens people's social strata.

*"I do realise that teachers work in varying situations and impart knowledge, skills and modify attitudes of trainees. They do so under complex salutations beyond the ordinary. They create people from nothing to something ....here I mean trainees are built from a base of nothing or something little to something better... So you can see that teaching is about moulding young lives, guiding youths, motivating students and general character training. Imagine a kindergarten becoming a doctor. The fact that a doctor is a professional, emphatically then teacher is one".*

Teachers' voices in focus group discussions.

The foregoing position by teachers is shared by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards® (NBPTS) (2002), who reflect that teachers are professionals because they have a rich understanding of the subject(s) they teach and appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines and applied to real-world settings. Teachers exemplify virtues they seek to inspire in students: curiosity, tolerance, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity and appreciation of cultural differences. Qualified teachers possess the knowhow of developing the critical and analytical capacities of their students.

In the focus group discussions, teachers felt that they were professionals because educating pupils, whether children or adults, is a service. In this respect the client demands not only theoretical knowledge but also procedural skills. Professions do not exist without clients, so students are an important component in the teaching profession. This provides further evidence of how education is contextualised as a profession.

Teachers indicated that teaching was a highly specialised occupation with inherent skills therein. They noted for instance that early child education was highly specialised with the training curriculum tailored in that regard. A teacher trained to teach at a secondary school level cannot handle early education learners and vice versa, unless the motive is to destroy children's future. Each level of education builds and passes on the baton to the next higher level. Within the line every teacher is highly specialised at given levels. This is a testimony of professionalism in teaching.

The exemplars above show the amount of power that teachers have and inherent in their knowledge and skills. They use it to create or recreate. As De Montigny (1995) puts it, there is power in being a professional, and this power is realised in several ways. Hughes (1994) amplifies this by adding that professionals profess and teachers profess. They profess to know more than the client, this henceforth, is an element of professionalism. The apparent difference between teachers' professionalism and other professional occupations which practice on the whims of charging client fees is that teachers profess it all. They do not mystify their knowledge so that the client could appear more ignorant and get charged astronomical fees for the service being sought. Teachers' professionalism therefore boasts of disinterestedness or altruism a hallmark of professional claim. Teachers indicated that teaching was like a candle which burns itself to give light to other people.

Teachers in focus group discussions alluded to the fact that their occupation was a profession on account of having been trained. They buttressed the

point that they had exclusive knowledge which made them to be professionals.

*"In my view, we (teachers) are professionals and my grounds are that teachers have this expertise that is acquired after undergoing in-depth and specialised training".*

*"Not every kind of teacher training accounts for one to be called a professional. It has to be from an institution that is accredited or recognised..."*

*"There is no dispute that teaching is a profession given that to make a professional you have to impart some explicit knowledge which can only be acquired through training... then I want to believe teaching is a profession. There is no way one could consider the training I undertook to say that I am not a professional person".*

*"When teaching, we command specialized knowledge and some people call it arcane lore. We have a peculiar of knowhow to convey a subject to learners....which no other can".*

*"Teachers possess what is known as pedagogic content knowledge. This particular accomplishment makes teachers stand out as possessing complex unique body of knowledge which qualifies them to be professionals".*

These descriptions of teachers' own voices above point to them professing, and according to Hughes (1994) professionals profess, they profess to know better than others about the nature of certain matters, and to know better than their clients. For Hughes, this was the hallmark of the professional idea and the professional claim. The teachers' narratives above are also consistent with NBPTS® (2002) reflection that qualified teachers command specialized knowledge of how to convey and reveal subject matter to students.

Qualified teachers are aware of the preconceptions and background knowledge that students typically bring to each subject and of strategies and instructional materials that can be of assistance. They understand where difficulties are likely to arise and modify their practice accordingly. Their instructional repertoire allows them to create multiple paths to the subjects they teach, and they are adept at teaching students how to pose and solve their own problems.

Teachers indicated that professions were different from one another and that it was illogical to create a falsified positivist perception that every 'size fits all'. They stood against the notion that the unique elements of one occupation must be mirrored by all others. This to them was a manifestation of a jaundiced imagination. Exemplars from focus group discussions below attest lucidly:

*"As teachers we refuse to benchmark our occupation on the whims of other professions because we do not do the same things. You cannot examine teaching through the lenses of other fee paying professions. We are a public good into public service. They are into money as their motivation number one. They out-do each other for the sake of amassing wealth at the expense of the 'poor' client".*

The foregoing observations by teachers are supported. Lester (2010) reflects that structuralists hold the view that functional relevance to society is the main determinant of which occupation breaks into the ranks of professional classification. Occupations are segregated on account of their importance to society. They are seen as providing a service of common good to society. Kuper, Reeves, Albert and Hodges (2007) observe that psychometric measurement approaches may not be the best way to capture professionalism; it is too complex a construct to be reduced to a simple checklist of individual characteristics and behaviours. Witz (1992) adds that sociologists, who work with the trait paradigm, need to address the central concerns of whose standards do students of sociology of professions conform to. The most significant argument concerns not what constitutes professionalism, but who decides the definition of professionalism and why? Witz (1992) correctly interrogates the nomothetic assumptions, but this question is clearly answered by the idiographic ontology that reality is local and it is specifically constructed, Lincoln & Guba (2000), Barber (1963) in Johnson (1972).



## **CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION**

This dissertation has established that teaching is a profession from a positivist approach and that it is also a profession from an anti-positivist or constructivist approach but amidst controversy that it is or it is not. This study has also highlighted that quality and professionalism are inextricably linked.

The study has further established that the term profession is a social construction whose defining features are internally situated in the inclinations of the social actors. Professionalism is about the quality of practice and service to the client, and not the status of the advocates. Public relevance of the actors' job to society, this study has discovered, is the prime mover of professional claim.

Teaching in Zambia very frankly, despite satisfying all the inherent facets of trait from the old school, lacks only one thing, professional culture. Hoyle and Wallace (2005) refer to professional culture as shared ideologies, values, general attitudes towards work, a configuration of beliefs, practices, relationships, language and symbols distinctive to a particular social unit. Professional culture, as Linda (2007) opines, is exclusively shaped by the enactment of professionalism. This means that even if an occupation puts up a claim of satisfying the 'general' features of trait of the controversial trait model, its professional claim would not be absolute because there would be no law to protect the profession from charlatans. Enactment of professionalism into a professional culture therefore, is one exclusive attempt at professionalising any occupation. This means that social actors would be tied to stringent shared ideologies and values.

This study dismisses the trait model's theorising on professionalism as mere conjectural, driven by cynicism. Profession is a relative construct with defining elements confined to respective social actors, and not externally imposed. These defining features are augmented by a professional culture.

In Zambia, teaching has evolved into a fully-fledged profession. This position is predicated on the 2013 Zambian Parliament enactment of the Teaching Professional bill and subsequently assented to by the Republican President into Law. The ramification hereto, signals the emergence of a professional culture. For starters, it is the enactment of professionalism which brings about professional culture and assures any occupation of professional claim.

The old thinking that teaching was not a profession on account of teachers leaving their occupation to take up other jobs is equally not correct. It is not necessarily leaving the occupation for other jobs but that teachers' training is multi-disciplinary and surely a bait for other assignments. Lawyers do the same; some do not even stand in court but use their training to work in other sectors.

This study on the other hand has notable strengths worth mentioning here. Methodologically relating to the use of mixed methods, where the realist paradigm failed, the constructivist paradigm augmented a position and vice versa. This aspect of methodological and data triangulation is rare in professional research. One other notable strength is the inclusion into the study of teachers who traversed three teaching strata and these were primary, secondary and tertiary school teachers, typically inherent of the mixed methods paradigm and therefore benefited from methodological and data triangulation.

Using both the nomothetic and idiographic tools of inquiry over the presented research problem, the findings of this study add to the existing pool of knowledge in the sociology of professions and thus give students of Sociology of Education an authentic and instructive empirical position. In addition, inductively, the study has added to the pool of knowledge potential variables one could use as explanation of teaching as a profession by teachers in Lusaka and these are appear below in figure 5.4.1.

**Figure 5.4.1 Potential Themes and Variables for Testing**

***Theme I: The Meaning of the Concept of Teaching as a Profession***

*Construction of teaching as a profession*

- *Creating professionals*
- *Levels of job performance*
- *Differences in levels of training*

*Interpretive meaning*

- *Expertise*
- *Accredited or recognised training*

***Theme II: Teachers' Positions Regarding Being Classified As Professionals***

***Positive Defining Elements***

- *Peculiar practitioners*
- *Public good*
- *Certification*

***Negative Defining Elements***

- *Power and Status*
- *Generalities*

***Theme III: Influence on classification and practice of Teaching as a profession***

- *Government Mediated Acts*
- *Education and Training*
- *Integrity*
- *Commitment of teachers as a professional educator*
- *Commitment to employment practices*
- *Commitment to the student*
- *Commitment to the public*
- *Self-Regulation*
- *Stigma*
- *Salary and Inducements*

***Theme IV: Attempts to make Teachers as Professionals***

- *Advocacy and Legislation*

This study is premiere in Zambia and as such, the methodology it has used may be replicated or broadened to cover more districts.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

1. Methodologically the trail of this research could be tried at country level to come up with a holistic picture of teaching as a profession.
2. In theory, the concepts (subthemes and categories) which have been generated outside the trait model may be tested empirically to modify the trait model on professionalism as it relates to teaching and further determine whether the constructs generated measure professionalism.
3. This study recommends that teaching be legislated as a profession and run on self regulated principles, in order that the occupation is underpinned on professional culture.
4. Noting that teachers consider themselves as professionals when they look at levels where they teach be it (kindergarten, primary, secondary or tertiary levels); and for example by specialization (special education, physical education and so forth), it will be prudent for the government to provide registration of teachers as professionals based on grounds of specialization.
5. The Teaching Service must award pecuniary and non pecuniary benefits to teachers on grounds of the levels of professional expertise attained. This will restore teachers' motivation and assure them a logical career path.

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## Appendix I – Introductory Letter

*CEO-TE*  
*Please, assist this postgraduate student.*



**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**  
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381  
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA  
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379  
Lusaka, Zambia  
Fax: +260-1-292702

15<sup>th</sup> August, 2012

The Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational training and Early Education  
P.O. Box 32379  
LUSAKA

Dear Sir/Madam

*Stamp: DIRECTOR - EDUCATION AND SPECIALISED SERVICES P.O. BOX 60093, LUSAKA 4 SEP 2012*

*Stamp: RECEIVED 16 AUG 2012 MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EARLY EDUCATION PERMANENT SECRETARY'S OFFICE*

**Ref: INTRODUCING A POSTGRADUATE STUDENT (MAPULANGA DANIEL) TO YOUR OFFICE**

Refer to the above subject.

The bearer of this minute is a registered Postgraduate student at the University of Zambia pursuing a Master of Education in Sociology of Education degree. The Masters programme has a field research component that every Postgraduate student undertakes. Mr. Mapulanga's research topic is guided by the title "**The Social Construction of Teaching as a Profession: a Phenomenological Perspective**". With this, he has expressed interest in working closely with your committee looking at the creation of the professional teaching council in order that he enriches his study with theory and practice.

I trust that your office will render him space to thoroughly carry out his study.

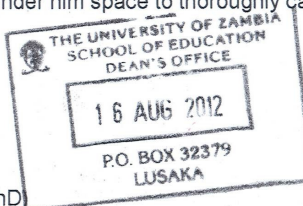
Thanking you in advance.

Yours faithfully

*[Signature]*  
Dr. S. Kasonde-Ng'andu (PhD)

**ASSISTANT DEAN (POSTGRADUATE) SCHOOL OF EDUCATION**

Cc: Dean, School of Education  
Head, Department of Educational Psychology, Sociology and Special Education



*Secretariat*  
*No objection - adre*  
*17/8/2012*

## Appendix II – Field Introductory Letter



### THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381  
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA  
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379  
Lusaka, Zambia  
Fax: +260-1-292702

Date:.....

#### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

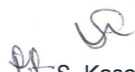
#### RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS / PhD STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr./Ms. MAPULANGA DANIEL Computer number 531000801 is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

He/~~She~~ is taking a Masters/~~PhD~~ programme in Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he/she has to complete.

We shall greatly appreciate if the necessary assistance is rendered to him/her/

Yours faithfully

  
S. Kasonde-Ng'andu (PhD)  
ASSISTANT DEAN (PG)- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION



### Appendix III Approval Letter

*All correspondence should be addressed  
to the District Education Board Secretary  
Telephone: 0211 240250 / 240249/ 0955 623749  
E-mail: desbsisk@yahoo.co.uk*



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

#### MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE, VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EARLY EDUCATION

DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY  
P.O. BOX 50297  
LUSAKA

*In reply please quote:*  
**DEB/LSK/101/1/1**  
*No.:.....*


25<sup>th</sup> September, 2012

TO: The Head teachers  
Basic/High Schools  
**LUSAKA**

#### RE: INTRODUCTORY LETTER: MR. MAPULANGA DANIEL

This serves to introduce to you Mr. Mapulanga Daniel who has been sent by this office to come and have his research from your School under the topic "**The Social Construction of Teaching as a Profession: a Phenomenological Perspective**". He is a Masters student from the University of Zambia.

Kindly welcome him.

  
Joel Kamoko (Mr.)  
**DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY**  
**LUSAKA DISTRICT**

sn\*

## APPENDIX IV: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE



### SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Department of Educational Psychology, Sociology and Special  
Education  
P. O. Box 32379  
**LUSAKA.**  
Telephone: 291381  
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370  
Fax: +260-1-292702

Dear Respondent

### RESPONDENT INFORMATION SHEET

You are among the few teachers randomly selected from the office of the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS)-Lusaka District, to participate in this study entitled “The **Social Construction of Teaching as a Profession: A Phenomenological Perspective**”. The information you will provide shall be in confidence and identity kept anonymous. You are not required to indicate your name on the questionnaire.

This is a Postgraduate study conducted under the Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies, and coordinated by the School of Education.

I shall appreciate your heartfelt and reliable responses to questions contained in this research instrument.

Thank you  
Mapulanga Daniel

## **APPENDIX V - FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION/KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

We are going to discuss profession and how it applies to teaching as an occupation.

1. What is the meaning of the concept profession from your own perspective as a serving teacher?
2. What is your position regarding teachers being classified as professionals?
3. Would classifying teachers as professionals have any meaningful influence on their occupation and practice?
4. What do you think teachers should do to be viewed as professionals?
5. What attempts if any, would you point to indicative of work in progress leading to teaching being classified as a profession?

**END**

**APPENDIX VI - MINISTRY OF EDUCATION: LUSAKA DISTRICT EDUCATION-  
REGISTER**

	SCHOOL	TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS		
		M	F	
1.	Arthur Wina Basic School	47	7	54
2.	Bauleni Special School	17	1	18
3.	Bauleni Basic School	38	6	44
4.	Burma Basic School	48	4	52
5.	Chainama Basic School	28	3	31
6.	Chainda Basic School	51	7	58
7.	Chaisa Basic School	32	18	50
8.	Arthur Wina Basic School	47	7	54
9.	Chakunkula Basic School	52	6	58
10.	Chamba Valley Basic School	43	14	57
11.	Chawama Basic School	56	15	71
12.	Chazanga Basic School	38	10	48
13.	Chibelo Basic School	42	15	57
14.	Chibolya Basic School	56	6	62
15.	Chilenje B Basic School	43	11	54
16.	Chimwemwe Basic School	46	20	66
17.	Chingwele Basic School	30	6	36
18.	Chipata Basic School	30	29	59
19.	Chisengalumbwe Basic School	30	2	32
20.	Chitanda Basic School	31	13	44
21.	Chitukuko Basic School	40	7	47
22.	Chunga Basic School	25	12	37
23.	Desai Basic School	26	11	37
24.	Diana Kaimba Basic School	26	15	41
25.	Edwin Mulongoti Basic School	24	13	37
26.	Emmasdale Basic School	36	10	46
27.	George Central Basic School	22	16	38
28.	Harry Mwanga Nkumbula Basic School	21	7	28
29.	Hill Side Basic School	32	13	45
30.	Jacaranda Basic School	36	16	52
31.	John Laing Basic School	56	26	82
32.	Justin Kabwe Basic School	41	17	58
33.	Kabanana Basic School	17	15	32
34.	Kabulonga Basic School	40	11	51
35.	Kabwata Basic School	51	4	55
36.	Kalingalinga Basic School	35	5	40
37.	Kamanga Basic School	49	9	58
38.	Kamulanga Basic School	44	11	55
39.	Kamwala South Basic School	49	14	63
40.	Kanyama Central Basic School	26	7	33
41.	Kapwelyomba Basic School	47	6	53
42.	Kasamba Basic School	39	7	46
43.	Kaunda Square Basic School	47	9	56
44.	Kizito Basic School	24	20	44
45.	Libala Basic School	41	8	49
46.	Libala Stage III Basic School	55	12	67
47.	Lilanda Basic School	25	18	43
48.	Lilayi Basic School	38	12	50



49	Lotus Basic School	47	18	65
50	Lusaka Girls' Basic School	52	13	65
51	Lusakasa Basic School	28	6	34
52	Mahatma Ghandhi Basic School	40	7	47
53	Mambilima Basic School	22	11	33
54	Mandevu Basic School	29	14	43
55	Matero Boys' Basic School	27	15	42
56	Matero East Basic School	29	9	38
57	Mkandawire Basic School	23	5	28
58	Mary Aikenhead Basic School	6	1	7
59	Mtendere Basic School	31	4	35
60	Muchinga Basic School	33	19	52
61	Mumana Basic School	44	6	50
62	Mumuni Basic School	36	9	45
63	Mutambe Basic School	37	22	59
64	Muyooma Basic School	33	5	38
65	Namando Basic School	19	12	31
66	Nelson Mandela Basic School	31	15	46
67	New Chilenje South Basic School	37	10	47
68	New Kabanana Basic School	26	15	41
69	New Kanyama Basic School	50	10	60
70	New Mtendere Basic School	32	10	42
71	New Ngombe Basic School	20	13	33
72	New Northmead Basic School	33	8	41
73	Nyumba Yanga Basic School	44	7	51
74	Prince Takamado Basic School	34	18	52
75	Regiment Basic School	32	8	40
76	Roma Girls Basic School	6	2	8
77	Simon Mwansa Kapwepwe Basic School	26	13	39
78	St Francis of Assisi Basic School	11	8	19
79	St Lawrence Basic School	15	3	18
80	St Patricks Basic School	39	5	44
81	State Lodge A Basic School	7	6	13
82	State Lodge B Basic School	18	9	27
83	Thorn Park Basic School	26	12	38
84	Timothy Mwanakatwe Basic School	33	7	40
85	Tunduya Basic School	38	7	45
86	Twalumba Basic School	36	11	47
87	Twashuka Basic School	51	11	62
88	Twatasha Basic School	58	22	80
89	UTH Special School	28	3	31
90	Vera Chiluba Basic School	51	9	60
91	Woodlands A Basic School	54	11	65
92	Woodlands B Basic School	31	10	41
93	Yotamu Muleya Basic School	42	8	50
94	Ngombe Basic School	46	11	57
95	Ngwelele Basic School	31	12	43
96	Northmead Basic School	51	9	60
97	St Monica's Basic School	34	12	46
98	St Pauls Basic School	13	5	18
	TOTAL	3390	1025	4415

# **SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT: SEPTEMBER, 2012.**

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	F	M	TOTAL
1	Arakan Boys' Secondary	16	11	27
2	Arakan Girls' Secondary	16	32	48
3	Chelston Secondary	37	20	57
4	Chilenje South Secondary	11	18	29
5	Chinika Secondary	21	34	55
6	Chunga Secondary	17	29	46
7	David Kaunda Technical Secondary	21	29	50
8	Highland Secondary	19	27	46
9	Kabulonga Boys' Secondary	43	54	97
10	Kabulonga Girls Secondary	39	32	71
11	Kamulanga Secondary	30	31	61
12	Kamwala Secondary	40	35	75
13	Libala Secondary	27	25	52
14	Lusaka Secondary GRZ	51	28	79
15	Matero Boys' Secondary	9	20	29
16	Matero Girls' Secondary	33	29	62
17	Munali Boys' Secondary	30	32	62
18	Munali Girls Secondary	39	47	86
19	Olympia Secondary	24	29	53
20	Roma Girls' Secondary	19	21	40
21	St Mary's Secondary	21	20	41
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>563</b>	<b>603</b>	<b>1166</b>

## **COLLEGE OF EDUCATION IN LUSAKA DISTRICT**

F	M	TOTAL
15	17	32

**Statistics: Basic school teachers                      4 415**

**Secondary school teachers                      1 166**

**College of Education Lecturers                      32**

**POPULATION TOTAL= 5 613**