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Effects of Instructional and Non-Instructional Tasks on the Workloads of Classroom Teachers in a Vocational College in China

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ABSTRACT: This study discusses the current situation of professional identity of early childhood education students in colleges from three aspects: professional cognition, professional attitude and emotion, and professional behaviour, and tries to understand the influencing factors of professional identity, including personal information, scholastic performance, etc. The study determined the relationship between the professional identity with the scholastic performance of the prospective early childhood education teachers. Results show that scholastic performance is significantly and positively correlated with the total professional identity score and its three dimensions.

KEYWORDS: Scholastic Performance, Professional Identity, Early Childhood Teachers,

I. INTRODUCTION

Professional education requisitely describes teachers to be flexible and acquiescent since their duties are not only constricted within the classroom or school premises, but they are also expected to perform some outside classroom duties in the community. These responsibilities conform to their oath or solemn promise before the state which assigns them to undertake any form of onuses. These assume that, as a teacher, you must do your best to carry the tasks assigned and given to you by the higher authorities and other sources. Teaching the learners with the necessary knowledge and competencies for life's survival and understanding of the world is one of the common views of the general public concerning the duties of teachers in society. Despite the lack of a clear definition of what teaching quality is, Henard & LeprinceRinguet (2008) argued that quality teaching is necessarily student-centered. Attention should be given to the 'teacher's pedagogical skills' and the 'learning environment that addresses students' needs. Moreover, apart from this shared understanding, teachers also face some evident and hidden tasks and activities that must be finished within a given time. Teachers are overworked and stressed due to this hidden work that exists and a real fact experience (Dibbon, 2004), indeed, teachers are preoccupied and overloaded with duties and responsibilities whether it is teaching and non-teaching related tasks. Some of these are taxing and demanding which compel several teachers to bring and finish it at home (Tancinco, 2016).

From a global perspective, Sugden (2010) affirmed that most of the teachers' workloads are increasing in numbers, non-teaching assignments are now extensive in amount, and sometimes designated with a work in which they are not well-honed. Such examples are the numerous meetings, seminars, conferences, administrative or school paper works, community extension services, and sports events that require the participation and presence of educators. However, a problem arises when the intensified teacher's workloads affect the core principle of the teaching profession, namely providing quality teaching and education and attending to the needs of learners.

China boasts the world's largest educational system. China's education system is vast and diversified, with almost 260 million pupils and over 15 million instructors in around 514 000 schools (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2014), excluding graduate education institutions. Education is state-run, with limited private sector engagement in the educational system, and it is becoming increasingly decentralized. The major duty for managing and delivering school education rests with county governments.

Many higher education institutions are managed by province governments. In recent years, the Ministry of Education has switched from direct management of the educational system to macro-level surveillance. It directs educational reform through legislation, programs, funding allocation, information services, policy advice, and administrative tools (National Centre for Education Development Research, 2008).

Students in China often enroll in pre-school at the age of two or three and depart at the age of six. Preschool education is voluntary, and several private pre-schools exist. Following a national pledge to gradually universalize one to three years of pre-

school by 2020, the government has taken a more prominent role in promoting access. Students in China are required to complete nine years of compulsory schooling. Most pupils attend primary school for six years, however other school systems employ a five-year cycle. Majority of youngsters begin primary school at the age of six. After that, three to four years of junior secondary school are required. Prior to the 1990s, secondary schools used an entrance examination to select students. The government has replaced the entrance examination with a policy of mandatory enrolment based on area of residence to emphasize the compulsory nature of junior secondary schools and as part of an effort to orient education away from examination performance and toward a more holistic approach to learning (Schleicher and Wang, 2014).

Students can choose whether to continue their education after completing compulsory schooling. A three-year senior secondary education is required. General senior secondary, technical, or specialized secondary, adult secondary, vocational secondary, and crafts schools are the five categories of senior secondary schools in China. Secondary vocational schools are the remaining four options. Before attending senior secondary schools, students must take a public test called Zhongkao, and admission is based on the results of this examination. The government assigns pupils to different senior secondary schools based on their Zhongkao test scores.

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, China's tertiary education system exploded. The gross enrolment ratio for postsecondary education in China has climbed from 21% in 2006 to 39% in 2014. (UNESCO-UIS, 2016). Various institutions and programs were founded during this time, and international mobility and collaboration were greatly enhanced. The tertiary education system got more varied consequently. Undergraduate degrees in China take four years of study. Associate degrees require three years to complete, while master's degrees take two to three years to finish. After completing a bachelor's degree, a doctorate degree takes five years to complete and three years to complete after completing a master's degree. These higher education programs are in addition to these.

Education is highly valued by the Chinese government. It believes that education is the foundation for national growth and modernity. Education in China is governed by a plethora of rules and regulations. They're thought to be useful for steering and monitoring deployment throughout a broad, complicated system. The government employs rules and regulations to ensure that everyone has access to education and that it is of good quality. These laws are often drafted by the Ministry of Education and submitted to the National People's Congress for approval. The State Council then enacts the law when it has been adopted. Finally, at the appropriate levels, the National People's Congress formalizes local policy and implementation mechanisms.

Since the early 1980s, China's education system has been undergoing continual reforms. From increasing access to promoting excellent education as a fundamental value, the government adapts and develops education policy on a regular basis to ensure that it is in line with the country's social and economic growth, as well as new educational demands and trends. The Department of Development and Planning is in charge of national educational development under the Ministry of Education. The National Long-Term Education Reform and Development Plan was suggested by the department in 2010. (2010- 2020). This paper is a strategic plan for education reform and development at all levels in China during the next few years. It has become the most significant educational guideline in China. It outlines national strategies, tasks, and adjustments to the system.

In the last two decades, China's education system has undergone massive transformations at the national level. At the same time, China has seen fast economic expansion and broad social transformation. The Ministry of Education's Department of Plans and Regulations oversees educational reform policies and strategies, as well as research and survey of pertinent topics. This department's policies are often large-scale and extensive in scope. Other departments in the Ministry of Education, such as the Department of Teachers and the Department of Elementary Education, establish policy on education issues based on the present circumstances. To carry out national changes, all these departments collaborate. The policy is never created solely by the department in charge.

In China, teaching has traditionally been a highly respected vocation. Teachers' Day was declared a national holiday by the government in 1985. The Law on Compulsory Education, enacted in 1986, stated that teachers should be respected by all members of society. In October 1993, the Teachers Law was enacted. It established teachers' rights while also explicitly stating their obligations. Although teachers are paid little, their employment are secure, and they are entitled to decent benefits, which makes teaching a popular career, particularly in large cities. According to government statistics, China today has almost 15 million full-time teachers (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2014). 5.6 million primary school teachers and 3.5 million junior secondary school teachers are among them, accounting for almost 60% of the total number.

In China, many qualifications certifications are necessary for various types and grades of instructors. Citizens who acquire qualification certificates can teach at schools that recognize their teaching certificates or lower-level training certificates. Citizens who acquire the Certificate for Practical Instructors in Secondary Vocational Schools, on the other hand, can only apply for work as practical instructors. For teaching vacancies, candidates must apply in person. Candidates must produce official identity papers, as well as an academic certificate or proof of conformity from a teacher qualifying exam. A health certificate and letters of recommendation outlining the applicant's moral character are also required.

The qualifying system has recently undergone revision. The teacher qualification examination is now held on a nationwide level under the new system. Except for applicants for higher education, every certificate applicant must pass the test. Previously, the

test was largely held at the provincial level, with graduates from specialist teacher preparation institutes being able to avoid it. There are distinct exams for pre-school, elementary, secondary, and vocational education, all of which have two parts: a written test and an interview. A structured interview and a scenario simulation are included in the interview. Interviewers may ask candidates to respond to questions from a variety of themes chosen at random. Alternatively, applicants may be requested to construct a course, answer questions about it, deliver it, and write a student rating based on it.

In addition, to increase teacher quality, the government has developed a regular renewal procedure for teachers' certification certificates. Every five years, every pre-school, public primary, secondary, and vocational schoolteacher must re-register for their certification certificate (Ministry of Education, 2013). If a teacher does not register on time or does not get the certificate, he or she will be disqualified to continue teaching. Within 60 days of completing their probationary periods, new instructors must register and get a certificate. To be registered, applicants must pass an ethics evaluation and an annual assessment, complete at least 360 hours of professional development, or receive the equivalent number of credits, and show that they have completed the required 360 hours of professional development or received the equivalent number of credits, demonstrate the psychological and physical health necessary for teaching, and fulfil other requirements prescribed by local governments

The Chinese government has implemented numerous initiatives, including trainings, to enhance the quality of teachers in elementary and secondary schools. Every five years, each teacher in public primary and secondary schools must complete at least 360 class hours of training, according to the new regulation. Teachers' professional duties are considered while designing trainings, with the goal of improving their professional ethics and skills. The Chinese Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance introduced the National Teacher Training Program for Teachers in Kindergarten, Primary, and Secondary Schools in 2010. The initiative is significant because it aims to raise the general quality of instructors, particularly in rural primary and secondary schools.

Professional grades are used to rank teachers in China. Both elementary and secondary teachers have different professional titles. The title system has been reformed in the previous five years to establish a unified title system. There is now a new top title. Teachers in both primary and junior secondary schools utilize the same title system, which has increased teachers' professional development possibilities while also elevating their social prestige. In Table its 1.2, professional titles are displayed in descending order, along with the professional prerequisites.

Finally, China currently follows a three-tier curriculum model, with curricula established at the national, regional, and school levels. This concept entails the development of the most appropriate curriculum for the local context by the central government, local governments, and schools. On a national level, the Ministry of Education creates elementary and secondary school curriculum plans, establishes curriculum management rules, and defines national curriculum and class hours. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education oversees establishing national curricular standards. Pilot studies based on the curriculum assessment method are also conducted.

Hence, relevant authorities prepare a national curriculum implementation strategy at the provincial level. Provincial authorities attempt to interpret the national curriculum's intents and objectives to transform them into a local curriculum that is appropriate for the local environment. After that, the proposal is given to the Ministry of Education for approval before being implemented. Lastly, schools can organize their instructors to build their own courses and conduct educational research in accordance with the provincial plan at the school level. The local education bureau is intended to advise and monitor the activities of the schools throughout curriculum implementation and course development. Following that, schools offer comments on the implementation.

In the People's Republic of China, the teacher education system is broad. Teachers in China make up the world's largest teaching force in terms of numbers. In 1998, there were 229 different types of training institutes, with 138,745 education majors enrolled. Yet, in terms of both quantity and quality, this vast training system has barely fulfilled demand for the number of teachers necessary to support the even larger school system. The ability of the teacher education system to make appropriate contributions to the nation is harmed by a variety of major policy issues, organizational impediments, and socioeconomic circumstances.

However, implementing such significant educational changes in teaching techniques and student learning in the actual world is a difficult undertaking for instructors (Lee & Yin, 2011). One of the significant roadblocks they have encountered is that they have found the new curriculum difficult to handle when it comes to preparing their pupils for public tests, which are crucial to their future lives and remain China's primary method of evaluating teacher and school performance. Changes in the curriculum and assessments added to teachers' already intense workload, resulting in high levels of occupational stress and emotional weariness (Gao, 2008; lee & Yin, 2011; Li, Zhang & Zhou, 2011; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2012). Thus, given such a reality of teaching, fostering teachers' feeling of resilience and dedication is in urgent need.

Although most individuals may conjure up an idea of a teacher's functions and responsibilities, many do not consider the other chores that instructors perform in addition to real student education. Noninstructional duties have the potential to influence student instruction in both good and negative ways, by either supporting or detracting from a teacher's capacity to focus on instruction (Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 1990). Planning lessons, for example, is likely to help student education, but watching kids during recess is unlikely to benefit instruction.

In recent years, research on teacher workload have become much more of a trend, with studies having previously been conducted in most other Chinese regions. The uniformity of teacher workload across the country is noteworthy, and many of the findings in this study are backed up by data from other jurisdictions.

The concept of "opportunity cost" - the idea that everything has a cost – is one of the most fundamental principles in economics. This idea also pertains to the passage of time. The opportunity cost of instructors needing to find their own resource materials or construct substitute lessons, for example, is the activities they could have worked on if they weren't required to accomplish these duties. This is not to say that neither of these instances is unimportant in a teacher's job; but, when new regulations requiring teachers to perform something new are imposed, there are two options. The first is that the new acts will be at the expense of something that already exists.

In this situation teachers just replace an old task with the new task or expectation and continue their work as if little had changed. The second, and more likely response, is that the new task or expectation gets "added on" to what for most teachers is an already busy schedule, and their work becomes increasingly intensified (Hargreaves, 1992).

There is a developing body of evidence to show that as a result of such factors as increased levels of accountability, a policy of inclusion, downsizing of the educational infrastructure, a shift to an outcomes-based curriculum, and the integration of new technology, teachers' work has intensified over the past decade (e.g., Hargreaves, 1992; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Belliveau, Lie & Murphy, 2002; Naylor & Malcolmson, 2001; Naylor & Shaffer, 2003; Canadian Teachers' Federation, 2003).

Teacher's use of professional time has been examined by several authors. It is well known that teachers spend long hours at work (Lorti, 1971; Moore-Johnson, 1990; Hargreaves, 1992 & 1994; Saskatchewan Teachers' Association, 1995, 1997, & 1998; Alberta Teachers' Federation, 1997; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002). Although, for most teachers, much of their time is spent directly with their students, the working time outside the classroom is of considerable proportions (e.g., Hargreaves, 1994; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Naylor, 2001; Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002). This latter part of teachers working time, the invisible work (Nordanger and Per Lindqvist, 2002), has contributed significantly to the intensification of the job of teaching. Teacher's use of professional time has been examined by several authors. It is well known that teachers spend long hours at work.

However, due to the implementation of the new curriculum in China's educational system teachers experienced many struggles. While the teacher participants welcomed the new curriculum reform, they also expressed concerns about extended working hours, much heavier workload, struggles in shaping new teaching identity, complexities in unlearning and learning process, job security, and examine-based evaluation system as a huge barrier to change.

The new curriculum's mandated professional development courses/workshops put a lot of pressure on teachers in and out of the classroom. "Teaching has become a 24-hour profession," one instructor said, "and I thought about teaching even in my dreams." She explained that her working style was not due to her love of teaching, but rather to the long hours and constant teaching and administrative obligations she faced daily. Due to the compulsory professional development courses/workshops, many instructors were worried about the long working hours and excessive workload. Teachers, especially those with young children, are under significantly higher professional and emotional constraints resulting in rising job competitiveness at work and limited personal time at home.

Preparation, on the other hand, is the art and ability of a teacher in mixing curricular outcomes and other learning resources (e.g., textbooks, resource materials) with his or her subject area expertise and designing a classroom such that students are actively involved in the learning process. We know from study that not every student learns the same way (e.g., Gardner, 1993). Some people learn better when they read the content, while others learn better when they are actively involved in producing their own knowledge (constructivist approach). We know from experience that using a range of techniques in the classroom helps children perform better. However, preparing a unit of work that meets the needs of students with varying learning styles and who are working at different ability levels takes a great deal of time – time that many teachers do not have. In this report, we suggest that ways must be found to build at least some of this time into the teachers' workday

Students require continuous feedback on their performance if they are to learn to read, write, and think effectively. Student assessment must be done on a regular and consistent manner to achieve this. For many instructors, though, this time is tough to come by. Many of the instructors in this research (46 percent) expressed dissatisfaction with the amount of time they spend reviewing student work on their own time, and 45 percent expressed dissatisfaction with the amount of time they spend preparing for and meeting with parents.

Meetings can put a strain on instructors' schedules. Most instructors, on the whole, consider meetings as a vital part of their profession. The most prevalent complaint about meetings is that there are too many of them, and that they are held towards the end of the day, when instructors are weary and anxious. Teachers spend an average of 2.3 hours per week in meetings directly connected to their professions (for example, staff meetings, Individual Service Support Program (ISSP) meetings, school development meetings, and school council meetings). Staff meetings take an average of one hour each week; however, 35 percent of instructors spend more than one hour in such meetings, while 30 percent spend less than 30 minutes. ISSP meetings take up a significant amount of time outside of the instructional day, with the typical teacher spending 0.6 hours per week attending and

organizing them. ISSP meetings took up more than 1 hour per week for 20% of instructors, whereas 15% of teachers (e.g., teachers teaching French immersion, upper-level courses, Advanced Placement courses, and International Baccalaureate courses) had no responsibility for ISSP meetings. Teachers also devote 30 minutes per week on average to school improvement meetings and 12 minutes per week to school council meetings.

Smaller class sizes, according to research and common sense, can serve to improve the quality of the classroom experience for both the instructor and the students. It should entail more personalized attention for the student and more time for the instructor to devote to the requirements of the student. This increased customized attention should result in a classroom where students are better equipped to acquire and master the academic, teamwork, and personal management skills required in today's knowledge-based economy. Better skills should translate to greater student accomplishment for all children, reducing the number of students who need special education services now and in the future.

Most educational research has confirmed that small classes do yield significant benefits for students, particularly in the early primary grades, but it appears that achievement gains are greater when classes contain fewer than 20 students, and that students whose classes are small in the primary grades retain their gains in elementary, middle and high school (Biddle and Berliner, 2002; American Educational Research Association (AERA), 2003).

While small classes benefit all types of students, much research has shown that the benefits are greatest for disadvantaged students from low SES neighborhoods (Biddle and Berliner, 2002; Howley, 2000). Even the critics of the class reduction movement agree that students can gain an initial benefit from small classes particularly in the first two years of school.

Teachers were also concerned about the amount of work they can reasonably assign and correct when they have large classes, and they noted that when classes are large it usually means delays in getting the work back to the students in a timely fashion. The other major concern was large, overcrowded classrooms precipitate unhealthy work environments as students don't have room to move around the classroom.

When the watering hole starts to dry up, the animals start to look at each other differently, according to an old proverb. There are signs that the collegial model is eroding as teachers fight for the resources, they need to execute their jobs. Some classroom teachers perceive the Special Needs teacher as having an easy time with only one or two students at a time, and some Special Needs and Special Education teachers believe they are isolated from the rest of the staff and are shouldering the brunt of the responsibility of coordinating the special needs program. Everyone is pleading for assistance.

Lastly, teachers also voiced dissatisfaction with the excessive quantity of paperwork related with the documentation process, which, although time-consuming in some cases, was also beneficial in others. However, many of these teachers believe that the policy has an indirect and harmful influence on kids. This might be an illustration of how theory and practice differ. While the Pathways policy is intended to improve kids' learning chances, instructors complain that the obligation to adapt curricula and monitor success has reduced the amount of time a teacher can spend with a student.

In many nations, maintaining teachers' dedication and perseverance throughout their professional careers is a big challenge. Teacher resilience is a relatively new topic of research into what allows teachers to persevere in the face of adversity, and it brings a positive psychology viewpoint to stress, burnout, and attrition studies (Beltman, Mansfield & Price, 2011, Gu & Day, 2007). Previous research has consistently shown that teaching is a physically and emotionally taxing profession (Day & Gu, 2010, 2014a; Kyriacou, 2000; Gu & Li, 2013).

According to statistics from 2003, Chinese primary and middle school teachers earned an average yearly wage of 13,300 Renminbi (rmb) each year, or 1,108 rmb per month (People's Daily Online 2004). This is the equivalent to $1,621 USD per year or $135 USD a month in US currencies. Teachers in China face several challenges, including low pay and a scarcity of trained teachers. Teachers' emotional and financial life are hampered by low pay. Financial strains create mental distress and push some excellent teachers to leave the classroom. Teachers' compensation in China varies depending on the school's quality and location. Teachers at "priority schools," for example, get higher wages and may be eligible for additional compensation based on their pupils' success on the CEE. These increased incomes, on the other hand, appear to be the exception.

The Shanghai government initiated research in 1995 to investigate the psychological well-being of teachers. 3,055 elementary school instructors took part in psychological assessment as part of the study. The findings found that 48 percent of the instructors had psychological issues, with 12 percent presenting evident psychological symptoms; in 2% of the instances, the issues were judged significant (Shanghai Star 2004).

A recent nationwide survey, conducted jointly by SINA.com and the Beijing Morning Post, demonstrated that 59 percent of 4,739 teachers who responded reported symptoms of bad health; they often felt fatigue, headaches, and had trouble getting to sleep (Shanghai Star 2004). Only 2.8 percent of the teachers surveyed said that they never had such problems. The survey also found that 72.5 percent of the teachers reported they were overstressed at work. Considering that many psychological problems can result from long-term suffering, the daily pressures on teachers seem to be intensifying. Why do instructors have so many issues? Chinese teachers, according to the participants in this survey, are worried and under pressure because of a quickly changing society and a shift in people's views and thinking. Teachers in China find it difficult to properly sustain Chinese tradition, which

throws a huge degree of obligation on them, especially when they face changes in culture and thought that have destroyed traditional Chinese values and thinking.

Lack of time owing to severe workloads and non-teaching activities such as paperwork or meetings was the most prevalent professional work environment problem for instructors (e.g. Castro, Kelly & Shih, 2009). High workloads, demoralizing policy proposals, and a lack of professional and leadership support may have a detrimental impact on teachers' dedication throughout their careers (Day & Gu, 2010). Teachers' engagement in school decision-making processes and access to chances for professional development, as well as schools' physical facilities and resources for teaching, were all important factors for their morale and capacity to teach at their best (Day, Gu, & Sammons, 2016). (Olsen & Anderson, 2007; Prosser, 2008). In addition to these school-based contextual issues, teachers may face additional pressure from their families to balance work and family obligations (Fleet & Kitson, Cassady & Hughes, 2007; Smethem, 2007) or to abandon teaching (Olsen & Anderson, 2007). As a result, we postulated in our study that school leadership, teacher workload circumstances, teaching resources, and teacher engagement and development are all important factors in teachers' ability to maintain their resilience and commitment. As a result, the following theory is put forth.

Part of the reason instructors labor longer hours and assist children after school and on weekends is because of the competitiveness. Teachers complained that Gaokao-related pressures and workload had a negative impact on their health, resulting in a weakened immune system and depression in some, particularly among homeroom teachers who work longer hours checking homework, solving problems, coordinating with other subject teachers, and communicating with parents by holding parent-teacher meetings after school (see Beckett, 2012; Guo et al., 2013 for further details).

Shanghai's excellent success in the most recent Program for International Student Assessment (Pisa) research, according to Professor Lianghuo Fan, a former math teacher and teacher trainer in China, is also due to decreased teacher workload and improved classroom discipline. Teachers in England "must spend more time in the classroom on academic and topic subjects in each session," according to a University of Southampton scholar.

Teachers expressed worry that increased levels of aggravation and stress as a result of not having enough time to prepare lessons might negatively affect their interactions with pupils. Due to a shortage of preparation time, lessons may not be as well-planned or prepared as they may be. Furthermore, when a teacher does not have enough time to properly assess students' work in a timely manner and does not have enough time to give tutorial courses, remedial work for students who want extra assistance is sometimes jeopardized.

Teacher satisfaction is heavily influenced by proper preparation time. It was the greatest predictor of teacher job satisfaction in our study. In other words, instructors were considerably more positive about their work and the profession in general when they were happy with the amount of time they had for preparation. According to research, teachers who are satisfied with the amount of time they spend preparing for classes are significantly more satisfied with many aspects of their job than the general population of teachers. For example, teachers who believe they have adequate planning time are more satisfied with their job, teaching assignment, teaching load and workload, and overall work life quality.

Teachers, mostly from bigger schools (>400 students), expressed concern about feeling pressured and burned out, particularly at reporting periods, and they believed that much of the correcting and documentation work was interfering with effective planning and, as a result, excellent teaching. A number of the instructors admitted that they had to call in ill on occasion in order to finish their report cards on time, and that others had done so as well. As evidenced by a statement made by a teacher from an urban high school, the impacts of excessive marking are felt by both teacher and student.

Stress, which refers to non-specific reactions of living creatures to adverse stimuli, is a significant element in a career, similar to anxiety (Selye, 2000). Teacher stress is defined as "an unpleasant, negative feeling experienced by a teacher as a result of some part of their work as a teacher, such as anger, worry, tension, frustration, or sadness" (Kyriacou, 2001). Maintaining discipline, time demands and workload, managing with change, being assessed by others, interacting with colleagues, self-esteem and status, administration and management, role conflict and ambiguity, and bad working circumstances, according to Kyriacou (2001). Interpersonal relationships, working environment, time demands, job ambiguity, and poor preparation were found to be frequent factors of teacher stress in Hiebertt and Farber's (1985) evaluation of 71 studies on teacher stress. The investigation also revealed that several instructors suffered from stress-induced tension headaches and were in excruciating discomfort.

Finally, instructors were under immense pressure to update their knowledge and enhance their teaching quality to satisfy the changing demands of the curriculum and pupils, on top of their already heavy workloads. They were constantly studying new technology and teaching tactics, as well as self-teaching and taking part in professional development programs. They concerned that if they did not learn new things, their expertise would become obsolete, and that if their teaching did not result in positive learning outcomes for students, they would be replaced, which children and their parents may complain to school officials.

Every year, schools are presented to a slew of new programs. Many of these new programs are started at the school level as part of the school development/improvement process, but the Department of Education mandates many of them, particularly those incorporating new curriculum. While some researchers (e.g., Hall and Hord, 2001) believe that mandated programs have a higher

adoption rate than non-mandated programs, others, such as Michael Fullan (2001), believe that "you can't mandate what matters." Fullan argues that while an innovation may be widely adopted, it is also highly likely to be poorly implemented.

There is a vast amount of data that shows that when educators embrace new techniques, they tend to change them to suit their own requirements. This is due to the fact that implementation is a time-consuming and tough task (e.g., Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001). Modifying practices has been referred to be "good intentions gone wrong" by some. Evans (1996), for example, calls this approach "false clarity," in which individuals assume they are adopting an innovation when, in reality, they are simply maintaining the status quo. This is comparable to what Fullan (1999) and Argyris (1991) call the "gap between proclaimed theories" of action and "theories in use," in which they argue that individuals constantly act inconsistently, unconscious of the conflict between their espoused theories and their actual actions.

Shollenberger-Swain & Swain (1999) support this claim noting that due to the diverse nature of classrooms, schools are one of the least productive environments for top-down management. Large scale change depends on the development of local capacity to manage multiple innovations at one time (Fullan, 1999) and it is difficult to develop this capacity in a critical mass of teachers because of the complexity of the context in which the implementation is occurring (schools and classrooms).

New and creative policy aims to institutionalize new patterns of practice in schools and classrooms, allowing instructors to be more successful in their teaching and students to learn more effectively and efficiently. It's difficult to perform a good job of implementation if instructors don't have enough time to communicate and reflect on their work. One of the reasons we see so many poorly implemented innovations in education is a lack of time for reflection and cooperation, which is a challenge that must be addressed.

The teaching profession has to be restructured so that instructors may work a fair number of hours per week and yet perform a great job. Teachers should have more time to encourage excellence and personal growth by modifying teacher workloads and the way schools are organized and administered. There have been several proposals for remedies to the workload issue. Given the variety of work that teachers do, no single solution will be a panacea for all instructors. For some, class size reductions will be more advantageous; for others, greater preparation time will be more beneficial. Increased professional growth and training will help others the most, while the absence of required monitoring will benefit others. The issues associated with teacher workload are real and serious, much too serious to be dealt with exclusively as a collective bargaining issue.

Yuzhen Xu's article, "School-based Teacher Development Through a School University Collaborative Project: A Case Study of a Recent Initiative in China," was published in the Journal of Curriculum Studies in 2009. It described a bottom-up project that encouraged teachers to critically reflect on their teaching methods. It was thought that by seeing how instructors educate, they would be able to spot flaws in their methods and seek professional development, so increasing their efficacy.

Older teachers may require external support to continue their professional development, according to Fang Yin and Hui Yin's article "The External Path of Professional Development for Old Teachers Under the New Curriculum Reform in China," published in the journal Cross-Cultural Communication in 2012. One suggestion was to assist or encourage the older instructors in maintaining their physical and mental health. According to the study, schools should encourage senior instructors to have frequent checkups and participate in light physical activities such as singing and playing games. The second recommendation was that schools offer senior instructors more control over their professional development.

The study, titled "The Effects of Non-Instructional Workload Tasks Upon Instructional Time for Classroom Teachers in Public Schools in an Urban School District," provides the necessary baseline data and current analysis for any school reform initiatives that require teacher time that are implemented on a divisional or school-site basis. Teachers' time is regularly filled with new ideas and improvements. With new initiatives, educators have two options. They must either cut or rearrange present teacher time expenditures or add to the already huge number of hours spent by instructors, as reported in this study. The impact on teacher time, rather than the merits of the reform proposal, may be more important in determining the success of school reform.

Finally, the other interpretation of note in the research is the even distribution of teacher time in the non-classroom, noninstructional duties. Many prior perceptions and anecdotal teacher comments indicate that teachers spend enormous amounts of time grading papers and producing classroom materials. The small standard deviations noted in production, attendance, meetings, ordering, etc., indicate relatively equal and small allocations of time to these activities. Finally, the survey conducted in the research also confirms that the teachers in this study devote most of their time to the delivery and planning of student instruction.

There are various studies regarding issues and trends in education, there is a growing body of research discussing the teacher workload and work life. This various research is adding more detail to understand the teacher workload and work life.

This study surveyed teachers from grades 1 to 3 in selected departments in Zaozhuang Vocational College in Shandong Province, China. The teachers will be asked to identify the non-instructional tasks that comprise their workload during and beyond the workday. Additionally, the difference in the time, during the teaching day and beyond, that is devoted to noninstructional tasks, and the time devoted to the instruction of students will be analyzed for significant differences.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The beginning of the 21st century was characterized by an ongoing educational search and inquiry for a total understanding of the intensification of teachers' workloads and their connection to the teaching quality and performance of teachers. Within the educational range, workload intensification is not a new concept. It is generally described wherein teachers have too much to do and not enough space to practice teaching as considered by teachers to be a valuable activity (Wiebe & MacDonald, 2014 as cited in Beck, 2017; emphasis original). In a more detailed description, for Penrice (2011), intensification of teacher's work exists in three areas: a.) increase in the number of tasks an employee must perform; b.) an increase in accountability demands within the classroom and c.) increase in demands on teacher's responsibilities outside of the classroom. Many scholars and educators believe that this kind of practice posits some direct and precise implications towards the core objective of education – "to provide and promote effective and efficient instruction to students which lie at the hand of educators." A classical theoretical framework example was Apple's (1986) workload intensification thesis. He argued that teachers are becoming preoccupied with different works and duties from policymakers and societal expectations. Regulation and control are part of resolving the problem of incompetence and inefficiency among teachers. Accordingly, such reforms are enacted to set out precisely what teachers should do and for how long (Maguire, 2002). While Ballet & Kelchtermans (2009) recapitulated Apple's thesis as: 'Intensification' of the teaching profession…coincides with growing external pressure, since teachers must perform an increasing number of (imposed) tasks for which they have insufficient time and resources. This restricts the teachers' opportunities for creativity in the classroom and for the development of collegial relationships and affects their private lives. The shift is emotionally taxing for teachers and can lead to a chronic sense of work overload, both during school hours and beyond. In addition, it may result in ''de-skilling'': the loss of certain professional skills due to their decreased importance on the one hand, and the increase of routine, often administrative, work-related tasks on the other hand. Nevertheless, Ballet & Kelchtermans (2006) sought to make some modifications and alternatives of the theory for thoughtful consideration of the case. Based on their revised version, intensification was seen as a multisource concept, namely, other factors aside from a bureaucratic ladder and assumptions could cause intensification on teachers. Teachers themselves could be a source of intensification: they imposed high pedagogical and personal standards and strive for perfection in teaching. Either the impact of intensification is automatic or otherwise, they suggest that it must be mediated by the teacher. Dilemmas from diverse views on the best interest of the learners and effective form of teaching compelled teachers to "mediate between conflicting private and public interests, including those about personal, professional, organizational, and societal values" (Tirri & Husu, 2002). Ballet & Kelchtermans (2009) coined the term "experience of intensification" to show that the call for change for the identified excessive or intensified workload is connected or it reflects from the professional self or identity of a teacher if her relationship and duty to her students (doing justice to the children's educational needs) is at stake, doing otherwise would imply that teacher's professionalism might be put on trial and the feeling that they are letting their students down. Several researchers underline the importance of moral and personal reflection not only for teachers but also for other stakeholders of education. Kelchtermans & Hamilton (2004), for instance, point out: A deeper understanding of the moral dilemmas, of the tension between individual normative beliefs about good teaching and the possibly different views from others (parents, colleagues), as well as the development of a ''moral language'' constitutes a crucial agenda for self-study that aims at contributing to teachers' development and a pedagogy of teaching.

Teachers' workload was a factor in the study conducted by Smith (2000) in an urban school district of Chicago. Teachers, on average, spent 23% of their time on non-instructional activities. The continuity of teaching was lost when instruction focused on preparation for standardized tests, which were administered midyear. Analysis and reform of administrative practices to increase schools' ability to congest more learning time from the day was recommended (Smith, 2000).

Likewise, the impact of intensification is different among teachers contrary to the conventional belief that it is entirely negative. Teachers are not passive recipients of these changes; they could, however, cope with it proactively through interpretation and negotiation (Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2006).

The issue of quantity was addressed in Carroll's (1963) model of school learning, which designated the length of instructional time as one of the more malleable factors in determining student learning. Goldberg (1994) discussed the need for school systems to provide time for teachers in bold new ways to maximize student learning.

Researchers and educators reflect the many facets of teachers' work in their frameworks that address both non-instructional and instructional tasks. The noninstructional tasks could affect, in positive and negative ways, the instruction of students by supporting instruction or by taking away from a teacher's ability to focus on instruction (Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 1990). For example, tasks such as planning for lessons probably support the instruction of students, whereas supervising students during recess may not positively affect instruction (Hargreaves; Johnson). Johnson concluded that the workplace factors, which were most important to teachers, were ones that enabled or limited them in the classroom.

Workplace conditions encompass several aspects of a teacher's job. Workload, in terms of time and tasks, is a critical aspect of workplace conditions. Teachers typically work significantly more hours each week than required. Firestone and Pennell (1991) explained that heavy workloads and noninstructional requirements infringed upon the time teachers focused on instruction and reparation and, therefore, affected the quality of instruction. Wolf (2002) asserted that the time teachers' work is an important aspect of the workday. Yet, few studies give a detailed account of the actual hours worked by teachers.

In China, key point school refers to the top school in the locality which has passed a rigorous assessment on its performance and receives the greatest resources from local government. During their 12 years of schooling, "activities for integrated practice" will be made compulsory for all students. The scope of this curricular component embodies a broad range of activities related to "information technology education, research oriented learning, community service and social practice, and labor and technical education" (MoE, 2001). To accomplish this feat, school principals and teachers have to work to satisfy a myriad of school quality requirements. For instance, schools in the province of Guangdong which aspire to become exemplary schools would be inspected in accordance with 77 indicators (Lo et al.) Wolf (2002) asserted that the time teachers work is an important aspect of the workday. Yet, few studies give a detailed account of the actual hours worked by teachers.

With these in mind, understanding workload intensification veered immediately into a teacher-dependent notion. Teachers' workload intensification is not the same everywhere, as a result, one should look to a wider spectrum to understand more fully this educational phenomenon (Fitzgerald et.al., 2018). Others might have administrative loads with a negative implication; duties and pressures from society and school in which teacher could reflect on and, thus, decline some of it resulting to a more positive teaching activity; and/or a multisource scenario wherein its impact is subject on how someone responds to it. In other words, different research could offer different results and findings. Kyung-Nyun (2019) stressed that public school teachers who are susceptible to bureaucratic control may be more concerned about administrative work which could affect teaching activities than those in private schools. His study proves the assertion that with administrative works obstructs the time for instructional activity and reducing these imposed duties is a prerequisite for a teacher to be fully committed in teaching. Interestingly, "only teachers in public schools are likely to consider their administrative workload to be equivalent to class instruction preparation" (p. 16). The interference of management from the bureaucratic ladder makes someone deskilled (or loses control over their job) and the skills that they have practiced throughout his career atrophy (Apple & Jungck, 1990). Teachers may feel pressured to attend to these demands that may construe as inappropriate (Maguire, 2010). However, workload intensification in education which broadened and deepened the duties of teachers (OECD, 2006) is, by a contemporary understanding, a product of the educational reforms of developed and developing countries (Stevenson, 2007). Given the effective implementation of these policies, or assessment policies, in particular, it may result to a excess of workload and could unknowingly affect teachers' performance since they would situate most of their time in evaluating and implementing these policies. What is more, Lingam et.al. (2017) argued that if teachers are flooded with work while their human capital development is disregarded, it is more likely to experience a negative implication on the quality of schoolwork.

Chinese teachers, in nature, are responsible and diligent. Most, if not all, are doing works outside their job description. Teachers have had to stretch their professional capacity to accomplish the needed files for the school and the students. The researcher would like to know how these situations affect the teachers and will the school administration address what will be the result of the current study.

Analyzing the data across schools, as well as within schools, may provide additional insight into the working conditions of teachers and provide comparative data with reference to the time required for completing noninstructional tasks with the time required for completing tasks that support teaching. The timing of this study is extremely significant as the field of education faces critical issues on teacher accountability. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 attempts to improve the education for all children throughout the country by raising standards, holding schools and teachers accountable for what they do, and providing some options to students persistently failing in school (Doherty, 2003).

Prior studies addressed the same focus of the current research using different designs and methods such as case study and survey or interview, respectively. Yet, they differ in conclusions on the three distinct and interconnected features of workload intensification based on the theoretical framework used: a.) the source of workload intensification whether it comes from interactive factors or top-down model; b.) the extent of implications of intensification on teacher's quality of teaching, and c.) the antiphon of teachers towards the excessive duties and works. While some of this related research utilized the same approach- case study, most of them were conducted outside the country that is why the researcher sought after the issue within the China educational system condition through a systematic analysis. The researcher may have learned from the literature review that heavy workloads from Instructional and non-instructional tasks can affect the psychological welfare of the teachers, decreases classroom interaction with students, trouble in sleeping, over fatigue, affects the quality of instruction. For this reason, the teaching-learning process also affected. Therefore, based on the researchers' initial review of the literature, it was found out that no study has been conducted with this specific topic.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study determined the relationship between the professional identity with the scholastic performance of the prospective early childhood education teachers. The results of the study were used as basis in developing strategies to provide management inputs to improve the professional recognition of early childhood education students. Specifically, the study answered the following questions:

1. What are the instructional tasks that comprised the workload of classroom teachers in Grade 1, Grade 2, and Grade 3?

2. What are the non-instructional tasks that comprised the workload of classroom teachers in Grade 1, Grade 2, and Grade 3?

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research utilized the descriptive research design on the assessment of the teacher respondents on the effect of noninstructional workload tasks upon instructional time for classroom teachers in Zaozhuang Vocational College. By imposing the concept of workload tasks upon instructional time for classroom teachers and its relevance to the underlying phenomenon, it clutches the accurate data and information needed to nourish the fundamental of this study.

By the usage of evidential information, enlightenment is procured. In discerning the perceptions' present in the study, the idea regulating workload tasks upon instructional time for classroom is seen as basis for improved workplan. This is also an attempt to fill in the gaps of studies through organization and presentation, aiming to reassess the study for the sufficiency of results. Enhancing it also means undermining the aspects given between and among the extracted literatures. By ascertaining the issues and gaps that needs to be addressed in the study, assessing details and information is a must. This is to inclusively construct the study considering varied viewpoints. The participants in this study identified the instructional and noninstructional tasks that comprised the workload for classroom teachers in Grades 1-3 in Zaozhuang Vocational College in Shandong Province,China.

Descriptive research approach is the basic pattern to be employed. In this study, the researcher used the descriptive research design under the quantitative research. Descriptive design is suitable wherever the subjects vary among themselves, and one is interested to know the extent to which different conditions and situations are obtained among these subjects. The word survey signifies the gathering of data regarding the present conditions. A survey is useful in: (1) providing the value of facts; and (2) focusing attention on the most important things to be reported. Specifically, the type of descriptive aside from the generic descriptive design is status which is problem solving and seeks to answer questions to real facts relating to existing conditions. This is a technique of quantitative description which determines the prevailing conditions in a group of cases chosen for the study

This study was conducted in Zaozhuang Vocational College. Zaozhuang Vocational College is a regular institution of higher learning for full time students, empowered by the Ministry of Education. It is situated in the northern area of Zaozhuang, Shandong Province. This university is a good place for studying with its pleasant scenery. The college occupies an area of 1,083 mou with a floorage of 300 thousand square meters. With an enlistment of 11,000, the college has jurisdiction more than 14 teaching departments: Chinese literature, Political and History, Foreign Languages, Physics and Electronic Engineering, Mathematics & Information Science, Chemical, Life Science, Tourism and Resources Environment, Sports, Music, Arts, Financial, Educational Technology and Communication, Computer Science and others, totally with 26 majors for undergraduate & 33 majors for vocational, involving literature, science, law, engineering, management science, education, history, etc seven academic discipline.

The university has a teaching staff of 858 teachers, among whom there are 174 professors and associate professors, 533 vocational teachers, more than 220 teachers owning the master's degree. There are 3 teachers rewarding as the outstanding teachers nationwide, 9 teachers obtained the Tsang Hin-chi Education Foundation Teacher Awards, 14 teachers rated as provincial and municipal top-notch talent. Zaozhuang Vocational College has the comprehensive teaching & research facilities, with a library building area 16,100 square meters, 87.6 million volumes books, and another electronic books and huge database, valued 115 million yuan. The College places great emphasis on laboratory building, with computer center, analysis & testing center, network and Modern Education Technology Center. The teaching and research equipment GDP reached to 53.15 million yuan.

The participants of the study included 60 full-time classroom instruction teachers, 20 respondents for each grade level. Teachers not assigned in students for a full day, such as resource teachers, part-time teachers, reading specialists, and librarians are not included in this study. In addition, special education centers and alternative school teachers were not included in this sample. The researcher used the purposive sampling technique following the criteria: (1) only full-time classroom teacher; (2) 8-hour school assignment; (3) teach on one grade level.

The researcher adapted the instrument from Teachers Activity Survey from Sheppard (2008). The researcher made some slight modification in the instrument which required the researcher to subject the instrument to the validation by the experts in Education and Campus Management and finally underwent the test of reliability using Cronbach Alpha.

A teacher activity survey is selected because it provides the lowest cost of administration and the most expeditious manner for data collection. The review of the research in Chapter 2 illustrates the equal rates of validity amongst the different methods of survey and even suggests that activity surveys provide the most validity. To highlight limitations placed on instructional time for teachers, this study also ought to compare the time devoted to noninstructional tasks and the time devoted to the instruction of students. The survey questionnaire for this study requested data on the time teachers spend on specified duties and tasks. In Section I contains demographic information in the following categories: (a) age, (b) sex, (c) length of service, (d) Grade level. In Section II of the instrument, teachers were asked to best describe the degree to which they believed the task is noninstructional or instructional (that is, if it supported their teaching of students): (a) tasks that would definitely not support their teaching of students, (b) tasks that would probably not support their teaching of students, (c) tasks that would likely support their teaching of students, and (d) tasks that would definitely support their teaching of students. Section III of the instrument asked teachers to best

describe the length of time devoted to each task. Teachers also will report the average time per week, in half-hour increments, they would spend in the following categories: (a) Instructional Time, (b) Noninstructional Classroom Activities, (c) Extra/Cocurricular Activities, (d) Non classroom Supervision/Duties, (e) Group or Team Planning, (f) Production, (g) Grading Student Work, (h) Attending Career and Staff Development, (i) Meetings, (j) Parent Communication, (k) Community/Public Relations, (1) Mail, (m) Miscellaneous, and (n) Other - Student Counseling/Support. Section IV asked the teachers to respond (giving an approximate time) to a list of those activities that occurred sporadically throughout the school year. These activities included (a) interim grade reports, (b) standardized testing, (c) classroom inventory, and (d) developing curriculum.

The method of gathering data was aided by the survey questionnaire which is adapted from the source. After the questionnaire has been validated by the experts, the instrument was subjected to try-out sampling. The researcher sought approval by writing to the administrator concerned from Zaozhuang Vocational College for the data collection. The collected data was reviewed for recording, scanned and prepared for statistical analysis. Upon return of the survey, frequency and percentage were used for the profile of teacher respondents, mean was used for the degree of perception.

V. RESULT OF THE STUDY

Table 1. Assessment on the Ratings of the Workload of Classroom Teachers in terms of Instructional Tasks

Indicators	Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3		
	Mean	**SD**	**Interpret**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Interpret**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Interpret**
Instructional contact with students including lecture, group work, teams, individual, and remediation before, during or after school.	2.55	0.83	Will Likely Support	2.00	0.97	Will Probably Not Support	1.95	0.94	Will Probably Not Support
Preparation for instruction such as daily lesson plans; creating tests, handouts, syllabi; facility planning/scheduling, etc.	2.25	0.97	Will Probably Not Support	2.05	1.05	Will Probably Not Support	2.00	0.73	Will Probably Not Support
Duplicating instructional and other materials, preparing transparencies, etc	2.00	0.73	Will Probably Not Support	2.55	0.51	Will Likely Support	2.00	0.86	Will Probably Not Support
Grading student work – Includes homework, quizzes, tests, projects, etc.	2.35	0.88	Will Probably Not Support	1.95	0.89	Will Probably Not Support	2.20	0.95	Will Probably Not Support
Recording, reporting, auditing attendance, including communication with parents regarding absences.	2.15	0.93	Will Probably Not Support	2.10	0.79	Will Probably Not Support	2.40	0.75	Will Probably Not Support
Composite	**2.26**	**0.87**	**Will Probably Not Suppo**	**2.13**	**0.84**	**Will Probably Not Suppo**	**2.11**	**0.85**	**Will Probably Not Suppo**

			rt			rt			rt

Scale: 4.00-3.51=Will definitely support; 3.50-2.51= Will likely support; 2.50-1.51= Will probably not support; 1.50-1.00= Will definitely not support

In terms of instructional tasks, the assessment on the ratings of workload of classroom teachers obtained a composite mean score of 2.26 and .87 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 1 Level; a composite mean score of 2.13 and .84 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 2 Level and; a composite mean score of 2.11 and .85 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 3 Level. These results implied of the instructional tasks of teachers that they will probably not support across all grade levels.

Of all the indicators, the highest mean score in the assessment of Grade 1 teachers was evident by the instructional contact with the students including lecture, group work, teams, individual and remediation before, during and after school to denote "will likely support". On the part of Grade 2 teachers, the highest mean score was apparent by duplicating instructional and other materials, preparing transparencies, etc. to denote "will probably not support", while for Grade 3 teachers, the highest mean score was manifested by the recording, reporting, auditing of attendance including communication with parents regarding absences to denote "will probably not support".

On the other hand, the teachers at Grade 1 level revealed that the lowest mean score was evident by duplicating instructional and other materials, preparing transparencies, etc. to denote "will probably not support". On the part of Grade 2 teachers, the lowest mean score was evident by grading student work – includes homework, quizzes, tests, projects, etc. to denote "will probably not support", while on the part of Grade 3 teachers, the lowest mean score was evident by the instructional contact with the students including lecture, group work, teams, individual and remediation before, during and after school to denote "will probably not support".

According to Wolf (2002), the amount of time instructors spend working is a crucial component of the workday. However, very few studies provide a thorough overview of the actual hours that instructors work. With such situations happening, educators may have the tendency and likeliness to reject further instructional tasks.

Given that educators already have a rather hefty number of tasks to be done, they cannot afford such additional tasks as it can potentially affect life outside work, and even their delivery of work, considering the stress level that it also gives. Furthermore, the workhours of these educators may also be an issue of such behaviors since compensation and satisfaction may be compromised or are not properly given.

Hargreaves (1994) and Johnson (1990) mentioned that the frameworks developed by researchers and educators to address both non-instructional and instructional duties take into account the different dimensions of teachers' work. The non-instructional tasks may influence students' learning in both positive and bad ways by assisting with instruction or interfering with a teacher's capacity to concentrate on instruction.

Finally, as claimed by Kyung-Nyun (2019), educators at public schools may be more worried about administrative tasks that could interfere with instructional activities than their counterparts in private schools because they are more sensitive to bureaucratic oversight. His research supports the claim that administrative work interferes with instructional time and that a teacher must reduce these obligations in order to devote their whole attention to education.

Table 2. Assessment on the Time Given to the Workload of Classroom Teachers in terms of Instructional Tasks

Indicators	Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3		
	Mean	SD	Interpret	Mean	SD	Interpret	Mean	SD	Interpret
Instructional time includes any instructional contact with students including lecture, group work, teams, individual, and remediation before, during or after school.	3.90	1.25	91-120 Mins/Week	4.00	1.12	91-120 Mins/Week	4.10	1.17	91-120 Mins/Week
Instructional planning includes any activities in preparation for	3.90	1.07	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	0.99	91-120 Mins/Week	4.35	0.99	91-120 Mins/Week

instruction such as daily lesson plans; creating tests, handouts, syllabi; facility planing/scheduling, etc. (Do not include time spent actually duplicating the created document.)									
Production like duplicating instructional and other materials, preparing transparencies, etc.	4.15	1.09	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	1.04	91-120 Mins/Week	3.95	1.00	91-120 Mins/Week
Grading Student Work: Includes homework, quizzes, tests, projects, etc.	3.95	1.10	91-120 Mins/Week	4.05	0.94	91-120 Mins/Week	4.20	0.77	91-120 Mins/Week
Attendance: Include recording, reporting, auditing attendance, and communication with parents regarding absences	4.00	0.92	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	0.88	91-120 Mins/Week	4.05	0.94	91-120 Mins/Week
Composite	**3.98**	**1.09**	**91-120 Mins/Week**	**4.10**	**0.99**	**91-120 Mins/Week**	**4.13**	**0.97**	**91-120 Mins/Week**

In terms of instructional tasks, the assessment on the time given to the workload of classroom teachers obtained a composite mean score of 3.98 and 1.09 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 1 Level; a composite mean score of 4.10 and .99 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 2 Level and; a composite mean score of 4.13 and .97 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 3 Level. These results could be described that the amount of time given to the instructional tasks of teachers falls under 91-120 minutes per week across all grade levels.

Specifically, the highest mean score among the assessments of Grades 1, 2 and 3 teachers were similarly evident by the instructional planning that includes any activities in preparation for instruction such as daily lesson plans; creating tests, handouts, syllabi, facility planning/scheduling, etc. In addition, the other indicators which obtained the same highest value of mean in the assessment of Grade 1 teachers was evident by the instructional time that includes any instructional contact with students including lecture, group work, teams, individual and remediation before, during or after school, while, the attendance that includes recording, reporting, auditing of attendance, and communication with parents regarding absences also obtained the highest mean score in the assessment of Grade 2 teachers.

The study carried out by Smith (2000) in a Chicago urban school system took into account the workload of the teachers. On average, teaching activities took up 23% of a teacher's time. When learning was centered on getting ready for standardized tests, which were given in the middle of the school year, the continuity of teaching was lost. It was advised that administrative processes be examined and changed to enable schools to squeeze more instructional time out of the day.

In a similar vein, contrary to popular opinion, not all teachers may be negatively affected by intensification. They can actively adapt to these changes through interpretation and negotiation. They must not be identified as mere passive consumers of these changes (Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2006).

While Carroll's (1963) model of school learning tried to address the problem of quantity and included the amount of instruction time as one of the most flexible aspects in determining student learning. In order to optimize student learning, Goldberg (1994) emphasized the necessity for school systems to grant teachers time in new ways that may enhance creativity and potential.

Looking into this instance, it is observable that the predominant task for teachers remain repetitive and a cycle type of task. Hence, the emphasis and necessities mentioned by Carroll (1963) and Goldberg (1994) of presenting new innovative methods in spending work time.

Table 3. Assessment on the Ratings of the Workload of Classroom Teachers in terms of Non-Instructional Tasks

Indicators	Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3		
	Mean	SD	Interpret	Mean	SD	Interpret	Mean	SD	Interpret
Collecting fees, announcements, assemblies, pep rallies, fire drills, fundraising, coordination, etc..	2.15	0.93	Will Probably Not Support	2.15	0.99	Will Probably Not Support	2.00	0.92	Will Probably Not Support
Tasks with athletics, marching band, clubs, SCA, yearbook, plays, etc	2.25	0.85	Will Probably Not Support	2.35	0.99	Will Probably Not Support	2.00	0.86	Will Probably Not Support
Supervision of students, hall, bus, cafeteria, during normal school hours.	2.55	1.05	Will Likely Support	2.10	1.02	Will Probably Not Support	1.80	0.83	Will Probably Not Support
School planning activities, team planning, writing grants for the school, etc.	2.30	0.86	Will Probably Not Support	2.65	0.67	Will Likely Support	2.40	0.94	Will Probably Not Support
Counseling or mentoring students (and their families); writing recommendations; arranging for/transporting to doctor appointments; buying	2.20	0.89	Will Probably Not Support	2.00	0.97	Will Probably Not Support	2.20	0.89	Will Probably Not Support
Tasks related to your personal professional development including conferences, courses, seminars, in-service, keeping current through professional reading, etc	2.50	0.89	Will Probably Not Support	2.35	0.99	Will Probably Not Support	2.15	0.93	Will Probably Not Support
Meetings - Includes department, faculty, county meetings and	2.10	0.85	Will Probably Not Support	2.45	0.76	Will Probably Not Support	1.75	0.64	Will Probably Not Support

other meetings outside the building, etc.									
Composite	**2.29**	**0.90**	Will Probably Not Support	**2.29**	**0.91**	Will Probably Not Support	**2.04**	**0.86**	**Will Probably Not Support**

In terms of non-instructional tasks, the assessment on the ratings of the workload of classroom teachers obtained a composite mean score of 2.29 and .90 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 1 Level; a composite mean score of 2.29 and .91 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 2 Level and; a composite mean score of 2.04 and .86 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 3 Level. These results could be described that the ratings provided by the teachers across all grade levels could be described as they "will probably not support".

On the part of Grade 1 teachers, the highest mean score that they will likely support among the indicators of non-instructional tasks was evident by the supervision of students, hall, bus, cafeteria during normal school hours, while, the school planning activities, team planning, writing grants for the school, etc. yielded the highest mean score among the responses of Grades 2 and 3 teachers.

Conversely, the lowest mean score in the responses of Grade 1 and 3 teachers was similarly apparent by the meetings which include department, faculty, county meetings and other meetings outside the building, etc., which the teachers will probably not support. For Grade 2 teachers, the lowest mean score was evident by the counseling or mentoring of students and their families, writing recommendations, arranging for/transporting to doctor appointments and buying; which they will probably not support.

In a study by Firestone and Pennell (1991), heavy workloads and non-instructional demands interfered with instructors' ability to devote sufficient time to instruction and remediation, which lowered the caliber of instruction. In addition, the non-instructional tasks could affect, in positive and negative ways, the instruction of students by supporting instruction or by taking away from a teacher's ability to focus on instruction (Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 1990). From these ideas, it can be inferred that in the current situation, although there may be positive effects of non-instructional tasks, the negative impacts appear to be glaring based on the responses from the educators. Moreover, tasks that completely do not have relation with educators' jobs or tasks do apparently do not merit their interest nor support.

Table 4. Assessment on the Time Given to the Workload of Classroom Teachers in terms of Non-Instructional Tasks

Indicators	**Grade 1**			**Grade 2**			**Grade 3**		
	Mean	**SD**	**Interpret**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Interpret**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Interpret**
Non-Instructional Classroom Activities: Include collecting fees, announcements, assemblies, pep rallies, fire drills, fundraising coordination, etc.	4.25	1.07	91-120 Mins/Week	4.10	1.07	91-120 Mins/Week	4.05	0.89	91-120 Mins/Week
Extra-/Curricular Activities: Include time spent outside of classroom time with athletics, marching band, clubs, plays, etc	4.30	1.08	91-120 Mins/Week	4.20	1.20	91-120 Mins/Week	4.00	1.08	91-120 Mins/Week
Non-Classroom Supervision/Duties: Include non-classroom student supervision, hall bus, cafeteria,	4.05	1.10	91-120 Mins/Week	4.25	0.91	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	0.81	91-120 Mins/Week

during normal school hours									
Group or Team Planning: Include school planning activities, team planning, writing grants for the school, etc.	3.90	1.21	91-120 Mins/Week	4.10	0.79	91-120 Mins/Week	3.95	1.00	91-120 Mins/Week
Student Counseling/Support : Include any non-classroom time spent counseling or mentoring students (and their families); writing recommendations; addressing problems with attendance, suspensions, expulsions, appeals, crises, pranks; and paperwork/reports associated with disciplinary procedures.	3.90	0.91	91-120 Mins/Week	3.80	1.24	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	1.23	91-120 Mins/Week
Career and Staff Development: Include all tasks related to your personal professional development including conferences, courses, seminars, in-service, keeping current through professional reading, etc. (Courses you take during the academic year and/or the summer should be included by determining the approximate number of hours you spend in courses and averaging that for a period of one year	4.10	1.07	91-120 Mins/Week	4.00	1.08	91-120 Mins/Week	4.10	0.91	91-120 Mins/Week

to determine weekly hours)									
Meetings: Includes department, faculty, county meetings and other meetings outside the building, etc, (For instructional planning purposes, record time under "Group Planning" category.)	4.20	0.89	91-120 Mins/Week	4.15	0.93	91-120 Mins/Week	4.00	0.86	91-120 Mins/Week
Parent Communication: Any and all miscellaneous communication (via telephone, facsimile, written communication, face-to-face, etc.) with parents not associated with any of the already mentioned activities. For example, if you communicate with parents regarding a student's attendance, that time should be included under "Attendance."	4.20	1.01	91-120 Mins/Week	4.00	1.26	91-120 Mins/Week	4.20	1.20	91-120 Mins/Week
Community/Public Relations: Includes speeches, representing school at community events, business partnerships, community/volunteer involvement, etc.	4.05	1.23	91-120 Mins/Week	4.20	0.95	91-120 Mins/Week	4.10	1.07	91-120 Mins/Week
Mail: Opening and processing mail, reading memos, etc.	4.10	0.97	91-120 Mins/Week	4.30	0.98	91-120 Mins/Week	4.20	0.95	91-120 Mins/Week
Composite	**4.11**	**1.05**	**91-120 Mins/Week**	**4.11**	**1.04**	**91-120 Mins/Week**	**4.09**	**1.00**	**91-120 Mins/Week**

In terms of non-instructional tasks, the assessment on the time given to the workload of classroom teachers obtained a composite mean score of 4.11 and 1.05 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 1 Level; a composite mean score of 4.11 and 1.04 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 2 Level and; a composite mean score of 4.09 and 1.00 corresponding standard deviation at Grade 3 Level. These results could be described that the time given to the workload of classroom teachers across all grade levels could be described as they spent their time from 91 to 120 minutes per week.

Of all the indicators, the highest mean score in the assessment of Grades 2 and 3 teachers was similarly evident by the opening and processing of mail, reading memos, etc. The Grade 2 teachers similarly revealed that highest mean score in their assessment was also evident by the parent communication which includes any and all miscellaneous communications. On the part of Grade 1 teachers, the highest mean score was evident by the non-instructional classroom activities that include collecting fees, announcements, assemblies, pep rallies, fire drills, fund raising coordination, etc.

On the other hand, the lowest mean score in the assessments of Grades 1 and 3 teachers were similarly evident by the group or team planning which include school planning activities, team planning, writing grants for the school, etc. Moreover, the Grade 1 teachers also revealed of the same lowest mean score which was evident by the student counseling support that includes any non-classroom time spent, counseling or mentoring students and their families, writing recommendations, addressing problems with attendance, suspensions, expulsions, appeals, crises, pranks and paperwork/reports associated with disciplinary procedures, which was similar with the assessment of Grade 2 teachers.

Teachers typically work significantly more hours each week than required (Lortie, 1975). The research, titled *"The Effects of Non-Instructional Workload Tasks Upon Instructional Time for Classroom Teachers in Public Schools in an Urban School District,"* offers the baseline information and up-to-date analysis required for any divisional or school-site-based school reform initiatives that call for teacher time. New concepts and advancements frequently fill the time of teachers. Teachers now have two choices in light of new initiatives. They must either reduce or reorganize the amount of time already spent by teachers or increase the already astronomical number of hours documented in the said study. The effectiveness of school reform may depend more on the impact on teacher time than on the merits of the reform idea.

The research's other significant finding is that teachers spend an equal amount of time on instructional and non-instructional tasks outside of the classroom. Teachers are believed to spend a great deal of time grading papers and creating lesson plans, according to many previous perceptions and anecdotal instructor comments, and even the previous data presented in this study. The minor standard deviations in productivity, attendance, meetings, ordering, etc., suggest that these activities receive roughly equal and modest time commitments. The survey used in the aforementioned research also revealed that the majority of the teachers' time in this study is spent implementing and organizing student instruction.

Comparing the said study to the data from this study, it appears that practices remain the same and there is still lack of time for educators for creative or innovative endeavors. Moreover, the instructional function of the teachers still looks to remain predominant, hence, most time are given to dealing with activities with students that need educators' presence or guidance.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Teachers are unwilling to back the implementation of specific instructional tasks in conducting their job functions. it is evident that the respondents have a certain level of disapproval with the tasks the survey mentioned, reflecting the same towards their actual work. Findings suggest that, across all grade levels, instructors devote between 91 and 120 minutes each week to their instructional duties. The evaluations given by the instructors at all grade levels for these outcomes may be characterized as "would probably not support." Unlike the instructional tasks, teachers exhibited a more favorable mood in the case of non-instructional work, showing their preference for a less academic endeavor. The time dedicated to the workload of classroom instructors across all grade levels may be regarded as being spent between 91 and 120 minutes per week based on these statistics. The results indicated in the study revealed that there are substantial issues agreed upon by educators regarding the trend of instructional and non-instructional tasks. With such significant data, the researcher suggests the following recommendations:

1. Time must be given for the constant development – personal, technical, pedagogical of teachers.
2. Academic institutions should recognize the role of balance in instructional and non-instructional tasks in delivering quality education.
3. Teachers should continue practicing their profession; however, they must also be reminded about balancing academic and non-academic tasks.
4. To obtain a bigger sample size and more representative findings, the sampling procedure should be more thorough.
5. Explore the root cause of factors that contribute to issues involving instructional and non-instructional tasks.

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