A STUDY OF THE PROFESSIONAL

IN A GROUP

SOCIALISATION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

IN A COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

by

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ABSTRACT

This longitudinal study examines the professional socialisation of a group of students during their three years in a College of Education. A specially constructed Role Definition Instrument was used, together with other questionnaires, to probe the nature of students' teacher role conceptions at certain points during the course. The focus of the study upon the students' interpretation of their experience entailed the extensive interviewing of a sample of students in each of the nine terms.

The investigation attempts to remedy deficiencies of previous British studies by developing a theoretical framework to analyse the process of professional socialisation and to take account of the institutional setting in which this process occurs. An extensive study of the college as a social system was therefore undertaken examining its formal and informal structures and processes. By analysis of selection procedures, the college course, and the rewarding and sanctioning system, a pervading and consistent set of values was identified. These institutional characteristics are shown to be of much importance in affecting students' responses to their college experience.

The students develop group perspectives during the course which are related to the institutional setting and which involve a significant shift in reference groups. Periods of school practice and the early part of the course are shown to be of great importance in shaping these perspectives. There is some redefinition of professional attitudes; a process only partially reflected in more liberal responses to questionnaire items. Such changes are interpreted as evidence of

increasing professionalism.

A pilot study of school practice showed it affecting attitude scores, but recorded no significant relationships between observed classroom behaviour and such scores. School placing appears to influence both attitude scores and tutors' assessments of performance. Students and tutors place different emphases upon students' professional needs; the students generally favour role socialisation, but tutors view the course as a process of status socialisation.

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C O N T E N T S

TABLES

Diagrams in Text

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Over the period in which this study was undertaken (1967-72),
the normal pattern for students training to be teachers was to spend
three years in a College of Education, or, if they were graduates,
one year in a University Department of Education following their
degree. The role for which they are preparing is that of teacher;
the "role-socialisation" (Cohen, 1968) which takes place in the
teacher-training institutions is designed, explicitly and implicitly,
to fit them for that role. Yet, in spite of the length of time of the
training period and the importance of the task, little is known, in
any scientific way, of the changes which take place during the course
in a student's attitudes or behaviour, and still less is known about
the extent to which the institution itself is responsible for those
changes.

This lack of information is not peculiar to teacher-training but
is characteristic of all sectors of higher education. Chickering
has pointed to two major assumptions which he claims are held by
teachers in colleges and universities:

> "First, that significant personality development occurs
> during the college years ... and second, that colleges
> influence that development - that differences in general
> climate, in rules and regulations, in student-faculty
> relationship, in curriculum, teaching and evaluation make
> a significant impact". (Chickering, 1969, p315)

After remarking that accumulated evidence generally suggests that
change occurs in the direction of decreased authoritarianism and
commitment to orthodox religious beliefs, and increasingly liberal
socio-political attitudes, Chickering concludes:

> "Whether such development proceeds without the benefit of
> college is still uncertain and the evidence is mixed. The
> case for campus-wide impacts which are systematically
> related to differential educational practices or institutional
> condition is even more unclear". (p315)

Such uncertainty is not due solely to lack of research effort. In the United States there exists a large, and rapidly growing literature on the effect of higher education on students' attitudes. These studies can be dated from Newcomb (1943), a long-term investigation of women at an American liberal-arts college. Jacob (1957) lists over one hundred references to studies of change or persistence of students' attitudes during their college careers; Sanford (1962) contains extensive reviews of the effects of college education; and one major study finds it possible to concern itself with the influence of college peer groups alone (Newcomb and Wilson, 1966). However, the most recent major American collation of studies on student change and college impact can remark that in spite of the many investigations which do enable certain generalisations to be made, nonetheless "no generalisation about freshman-senior change could be expected to apply equally to all colleges nor, a fortiori, to all individual students." Further, in relation to college impact, it notes that "exact and comprehensive detail is sparse" (Feldman, 1972, pp65 and 146).

In Great Britain also there is an increasing concern to examine the impact of higher education upon students. The abstracts of the Society for Research into Higher Education (1966 onwards) show evidence of research into how students' attitudes are affected by their university or college experience. The number, scope and scale of these researches is however only a small fraction of the American studies. Similar conclusions to American researches characterise British studies but they are expressed with even greater tentativeness and there is frank acknowledgement that the field is only being very slowly explored:

"All these types of enquiry (into change and college impacts) are still fairly new and no-one would claim that many of these questions can as yet be definitively

answered ... To attempt an answer (to the question
of how higher education affects student attitudes),
one must extrapolate from American findings or fall
back very largely on unsupported speculation, since
the requisite research has hardly begun to be carried
out in this country". (Butcher and Rudd, 1972, pp156-7)

The extent to which teacher training institutions affect the
attitudes of their students and contribute significantly to the
teacher socialisation process is similarly more a matter for speculation
than hard evidence. Allen (1963) in a review of the literature up to
that date could say:

"One could reasonably expect attitude changes to take place
in a considerable way in the time devoted to professional
training". (p207)

but could follow with:

"What difference does training make? We have at present
no more than opinions for an answer". (p209)

In the same vein, a researcher who has worked for many years in the field
of teacher training writes:

"The objective assessment of the effects of teacher training
courses on students has been relatively neglected".
(Evans, 1967, p72)

More recently, a review of British research into teacher education
observes that

"... we know little about many problems associated with the
development of curricula and teaching methods within these
institutions, and even less about the subtle influences
which their environments exert". (Lomax, 1972, p306)

Even Oxtoby (1972) who argues that research dealing with socialisation
into the role of the teacher has produced cumulative, patterned results
(in contrast to research in other areas of higher education) can cite
only a few studies to support her assertion. Curiously, she omits the
largest research project yet undertaken in this country (McLeish, 1970);
but in acknowledging the complexities facing researchers undertaking
such investigations she does identify a probable reason for the
comparative lack of evidence.

A quest for reasons for this paucity of findings is beyond the bounds of this investigation, but itself offers a field for valuable research. It does however seem certain that lack of suitable techniques to assess changes and their causes is clearly one cause:

> "The research literature seems almost void even of description of various possible techniques of attitude change in the context of teacher training". (Allen, 1963, p207)

Another, more important, reason may lie in the subtle social factors controlling the social climate of Colleges of Education:

> "The dominant value orientations of teacher education during the first six decades of the present century have been those of social and literary romanticism". (Taylor, 1969a, p12)

The inference here is that this "romantic infrastructure" has contributed to the neglect of any sort of objective measurement of the effects of education provided by the colleges. Whatever the reason for neglect, Shipman (1969) commenting on a bibliography of research, has noted the lack of studies emanating from the Colleges themselves and has drawn attention to the weak research tradition of the colleges.

What is needed are longitudinal studies of particular teacher training institutions, based upon adequate theoretical concepts. Westwood (1967) has argued that the following areas of the teacher training course call for investigation:

(i) The conceptions of the teacher's role held by those engaged in the training of teachers.

(ii) The most critical period of role learning for student teachers and the most influential aspects of the course contributing to that learning.

(iii) The differences between colleges or groups within colleges in teacher role conception and its process of aquisition.

(iv) The conceptions students have of the teacher's role when they embark upon their training, and how such conceptions may change over the training period.

The research reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 shows that few serious attempts have been made to provide empirical evidence in these areas which would allow even provisional conclusions to be formulated. This investigation represents an attempt, in a single college, to obtain evidence of these areas.

The professional socialisation of student teachers

This is a study of professional socialisation. Using a largely sociological conceptual framework it enquires into how a three year course in a college of education influences the professional orientations and role conceptions of its students. A model for the investigation of professional socialisation was worked out at the beginning of the research which structured the enquiry and its methods. This model has been used to study the college as a social institution and to assess its impact upon students.

The review of previous studies of teacher education which follow in Chapter 2 shows that they have too often been characterised by neglect of a number of significant factors. First, many studies show lack of an adequate theoretical underpinning based on the social sciences. Second, there is a marked lack of reference to the institutional framework within which professional socialisation takes place. Third, there is often a reliance on investigation of cross-sectional rather than longitudinal samples. Fourth, too many studies use only the administration and analysis of questionnaires as their method; there is no attempt to capture, through a variety of methods, something of the nature of the complexity of the process of professional socialisation. Further, these questionnaires are administered only to students at the start and end of their courses; there is no consideration of the effect of certain crucial experiences occuring during the training period. Fifth, no British study has

related students' self-reported teacher role-conceptions to their observed classroom behaviour in an attempt to check if the reported conceptions issue in action. The final teaching practice mark has been used as the sole criterion of teaching ability or style. Finally, there has been a lack of definition of the level of teaching in previous investigations. Most questionnaires have concerned themselves with "the" teacher, rather than specifying, for example, primary or secondary. This neglect of differences which exist between teachers' roles for different age levels of pupils represents a loss of precision in analysis.

This investigation is designed in an attempt to ensure that these factors are not similarly neglected. The investigator considers it vital that studies of student teachers must take into account the social context in which students receive their professional preparation. This means that the procedures and "climate" of the particular college must be analysed in detail, together with the nature of students' responses to such college characteristics. This analysis is undertaken in a variety of ways, and an entering longitudinal sample of 126 students (reducing to 105 over the three years) has been intensively studied. A specially designed Role Definition Instrument (RDI) has been used to obtain measurements of students' teacher role conceptions at intervals over the three years, and a sub-sample of students, interviewed each term, has provided data both on role conceptions and on reactions to the socialisation experience itself.

A number of biographical, personality and institutional variables have been recorded for every student and role conceptions have been analysed in relation to these variables. An investigation is undertaken of the contribution of school practice to the socialisation

process. In addition a classroom observation schedule (COS) has been used to obtain direct measures of students' classroom behaviour and an attempt has been made to relate these observations to expressed role conceptions as measured by the RDI.

The College of Education has been studied as a social institution and the effects of teacher role socialisation are interpreted with regard to the processes and structures present in this social system. Questionnaires, interviews and participant observation have been the major research tools and throughout the investigator has attempted to maintain scientific objectivity whilst employing different methods in an effort to obtain as comprehensive a picture as possible of the professional socialisation process (Goode and Hatt, 1952; Madge, 1965; Oppenheim, 1966). Throughout, the writer has been closely involved with the day to day life of the college, having worked in it as an Education Tutor for six years (and for the final year of the study, after appointment to another post, returning at weekly or fortnightly intervals to collect data and meet members of the interview sample). Although participant observation can raise questions of objectivity of interpretation, the investigator claims that his awareness of such dangers and his own training in the social sciences reduces the risk of misleading subjectivity. Since the research was undertaken a major investigation of student teachers' attitudes has claimed that:

> "... the normal routine of college life is such that it
> is virtually impossible for someone outside the established
> staff to plan to meet a particular group of students on a
> continuing basis for any part of the college year"
> (McLeish, 1970, p77)

The investigator has been able, because of his position within college, to ensure regular and intensive meetings and observation throughout the period of this study. It is argued that researchers who are involved in some way in the ongoing dynamic of social interaction over the whole period of a college course can catch the

subtlety and variety of the socialisation experience far better than those investigators who merely administer questionnaires to a cross-sectional sample and who take no account of the social situation in which students are involved during their three years in college. These latter researches are in danger of viewing the professional socialisation process (if indeed they so conceptualise it) as a simple input-output procedure, with an abstract entity, "the college", working upon a passive student body which will become a "product" of the system. Such a coercive view of socialisation in no way reflects the reality of the college situation. Students, in interaction with tutors and teachers and their peers are actively involved in creating their own perspectives on their experience of college (Chapter 9) rather than passively accepting tutorial views.

It is claimed that to date no other British study has undertaken such a detailed investigation of the professional socialisation process in a particular college of education. The arrangement of the research is as follows:

Chapter 2 reviews the literature on student teacher attitude change and shows not only certain basic differences between the foci of British and American studies, but also illustrates the claim that (in addition to other weaknesses) British studies have almost totally neglected the institutional context in which such attitude change takes place.

Chapter 3 reviews research into professional socialisation and develops a theoretical model used as the basis for this study. This model was worked out at the start of the research and the execution of the study has been carried out with little modification to the original plan. During the period of the study an important critical note on sociological studies of professional socialisation has been published (Olesen and Whittaker, 1970). However the nature of this

recent paper is such as to support the theory and methods employed in this investigation, arguing as it does for close study of the socialisation setting and for attention to how students themselves see the processes in which they are involved.

Chapter 4 describes the theoretical basis and construction of a Role Definition Instrument to measure students' role conceptions for primary and secondary teachers.

Chapter 5 is a study of the College of Education itself, describing particularly the nature of selection procedures, the course itself and the assessment process. An analysis is undertaken of the values implicit in such procedures.

Chapter 6 reports the results of testing hypotheses relating to students' role conceptions. The hypotheses are set out at the end of this chapter. Such testing represents the usual form of investigations using student teachers. Whilst the results are of much importance it is held that additional methods of enquiry can greatly increase the value of such findings. For this reason the statistical investigation is relatively simple, being concerned to establish the significance of differences in role conceptions when students are grouped by certain biographical, personality and institutional variables. The chapter also examines students' perceptions of change over the three year course.

Chapter 7 is concerned with the effect of school experience upon students. Throughout this investigation the importance of school practice is repeatedly stressed by students. A study of final school practice shows something of the impact of this period upon teacher role conceptions, and the importance of the school setting as influencing both RDI scores and teaching practice mark. There is an attempt in this chapter to relate observed classroom behaviour to expressed role conceptions.

Chapter 8 reports the results of the administration of the College Environment Index (McLeish, 1970) to the longitudinal sample in their final year. It provides further evidence on the socialisation setting. This is the only major part of the investigation which was not originally envisaged at the outset of the study. As it gives additional information on how students view the college it was felt that its inclusion would be of value in complementing Chapters 5 and 9.

Chapter 9 describes and analyses the findings from the conduct of interviews held throughout the course. The model set out in Chapter 3 was used to structure the interviews. These findings are felt to be of great importance in the context of the whole investigation as they show how students actively respond to their college experience in the development of perspectives on the socialisation process.

Chapter 10 reviews and assesses the research and makes a number of suggestions relating to the initial preparation of teachers.

Hypotheses (findings reported in Chapter 6)

After consideration of the relevant theoretical and empirical work a number of hypotheses were constructed for testing. For ease of statistical treatment they are stated as null hypotheses.

1. During a three year course of teacher training there will be **no differences in the conceptions of the role of the teacher** held by:

    a. First Year and Third Year students
    b. First Year and Second Year students
    c. Second Year and Third Year students

2. During a three year course of teacher training there will be no differences perceived between the roles of primary school and secondary school teachers by:

    a. First Year students
    b. Second Year students
    c. Third Year students

3. Non-students of similar age and academic achievement to college of education students, do not differ from students in their conception of the role of the teacher.

4. When students undertaking a three year course of teacher training are grouped by certain biographical variables, there will be no differences between the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by the groups within each variable. In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:-

    a. Age
    b. Social Class
    c. Academic achievement
    d. Previous teaching experience
    e. School leaving age
    f. Religion
    g. Pre-college employment
    h. Type of secondary school attended
    i. Number of unsuccessful interviews

5. When students undertaking a three year course of teacher training are grouped by certain institutional variables, there will be no differences between the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by the groups within each variable. In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:-

    a. Education age range group
    b. Main course of study
    c. Resident or day student
    d. Hall of Residence

6. When students on a three year course of teacher training are grouped according to certain assessments of their performance on particular parts of the course, there will be no differences in teacher role conceptions between the groups. In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:-

    a. Final mark in Theory of Education
    b. Final School Practice mark
    c. Teaching Practice marks other than Final School Practice

7. When students are grouped by their scores on the personality measures of extraversion and stability there will be no differences between conceptions of role of the teacher held by the groups.

8. During a three year course of teacher training there will be no significant differences between the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by the College of Education staff and its students.

9. There will be no difference between the scores on Naturalism, Radicalism and Tendermindedness in Education of students at the start and end of their three year course of initial training.

Chapter 2

TEACHER SOCIALISATION - THE LITERATURE ON ATTITUDE CHANGE

An examination of the literature relating to attitude change
in student teachers reveals not only that it is a comparatively
recent study, for few early studies exist based on empirical evidence,
but also that the approach of British and American researchers has
been significantly different. Two major points of consensus may be
detected in the literature regarding major shifts of attitudes towards
educational issues during the period of training. First, that there
is a general tendency for student attitudes to become increasingly
liberal and progressive during training, but that these trends towards
increased liberal thinking about children and classroom practices
are reversed during the first year of teaching (Morrison and McIntyre,
1969; Thouless, 1969). This trend appears to hold for students in
higher education generally: "...there is, in general, change in the
direction of greater liberalism and sophistication in political,
social and religious outlook". (Sanford, 1962, p866).

Second, that students training to teach younger children tend
to have more liberal and democratic conceptions of the role of the
teacher than students training to teach older children. Detailed
evidence to support these generalisations will be referred to below,
and it will be shown that qualifications must be made to the picture
of apparently steady growth towards liberality in educational
attitudes during the period of professional preparation in colleges.
Both the effects of different institutions and the complexity of the
attitude structure itself, together with the significance of different
aspects of training serve to modify the generalisations.

American studies of student-teacher attitudes have mainly

concentrated upon longitudinal studies of short-term experiences,
rarely longer than twelve weeks; and the use of the Minnesota
Teacher Attitude Inventory (Cook, Leeds and Callis, 1951), hereafter
referred to as the MTAI, has been widespread. Many of the studies
discussed relate to the experience of practice teaching ("internship")
in modifying students' conceptions of the role of the teacher
particularly with regard to pupil-teacher relationships. British
researchers on the other hand have been concerned with the effect
of the total training course upon groups of students with little
effort made to estimate the significance of particular experiences.
A variety of attitude measures have been used, with the Manchester
scales, "Survey of Opinions about Education" (Oliver and Butcher,
1962) common to several studies. The British research is fairly
evenly divided between longitudinal and concurrent studies. Because
of the differences of orientation and instruments used, British
and American studies will be reviewed separately below. What is
however generally common is absence of an adequate theoretical
framework as a basis for each investigation, together with neglect
of any attempt to relate the findings to the contexts and procedures
of the particular teacher training institution (Cohen, 1968). This
lack of a systematic and analytical approach derived from the concepts
of the behavioural sciences is a common weakness of many studies of
teacher socialisation (Charters, 1962). The justification for this
criticism is shown in the review of British and American studies
which follow.

British Studies of Student Teachers

In a study of 29 infant student teachers undertaking a two
year course of teacher training, Kissack (1956) constructed a scale
to measure attitudes towards a corporal punishment. During the

period of the course there was no significant change of attitude for the group on this issue. However, after ten months full-time teaching in schools it was found that these teachers were significantly more in favour of corporal punishment than they had been as students. Kissack suggested that large classes and minimal equipment accounted for this change. The study however suffers from the small size of sample and, taking this into account, lack of discussion of individual students who do show evidence of change. There is no relation of the findings to the characteristics of the college course, and the investigation shows a naive handling of theory. Steele (1958) constructed a 58 item scale intended to measure progressive and traditional attitudes towards education in junior schools. The scale was validated against the Manchester "Survey of Opinions about Education" (Oliver and Butcher, 1962), and showed a correlation of +.642 with the Naturalism in education scale which purports to bear "particularly upon child-centred versus teacher-centred attitudes to pupils" (Morrison and McIntyre, 1969, p.23). The scale posits a naturalism-idealism dimension. The idealist emphasises permanent moral values, established disciplines and the training of the intellect, and can be called "traditional"; the naturalist stresses change and development, experimental methods, and the "free activity" of the child, and can be called "progressive" (Butcher, 1959). Steele's sample consisted of 138 women training college students following a two year course who completed the scale at the beginning and end of their training. She found that on entry age had little relation to attitude, the only significant difference being between the eighteen year old school leavers and the rest of the sample, mature women. Those who had had pre-college experience in the classroom and those who were married with children of their own showed a more

progressive attitude than the normal age entrants. There was no difference between the attitude of school leavers and those who had been in employment other than teaching.

The students who chose to train for infant school teaching were more progressive in outlook than those who chose to train for junior school work. At the end of the course the relative positions of the sub-groups was found to be unchanged. No significant difference between age groups remained. Those with previous experience of children as teachers or mothers still showed a more progressive attitude than those who had been at school or in other employment prior to the course. This finding may be contrasted with Case (1968) who found, in a sample of 220 female students at a Day College of Education, that married women tended to be slightly less permissive in their attitudes towards teaching, than single women. However, Case's infant group was also much more progressive in attitude than the junior group.

Steele found that all groups showed significantly a much more progressive attitude at the end of their two years of training. These changes were most marked in the 18-21 years age group. After six months full-time teaching however, mean scores changed in a traditional direction, but still showed a more progressive attitude than when the group first entered college. She suggests that this regression is more in the nature of a stabilisation than a return to traditional attitudes. In the light of other evidence reviewed below it is possible to interpret this reversal differently, as it may be argued that the change of attitude recorded over the college course may be more apparent than real, with students learning the "right" responses to tutors, or in reply to questionnaires (Shipman, 1967; Eson, 1956).

In relation to her results, Steele makes the significant comment that

"professional training cannot be presumed to be the
direct cause of a student changing her mind"

on educational matters, and that

"there can be, for the individual, no direct predictable
outcome of the college course". (Steele, 1958, p9)

In spite of the first comment there is no attempt to relate such

changes as have taken place to the institutional setting of her

study. A further major criticism can be made of Steele's questionnaire

in that many of the items record very different degrees of

"progressiveness":

Item 14. Children should be allowed to address their
teachers by their Christian names

Item 7. Informal grouping of desks is a preferable
arrangement to straight rows

Item 54. Drill in arithmetic is unavoidable

No analysis of results in any other framework than the broad

"traditional/progressive" is attempted by Steele and the investigation

suffers from this lack of sophistication in theoretical conception

and analysis.

Herbert and Turnbull (1963) used the MTAI to measure attitude

differences in first and third year students. Altogether, 499 students

were tested and it was found that differences significant at the

.01 level existed between the groups in democratic attitudes.

Significant difference between first and third year students were

also found in scores on other instruments used in the test battery:

Moray House Adult Verbal Reasoning Test, the Bernreuter Personality

Inventory, the Social Intelligence Test and College assessments in

education and psychology. The investigators comment

"The large number of significant differences found
between mean scores in first and third years may
reflect personality changes" (p30).

As the study includes a group of students who were tested twice but the majority of students were tested once only (i.e. a cross-sectional sample) the comment, and the investigation as a whole loses much of its force as the differences may be merely a reflection of differently constituted samples.

Herbert and Turnbull were concerned with the prediction of teaching ability and found that scores on the MTAI discriminated successfully between AB and DE students on teaching practice (at the .01 level for first year students and .05 level for third years), and suggest that with modification of the wording and restandardisation of norms, the MTAI might well become a useful predictor of teaching ability. This finding is in direct contrast with Evans (1958) who found no significant correlations between MTAI scores and teaching practice marks. A critical review of the MTAI (Evans, 1966) concludes that it would not be a satisfactory instrument for use in the selection of student teachers in this country.

The cross sectional nature of Herbert and Turnbull's study, the lack of reference to the college setting, the omission of discussion of the possibility of faking on the MTAI and lack of a critical attitude to the validity of the teaching practice mark itself all serve to reduce the value of their investigation.

A comparative study of over 2,000 British and nearly 2,500 American student teachers (Dickson, 1965) found that the mean scores on the MTAI of both British and American students specialising in secondary school teaching were much the same for students in their third year as in their first year. The British secondary students' scores were in fact slightly higher in the first year than in the second or third year. No significance of these differences are given by Dickson, or sufficient data to enable "t" to be calculated.

Inspection of the totals however, and an awareness of the large
standard deviations which are associated with scores on the MTAI
lead to the conclusion that the differences are probably not
significant. British primary school students scored higher in all
three years than secondary students (levels of significance not given)
indicating that primary students tend to be more child-centred than
secondary groups. This contrasts with the finding of Halliwell (1965)
using the Manchester Scales with 208 College of Education students
that there were no significant differences in scores between primary
and secondary groups. Dickson found a marked improvement in the
primary school students' total scores between the first and second
year, with third years scoring the same as second years.

Dickson also administered the Ryans Teacher Characteristics
Schedule (Ryans, 1960) giving scores on nine scales of teacher
behaviour. The results from this, together with the MTAI, are
commented on as follows:

> "The attitudes and teachers' characteristics scores
> show relatively little change across the three years
> of training. There are about as many that go in
> an unfavourable direction as those that go in a
> favourable direction". (Dickson, 1965, p107).

Although Dickson makes some general comments on a few of the
differences between colleges in the U.K., the focus of his research
is primarily on international comparisons and therefore institutional
factors are barely taken into account in his discussion of results.
Dickson does however make the significant observation.

> "...there was as much diversity in measured character-
> istics of teacher education students within each nation
> as there was between them". (p22)

Dickson's results with American students would seem to indicate
that when MTAI scores are initially high, there is less likelihood
of attitude change, a suggestion which finds some accord with Steele's
finding that those students with lowest initial scores (the 18-21 year

old group) changed the most (Steele, 1958). His study however must be viewed largely as a simple exercise in data collection from a large international sample and does little to advance our understanding of what happens to students in professional training.

The Manchester Scales, "Survey of Opinions about Education" (Oliver and Butcher, 1962) have been used in a number of researches using student teacher samples. A brief description is necessary of the scales' three dimensions: naturalism-idealism (N), radicalism-conservatism (R), and tenderminded-toughminded attitudes to education (T). The Manchester Scales were first suggested in a theoretical paper by Oliver (1953), and constructed and empirically validated by Butcher (1959). Butcher's findings have been reported in Oliver and Butcher (1962), Butcher (1965), and Oliver and Butcher (1968). Oliver (1969) gives a summary of results obtained with the scales together with a bibliography.

Oliver's hypothesis was that the three dimensions might form a useful provisional framework for the classification of teachers' attitudes to education. Items for the naturalism-idealism dimension were derived after a consideration of the writings of philosophers of education. Idealist theories postulate that the most valued human characteristics were akin to those of a permanent universal order, whereas naturalist theories regard them as unstable products of human life (Oliver and Butcher, 1962). The items in the scale represent pupil-centred versus teacher-centred attitudes to pupils and are concerned with classroom practices and relationships, for example:

"The teacher should not stand in the way of a child's efforts to learn in his own fashion"

"Less corporal punishment in schools" (common to radical-conservative dimension)

"Direct moral instruction does little to improve
children's characters"

The radicalism-conservatism and toughminded-tenderminded
dimensions were derived from work carried out on the structure of
general social attitudes (Eysenck, 1947, 1954). Radicalism-conservatism
deals with general educational policies affecting schools and there
are grounds for supposing that educational attitudes on this dimension
are linked with radical or conservative opinions on social issues
(Oliver and Butcher, 1962). The items used in the Manchester Scales
on this dimension measure attitude towards suggested changes in
broad educational policies, for example:

"The raising of the school learning age to 16"

"A higher proportion of the national income to be
spent on education"

"More Nursery schools".

The character of the dichotomy indicated by the tenderminded-
toughminded dimension was described by Eysenck (1954) as:

"...on the one side we have the practical, material-
istic, extraverted person, who deals with the environment
either by force (soldier) or by manipulation (scientist).
On the other side we have the theoretical, idealistic,
introverted person, who deals with problems either by
thinking (philosopher) or by believing (priest)" (p119).

Eysenck goes on to say that the best way of describing this
factor is perhaps by stressing the "practical-theoretical" dichotomy.
The "practical" attitude is that of the "toughminded" man, the
extravert; and the "theoretical" attitude that of the "tenderminded"
introvert. It is interesting to note that Butcher has lately come to
describe this dimension as a theoretical-practical one (McIntyre and
Morrison, 1967). Wiseman (Thouless, 1969, p297) feels that the
scale might perhaps be better thought of as one of religiosity; and
the results do give some support for this view (Oliver and Butcher, 1962).

Toughmindedness might be described as authoritarianism (Butcher, 1959).
The items selected for the scale compare opinions on educational
objectives, subjects being scored on how good they feel reasons for
certain educational processes to be. Thus, tendermindedness is
interpreted as one which regards children and others as persons to
be treated as ends in themselves rather than as serving the interests
of others as represented, for example, by the demands of vocational
efficiency or the interests of the state. It is indicated by judging
these reasons "not good":

> "Reason for teaching science: A scientific training
> offers good prospects for a career"

> "Reason for Religious Instruction: It instils a sense
> of duty"

> "Reasons for the training of teachers: A teacher must
> acquire efficient techniques of teaching his subject".

High reliability and validity is claimed for the scales. On
the new shortened scales the split-half reliability figures for a
sample of sixty teachers are N = 0.731; R = 0.836; T = 0.835.

Butcher (1965), using the Manchester scales tested 118 graduate
students at the Department of Education, Manchester University, and
two small groups of training college women students, twenty at
Charlotte Mason Training College, and thirty-eight students at
Padgate Training College. The students were tested at the start of
their course in October 1957 and again at the end of the summer term
1958. It should be noted that although this period represents the
completion of the graduate training course, it was only the end of
the first (of two years of training) for the training college
students. Again it should be noted that the response rates for the
second testing were "slightly disappointing" (Butcher, 1965, p19).
The results were compared with scores of 300 practising teachers.
Butcher found that the opinions of graduate student teachers were

more naturalistic, more radical and more tenderminded than those
of practising teachers. This difference was particularly marked
in the case of moral and disciplinary questions on which the
practising teachers held stricter views than the student teachers.
Intensity (or emphasis) scores were calculated and student teachers
showed significantly more intensity in expressing their opinions
on all three scales than practising teachers (Butcher, 1959).
College students were even more naturalistic and radical, but less
tenderminded in scores than both graduate students and practising
teachers.

After one year's training the graduate group and one of the
college groups were found to be significantly higher on all three
scores, with the changes in the direction of naturalism, radicalism
and tendermindedness in education. At Charlotte Mason College only
in radicalism was there a significant increase (significant at the
.01 level). Naturalism and tendermindedness were not significantly
different, indeed the score on naturalism was against the trend.
Butcher suggests that this unexpected result may be due to "a
genuine difference between contrasting types of training college"
(Butcher, 1959), but does not investigate this institutional
difference further, an unfortunate omission as it could contribute
to the study of differences in socialisation procedures.

The scales found no significant differences between men and
women students on naturalism and radicalism, but graduate women
students were more tenderminded than men. It has been suggested
that the scale of tough-tendermindedness appears to be more specific
to education and less clearly associated with wider social issues;
as noted earlier, Butcher has suggested that it might better be
described as a theoretical-practical scale. Political affiliation,
intelligence and final teaching mark were not significantly related
to changes on the three scales.

Among the practising teachers there were no sex or age differences
in attitudes to education. Butcher makes a comparison of student
and practising teacher scores and concludes

> "that attitudes to educational practice are more closely
> related to the effects of education, indoctrination and
> experience than to sex or age".

This finding seems to accord with published research on general
social attitudes (Eysenck, 1947). There is no attempt however, to
analyse the nature of the "education ... and experience" undergone
in particular colleges which shape the educational attitudes of
students. This unfortunate neglect of institutional characteristics
and socialisation processes within those institutions is typical of
British studies.

Butcher's second conclusion is that:

> "changes in attitude during training may be reversed after
> experience of full-time teaching". (Butcher, 1965, p23)

A finding which is also in accord with published research on teacher
attitudes. A solitary exception is Hollins (1955), who found no
significant difference in attitudes towards children between students
at the end of their training and practising teachers. Hollins' study
not only neglects the nature of the college course but was also
limited to only twelve mature emergency trained students; two factors
which may help explain this finding, and which certainly indicate
the severe limitations of the research.

A study at Moray House College of Education, Edinburgh, by
McIntyre and Morrison (1967) was designed to replicate the research of
Butcher (1965), and to provide a comparison of Scottish and English
students. The sample consisted of 73 first year non-graduate women
and 125 third year non-graduate women on a three year diploma course.
A further 189 male and female graduates on a one year course at the
college, and 43 first year University undergraduate women completed
the sample. The Manchester Scales were administered at the beginning

of the academic year. In addition, the third year non-graduates, and the graduate group was retested at the end of the session. A weakness of the study is that only 50 per cent of this re-test sample completed the scales. The retest scores, however, showed changes in the direction of increased scores on all three dimensions. Similarly, a comparison of first and third year non-graduates scores gave the same result, generally confirming Butcher's findings of increased naturalism, radicalism and tendermindedness in education during training. For the non-graduate women the changes in the direction of increased naturalism and radicalism were highly significant (at the .001 level) and there was a significant change on the tendermindedness scale (at the .05 level). The authors suggest that during undergraduate courses only tendermindedness scores tended to increase, and that non-graduate women at the end of their training had significantly higher scores than graduate women who had only just started training.

McIntyre and Morrison found no relationship between changes in opinion scores and either examination results or final practice marks. When they compared scores made by sex grouping for the graduates it was found that for those graduates whose entire training was done in college the women were throughout more tenderminded (significant at the .01 level) and naturalistic (significant at the .05 level). However, for graduates doing the concurrent diploma in education there were no significant sex differences in scores. Halliwell (1965) also found College of Education women scoring significantly higher on the tendermindedness dimension than men, as did Cortis (1966). Butcher (1965) reports the same finding for the women graduate students. None of the researchers found significant sex differences on N or R scores. Ward and Rushton (1968) found no sex differences in scores on all these dimensions.

The scores for the Scottish students in McIntyre and Morrison's survey were compared with Butcher's (1965) findings for English students seven years earlier. Higher scores were found for the Scottish group, and McIntyre and Morrison suggest that the general change in the climate of educational opinion, rather than the result of the college training itself was more likely to explain this difference. They do not however comment on two findings which go against this trend; that there was no difference in tendermindedness between graduates entering training, and no difference on any scale at the conclusion of training, between English graduates and those Scottish graduates who undertook concurrent study at the University with their training. These findings call for investigation as reasons may lie in the nature of the course and in the samples themselves. This taking for granted of institutional characteristics reduced the value of the study.

Morrison and McIntyre (1967) further investigated changes in opinions about education which occurred during the first year of teaching. One hundred students were tested with the Manchester Scales at the end of their training and then again after one year's full-time teaching. During this period, graduate men (n=23) showed no significant changes; graduate women (n=31) showed significant decreases on all three scales (significant at .01 level); and non-graduate women's scores (n=46) on radicalism and tendermindedness also significantly decreased (at .01 level). In the case of graduates their scores after one year's teaching were not significantly different from when they had started training (except that women graduate's score on tendermindedness showed a significant (.05) decrease). Using comparable data (McIntyre and Morrison, 1967) for the non-graduate women, it was found that the reversal in scores during full-time

teaching still left the teachers scoring higher than on entry to training. Thus, the overall increase in scores between the beginning of training and the end of the first year in teaching was highly significant for naturalism (at the .001 level) and significant for radicalism (at the .05 level). The authors point to the stability and size of this change on the naturalism scale for non-graduate women. The inference would appear to be that opinions on matters of method and child-centred education are positively affected during the college course, and for these three year trained primary teachers represent an area of attitudes to education which is more easily and lastingly influenced than the other two dimensions of the scale.

Morrison and McIntyre report two further findings: that there was a tendency for infant teacher's N-scale scores to remain unchanged whilst those of teachers of older children tended to decline; and that teachers in more "progressive" schools are more likely to maintain the opinions, measured by the T-scale, they held on leaving college, than teachers in less progressive schools. In view of the smallness of the samples, and since the "progressiveness" measure was based on the teachers' subjective ratings with no external validation, these findings should be treated with caution. They do however represent an attempt to link attitude change with characteristics of schools and as such indicate that certain types of institutional climate may influence both the nature and degree of change. In general however Morrison and McIntyre's work is typical in its traditional approach to teacher socialisation.

Kitchen (1966) measured the difference in attitudes of 86 first and third year men students at Worcester College of Education using Osgood's semantic differential technique. Osgood (1957) postulates the existence of a semantic "space" at various points within which

meaning is located. Factor analytic studies confirmed the existence
of three major dimensions in the semantic space: "evaluative" (good-bad,
kind-cruel);"potency" (hard-soft, strong-weak); and "activity"
(fast-slow, active-passive). Osgood claims high correlations between
evaluative rating scores and attitude scores obtained using
Thurstone and Guttman scales. Using responses on a bipolar adjective
scale to 48 concepts such as "children","college", "teachers", etc.,
and arguing that "evaluative" scores do in fact represent attitudes,
Kitchen investigated the differences in attitudes between first and
third years in five areas: the teaching profession, training, self,
teachers as people, and abstract values.

He found the differences between first and third year students
were fairly well marked. First years tended to have a wide range of
concepts of aims and values but third years indicated more specifically
their responsibilities to the teaching profession. Third years
expressed more direct concern with discipline, obedience and
authority, and their aspirations were linked more to concepts such as
"Teaching Certificate, teaching practice, examination". Thus, there
was a greater emphasis by the third year men on the concepts closely
concerned with teaching, and Kitchen interprets the change in
attitude as a move towards a greater awareness of professional needs.
However, this implies assumptions about the nature of professionalism
which are not examined by Kitchen, and it is a weakness of his study
that he does not discuss the range of attitudes and behaviours which
the concept can include. The size and cross-sectional nature of the
sample and the lack of replications of this study using a similar
technique also call for caution in interpretation, as indeed does the
fact that the study was conducted in the college where, earlier,
Shipman (1967a) had postulated the phenomenon of "impression management"

in reply to questionnaires. Further, the study has little to offer
on teachers' classroom role. The results obtained by Kitchen, that
third year men were more orientated towards the profession and have
wider awareness of their social responsibilities, would appear to
need further investigation. Further, there is no attempt in the
study to relate the differences between first and third years to the
nature of the course of professional preparation undergone. However,
the semantic differential technique does seem to offer a useful
method by which to examine attitudes to education as profiles may be
constructed in response to specific issues. Such studies remain to
be undertaken.

Finlayson and Cohen (1967) constructed a Role Definition
Instrument of twenty-two expectations for teacher behaviour in four
role sectors based on Fleming (1958): organisation; general aims;
motivation; and classroom management. The role conceptions were
obtained of a concurrent sample of 102 first, 80 second and 86 third
year students. A consistent pattern of change was found in the
students: a movement toward less authoritarian patterns of classroom
behaviour in their second year. This high point of liberality gave
way to more traditional views expressed by third year students
almost at the end of their training. This peak of liberality in the
second year is in contrast to other findings discussed which tend
to imply gradual growth throughout a course of teacher training.

Few significant differences were found between students preparing
to teach older children and those preparing to teach younger children.
Only four items on the RDI showed significant differences above the
.05 level between the groups and these were concerned with classroom
management, where the students training to teach older children
showed more authoritarian attitudes, favoured more punitive methods

of control, and expected to maintain a more distant and formal relationship with their pupils than did the students training to teach infant children. This finding, of few differences between age-range groups, also stands in contrast to much of the reported research. It is odd that Cohen (1968) in a review of literature reports the finding differently. Further, Finlayson and Cohen by treating all students together neglect to investigate the effect of age-range differences in each of the three years of the course, missing the opportunity to test whether the professional preparation itself serves to create or minimise attitude differences as the course progresses.

Comparisons between the first and third year groups scores showed that 72 per cent of the items produced no significant differences. The major differences were concentrated in the area of classroom behaviour. However, when the students' role conceptions were compared with the role conceptions of head teachers it was found that 82 per cent of the differences were significant. The head teachers' orientation was towards

"a relatively organisationally-orientated, child-dominating and conformity-desiring point of view". (p23)

The researchers explain the regression of student attitudes in the third year as an attempt to narrow the gap between college and school expectations. They suggest that the second year being the midpoint of the course if furthest from school experience as a pupil or teacher and so coincides with the students' maximum liberality in their attitudes to children in the classroom.

Finlayson and Cohen hypothesise but did not test two frames of reference to which the students' attitudes are differently related as they pass through their training.[1] The College frame of reference

(1) Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) define a frame of reference as the contextual system with respect to which an object is judged. The object referred to here is the teacher's position.

might indicate considerable agreement between students and tutors about relationships with pupils and the organisation of classroom activities. The school frame of reference as expressed by practising teachers might express less idealised views of teacher-pupil relations or classroom experiences. Here, high place is given to those aspects of teacher behaviour which emphasise the maintenance of good order and discipline rather than the individual growth and mental well-being of the individual child. The investigation of the existence of such frames of reference in the present study is reported in Chapters 3 and 9.

The weakness of Finlayson and Cohen's study is in its lack of relation to the institutional situation. The pattern of the course is not discussed and no attempt is made to suggest the institutional experiences most important in shaping the students' attitude changes, even although the critical importance of the early stages of the course in role learning is apparent. Clearly, the investigation would also have been much improved by some attempt to test the frame of reference thesis by interviews. These interviews could also have explored the highly speculative "peak of liberality" explanation advanced. The argument that liberality is maximised in the second year because it is the furthest point from the students' experience of school as pupil or teacher seems very weak indeed. The concurrent sampling nature of the research also serves to put into question this particular hypothesis.

A further criticism is that Cohen's Instrument does not appear to have been subjected to any statistical procedures of item analysis or for reliability or validity. Given the theoretical structure of the questionnaire, more sophistication in question choice is expected than apparently random selection by the investigators alone. The

classification of items may also be called in question as an
examination of the RDI itself reveals inconsistencies. For example,
the item "Group friends together for work in Mathematics and English"
is included in the "classroom behaviour" category. It is suggested
it could equally well belong in "Motivation" or "Organisation",
particularly as "Put 'slow' learners with 'slow' learners in all
academic work" already appears under the latter heading.

However, the Finlayson and Cohen study is valuable for the
evidence it offers to suggest that the period of teacher training
cannot be thought of as one of steadily growing insight or increasing
awareness of all aspects of teacher role, with these clearer
expectations being made part of a student's conception of teacher
behaviour. Rather, the implication is that the teacher socialisation
process is an exceedingly complex one, probably with significant
"critical periods", where certain aspects of the course contribute
more to the formation of role-conceptions than others, and with
differential impacts upon different groups of students. It indicates
the need for studies of professional socialisation of teachers to
take frequent "soundings" by a variety of methods throughout the
three year course.

A study of Worcester Training College during the period of rapid
expansion from 1961-65 (Shipman, 1966) apparently confirms the
general trend of increasingly liberal attitudes developing during
training, reversals during the first term of teaching, and with
students training for younger children holding more progressive views
than those training for older children. A concurrent sample of 115
first years, 119 second years and 127 third years replied to a
questionnaire to measure attitudes to certain aspects of teaching.
The third year students were retested when they had been in full-time
teaching for one term. The questionnaire was also completed by 159

school staff in the College's practice schools and by 44 College
staff. The results for the student group show that on Scale A and
Scale B, progressive v. traditional teaching methods, and restrictive
discipline against free activity respectively, third year students
scored higher, (more progressive, less restrictive) than first years.
For Scale C, child-centred against subject-centred teaching, the
third year mean score was lower than first years. Two cautionary
notes must be entered. First, that the three scales cannot be
regarded on Shipman's account as conceptually distinct; and secondly
and surprisingly that for none of these figures are levels of
significance given.

In all years students training for primary teaching scored higher
than students training for secondary work on all three scales with
the sole exception of scale A in the first year. Again, no significance
figures are given by Shipman for these differences. After one term's
teaching there was a decline in scores on scales A and B, but a slight
increase on scale C.

Shipman found significant differences between college and school
staffs' attitudes as measured by his questionnaire. College staff
supported more progressive methods, more democratic means of class
control than secondary school teachers and were more subject-minded
than primary school staff. These differences were significant at the
.01 level. Shipman argues that students on school practice were thus
involved in reconciling conflicting attitudes, which they did by
using two levels of professional value, one for college and one for
the classroom. He suggests that by the use of "impression management"
(Goffman, 1958) students insulated themselves against the influence
that college was most concerned to transmit, answering questionnaires
as extensions of professional theory examinations and producing "right"
responses whilst concealing more genuine "tougher" views. Shipman

claims that using discussions and interviews he found that attitudes
were in fact more in line with those held by school staffs, and that
the apparent reversals after experience of full time teaching were
not so much a change as a removal of a veneer. Students come to
college aware of the attitudes possessed by college staff, conform
during the period of the course, but jettison these attitudes when
the need for impression management disappears. Shipman comments upon
the low reliability of the attitude scales he uses, and remarks:

> "...the safest conclusion ...was that there was no change
> until the students had left". (Shipman, 1966 , p81)

Shipman's scepticism of the genuineness of attitude change is
largely based upon his personal impressions during interviews, and it
may be remarked that he seems surprisingly uncurious about the fact
that his samples do not appear to evidence those changes towards more
liberal attitudes found in other studies of the effects of higher
education. However, his study is extremely thorough and represents an
admirable attempt to use a variety of methods - participant-observation,
interviews, small group discussions, analysis of records and documents,
questionnaires and diaries - in order to probe changes in his College
over a period of expansion. It can be argued that he does not always
make full use of his data and leaves some apparent anomalies unaccounted
for. For example, when the age-range scores of the students in their
probationary year are examined, secondary students score HIGHER on the
progressive/traditional scale, and Primary students score higher on
the child-centred/subject-centred scale than their scores at the end
of the training. Indeed, on Scale C as noted, there is a slight
increase for all students in child-centredness. This suggests a
qualification to the thesis of impression management needs to be made
but Shipman does not make it. The complexity of the teacher social-
isation process again becomes apparent here, but it must be acknowledged

that Shipman does make a very good effort to take account of institutional pressures. His brief review of the literature indicates the paucity of material existing at the time he wrote. Shipman himself acknowledges that his study would have been "contained in a more precise conceptual framework" had more information on the effects of higher education been available to him. Even though his study is not primarily one of attitude change in a longitudinal sample, his use of deep probing interviews and the relation of his findings to the institutional setting is a real advance in the study of teacher socialisation and a welcome relief from the paper and pencil testing of other investigations.

Evans (1967) studies the values and attitudes of 78 graduates in a University Department of Education taking a one year diploma course. She administered the MTAI and the Allport Vernon Study of Values (British version NFER, Richardson, 1965), in October 1965 and again in May 1966 to her sample of 46 women and 32 men. The Study of Values Scale showed minimal changes over the period in either male or female students, although the men showed a significant decrease in their "Economic" score and a significant increase in "Social Values". There were significant sex differences on five of the six dimensions of the Study of Values Scale in the first testing (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political). In the second testing this sex difference remained with the exception of "Economic" value, on which the men showed a significant decline as noted. Evans concluded that the effect of the teacher training course may be different on men than on women. So far, no study has specifically taken up this area of enquiry.

The MTAI mean scores showed marked changes over the test-retest in both groups, and the increases for both men and women were significant. Taking this finding in relation to the lack of change

on the Study of Values, Evans suggests that whilst some personality
factors are fairly difficult to change, "attitudes to people in
general and children in particular" are fairly easy to change, and
are susceptible to modification in the teacher training course.
This suggestion may be compared with that of Morrison and McIntyre
(1967) above and finds support in the work of McLeish (1970). It
also has some relation to Callis' research reviewed below, which
argues

> "there is a small group of attitudes that are significantly
> affected by training and another group still smaller, that
> is significantly affected by experience". (Callis, 1950)

Evans' study is typical in its neglect of the institutional
context of training. Brief mention may be made at this point to
two non-British studies. The first examined attitudes of West
African students and teachers towards "the modern approach in teaching"
(Ferron, 1965). Graduate and undergraduate groups of students (n=173)
in Zaria responded to a forty item Likert-type questionnaire
contrasting a progressive with a traditional outlook at the commencement
and end of their respective courses in education. All groups showed
a significant gain in score at the end of their courses. Ferron
suggests that this move to more progressive attitudes might have been
due to "a desire to please" or the students' orientation towards
giving the right answer. After discussion with the students
however, Ferron's intuitive feeling was that the gain represented
a genuine change in attitude. Although this research confirms the
general trends noted in other studies it should be treated with extreme
caution as few details are given of the construction of the
questionnaire, the methodology of the investigation, and the final
validating process.

The second non-British investigation is a Finnish study.
Heikkinen (1962), using the MTAI with seventy-two students found that

attitudes increased in a favourable direction (at .001 level) during the theoretical part of a teacher training course, but during a period of practice teaching a significant decline was noted in the attitudes measured by the scale (see Chapter 7 below). Attitudes also declined during the first two years in teaching after training. Heikkinen however was unable to show that the decline in attitudes during practice teaching and in the first in-service years is largely ascribable to the failures and frustrations experienced in teaching. This study again contains no discussion of the institutional variables affecting attitude change.

Returning to British studies, McLeish (1970) makes a major claim for his research:

> "Objectively speaking, it may be said that this project
> has developed into the most comprehensive study of
> attitudes, personality and change of students' attitudes
> in relation to college environment, ever undertaken". (p3)

This is patently untrue when the claim is measured against some American studies (Chickering, 1969; Feldmann and Newcomb, 1969; Sanford, 1962). It is certainly valid for Great Britain. He administered the Cambridge Survey of Educational opinions to approximately 1,500 students at the start and end of their teacher training course. In addition he took certain measures of the ten College environments in which the students were studying, and attempted to relate observed attitude changes to college characteristics.

For the three year college students (approximately 1,250 in number) significant changes were observed in social and educational attitudes, but no systematic changes were observed in personality measures. Students on average moved away from a narrow fundamental view of religion and increased in liberalism in relation to social and educational issues. They thus became less favourable to corporal punishment, more against formal methods of instruction and classroom

organisation, and came to believe more strongly in spontaneous development in children. Contrasting with these reported changes was that students appeared to expect less emotional satisfaction from contacts with children and they scored significantly lower in "job satisfaction" than upon entry. These changes represented a move towards the opinions of college of education lecturers and experienced teachers.

McLeish used two measures of college environment: a subjective rating by students (in essence a 100 question adaptation of the College Characteristics Index of Pace and Stern, 1958); and an objective evaluation of certain demographic, ecological and institutional characteristics of the ten colleges (covering for example such things as size, rate of growth, examination results, library facilities, staff student ratio, staff qualifications, B.Ed. students). The objectivity of this latter measurement is open to question, for in attempting to quantify value judgments on such specific features of college environments as "masculinity", "maturity", "secular emphasis", "community", "communication process" (five of the 23 factors involved) questions on which real disagreement exist are glossed over. However, McLeish claims that there is sufficient agreement between the two types of measurement to arrange the ten colleges in order of "quality". He then proceeds to attempt a demonstration of the relationship between the educational quality of the environment and the amount of change which took place. This is summarised as "the better the College, the greater the change".

McLeish's discussion of this statement is disappointing. It occupies just two and a half pages in a book of 251 pages, and, in spite of preceding analysis of the college environments, reveals very little of the nature of the impact of the college course upon students. To assess change he adopts the dubious procedure of adding together

changes in raw scores on eleven variables. These variables include
specifically educational together with other (e.g. religious)
attitudes. No attempt is made to separate these educational from
other social attitudes. Further, McLeish underemphasises the
differences which exist between the students in attitudes and values
at the start of their course. These differences are not startling,
but in the analysis there is no control or adjustment for entrance
differences when examining the impact of the colleges. As a consequence
there is not full disentanglement of what each student brought to
college and what (it may be assumed) the college brought to her.
McLeish also plays down the students' judgment of college environment
for although on this rating only three colleges are judged "above
average", one of these three is finally rated by McLeish as having
an inferior environment.

McLeish's study is then, more a record of the trend of changes
which take place, with much emphasis placed on changes in religious
and political affiliation, together with a correlational demonstration
that these trends appear to be linked with "quality" of the college
environments and with their religious or secular foundations. As such
it tells very little about the nature of the relationship and
demonstrates again that demographic enquiry is of value but reveals
only to a limited extent the impact of college on students. McLeish's
deliberate rejection of the interview method with students results in
a loss of material which would probably more vividly reveal this
impact. This decision was taken it is felt largely on the grounds of
his investigation into communication processes in colleges where he
argues that students are not capable of "making a total assessment of
their college as an ongoing system". Similarly, hardly any consideration
is given to the courses of individual colleges themselves, their content,

teaching, placement and assessment. This too would have added greatly to the study. It is puzzling that in the introduction and concluding chapter much stress is put on the importance of the student's main course as a correlate of her attitudes and of the particular impact of her college, but examination of this is virtually ignored in the body of the text. Thus, whilst McLeish's study certainly represents the largest and most organised piece of research in this country on the relationship between student attitude change and college environment, its very scale militates against including those methods which could make the investigation more effective. What it does reveal is the need for studies of individual colleges with more detailed probing of their impacts.

Sutherland has used the Manchester Scales and a variety of other instruments in an attempt to relate attitudes to different college environments using an adaptation of Pace and Stern's (1958) College Characteristics Index. No results from her research is yet to hand but she has indicated (private communication) that Colleges with high scores on a tentative "Propriety" scale (stress on social forms, deference and obeying regulations) enrol students with comparatively low scores on such child-centred attitude scales as Oliver's Naturalism in Education.

Marsland (1970) in a longitudinal study, unusual in its relatively high degree of theoretical sophistication, tested a cohort of 150 students of both sexes in a large metropolitan college at the start and end of their course. His primary research instrument was a specially developed role inventory based on the conceptualisations and techniques of Gross et al (1958). The inventory was used to develop seven scales, each measuring "a crucial dimension of teacher-role". The findings of Marsland's study of direct relevance here are that over

the three years students became increasingly "educational" in their
orientation to teaching and to classroom interactions, and less
"academic" in that they inclined more to favouring informal rather
than formal methods and to attitudes of disfavour towards examinations.
They also became more affective in their role definitions, favouring
more total involvement of teachers with pupils; and also became
increasingly progressive, decreasingly traditional in their educational
philosophy and methods. Their role definitions for teaching became
increasingly specific, decreasingly diffuse. Thus the findings generally
confirm the trend of other researches in this section, but is
valuable for its refreshing originality of conception.

Marsland's study stands as the first British attempt to formulate
a theoretical model for teacher socialisation, but it should be noted
that his investigation was limited to administering scales at the start
and end of the course, and, whilst investigating the effects of Education
and Main Course student grouping, did nothing to ascertain the values
of staff or to investigate the effect of socialisation experiences of
the students, significantly, school practice. Quite properly, he
regards his work as an exploratory study permitting only tentative
conclusions and with little scope for easy generalisation. Nonetheless
Marsland argues for a "rigorous quantitative methodology" in the study
of colleges as social systems whilst acknowledging that the critique
of Shipman (1966) of questionnaires and quantification is applicable to
his own study. Although Marsland acknowledges that "hard" and "soft"
(his terms) research techniques and methodology are properly complementary,
his own paper is a celebration of the "hard". As such it is a pity he
does not give full details of all instruments used, for the one used
to obtain data for his "dynamic variables" is very open to the criticism
of over-simplification (see Chapter 3). This asks the student to check

when he first thought of himself as a teacher. The categories given

for response are:

a) Before coming to college
b) In your first year
c) In your second year
d) In your third year

There is an implication here not only that the expression "think

of yourself as a teacher" has the same meaning for all students, but

that it is capable of fairly precise locating in time and will not be

subject to redefinition: thus the student is forced into constructing

what may well be an artificial response. The complexity of such a

process of identity crystallisation is revealed in Chapter 9.

Nonetheless, Marsland uses the responses to derive certain modes of

teacher socialisation without discussion of such complexity. He does

not investigate any reasons for the responses given, accepting them

at face value. A brief discussion with students would quickly have

shown the danger of loading such pencilled responses with the precision-

implying label of "identity crystallisation".

Marsland's major omission is a consideration of the students'

perception of the course in terms of its construction and progress.

Becker (1961) avoids this pitfall by a detailed consideration of the

patterning of the course and its evaluation procedures, and he assesses

the effect of these upon the students in a much more convincing manner

than Marsland. The dangers of a statistical study undertaken in

isolation from the college, based solely upon paper and pencil responses,

is well illustrated by Marsland's study. What is needed, for example,

in his discussion of professional identity, identity crystallisation,

and role-models is supporting evidence from contact with, and observation

of, the students themselves. This additional "soft" data (Marsland's

expression), would, it is held, carry more conviction than rigorous

statistical analysis of "hard" data. Certainly, the two approaches

combined would make for a more powerful analysis.

Although participant-observation and interviews are susceptible to the dangers of subjectivity and misinterpretation (Goode and Hatt, 1952), nonetheless the work of Hargreaves (1967) and others demonstrate the value of such an approach. Clearly, an inter-disciplinary approach, using a variety of methods, with a team of researchers, would probably be a more valuable attack on the problem of professional socialisation than an individual attempting it alone. Marsland's work however shows a need for investigation of the pattern of the college course, of interviews with staff and students, and with a consideration of values as revealed in assessment procedures and certification. The structural-functionalist approach advocated by Marsland is in danger of neglecting the processes of the college course which contribute to professional socialisation.

However, Marsland's study is a genuinely valuable contribution to the study of teacher socialisation although it is rooted in structural-functionalist rather than interactionist theory. It is considered that the work of Becker et al (1961) and, to a lesser extent, Shipman (1966), demonstrate the value of the latter approach examining the social processes of role taking in social systems. This is not to deny the vital importance of analysis of functional relationships between colleges and other social subsystems (notably families, schools, the profession, government, and other sectors of higher education), and between the interactional and normative elements of the social struture and culture of the college. Marsland's claim that such a theoretical basis facilitates the description and explanation of the construction, maintenance and transformation of identities in social systems implies that such analyses are not within the capabilities of the interactionist approach. Rather, it is suggested that interactionist theory, taking account of structural and cultural features of organisations, provides a fruitful method to investigate the complex process of teacher socialisation. Such an approach is elaborated in Chapter 3.

American Studies of Student Teachers

The major focus of American studies has been the measurement of supposed attitude change occuring in longitudinal samples undertaking a period of practical teaching or a particular course in the theory of education. The majority of studies have used the MTAI (Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory) constructed by Cook, Leeds and Callis (1951), as the measure of student-teacher attitudes. It is therefore necessary to critically examine this instrument as a prerequisite to understanding the research findings.

The MTAI was produced "after some ten years of investigation" (Campbell, 1967) by Cook, Leeds and Callis and purports to measure those attitudes of a teacher which predict how well he will get along with pupils in inter-personal relationships. The originators claim that it will distinguish between those teachers who are likely to establish a desirable classroom atmosphere from those who are less likely to do so. A "desirable atmosphere" for the authors of the test implies

> "the teacher and pupils should work together in a social atmosphere of cooperative endeavour, of intense interest in the work of the day, and with a feeling of security growing from a permissive atmosphere of freedom to think, act and speak one's mind with mutual respect for the feelings, rights, and abilities of others". (Cook, Leeds and Callis, 1951, p3.)

Further, group solidarity should characterise the class, resulting from common goals, common understandings, common efforts common difficulties and common achievements.

An "undesirable atmosphere" is where

> "the teacher tends to think in terms of his status, the correctness of the position he takes on classroom matters, and the subject matter to be covered rather than in terms of what the pupil needs, feels, knows and can do". (Cook, Leeds and Callis, 1951, p.3.)

Thus the teacher attempts to dominate the classroom, and a feeling of mutual distrust and hostility characterises the classroom, with both teacher and pupils disliking school work.

There is therefore an assumption that the teacher's attitudes determine the type of classroom atmosphere he will maintain and that a liberal attitude towards his pupils is likely to characterise a good teacher. The test therefore seeks to pinpoint teachers' attitudes to classroom relationships on a liberal-conservative continuum (Evans, 1966).

The inventory was constructed with items from five areas of socio-education literature to include the following areas. Examples are given of typical items taken from the Manual of the MTAI, Section V.

1. Moral status of children in the opinion of adults, especially as adults impose standards. (e.g. "children should be seen and not heard")

2. Discipline and problems in the classroom and elsewhere, together methods employed to deal with such problems. (e.g. "Pupils found writing notes should be severely punished")

3. Principles of child development and behaviour related to ability, achievement, learning, motivation and personality development. (e.g. "The boastful child is usually overconfident of his ability")

4. Principles of education related to philosophy, curriculum and administration. (e.g. "Pupils should be required to do more studying at home")

5. Personal reactions of the teacher to include likes and dislikes, sources of irritation etc. (e.g. "Without children life would be dull")

The conceptual distinctiveness of the five areas chosen is highly dubious, the relative weighting of each is open to more discussion than that allowed, and the scoring for some items is open to much debate as to what is desirable and democratic. However, the authors claim that the Inventory will predict teacher-pupil relationships reasonably well, and validations of scores with a composite criterion of pupil-teacher relationships have yielded correlations of .63 and .46. The lower figure is due to a very low correlation of principals' rating of teachers with MTAI scores. High reliability is claimed: split-half 0.88, test retest 0.84. Further, the authors suggest that the Inventory is not suscept-

ible to "faking" (Callis, 1950), a statement which has been disputed by researchers whose evidence is reviewed below.

The Inventory has been used in a few researches in Britain. Herbert and Turnbull (1963) claimed that it did distinguish between good and bad teachers and suggested that with restandardization and re-wording it might become a useful predictor of teaching ability, and thus possibly used for student teacher selection. However their statement is based on student teachers' final school practice marks and must there-fore be regarded with a good deal of suspicion (Tarpey, 1965; Allen, 1963; Robertson, 1957). The relation between marks on final practice and "good and bad teachers" is tenuous. Arvidson (1956) found the MTAI gave some indication of the efficiency of experienced teachers but his discussion of "efficiency" is extremely naive. Evans (1958) reported that it appeared to be of little use as a predictor of the success of students in a one-year post graduate teacher training course.

Evans (1966) has critically reviewed the MTAI noting that it lacks built-in safeguards to prevent meaningful scores when filled in haphaz-ardly, and that a stereotyped response set will similarly produce mean-ingful scores. She argues that the scoring of certain items is arbitrary and suggests that the Inventory in its present form does not seem to be a satisfactory instrument for use in selecting students. Nevertheless Evans notes that it does record higher scores for third year students than for first years and suggests that

> "the value of the MTAI is likely to be greatest in the field of
>   teacher training" (p.149)

She is concerned to point out however that the higher scores obtained by students as they progress through teacher training courses may be a reflection of holding, or expressing, opinions endorsed by many lecturers with liberal educational views.

An interesting research in this connection is that of Tiegland (1966) who compared 45 students with the greatest amount of positive attitude change on the MTAI with 45 students with the greatest amount of negative attitude change. The students with positive attitude change also scored significantly higher on a deference scale which measure their acceptance of a lecturer's influence. They also received higher course grades. Thus the MTAI might be measuring social desirability and deference attitudes. Oliver and Butcher (1962) referring to the "value" aspect of the Inventory, (the implication that "progressive" attitudes are the desirable ones on every issue) imply its susceptibility to faking. Stein and Hardy (1957), Sorenson (1956), Sheldon (1959) Coleman (1954), and Polmantier and Ferguson (1960) have all suggested that it is possible for the MTAI to be "faked good" if the subject is provided with instructions which define the qualities of a permissive teacher thus giving a particular response set. Certainly it would require only little acumen on the part of any student to detect the responses required to obtain a high score.

Eson (1956) found incremental gains on the MTAI supposedly relating to the completion of a course of educational psychology were comparable with the gains made by students who had to be instructed to "fake it good". Rabinowitz (1954) asserts that because of its high susceptibility to faking, the MTAI is not a good instrument for student teacher selection purposes. Rossi, Yengo and Boyd (1966) criticised the Inventory for its "fakeability", but feel that the MTAI may have a great deal more value for its expressed purpose than is indicated by Rabinowitz. Giebenk (1967) noted its failure to relate in any way to observed teacher behaviour.

One of the authors of the MTAI Scale has subsequently written to the effect that it has had "unwarranted use with student teachers", and that

> "Constructed on the basis of experienced teachers' responses to the items, the MTAI should be confined in its use to experienced teachers, if the present scoring key is employed" (Leeds 1969, p.51).

He maintains however, that the MTAI "as one measure of teacher acceptance of pupils and children" performs an important function in the prediction of teaching potential.

Despite these criticisms the MTAI has been extensively employed in the USA in the measurement of student teachers' and teachers' attitudes to education. The norms from the Manual show significant differences in scores, indicating increased liberality, between students at the start of their education course and those at the end of the course. There are significant differences in attitudes also between curriculum groups, with a consistent pattern in each year showing early childhood majors to be most liberal in outlook, followed by Elementary Education majors, then Secondary Education students (Academic), with Secondary Education students (non-academic) having the lowest scores of the student groups. All students at the end of their education course are shown to have higher scores than experienced Elementary School teachers.

Callis (1950) claims two major conclusions from his research with over 600 students at the University of Minnesota. First, that the attitudes measured by the Teacher Attitude Inventory are of sufficient stability to warrant further investigations as to their efficiency in predicting teacher-pupil relations and in the pre-training selection of teachers. Second, that there are significant differences (at the .001 level) in teacher-pupil attitudes among students classified by their major curriculum and that these differences are present in about the

same magnitude at the beginning of professional training as at the end
of it. Callis further notes that after six months fulltime teaching
attitudes to pupils, as measured by the Scale, are about the same as at
the start of the course of professional training.

Evidence for higher scores as the student proceeds through his
training course is adduced by Downie and Bell (1953) in a study of more
than 300 students at Washington State College. The same researchers
found some degree of consistency between the scores of sophomores on the
MTAI and the ratings of instructors. Such statements "has keen interest
and should get along well with children", and "will attract children"
accompanied a high score on the Inventory. Low scores were associated
with such comments as "doubtful how much appeal she will have to kids".
This could be interpreted as the MTAI distinguishing between good and
poor student teachers and may be considered in relation to Michaelis
(1954) who found that the mean score on the MTAI for a group of students
who were successful on practice teaching was significantly higher than
the mean score of a group of less successful student teachers. A small
study by Fuller (1951) should be noted which concludes that the Inventory
could not be used to differentiate between those students with the high-
est ratings on practice teaching from those with the lowest ratings.
Michaelis only reports his finding as significant at near .01 level
without more detail given. Further, he is pessimistic about the use of
the MTAI as a predictive instrument. His criteria for "success" is the
teaching practice mark which is itself a doubtful measure.

American research on student-teachers has mainly been concerned
with an attempt to measure the effect on attitudes to education of
either periods of practice teaching or relatively short courses in the
theory of education. This appears to have been the major preoccupation
of investigators. Long term studies of the impact of college on student

teachers are lacking or incorporated into larger studies of student

change (Feldman, 1969); where they exist the focus tends to be on demon-

strating the existence of differences between groups of students preparing

to teach different age-levels. or between different year groups. This

difference in emphasis from British studies shows an attempt in America to

measure attitude change against short term experiences, but, as will

become evident as the studies are considered, results are by no means clear-

cut, /little attempt to relate change to institutional characteristics,
there is

and a good deal of theoretical and methodological naivety is displayed.

The effect of practice teaching

The evidence here is somewhat conflicting, but it is possible to

detect a moderate amount of consensus to the effect that whatever else the

experience of student-teaching does, it appears NOT to foster an increase

in liberal-democratic attitudes towards children or classroom behaviour.

The majority of American researches point to the experience of student

teaching as influencing student attitudes in a negative direction. Day

(1959) found that the MTAI scores for 154 students on an eight week practice

were significantly lower immediately after the student teaching experience.

He interprets this finding:

> "students......exhibit unrealistic attitudes towards children and
> school work at the time of entering the internship phase of the
> teacher training program". (p.327)

Day also demonstrates a dramatic drop in MTAI scores among graduating

seniors after one year of teaching experience. He suggests that this is

attributable to the full-time teaching experience itself, as a comparable

group of graduating seniors who had not gone on to teach showed a much

smaller non-significant loss after one year. Day implies that teacher

training, and the teaching practice experience itself, gives an unrealistic

picture of the classroom situation found on taking up a full time

appointment.

Cambell (1967) studied nine physical education majors at the beginning and end of a semester of teaching practice. Although there was no significant change on the total MTAI scores he discovered that the dimension "Principles of Child Development and Behaviour" was found to record a significant change in attitude. This change shifted from agreement or "right" responses to disagreement or "wrong" responses. The small size of the sample and the special nature of the students necessitate viewing this study with extreme caution. Cambell suggests but does not prove, that students approach student-teaching with pre-established attitudes and convictions which are not necessarily balanced equally in each of the five MTAI dimensions of professional preparation. He reports McCullough (1961) and Cambell (1962) as finding significant shifts in MTAI scores in a negative direction during student teaching experience. Muuss (1969) also reports a significant decline in MTAI scores during a $4\frac{1}{2}$ month internship of graduate student teachers.

Dutton (1962) used the MTAI with 91 elementary school students at the University of California, Los Angeles at the beginning and end of a semester of student teaching. He found that significant changes (level not given) occured in a negative direction in attitude towards children. Of his sample, twenty-two percent of the scores showed a positive gain, but seventy-eight percent recorded negative losses. A control sample of 150 students following methods courses in College maintained their high positive scores over the semester. Dutton also administered two anxiety scales to obtain scores on manifest anxiety. The change in MTAI scores did not differentiate between anxious and non-anxious students.

Newsome, Gentry and Stephens (1965) adopted a different approach to measure attitude change during practice teaching. Arguing that a framework of thought characterised by contradictions seems to be the mark of an authoritarian, they administered the GNC Scale (Gowin, Newsome

and Chandler, 1961), designed to measure logical consistency of ideas about education, to 130 seniors before and after school practice. The students were consistent on the first and second administration of the scale, but statistically significant losses in scores occured in the total group (significant at the .01 level), and in three subgroups: secondary education majors, English majors (both changes significant at the .01 level) and social studies majors (significant at the .05 level). Elementary education majors and mathematics majors showed no significant change in consistency.

The implication of the study would appear to be that experience of student teaching, whilst not making student teachers logically inconsistent, nonetheless reduces the level of logical consistency on educational matters. The authors are unable to explain why the loss in scores of elementary majors was not significant, but they suggest that in secondary schools there is reason to suspect that ideas about education are more frequently and more seriously challenged, particularly in English and social studies. This interesting speculation is in no way tested and remains at the level of a hypothesis. This study of Newsome et al is open to criticism on the grounds of the weakness of its basic assumption. Contradiction of thought is not the preserve of the authoritarian; indeed, given basic premises it can be argued that there is more logical consistency characterising the authoritarian personalities than among those who see less certainty in the world. What matters are the premises themselves. It will be shown in Chapter 9 that student teachers are often characterised by holding apparently inconsistent views on education which they resolve according to appropriate frames of reference.

Walberg (1968) gave a modified form of the MTAI, a semantic differential scale, and a bipolar scale to 64 college senior women before and after a fourteen week practice in suburban elementary schools. He found

that the group scored significantly lower on the following items: neat,
pedagogical, identified, pupil centred, egalitarian; and significantly
higher on: expressive, narcissistic, puritanical, controlling. These
changes represent a decline in MTAI scores. Walberg gave similar instru-
ments to a group of 77 college junior women who were undertaking theory
courses together with a weekly "tutoring" role when they taught arithmetic
to one or two children in an inner city school. This group of "tutors"
scored significantly lower on: neat, stable, good, controlling, authorit-
arian; and higher on pupil-centred. Here the change represent a rise on
MTAI dimensions. The contrast is suggestive and gives support for a
hypotheses of personality-role conflict, in which the students experience
the need to establish rapport with children as against the role-demand as
a teacher to establish authority and discipline. Thus, the "tutors"
were enabled to reduce the amount of conflict experienced and could become
less controlling and authoritarian, and more pupil-centred; whereas the
teaching practice group declined in pupil-centredness and egalitarianism,
and became more controlling.

Walberg argues that even though the teaching group declined in
professional aspects of their self concept "they rose on personally ful-
filling aspects of self concept" (p.289). This contrasts with earlier
research (Rabinowitz and Rosenbaum, 1960) showing a sharp decline in self
concept and attitude among practice teachers in slum and lower class
schools in New York. Walberg argues that Rabinowitz' finding supports
the hypothesis that middle-class students trained for middle class pupils
have declining self concepts when they encounter the social realities of
poverty in the inner city schools. As Walberg's practice teaching group
were teaching in middle class suburban Boston schools their rise on person-
ally fulfilling aspects of self concept is not, perhaps, surprising.
Walberg's analysis of the self concept changes shows it is limited to a
fairly narrow range of components but his study is valuable for its strong

suggestion that practical teaching modifies pupil centred attitudes.

Horowitz (1968) used the concepts idiographic, nomothetic and trans-
actional, developed by Getzels (1963) to investigate attitude change during
student teaching. Getzels conceptualises social systems as made up of two
main components, institutions and individuals. Individuals have needs or
need-dispositions and institutions contain positions and corresponding
roles. The idiographic dimension refers to needs of the individuals and
to emphasis on personalities in behaviour. The nomothetic dimension refers
to the goals of the institution and to emphasis on role in behaviour. The
transactional dimension is more than a compromise between nomothetic and
idiographic:

> "the standard of behaviour is both individual integration and
> institutional adjustment" (Getzels and Thelen, 1960)

A Teacher Role Description Instrument (TRD) was prepared to measure role
expectations, consisting of five sets of twelve items. Each set of twelve
contained four nomothetic, four idiographic, and four transactional items..
Respondents were asked to select from each set the four items they considered
least appropriate to the teacher's role. High reliability is claimed;
.87, .83 and .92 for the nomothetic, transational and idiographic modes
respectively. Correlations with the MTAI were .39 for the nomothetic
dimension (significant at .01 level), and + .34 for the idiographic.
(significant at the .02 level).

The TRD instrument was administered to 274 students at four teaching
institutions in the USA and Canada, before and after teaching practice.
It was found that students became significantly more nomothetic in their
expectations after a period of student teaching (reported at the .0005
level). This change, coupled with the fact that they became less trans-
actional (change significant at .0005 level) suggests that students are
more concerned after student teaching than before with the expectations
of others for the role of the teacher. Students also perceived cooperating

teachers as being more idiographic and less transactional than they had perceived them to be prior to the student-teaching period. Horowitz also found significant differences on the nomothetic and transactional dimensions between students at four teacher training institutions he studied, but he does not explore the institutional factors which underly this finding. No further studies appear to have been undertaken using the TRD, but Horowitz' work is a significant attempt to investigate student attitude change on the basis of well developed theoretical structure.

Another study arising from a theoretical background is that of Hoy (1967). Pupil control ideology (PCI) was conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "custodialism" at one extreme to "humanism" at the other. (Willower, Eidell and Hoy, 1967). The "custodial" viewpoint is characterised by pessimism and watchful mistrust. A high level of control achieved by an autocratic organization with a rigid pupil control status hierarchy, is the central concern of the custodial school. A "humanistic" orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic atmosphere, self-discipline and learning through interaction and experience. Using a Pupil Control Ideology Form developed by Willower et al, 282 student teachers at Oklahoma State University were tested before and after an eight week practice to determine the extent to which they were custodial or humanistic in their pupil control ideology. Both elementary and secondary groups of students and the group as a whole were significantly more custodial after student teaching than before (differences significant at the .001 level). Hoy suggests this change represents socialization occuring in the area of pupil control, with student teachers moving towards the ideology of the professional group to which they aspire: professional teachers. These teachers represent significant others to the student teacher, and this process of anticipatory socialization may be functional to the prospective teacher, aiding him in a smooth, efficient transition from the student

to the teacher role. This study, like Horowitz', has rational appeal:
empirical work on the basis of theoretical conceptualization exploring a
particular dimension of teacher role. Again, however, caution is required,
for Hoy's report of the administration of the test (p.154), and his assump-
tion, without testing, that the PCI scores of the supervising teachers
were lower than the students, reduces the value of the research and makes
generalisation difficult. An attempt to obtain the PCI scores of coopera-
ting teachers, and to measure the student change relative to these, would
have improved the research. The debt to the sociology of organizations
(Etzioni, 1961; Gilbert and Levinson, 1957), is clear, but the fact that
the school is not a "total" organization, and that control ideology is
only part the framework of any institution's socializing processes, are
further qualifications to Hoy's study. Similarly, PCI represents only
one of the parameters defining the role of the teacher.

Jacobs (1968) also reports a negative change in student attitudes
during the experience of student teaching. The Valenti-Nelson survey of
teaching practices was administered to 457 students in five teacher educa-
tion institutions at the beginning and end of a semester of student teach-
ing. The instrument is designed to evaluate attitudes towards the social
role of the teacher and provides alternative methods of handling problems
that reflect four basic points of view along an inter-personal attitude
continuum ranging from rather rigid authoritarian attitudes to a liberal,
group orientated, democratic point of view. Significant changes were
found, moving away from the more liberal and democratic attitude towards
more rigid and formalized attitudes. Jacobs suggests that this change may
be due to "bureaucratic shock", when students, facing the demands of a
very apparent educational hierarchy after a period of relative non-
interference from bureaucratic control, suffer a reaction of displeasure
and disgust to petty regimentation and role in the school system.
Jacobs in no way tests this hypothesis which appear highly speculative.

This seems a clear case where interviews could check the validity of the interpretation.

There is however in Jacob's work a link with Wagenschein (1950) who found that young teachers are subjected to shock when they encounter the relatively hardened orientations of experienced teachers and administrators. In Britain Whiteside et al (1969) have used the concept of "reality shock" in a study of student teachers' preferences for teaching. The concept is borrowed from American research (Becker, 1952) and suggests that insofar as young teachers' ideals(of children, teaching, colleagues) do not match up with what is encountered in the real work situation, problems will occur requiring adjustment of attitudes. Thus school practice can be seen as a test of self concept and of expectations for others, where the reality falls short of the ideal. No significant relationships were found between change in attitude during the teaching practice experience and socio-economic level of the school, socio-economic level of the student, age of the student, number of placements during student teaching, or grades in the student-teaching semester. Jacobs does not report differences obtaining in attitude change between the five institutions studied and shows no interest in possible differential impacts of different colleges.

Further evidence of the effect of teaching practice upon students' attitudes is provided by Lipscomb (1966). He constructed a scale to measure student teachers' attitudes towards problem situations which focussed on children, the role of the teacher, and curriculum practices. High reliability (.80) and validity is claimed for the scale, but it must noted that Lipscomb's validation consisted of criticism by twelve of his colleagues of a preliminary draft of the scale. It was found in a sample of 44 students, that 41 showed significant attitude changes during a semester's teaching practice. The group as a whole recorded a change in

score significant at the .001 level, but as Lipscomb does not give the direction of change either in the case of the total group or individuals, the research is of doubtful value.

Changes in attitude during periods of practical teaching have been directly linked by some American researchers to the attitudes of supervising teachers i.e. those teachers who have direct responsibility in school for the student. Dutton (1962) found that students recorded negative changes in MTAI scores in the direction of their supervising teachers regardless of initial scores. Further, McAuley (1960) reported that student teachers seemed to be

> "....greatly influenced by their cooperating teachers in methods of teaching, techniques of classroom, housekeeping, and relationships with children" (p.82)

McAuley's finding was however based on personal observation of only three teachers and six students and is an impressionistic study. However, Corrigan and Griswold (1963) found that student teachers held certain principles of teaching to be important to the extent that their college supervisors, cooperating schools and cooperating teachers implemented them in practice.

Jacobs (1968), whose research is reported above, found only one significant relationship out of four possible response areas, between student teachers' perception of their cooperating teachers and their changes away from group-orientated democratic responses (significant at .05 level). The students' perception of the student teaching experience was significantly related with changes to more rigid, authoritarian attitudes. In view of the low correlations obtained, and the student-reporting aspect of Jacobs' research, rather than an attempt to more objectively assess the cooperating teachers' attitudes, caution is necessary in interpreting the data.

A different approach was taken by Johnson (1969) who investigated 80 student teachers and 80 supervising teachers to determine if change in student dogmatism during student teaching was a function of the degree of dogmatism of the supervising teacher. The instrument used was Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E (Rokeach, 1959) consisting of forty statements which measure individual differences in openess and closedness of belief systems. A significant change in dogmatism scores did occur, with 44 students gaining in dogmatism and 36 showing decreased scores. Fifty-three of the students moved in the direction of the supervising teacher on the variable from pretest to post-test and twenty seven in the opposite direction. This difference was significant at the .01 level. Johnson concludes

> "the results provide clear evidence that the change in the degree
> of open and closed-mindedness of the student teacher subjects
> may be a function of the dogmatism of their supervising teacher",

and calls for great care to be exercised when placing a student teacher with a supervising teacher.

Further evidence of the influence of the supervising teacher was reported by Price (1961). A group of forty-five student teachers were found to change their attitudes in the direction of those held by their supervising teachers. The change in their MTAI scores towards the scores of their supervising teachers was significant at the .05 level. Price also found that when an observation rating scale was used to measure classroom teaching performance, the correlation between supervising teachers' and student teachers' performances indicated that student teachers seem to acquire many of the teaching practices of their supervising teachers during the practice.

All research reported above has pointed to the influence of school practice being such as to cause negative changes in attitude on the part of students. However, a number of studies appear to suggest that where

the attitude of the supervising teacher is favourable, or where the student is given direct help by his college supervisor, together with feedback on performance, attitudes can be positively influenced or development of negative attitudes arrested.

Scott and Brinkley (1960) administered the MTAI to 77 students before and after a thirteen week school practice. They record no significant difference in scores for the total group. The MTAI scores of the supervising teachers involved were also obtained. It was found that the 47 students who taught in classrooms where the teachers' attitudes towards pupils were superior to their own improved significantly (at the .05 level) as a group in their attitudes towards pupils during student teaching. The group of students working with teachers whose attitude scores were lower than their own did not as a group change significantly in their attitudes.

Newsome (1965) reports Berryman (1963) finding that changes in attitude toward democratic teaching do occur during student teaching, with significant positive changes being associated with favourable placement situations except in the case of students of relatively low academic ability. Favourable placement relates to both the attitude of the cooperating teacher and to the general social and educational circumstances of the school and pupils.

Ishler (1967) found that a group of 34 students in an eleven week practice in elementary schools recorded a significant change toward learner-centred verbal behaviour over the period. Using Withall's Social-Emotional Climate Index(Withall, 1948) on weekly visits, Ishler categorised the statements made by each student-teacher into learner-centred and teacher-centred statements. Seventeen of the students formed an experimental group to whom he gave feed-back after each visit concerning their verbal behaviour and the type of classroom climate they created

as a result of it. Group feed-back sessions were also held with the experimental group. Although both the control group (the remaining seventeen students) and the experimental group experienced a change in verbal behaviour, becoming more learner centred (difference significant at .01 level), the change in the group receiving feed-back was much more significant (at the .01 level) than that of the control group. There was no significant difference between the verbal behaviour of student teachers of primary grades and student teachers of intermediate grades.

Hough (1969) and Furst (1967) also found that students given training in Flanders' interaction analysis (Amidon and Flanders, 1963), and practising this technique in simulated microclass conditions of teaching showed significant differences from control groups on subsequent practice teaching in that they were more pupil-centred in their verbal behaviour.

The techniques of the last three reported studies afford a useful measure of the observed behaviour of student teachers in the classroom. What is lacking is any self-reporting on attitudes by the students. Thus, it cannot necessarily be inferred that attitudes to education did not deteriorate over the period of school practice. It is clear however, that direct intervention by the supervisors can influence students towards more learner-centred behaviour on school practice. Ishler's results could perhaps be viewed as an illustration of the Hawthorne effect (Homans, 1948), as the behaviour of his students who were observed but received no feed back or explanations also changed towards being more pupil-centred.

Finally, four studies provide some evidence that teaching practice does not necessarily result in less favourable attitudes. In each case however no details are given of the characteristics of school placing or college support.

Sandgren and Schmidt (1956) administered the MTAI to 393 Seniors before and after teaching practice and found that attitudes improved during the experience. Elementary and Secondary students' changes were significant at the .01 level. Women students consistently recorded higher scores than men, and those students following the Elementary education curriculum were demonstrated to have more favourable attitudes than other students preparing to teach secondary pupils. There was no relation between MTAI scores and supervisory teachers' ratings of the students' teaching ability; thus Sandgren and Schmidt conclude that MTAI scores cannot be used to predict probable success in teaching.

Oelke (1956) investigated 44 senior year student-teachers' attitudes before and after a six week's teaching practice. He used the MTAI and a modification of the Alexander Thematic Apperception Test for Teachers (showing eight pictures involving children) as a measure of attitude towards children. No change was found in the total scores on the MTAI, but the TAT showed changes in two out of 11 areas: Empathy (significant, at the .05 level), Optimistic (significant at the .01 level). A comparison of scores on the TAT with a pre-teaching group showed the teaching group to be more accepting of children's behaviour and more optimistic. Students rated as best on teaching expressed greater acceptance of children's behaviour after student teaching, whilst those rated as poorest tended to become less acceptant of children's behaviour. However, the subjective nature of this research implies its findings should be treated with caution. Oelke himself says,

> "no generalizations of the behaviours of other groups nor extension of these responses to infer performance with children should be made without further specific validation"

Corrigan and Griswold (1963) used an 80 statement inventory to measure the expressed attitudes of student teachers towards three principles of education held to be important in guiding learning opportunities.

(The principles were 1) The learner's purposes are recognised and utilised, 2) The learner engages in problem solving, and 3) The learner is helped to develop generalizations which he can apply in a variety of life situations). The inventory was applied to 63 students prior to and on completion of a semester of practice teaching. The results showed a significant change (level not given) toward agreement with the principles. The direction and amount of changes were shown to be related to whether or not the students perceived their practice as a period in which they had the opportunity to formulate, participate in, and/or observe the implementation of the principles. Students teaching younger children showed high positive change against less positive change for those teaching older pupils.

Brim (1966) also using the MTAI found that 37 student teachers showed a change towards more liberal attitudes to children's behaviour during practice teaching. It should be noted however that this "improvement" in attitude was slighter than that recorded for any of the other parts of the students' course: theory and observation work.

Thus, the evidence relating to periods of practical teaching appears to suggest strongly that students' attitudes to education are likely to be changed by the experience. The change will generally be in the direction of lower scores on such instruments as the MTAI. This hypothesis is specifically tested in this investigation.

The effect of theory courses

There seems little doubt from the evidence that theory courses in education have the effect of significantly changing student teachers' expressed attitudes towards a more liberal view of the role of the teacher. Of the studies below, only the first two reviewed record no movement towards more child-centred attitudes.

Ofschus and Gnagey (1963) found that 71 students enrolled in a semester's course of child growth and development showed no tendency to change their MTAI scores in the direction of their high-scoring tutor. They suggest that influences in other courses taken concurrently with child development possibly counteracted a move to more liberal attitudes; but this hypothesis is not explored. High scores were associated with long term commitment to teaching. Dutton (1962) found that a group of 150 students undertaking a pre-teaching semester of methods courses recorded no measurable change in MTAI scores, but did maintain their high, positive scores. These two findings of no change are significant exceptions to the clear trend revealed in the studies which follow. Callis (1950) records a significant increase in MTAI scores towards more desirable teacher-pupil attitudes. His sample were 175 Juniors retested after six months of general courses in education at the University of Missouri, these courses being the subjects' first experience with professional course work. He records that after six months of full time teaching students' attitudes as measured by the MTAI are about the same as when they commenced professional training. However, this research would appear to point toward the importance of the early stages of the course in determining the conception of the role of the teacher established during training.

Using a modification of the Alexander Thematic Apperception (Ohlsen and Schultz, 1955) which gives a total quantitive score using expressed acceptance and rejection of children's behaviour in response to eight pictures involving children, Oelke (1956) found a significant change in the direction of greater expressed acceptance of dependency on adults, and non-achievement as normal behaviour of children. This change was obtained with a pre-teaching group of 50 junior year students following a theoretical course over seven weeks which emphasised the roles of the teacher and the student and which was designed to develop greater under-

standing of the difficulties of the child. The finding accords with the general trend of research, but the subjective nature of the instrument advises caution in considering the result.

Eson (1956) records significantly higher MTAI scores by 75 sophomores at the end of a first professional course in education, General Psychology. It is necessary to be sceptical of the view that these incremental gains represent a shift in attitudes towards a more liberal position, for Eson points out that the gains are comparable with gains made by students who had been encouraged to "fake good" on a second administration. Further, there was a low correlation between final MTAI scores and scores on a final contents test of the course. Eson suggests the students had merely become "test wise", learning to recognise the "right" responses during the course. Charters (1963, p.751) interprets Eson's findings as role learning rather than attitude change: learning to associate the appropriate feeling tone with the occupational jargon.

Rogers and Smith (1956) gave the MTAI to 64 graduates of liberal art colleges enrolled in a six week summer session of an emergency programme set up by New York State to produce elementary school teachers. The students on this Intensive Teacher Training Programme (ITTP) were tested at the start and end of the course. An increase in score (significant at the .001 level) was recorded, and the authors comment that from "casual" observation of "previous" groups, and from "the reports of many principals and supervisors", it would seem that graduates having completed the course are, "as a whole", performing as the test scores would indicate. The speculative nature of this validation leaves the interpretation of the change open to question.

Costin and Kerr (1966) found that eighty graduate women education students became significantly less authoritarian (at the .05 level) after

the completion of a theory course on mental hygiene. The "Opinions about
Mental Illness Scale" administered at the start and end of the course also
revealed that the female group and seventy men education graduates also
made significantly greater increases in the opinion that unhealthy inter-
personal relationships early in life contribute to mental illness (change
significant at the .01 level). The researchers enter a caveat to their
findings which can well stand for all the reported researches based on
self-report inventories:

> "As in any study of this kind, the changes obtained were verbal
> attitudes and opinions as elicited by a self report scale. There-
> fore, these changes may simply reflect what the students thought
> they "should" feel and believe as the result of encountering
> correct information about mental illness. Whether these students
> would translate their verbalised changes into action........cannot
> of course be answered by the data of this investigation. However,
> verbalised attitudes are not necessarily less important than
> action attitudes, for what students and educators are willing to
> endorse on an attitude opinion scale may at least be a first step
> towards their endorsing and expressing such attitudes and opinions
> more publicly and spontaneously". (Costin and Kerr, 1966, p.40).

In a study of 250 students at the University of Denver Brim (1966)
used the MTAI to evaluate attitude change, over a ten week period, of
concurrent groups following different courses. He found that all groups
recorded higher (more liberal) scores with each level of progression
through the undergraduate teaching programme (the overall change was
significant at the .01 level), and pointed to the earlier phases of the
education course as producing the greatest degree of attitude change.
Students who were involved in observing and assisting in classrooms
(but not student teaching), and concurrently following a theory course,
Introduction to Educational Psychology, showed the largest change of the
five groups investigated. More than 80 per cent of students who were
interviewed who had had "laboratory" experience (observing and assisting
in classroom), said that their attitudes were altered by direct interac-

tion with children.

Further evidence of the effect of coupling theory courses with contact with children in a non teaching situation is provided by Ward and Bailey (1966). An introductory course in guidance and counselling for 42 junior year students was augmented with work with youth groups. Significantly higher MTAI mean scores were recorded at the end of the course indicating more liberal educational attitudes than at the start of the course. Ten students, not working with youth groups but following a library reference assignment focussed on guidance principles, showed increased scores, but at a much lower level than the group having contact with youth.

Walberg (1968) similarly reports that theory courses accompanied by weekly "tutoring" with one or two children appeared to improve students' attitudes. Students undertaking this work showed, after fourteen weeks, significantly higher pupil centred scores and became less controlling and authoritarian. This was in contrast to opposite movements of scores for students engaged in teaching practice. Walberg attributes this positive change to the intimacy of the tutoring situation, and the greater opportunity for individual attention. He does not mention that some part of it may be due to the theory courses taken concurrently.

Jacobs (1968) found that 550 students enrolled in a semester of initial professional education courses at five educational institutions showed significant changes, moving away from more rigid and formalised attitudes towards more liberal and democratic conceptions of the social role of the teacher (changes significant at .01 level). This change was in contrast to students undertaking practice teaching as reported above. There was no relation between attitude changes and students' perceptions of their college instructor, or socioeconomic level. Significant relationships were however present between attitude change and age; and attitude change and cumulative grade-point average (significant at the .05 level). Higher grades were associated with changes to more rigid authoritarian points of view, and also with lower changes to responses that were

more liberal. Jacobs does not comment on this perhaps somewhat surprising finding. A weakness of Jacobs' study is that the instrument used is concerned only with one facet of the teacher's role, the social. It neglects the instrumental aspect of teaching.

Muuss (1969) found that MTAI scores increased significantly, becoming more tolerant and more child-centred, during the academic part of a graduate programme in elementary education. Muuss attributes the attitudinal gain mainly to the effect of the educational course, but also suggests - without producing any empirical evidence - that peer group reinforcement may have contributed to the change. This suggestion arises from "the strong in-group feeling and sharing of ideas after class" noted by Muuss.

The American studies reviewed above show the research concentration upon the effect of short term experiences, either practical teaching or courses in theory. In studies less specifically focussed, several investigations have demonstrated the existence of significant attitudinal differences existing between groups of students preparing to teach different age levels. The manual of the MTAI (Cook, Leeds and Callis, 1951) show decreasing scores for early childhood majors, elementary majors, secondary academic majors; secondary non-academic. Davis and Yamomoto (1968) show a similar trend for early childhood, elementary and secondary majors.

The comparison of year-group attitudes appear to show differing attitudes to education and the teacher's role with increasingly liberal and democratic attitudes characterising the students as they progress through college. This trend would appear to be in accord with Newcomb (1943) in his seminal study of a women's liberal arts college, Bennington. Using longitudinal and concurrent samples of over 600 students he showed a pattern of attitudes of declining conservatism from freshman to senior

years. Newcomb's study was not in a teacher-training institution, further, the sample was a highly selective one, affluent, middle class and, in his own words, "somewhat oversheltered". The college itself was atypical;

> "To a very unusual degree the community was integrated self-contained, and self-conscious."

However, studies of other college and university student groups confirm the major trend of Newcomb's study (Chickering, 1969), and a major review of research conducted before and since the war into the effects of higher education on students comments:

> "....it seems safe to conclude that today's students, like those of the thirties and forties, become more "liberal" in the sense of being more sophisticated and independent in their thinking, and placing greater value upon individual freedom and well-being" (Webster, Freedman and Heist, 1962, p.28)

This conclusion is supported in the more recent reviews of higher education (Feldman 1969, Oxtoby 1972).

However, two cautionary notes should be sounded. First, it may be that the changes are merely developmental, Sanford (1962) argues that it is by no means clear that observed changes in attitude are due to educational activities deliberately undertaken in institutions of higher education. Second, Newcomb (1970) has pointed out that changes, while widespread are neither universal nor radical: a number of students appear to be little or not at all affected by the experience of college.

Nonetheless, studies of teacher training institutions have yielded similar trends in relation to students' attitudes to education. The MTAI manual gives norms showing seniors of all curriculum groupings scoring more highly than similar groupings of juniors. Further, University freshman are shown as having lower scores than education juniors or seniors. Downie and Bell (1953) have reported significantly higher MTAI scores for sophomores than for freshman at Washington

State College; and Brim (1966) in a concurrent study of year groups at
the University of Denver reports higher MTAI scores at each level of
progression through the undergraduate education programme. However a
comparison with the scores reported in the MTAI manual show the
Washington sophomores scoring higher than the beginning education juniors
at the University of Minnesota. This indicates not only the difficulties
inherent in comparing concurrent samples in different institutions, but
also the need for longitudinal studies related to institutional character-
istics.

A study which attempts to provide evidence on how characteristics
of different teacher training institutions do affect students' attitudes
is that of Rabinowitz and Travers (1955). Two colleges were studied.
In Institution A the emphasis in the teacher training programme was on
intellectual development in a rather broad liberal arts tradition, rather
than on professional skills. Students did not typically visit schools
except for teaching practice, and the staff felt some scepticism about
the value of classroom observation before the student had acquired the
intellectual maturity which might enable him to evaluate what he observed.
In Institution B professional training was given primary emphasis, and
the staff were particularly concerned to ensure that students should have
the personality characteristics that permit suitable teacher behaviour.
Students were given the opportunity to acquire suitable teacher behaviour
patterns through observing teachers who were considered to be models.
While competency in subject matter was expected of the student, he was
told by the staff that he was being trained primarily as a teacher.

Projective techniques were used to assess changes in attitudes.
Students were instructed to draw a picture of a teacher with a class.
The drawing test was designed to compare students in the two institutions
at different stages of training. When the drawings were scored to measure
the extent to which they showed activity outside of the control of the
teacher and activity showing partial or total pupil control, significant

year and institutional differences emerged. Institution A students showed no change over the two year period to graduation on this dimension. In Institution B students showed a significant change in the direction of a decreased amount of teacher control.

The drawings were then rated to obtain a score indicating the degree to which they displayed tension in pupil teacher relationships. At the start of teacher training, students were found to be similar in both institutions, but whilst those in Institution A remained unchanged at the end of the course, those in Institution B showed a sharp decline in tension. When the drawings were further rated to check the number in each group which showed pupils and teachers participating together in some activity, the percentage so classified in Institution B showed a significant rise over the period of teacher training while the percentage for Institution A did not. The results point to the conclusion that change occured in that institution which made a deliberate effort to change the students' concepts of what should go in a classroom. Although the methodology is open to criticism, and concurrent samples were used, the nature of the results shows the importance of taking into account significant institutional factors.

Rabinowitz' technique was used to compare year groups of students by Palmer (1954). She found that seniors training for kindergarten teaching drew classrooms that were for the most part very informal with a picture of themselves as participating with children in a variety of activities. In contrast the freshman group showed many more drawings of formal arrangement of furniture and with the teacher standing in front of the room "teaching". Cohen (1968) interprets this finding as showing that fourth-year students give greater support to informal, integrative teacher-pupil activities than first year groups who believed that teachers

should engage in more formal relationships with young children. In view
of the projective nature of the study and lack of validating evidence,
"support" and "believed" should be viewed with caution.

The research reviewed in this chapter tends to confirm the view
that comparatively little is known about either the extent or causes of
attitude changes towards educational issues occurring among student
teachers during their courses of training. Researchers have been largely
pre-occupied with establishing scores on particular instruments by
students at different stages of their courses. The nature of the instru-
ments used has tended to focus attention upon the pupil-teacher relation-
ships dimension of the teacher's role, American research using the MTAI
displaying this characteristic to a marked degree. There has therefore
been a neglect of other areas of the teacher's role, particularly those
centering around curricular, organizational and methodological issues.
The effects of interaction between home and school, subject and subject,
and instrumental and expressive functions of the role as affecting student-
teachers' conceptions of the role are similarly not clear from a study
of the research already done. Little attempt has been made, in the total
context of training courses to evaluate the most significant experiences
in this process of role socialization. What little evidence there is
tends to point towards the early stages of the course as highly
significant.

There is also a lack of evidence relating to the influence of the
student's peer group upon the formations of his conceptions of the
teacher's role. In view of its importance (Sanford, 1962; Newcomb
and Wilson, 1966), this is an area which clearly needs investigation.
Similarly, although a number of studies exist relating to the conception
of the teacher's role held by teacher-educators (Finlayson and Cohen,
1967; Robertson, 1957), this again represents an important area about

which little is known. Studies are needed to reveal the differences existing between tutors, students, teachers and other members of the role-set, and within the tutor group itself. It is likely that the role conceptions of the teacher held by groups of college staff could be widely different in important respects.

A major weakness of every study, with the exception of Shipman's research, is the lack of reference to the institutional framework within which the student receives his training. It is suggested that unless regard is paid to the particular experiences and groupings which the student encounters, the significance and possible causes of attitude change are very difficult to identify and evaluate. Riesman (1958) argues that the researcher is methodologically at risk when he fails to identify the influence of specific groupings (of staff and students) at certain parts of the college course.

Validation against observed behaviour of any instrument designed to measure attitude changes towards aspects of the role of the teacher is a most difficult process and has been avoided by researchers. The typical comparison made is against practical teaching assessments particularly in an attempt to obtain factors predictive of good teachers, but the evidence on the correlation of attitude scores and teaching marks tends to show few relationships. An attempt is needed in future investigations to use criteria other than the practical teaching grade.

Several researchers have commented upon the interpretation of changes in scores recorded on questionnaires: the trend of increasing liberality toward children and education. There is evidence that this trend is reversed by the experience of full time teaching. American research also shows that a similar reversal may take place during periods of practical teaching during training. Whether the trend represents a real change of attitude has been questioned by a number of researchers

who suggest that it is in the nature of a veneer, or a college-specific response. However, substantial evidence on student groups other than teacher-trainees, suggest that the majority of all students experience an increase in liberal attitudes during their higher education, and that these attitudes persist after college (Jacob, 1957; Sanford, 1962; Feldman 1969). Further, it has been shown that although reversals are recorded after full time teaching, there is evidence that some scores are still significantly higher than on entry to training. Clearly more detailed enquiries into what inventory scores do in fact mean is needed.

Finally, a common weakness of the studies, commented upon earlier, is the general lack of an adequate theoretical basis upon which to conduct the investigations. British studies based on the Manchester Scales are grounded upon research on social attitudes, and sample a wider area of attitudes relating to the teacher's role than those American studies using the MTAI. However, even using these scales the approach has been more concerned with the recording of individual and group attitude change rather than attempting to test hypotheses and make interpretations based upon theoretical considerations arising from sociological literature.

It is in the light of these criticisms of previous research that this present investigation has been conducted. The next chapter considers certain literature relating to professional socialisation and outlines a framework for the study of the professional socialisation process of student teachers. It shows that a more sophisticated approach than hitherto adopted is necessary in future investigations.

Chapter 3

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF THE PROFESSIONAL SOCIALISATION OF STUDENT-TEACHERS

Following from the review of literature in Chapter 2, this chapter presents an approach to the study of professional socialisation together with the theoretical basis for this investigation. A tentative model for teacher socialisation upon which this research was based is put forward, together with a description of the method for investigation of the process. The adequacy of the model, in the light of the findings of the research, is examined in Chapter 10.

Merton (1957) defines socialisation as the learning of social roles: it is:

> "The process by which people selectively acquire the values and attitudes, the interests, skills and knowledge - in short, the culture - current in the groups to which they are, or seek to become, a member" (p.287).

There is a large literature on socialisation (Goslin, 1969), but within it one can discern two strands of concern. First, that definitions of the process can give differential emphasis to the individual as the target or recipient of the process, or to the social context as the agency of socialisation. Second, socialisation can be characterised as an unconscious and unintended consequence of human interaction, or it can be seen to be explicit and intentional. It is suggested that much adult socialisation is of a relatively intentional nature (Brim and Wheeler, 1966) and that teacher socialisation in colleges of education is an example of this intentionality. However, it is certain that the socialisation outputs of colleges are a balance of intended and unintended outcomes, and is the result of interaction between the individual student and his social experiences.

The acquisition of the culture of the teaching profession - its values, beliefs, assumptions about what are and are not appropriate

ways of behaving (and there is evidence that it is no easy process
to describe accurately these "common" values and beliefs, as they are
subject to disagreement within the profession: Biddle, 1966; Musgrove
and Taylor, 1965) - occurs in two distinct contexts during teacher
training. These are the college-based experiences of the three
year course, and the school based experiences of teaching practice.
This study demonstrates that consideration of both social contexts
are of vital importance in considering the process of professional
socialisation. Hitherto, as noted in Chapter 2, attention has
concentrated on simple measures of attitude change on educational
issues, without reference to the training course; and, in Britain,
with no discussion of the differential effects of school practice
periods as against the experience of the rest of the college course.
It is argued that both socialisation settings are of crucial
importance in discussing the effects of the three-year course and any
enquiry into professional socialisation must take account of both.

The majority of empirical and theoretical work has been on child
socialisation (as, for example, Brofenbrenner, 1958), but a growing
literature is evidence of the increased interest in adult socialisation
(Brim and Wheeler, 1966). Studies of learning the roles of soldier
(Stouffer, 1949; Lovell, 1964), doctor (Becker, 1961; Merton, 1957),
Coast Guards (Dornsbuch, 1954), nurse (Simpson, 1967) or even
prostitute (Bryan, 1965), illustrate the complexity and variety of
adult socialisation. Here, not only have new values to be learned,
but there is also the possibility of the need for unlearning old
norms and values, together with the possibility of playing conflicting
roles or holding conflicting values. The army recruit, for instance,
in learning the role of soldier has to "unlearn" many of the norms
characterising civilians: he must give up autonomy he might previously

have enjoyed in the areas of dress, appearance (notably hair!) and
expression. If he has previously accepted the value of egalitarian
social interaction, he must now learn to accept the army norms
defining subordinate - superordinate interaction as normal, appropriate
and legitimate.

Similarly, it is suggested, the adult learning of such roles as
wife, husband, parent, rehabilitated criminal, or even doctor, lawyer,
prison-officer, or teacher, implies certain differences which are
not always encountered in the socialisation of children. Not only
may existing roles have to be unlearned by the adults, but also there
can be a degree of voluntariness about adult socialisation which is
not usually present in childhood socialisation experiences. Much
childhood socialisation is of a routine and relatively involuntary
character (certainly the infant has no choice in the matter of his
parents or their values) whereas the adult typically initiates the
acts that lead to socialising experiences. He is relatively more
free - compared to the child - to end or escape from those socialisation
experiences he finds intolerable or distasteful. The completely
dissatisfied student-teacher can leave his college to look for a new
profession; the child is much less free to leave his family or school
to find a different social context for his socialisation experiences.
Moreover, the child, because of his position of greater dependence
takes for granted the "normality" of his parents wishes and demands -
even if he finds them uncongenial. The adult, particularly when
undergoing higher education is more able to question such taken for
granted assumptions.

However, it is likely that entering student-teachers will already
have a predisposition to accept many of the values which a college
of education celebrates. Students, making their occupational choice

(Chapter 9) will be guided by their own cognitions concerning themselves: their assessment of their self concept in relation to what they see as a job concept. It is argued that because the entering students' cognitions, wants and interpersonal response traits (Rosenberg, 1957) have been factors in their selection of teaching as a career, the transition to college and the experience of college values will be far less dramatic and will involve probably less traumatic demands for value change than those facing, for example, the conscript soldier. Further, the relation between individual personality, institutional expectations and role behaviour will be complex and reciprocal. Krech (1962) argues that there is likely to be mutual shaping of both the personality of the individual and his occupational role behaviour. The college contribution to the professional socialisation of teachers can therefore be seen as a function of the personality of the student, her expectations, and role expectations of tutors, and the interaction arising from the courses and groupings of college. The power which the college possesses, and the sanctions which the student believes it can enforce to ensure conformity, together with her own initial dispositions which will accord a fairly high degree of legitimacy to college demands, will, it is predicted, ensure a movement towards college values. This, during the student's time in college at least, will generally ensure conformity to college expectations.

Adult socialisation occurs within an organisational context, much of childhood socialisation within the context of the home. It should be noted that the adult's (often) voluntary submission to the socialisation procedures he undergoes in the organisation has about it something of the nature of a contract or bargain. He anticipates receiving something in exchange from the organisation. In the case of the college of education student it is initial certification as a

teacher and acquisition of the competences he feels this certification implies. Thus, he will accept the role definitions of the organisation in order to qualify as a teacher. His acceptance may be in the nature of moral commitment or calculative commitment (Etzioni, 1964), but whatever the nature of his compliance to the organisation, he generally plays the game according to the rules. In teacher education these "rules" allow for a good deal of flexibility in behaviour. In sociological terms the neophyte submits to the socialisation of the institution in return for education, training and certification.

It may therefore be argued that the "terms of exchange" between the student and the college are unequal, in that the college, through its staff, holds a powerful weapon in the ability to withhold certification from any candidate not considered "suitable". This power is, of course, subject to external moderating institutions. It is argued however that as such bodies are of approximately the same character as the college, they are unlikely to question seriously college judgments of students. Although strong disagreement can take place on the competence of individual students on school practice, consensus is a feature of most examiners' meetings. Similarly, in academic work, interaction of staff engaged in teaching and examining usually ensures agreement.

Such pressure, together with the element of voluntariness, make it very likely that the student will accept the norms of college as his own in order to obtain the short-term goal of certification. This acceptance may be at the level of "impression management" (Shipman, 1966), a superficial veneer which will be shed when the students' goals are achieved; but it does make it likely that during the period of college, the dominant institutional values will receive public assent. Although there has been increasingly serious questioning by students in higher

education over the past ten years, it is maintained that in initial
teacher training such questioning rarely becomes substantive. A
hard index of this is the relative quiet of colleges of education
during the 1960s; the frustrations and dissatisfactions of student
teachers with their courses rarely issued in action. Certainly
in the college studied there was at no time a serious challenge of
college values or authority.

Wheeler (1966) points out that when a person moves into a new
interpersonal setting he faces the major problem of understanding the
new situation and coming to terms with its demands. To develop a
workable "definition of the situation" much of his orientation can
be expected to come from what he learns about the setting itself.
Wheeler suggests that the development of a meaningful definition can
be aided by the extent to which others in the situation are also
in his position. Thus, if he faces the new situation alone (individual
status) it can be argued that his adaptation is likely to proceed
differently from where he enters in the company of others (collective
status). Becker (1964) has shown for example that much adult
socialisation is organised so that a large number of persons are
introduced to the new situation simultaneously: the group or class
is the target of socialisation. This will facilitate the development
of group or collective responses to the socialisation process and not
only provides support for resistance to the socialisers but, more
positively, means that recruits have much opportunity to learn from
each other. Sykes (1958) demonstrates the reality of this collective
response and mutual support for resistance in a study of prison
inmates. More recently, and of direct relevance to education,
Hargreaves (1967) shows that collective responses appear to be
generated by formal organisation groupings, and that these groups can

successfully resist the socialising efforts of teachers.

A second aspect of socialisation settings identified by
Wheeler is whether the recruit has been preceded by others who have
been through the same process and who are available to help him in
learning the setting. Where such others are present, it may be
described as a serial pattern of socialisation. This may be
distinguished from a disjunctive pattern of socialisation where
recruits are not following in the footsteps of predecessors. Thus,
a first child enters the family alone and throughout his period of
dependence has no older sibling to take as a guide to behaviour.
This could partially account for the research findings which suggest
only or oldest children tend to be more affected by the socialisation
experience of the family than younger. On the other hand, children
typically enter a school in a group and have the example of groups
of older children available to them.

Using the two aspects, Wheeler generates the following typology
of interpersonal socialisation settings:

<u>A Typology of Interpersonal Settings</u>
<u>(after Wheeler, 1966)</u>

		Social Context of Entering Members	
		Individual	Collective
Social Composition of other members	Disjunctive	<u>Type I</u> e.g. Oldest Child in family; first occupant of newly created job	<u>Type II</u> e.g. Summer Schools; Vacation Courses for teachers; group of visiting teachers in foreign country
	Serial	<u>Type III</u> e.g. New occupant of job previously occupied by another person	<u>Type IV</u> e.g. Schools; Universities; Colleges of Education

There is a certain arbitrariness in Wheeler's classifications, for example, in Type I there may be similar jobs in other institutions. Similarly, the number of recruits entering simultaneously may be more important than the simple dichotomy of individual versus collective entry. Nevertheless the typology is of value in locating the socialising setting for student-teachers and pointing to some possible consequences of collective entry and serial composition of other members. In the college studied not only are the students able to interact with others who have preceded them (the second and third years) to learn appropriate behaviours, but also the staff themselves, the socialising agents (not of course the sole agents), are similarly characterised by "seriality". As is shown in Chapter 5, the college staff tend to stay for long periods, thus ensuring stability in the norms and values and practices to which the students are exposed. Type IV socialisation settings will be more stable than disjunctive patterns because norms and values have been established by previous (and existing) groups. It is argued that this socialisation setting will elicit collective responses to the experiences undergone and these responses will represent the character of the socialisation process from the student viewpoint. Becker's work with medical students is a good example of this identification of the group nature of student responses.

Becker (1961) argues that the medical students he studied, subjected to a long period of socialisation, developed sets of perspectives as their course progressed. Group perspectives (following Mead, 1938) are co-ordinated views and plans of action people follow in problematic situations. These perspectives develop as a result of the socialising experience itself, the group nature of the socializees, and their personal attributes. For the medical students,

academic activity was required of them in the form of numerous
conflicting and often apparently illdefined requests from teaching
staff. Becker argues that over the period of the course they
collectively held three perspectives which enabled them to cope with
the academic demands of the staff: the initial perspective; the
provisional perspective and the final perspective.

The initial perspective was developed in the first few weeks of
the course and may be summarised as follows:

The Initial Perspective

1. We want to learn everything, as we will need it when we become
    physicians.
2. There is a tremendous amount to learn.
3. We have to work very hard - that is, many hours.
4. If our present hours of work are not enough for us to get
    everything, we'll do whatever we can to increase them -
    but how? (Becker, 1961, p.94)

In the face of the impossibility of the learning task however, the
students give up their initial perspective and develop what Becker
calls the provisional perspective:

The Provisional Perspective

1. In spite of all our efforts, we cannot learn everything in the
    time available.
2. We will work just as hard as ever, but now we will study in only
    the most effective and economical ways, and learn only the things
    that are important.
3. Some students said: We will decide whether something is important
    according to whether it is important in medical practice.
    Other students said: We will decide whether something is important
    according to whether it is what the faculty wants us to know.
    (Becker, 1961, p.111)

From the increased interaction in the sample studied in their
freshman year, Becker argues that the freshmen are capable of
resolving their disagreement about what criterion to use in deciding
what to study. The cohesive, highly structured and socially homogenous
nature of the leading student groups leads Becker to suggest that
the students as a whole will adopt a "fraternity solution" to the

problem of overload of academic work which he designates the final
perspective of "giving the faculty what it wants".

The Final Perspective

1. We select the important things to study by finding out what the
   faculty wants us to know. This is the way to pass examinations
   and get through school.
2. **We continue to study hard** and in the most economical and
   efficient ways.
3. We try to find out, in every way we can short of cheating, what
   questions will be on the examinations and how they should be
   answered and share this information with other members of the
   class. (Becker, 1961, p.163)

In developing the final perspective, Becker argues that students
found not only a solution to the overload problem that reduced strain
and tension for the rest of the year, but also a co-operative way
of behaving that drew the class together in the effort to predict
and fulfil tutorial demands. The level of student effort remained
high. Most students felt that in directing their effort toward
learning what the staff wanted they were also learning medicine, but
they were not without resentment and a feeling that they had somehow
been forced to give up the ideal of learning for themselves in order
to pass the examinations. Becker makes the point that the combination
of teaching and examining function is a common feature of many
institutions of higher education and that therefore this academic
perspective or some variant of it will be a ubiquitous feature of
educational institutions.

Several major criticisms of Becker's work must be noted. There
is a lack of attention to sub-groups among the medical student
population he investigated. He fails to identify groups other than
the leading sets, and whilst his work carries conviction the
assumption of homogeneity for all students weakens his study. Further,
his study is largely confined to the first year only of the course
and there is neglect of the impact of the remainder of the course.
He is also concerned largely with a student/work perspective, i.e.

the attitude of the student towards academic work. Whilst he does help to clarify issues of identification and commitment, he does not approach them directly, and he omits a detailed study of role expectations as a doctor. His use of the notion of perspectives also requires examination.

The concept of perspective is open to criticism on the grounds of its generality. It represents a collection of perceptions and attitudes which are claimed to characterise an individual's total view of his world or of a particular sector of that world in which he is involved. Thus, there can be some lack of precision in the use of the concept unless care is used to define the situation in which the perspective is applicable, and is in fact applied. Shibutani (1955) has provided an alternative definition to Mead's:

> "A perspective is an ordered view of one's world - what is **taken for granted about the attributes of various objects,** events, and human nature. It is an order of things **remembered and expected as well as things actually perceived,** an organised conception of what is plausible and what is **possible; it constitutes the matrix through which one** perceives the environment". (p.564)

A further criticism is that writers who use the concept have failed to acknowledge the value-loading it possesses. The discussion of both Mead and Shibutani omits acknowledgement that perspectives define the desirable and undesirable for the individual. Mead does not sufficiently stress that "co-ordinated views and plans of action" are formulated with reference to some value or goal; and Shibutani underplays the normative element which underlies this definition.

Finally, it can be seen that different writers stress different aspects of the concept. It is argued that Mead's definition of a perspective picks out the particular and action component of human behaviour, whilst Shibutani's is more concerned to describe the general and interpretative nature of perspectives. In spite of these criticisms

nonetheless it is accepted that individuals do operate in society according to a set of expectations about the environment derived from interaction. What is required is empirical demonstration of such matrices of thought operating in particular situations. Becker's contribution to the study of professional socialisation is to demonstrate that such perspectives exist and develop in response to the demands of a particular situation and that the collective social context of the entering students ensures that the perspectives are shaped and supported by group pressures and that they characterise the group itself. His use of perspective can be thought of as a linking concept between role and culture.

Bearing in mind the criticisms made above, the concept of perspectives has been utilised in this study. With the interview sample in Chapter 9 an attempt has been made to discover those perspectives which guide and co-ordinate students' perceptions and action. It will be seen that the student teachers developed somewhat similar perspectives to Becker's medical students relating to academic work and practical teaching. It is suggested that this study, although being of more limited scope than Becker's by nature of the size of the research resources, in one way carries his work further forward by investigating the stability of perspectives over the entire three year course, rather than concentrating upon the first year of professional socialisation.

Discussion of the institutional setting of the socialisation process requires that the distinctive characteristics of the college are analysed, together with an interpretation of their effects upon students. This is undertaken in Chapter 5 which provides a detailed description of the College and its courses and attempts an analysis of its values. Chapter 8 provides a measure, along certain institutional

dimensions, of the college as perceived by the student body in the third year of their course. Here, the College Characteristics Index of McLeish (1970), adapted from the work of Pace and Stern (1958) is used to measure aspects of the college climate. The interview sample is also used to obtain students' view of college characteristics. Of particular interest in any socialisation setting will be its social climate (Wheeler, 1966) the overall "feeling tone" of the setting. This is used to refer particularly to the affective quality of student-staff relationships and to the nature of the student subculture. These factors will influence the nature of the socialisation process and/the subject of investigation.

Turning to socialisation processes which arise from the institutional setting and which will give rise to perspectives, Brim (1960) suggests that there are three intervening processes which affect an individual's learning of social roles. These are:

a) the individual's awareness and knowledge of the norms and role demands being placed on him.
b) his ability to deliver the required performances.
c) his motivation to do so.

It can further be argued that socialisation outcomes are mediated through a parallel set of intervening processes within the socialising institution:

a) the organisation's capacity to provide clear and unambiguous norms for performance.
b) its capacity to provide opportunities for learning and practising the required performances.
c) its capacity to selectively reward the behaviour of its recruits.

A consideration of these three processes reveal that clear and unambiguous norms will depend on the degree of consensus within the institution; the absence of contrary definitions of the norms which might be put forward by significant others (notably peers); and upon a minimal interactional time of socializee and socialisor. The

institution's capacity to provide relevant learning situations
depends partly on its capacity to provide appropriate courses and
to assign the recruit to them; the amount of interaction time;
and the extent of external support provided by the institution.
Finally, the institution's capacity to selectively reward its
recruits depends on its power to "place" him in an occupation at the
end of training; in its power to provide status, prestige, cash or
other valued items in return for correct performance; in its ability
to bring to bear sanctions to discourage undesirable behaviour; and
on the quality of socialising agents brought into the organisation.

Using Brim's discussion of processes, Wheeler (1966) suggests
the following diagram illustrates a framework for analysis of
socialisation in organisations:

		Intervening Mechanisms	
		Organisational	Individual
Independent variables	Norms	Capacity to present clear norms	Capacity to learn norms
	Perform-ances	Capacity to provide performance opportunities	Capacity to perform
	Rewards, Sanctions, Motives	Capacity to selectively reward performance	Motivation to perform

Socialisation outcomes
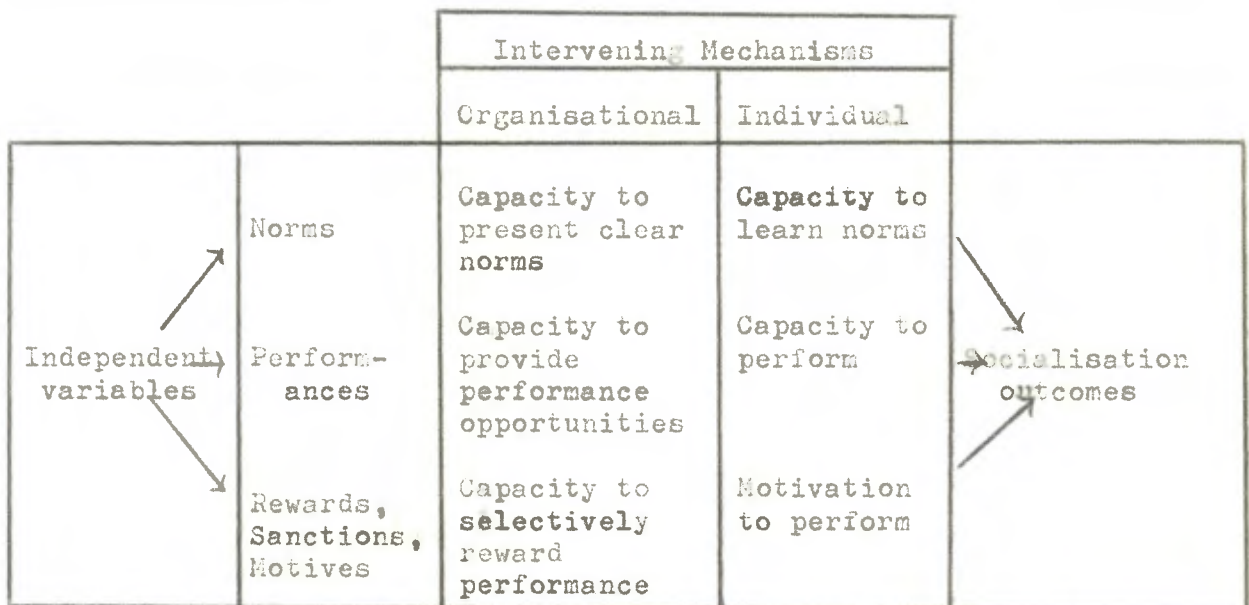
The independent variables are represented by individual or
organisational characteristics (Age, sex, social class, etc., or year
group, education group, main course, etc). Wheeler suggests that
their impact on socialisation outcomes depends on some combination of
organisational and individual mechanisms operating on norms, performances

and sanctions and rewards. The weakness of Wheeler's framework lies in his lack of elaboration of the nature of the interaction process and in particular the role of reference groups in setting, judging and rewarding recruit behaviour.

Such a framework can be usefully adapted for this study, but will concentrate rather more on organisational than individual factors since capacity to learn and capacity to perform are generally taken for granted in college recruits (with the possible exception of practical teaching). Thus, in the description of the college, and with the interview sample, the college's norms, performance opportunities and rewarding capacities are explored, together with the students' responses. Further, the Role Definition Instrument was also used with students and staff in order to establish certain expectations for teacher role behaviour and the nature of their change throughout the course.

The goals of the socialisation process cannot be neglected in any study of the professional preparation of teachers. Within a family setting goals are diffuse and not often consciously formulated except in specific verbal instructions to children, usually when they have transgressed an unwritten rule. In a college of education only very general goals are usually publicly specified, and the apparently straightforward primary task, "to prepare teachers", can and does have many interpretations. It might appear simple within an organisation to specify the knowledge, values, attitudes and skills which are the objectives of the socialisation process. A study of professional socialisation should attempt to uncover what are seen by students and staff as the desired outcomes of the three year course. What is demonstrated in this investigation is that no clear specification of outcomes by the college is available, but that the values implicit in the course can be fairly clearly identified. It

will be seen that it is in terms of values and attitudes that the college staff tend to evaluate socialisation outcomes, whereas students place more emphasis upon the acquisition of knowledge and skills as the more important objectives.

In relation to the objectives of the socialisation process, Bidwell (1962) has made an interesting distinction between what may be called role socialisation and status socialisation. The first refers to training and preparation for performance of specific tasks. In contrast, status socialisation denotes a broader pattern of training designed to prepare the recruit to occupy a generalised status in life with its associated life styles. This distinction is of value in classifying certain types of socialisation and in pinpointing conflict which can arise from different views of the outcomes of the process. For example, training in typing can be seen as role socialisation where certain very specific skills must be acquired. Reading for a degree of a liberal arts type would appear to characterise status socialisation. Certainly, the traditional view of university education can be interpreted in this way (Halsey, 1961).

In the initial training of teachers it seems clear that these two views of socialisation are complementary. However, current debate centres around whether initial training should not be more characterised by role socialisation in accordance, for example, with the recommendations of the James Report (Department of Education and Science, 1972). Certainly, both views of the objectives of the socialisation process are present in colleges of education. A study of professional socialisation should probe the extent and weighting of such views among college groupings.

An investigation of these two types of socialisation was undertaken with the interview sample of students and with staff. Differences between the two groups emerged. Students strongly favoured role socialisation and viewed many of the college procedures

instrumentally, applying to them the test of practicality: whether or not they would directly help with classroom practice. Staff were more concerned with status socialisation, seeing the college course as producing teachers with certain attitudes rather than possessing very specific skills or expertise. The tension that these differing expectations for socialisation outcomes generated was resolved by students developing certain perspectives which enabled them to operate effectively (Chapter 9).

A discussion of role and status socialisation is closely linked with consideration of the notion of anticipatory socialisation. It could be argued that the three years the students spend in a college of education can be regarded as a period of "anticipatory socialisation". As students they are not yet full members of the profession but must imagine or anticipate what it will be like to be a teacher. Thus, they "role-play" their expectations, trying out, in discussion groups in college and in classrooms on school practice, their expectations for teacher behaviour. They are to some extent self-socialisers, basing their actions on their assumptions and information about the role. The feed-back they obtain from their tutors or other students in college, or from heads, children and teachers on school practice, enable them to modify their expectations and behaviour such that it becomes appropriate and acceptable in the socialisation context of college.

It is felt more appropriate however to use the notion of anticipatory socialisation as characterising the pre-college experience; students can be seen as entering college with particular conceptions of the role of the teacher. These expectations will depend on their experiences before college: the role-models to whom they have been exposed and who have significantly influenced them, the length of time they have considered themselves as future teachers (thus, presumably,

being more cued to take note of alternative behaviours, imagining what it will be like to play the role), and so on. The time spent in college is thus more properly a period of socialisation rather than aniticipatory socialisation, for although the student is still not yet a fully accepted member, nonetheless he has clearly entered it as a neophyte and is on the first formal rung of the ladder to full membership. Thus, in this study, the/college will be regarded as part of the socialisation procedure proper, rather than as anticipatory socialisation.

Nevertheless, there is no doubt that much "trying out" of roles does take place during training, and is seen as a legitimate activity. Further, it is becoming much more accepted (Department of Education and Science, 1972; Stones and Morris, 1972) that this "trying-out" period should extend beyond the college course. The new entrant to teaching should be regarded as still having much to learn rather than as fully qualified. This clearly raises the issue of the nature of socialisation output: how complete the socialisation process of college may be regarded. American research on medical students illuminates this problem.

Two studies of medical students, Merton (1957) and Becker (1961), which are probably also the two best known studies of professional socialisation, reveal conflicting interpretations of the process they investigate. A paper in Merton by Huntingdon (1957) deals with the way in which the student acquires a conception of himself as a physician - his professional self concept. Huntingdon observes that the training course is in fact marked by an increasing tendency to think of oneself as a physician and a decreasing tendency to think of oneself as a student. This change is attributed to training, interaction with faculty, peers, nurses and patients. This last

category was of great importance, for as the patients increasingly
defined the student as doctor and relied on him for advice, so the
student began to act and feel like a doctor.

Thus, Huntingdon's (and Merton's) study characterises
professional socialisation as a steady, incremental process. The
neophyte moves from student, through junior colleague, to fully
fledged professional. There is a gradual acquisition of the
knowledge, skills, values and attitudes he will need when he leaves
medical school and practices in his own right. In contrast, Becker's
study conceptualises the students regarding themselves as students
throughout their course, because of the system in which they are
involved. They are denied responsibility, even though they may
"play at doctors". Not until they have graduated and are licensed
will they be able to act as doctors.

Bloom (1965) in a review of research on medical students suggests
that there is a conflicting interpretation of the status of the
student within the medical school community. Becker's interpretation
is that he is a "student", of questionable competence, continually on
trial, subordinate to the faculty, and continuously subjected to
examinations. Merton's suggestion is that he is seen as a "junior
colleague", steadily acquiring the skills and competences of the
physician, and on more equal terms with the faculty. Thus, the two
studies interpret the process of professional socialisation as either
one of radical transformation of the novice into professional at the
point of exit from studentship (Becker), or as a gradual evolution
of junior colleague into professional (Merton). This same problem
of interpretation of the process can be applied to student teachers,
and similar differences in visualising the process of the three year
training period are observed among the students, tutors and teachers

in school. It can be posited that the "system" carries a different message from what is often professed by the tutors. The latter claim to hold a junior colleague view, but it can be argued that the assessment and teaching practice procedures continually reinforce the status of student as student.

Two other issues identified by Bloom relate to the effect of medical school on the attitudes assumed to be relevant to the performance of the role, and to the relationship between the profession and the school itself. Becker's work posits a cycle of attitudes going from idealism to cynicism ("learn what the faculty wants you to learn") to a more informed idealism. The apparent cynicism argues Becker, is in fact a group response to the burden of demands for academic work. It has been indicated in the final perspective mentioned earlier. However, as the medical student approaches the point of leaving to enter the profession, Becker suggests that a more knowledgeable idealism emerges which modifies the apparent cynicism. Merton's work on the other hand sees the effects of medical school as far less dramatic and more cumulative, resulting in a more gradual social and professional maturation. Again, this problem is relevant to a study of teacher socialisation. It may be approached through an investigation of students' perspectives on the course and identification of reference groups.

As is seen in Chapter 9, the experience of school practice appears to be crucial in the development of attitudes involved in performance of the role. The perspective which develops in relation to strength of commitment towards teaching as a career appears to be somewhat similar to Becker's findings, with idealism giving way to less certainty and more tough minded attitudes towards the classroom situation and this in turn becoming tempered to some extent by further experience. On the other hand, the findings from the administration of the Role

Definition Instrument can be interpreted as a move, early in the course, to a more idealistic attitude towards teaching and the maintenance of this attitude throughout the course. What Bloom does not make clear is the distinction between the student's attitudes towards his role as student and his conception of his role as doctor. There is an assumption that the two are necessarily the same. Certainly there will probably be a high degree of interdependence, but it is not evident from Bloom that students' attitudes to their present course need not necessarily be identical with their attitudes as future teachers. The evidence of this study is that such similarity cannot be assumed and requires further investigation.

Bloom's third issue relates to the question of the completeness of the training provided by the medical school. One view sees the training school as providing a set of minimum competences which will be built upon and developed after exit from training and through membership and involvement in the profession. The opposing view sees the school as providing a much more complete training, such that the student enters the profession "fully trained". These two views have traditionally formed a focus for disagreement among teachers about the function of the College of Education. What is clear from this study is that college tutors clearly reject the "fully trained" viewpoint, but are divided on what constitutes a set of "minimum competences" for teaching. Students on the other hand tend to hold two inconsistent positions - wishing to emerge "fully trained", ready to cope with all emergencies, and at the same time acknowledging that such an outcome is not possible. Nonetheless it appears that students define the set of "minimum competences" much more broadly and deeply than college staff.

Bloom's identification of the three issues of status, role performance attitudes and completeness of training have helped in part

to structure the investigation of perspectives. Early in the planning
it was decided to probe, through the interview protocol, the
attitudes towards college work, college preparation for teaching,
and commitment to teaching. Bloom neglects discussion of the
influence of reference groups in the socialisation process but
Simpson (1967) shows something of their importance in the sequence
of socialisation. From her study of student nurses, Simpson
hypothesised three phases in the professional socialisation process:

1. The first phase, during which the person shifts his
   attention from the broad, societally derived goals
   of proficiency in certain work tasks.
2. In the second phase, certain significant others in
   the work milieu become the person's main reference
   group.
3. In the third phase he internalises the values of
   the occupational group and adopts the prescribed
   behaviours.

There is, in Simpson's formulation, a suggestion of socializee
as passive recipient of values, taking little or no active part in
the process. The main value of her hypothesis that it emphasises
the importance of significant others. Although these phases of
Simpson can overlap she argues that "in general they constitute a
sequence".

Simpson's investigation suggested that her student nurses were
motivated on entry by a generalised desire to serve and help suffering
people. They then, in response to the demands of training, shifted
their orientation towards mastering the skills required. The next
socialisation stage was when, in the clinical period of training ,
their orientation towards patients shifted towards identifying their
co-workers - doctors and nurses - as significant others. Thus, argues
Simpson, they become more sensitive to how nurses and doctors reacted
to them than to the reactions of patients. This is interpreted as a
move towards acceptance of professional norms - judgment of one's

professional peers - rather than a judgment of competence in terms
of idiosyncratic likes or dislikes of patients of the student-nurse
herself. There is clearly here some clash with Huntingdon's (1957)
findings who found patients of much significance in helping student-
doctors to define themselves as physicians. What is required in
studies of professional socialisation is the relative weighting of
different reference groups. In teacher training these are likely to
have differential impacts depending upon the situation.

Simpson's third phase constituted internalisation of professional
norms and values - an extension and intensification of the second
phase. For Simpson the process of professional socialisation is
complete when professional values are fully internalised. The study
of Meyer (1960) appears to support Simpson's findings as nursing
students shifted, during their training course, from a "ministering
angel" role (orientated towards a one-to-one relationship with
patients) to a preference for work with a team of colleagues. Again,
colleagues became the major reference group for the student nurses
and early idealism was much modified by the interaction experienced.
Reference groups and role models are thus highly influential in the
socialisation process and form one of the foci of this investigation.
The nature of such reference groups are discussed below in regard
to the strategy of the enquiry.

Simpson's hypothesised sequence finds some support from this
study of student teachers, particularly the first two stages: a
shift from broad goals to specific tasks and identification with
certain reference groups in the profession. Thus, the generalised
desire "to work with children" becomes much more specifically defined
as students experience certain types of interaction with certain
groups of children (a finding confirmed by the investigation of Eason

and Croll, 1971). Further, the enquiry records the selection of teachers as a reference group towards whom expectations for classroom behaviour is oriented. It is suggested that the two stages are much more contemporaneous than Simpson allows and that the two interact to affect each other.

In relation to Simpson's third stage, it is very difficult to analyse how far the values of the occupational group have been internalised, but the investigation suggests that this does seem to take place to some extent. Certainly it was possible to observe certain prescribed behaviours exhibited by students in college and classroom. What Simpson oversimplifies is the extent of agreement on values within an occupational group, and she shows little awareness of the existence of a set of reference groups which can, for the individual, result in different behaviour in different settings or with different audiences. Student teachers are conscious of often conflicting expectations from tutors and teachers. What this study shows is that the students develop perspectives which ensure situationally appropriate behaviour.

The suggested stages of Simpson, and Bloom's discussion of attitudes deemed relevant to role performance appear to imply a development of commitment to the chosen profession. Neither writer, however, makes direct use of this concept, but any discussion of professional socialisation should include an examination of the nature of the socializee's changing commitment as a probable consequence of the process. The implication of Simpson's hypothesis is that commitment to the profession deepens as a result of socialisation experiences as values are internalised. Davis, Olesen and Whittaker (1966) report no increase in commitment to nursing as a long term career as one of the outcomes of a three year period of training.

Davis et. al. appear surprised and a little disappointed by their findings. In spite of "numerous efforts" by faculty to change the orientation of entering students (which was towards the "traditional female role" involving marriage, childrearing and home-making), the students at the end of their course were no more likely to aspire to leadership roles in the nursing profession than entering students. Davis' concept of commitment is a limited one, but the study of professional socialisation requires an examination of such feelings of obligation to the career.

Aspiring to leadership roles would appear to be one index of commitment, but it cannot be taken as the only criterion. The major difficulty in studies of student commitment is that they measure only expressed strength of feeling, and not (with the exception of those students who vote with their feet) how that commitment issues in action. Kornhauser (1962) sees commitment as being unavailable for alternative lines of action and points out that it entails more than merely voicing a choice. He stresses that over and above the expression of commitment is the additional element "the "force of circumstances" to which one becomes exposed by virtue of pursuing a course of action" (p.322). This action element is held to be an additional vital component to the concept of commitment, but in this and other student studies the only measure of action which can be taken is completion of the course. Thus, this investigation must necessarily use students' expression of feeling of commitment as its measure.

Internalisation of values would indicate commitment but this again is exceptionally difficult to measure. Kornhauser points out that we may _feel_ committed but not _be_ committed. It is only when one tries to break commitment, he argues, that appreciation of what it involves is revealed; then the consequences of that involvement are

revealed. A hard index of commitment to teaching might be regarded as the number of years a student spends in school after qualifying. Such an index however takes no account of motive, and consideration of reasons for acting is a necessary procedure. As noted earlier, Etzioni (1964) for example, suggests that commitment may comprise a range of feeling from alienative through calculative to moral involvement. Similarly Shipman's (1966) suggestion of "impression management" implies that student teachers' expressed commitment cannot be taken at face value.

Thus, although it seems clear that students are willing to give up other activities to become teachers (Kornhauser's being "unavailable for other courses of action") it is necessary to probe the nature of student commitment and to attempt to establish not only their reasons for entering teaching but the changing nature of their desire to teach as the course progresses. Chapter 9 reports this limited investigation, especially the various meanings students attached to being "committed to teaching". Measures taken with the longitudinal cohort show a decline in expressed strength of commitment. Interviews throughout the three years interpret this change as a move towards greater realism and as a reflection of the social climate of both the student body and of society itself. It is suggested that the nature of the change, from broad ill-defined idealism to focussing upon certain pedagogic skills and colleague approval never becomes fully articulated by students as commitment to a profession.

The general framework of this study is derived from a consideration of both symbolic interaction theory and structural functionalist analysis. The writings of Cooley (1956) and Mead (1934) are the background to the former; and the work of Parsons (1951) to the latter approach.

Structural functionalism has been used powerfully by Blyth (1965)

in his study of English primary education. In the present study
a much narrower focus is employed to identify structural and cultural
phenomena within the college and to examine their effects upon
students. Thus, although issues of social cohesion and control,
and social change are raised and examined, these are not subjects of
major attention in this investigation of professional socialisation.
They require much more detailed study in other researches. The concept
of role is of course common to both schools of sociological thought,
with functionalists seeing it as the major mechanism for maintaining
consensus and stability in the social system or within a particular
institution.

The drawback of functionalism is in its assumptions of equilibrium
and consensus, its allocation of a comparatively passive part in role-
taking to the individual, and in its macro-social approach. Whilst
it has value in suggesting areas and processes for investigation, its
contribution can only be partial in any study of socialisation (which,
by its nature requires an interdisciplinary approach). In a sociological
framework for investigation however additional perspectives are
needed. Phenomenological approaches might be used (Filmer et al, 1972;
Young, 1970); or conflict theory explanations employed (Waller, 1932;
Coser, 1956). Whilst it is recognised that both these alternatives
would yield fresh insights (indeed, could be used to produce different
and substantial analyses of the professional socialisation process in
a college of education), nonetheless it is felt more appropriate to
combine with the traditional functionalist thesis, the approach of
the symbolic interactionists.

Symbolic Interaction theory emphasises the understanding of
human behaviour as the outcome of the way in which individuals take
account (usually through the mechanism of role-playing) the expectations

of others in the social environment. It has formed the basis of
the empirical work of Becker (1961). The expectations of others are
continually taken into account by the individual, leading to a modifi-
cation of behaviour and the development of self concepts. This self
concept will be, according to Mead, a reflection of the conception of
him held by others. Thus, students during their three years in
college, will acquire, through formal and informal contacts with
tutors, teachers and other students, a good deal of learning about
norms, values, expectations, role-prescriptions held by others. This
learning will lead them to adjust their behaviour or attitudes (or
both) in accordance with this information, with other feedback
obtained as the result of these modifications. The process is thus
an ongoing one, with the college representing to the student, formally
and informally, certain approved values and norms, and the student
modifying her initial expectation toward these perceived expectations,
and further adjusting as she receives further reactions from college
and schools. The process may be represented as a development of
role expectations and can be shown diagramatically as on the following
page.

This is an oversimplification of the process. It is in danger
of being regarded as linear development towards clearly defined goals,
representing a consciously planned and understood process on the part
of all participants in the system. This is certainly not what is
implied. The value of such a model is that it enables research to
focus upon certain elements of the system for investigation . Thus,
what needs to be known is the nature of students' initial expectations,
the nature of the interaction process, the expectations of members
of the students' role-set and the changes in role expectations throughout
the course.

```
Entry        ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
             │   Students' initial expectations    │
             └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
                    interaction with:              Students' behaviour
                             │                     continually
                             ▼                     modified by
Term 1         ┌──────────────────────────┐        interaction with
               │ Expectations of others   │        others
               │    -  tutors             │
               │    -  peers              │
               └──────────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼                      Roles adopted
             ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐ and modified
             │  Students' revised expectations     │ in relation to
             └─────────────────────────────────────┘ actions and
                             │                       expectations of
                             ▼                       significant others
                    interaction with:
                             │
                             ▼
Terms 2-9      ┌──────────────────────────┐
               │ Expectations of others   │
               │    -  tutors             │
               │    -  **peers**          │
               │    -  teachers           │
               │    -  **children**       │
               └──────────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
             ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
             │  Students' revised expectations     │
             └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
                        to teaching
```

The contribution of symbolic interaction theory in relation to professional socialisation is that the development of the individual's self-concept and of role expectation are the outcomes of interaction with significant others (tutors, teachers, other students, children) in the social context of the college course. A study of professional socialisation should therefore, in addition to establishing such

changes as do take place, attempt to establish the nature and
contribution of reference groups to those changes. To measure changes
in role conception the RDI was applied and interviews held regularly
throughout the course. Further, the interviews systematically
investigated the students' perceptions of groups which had contributed
to their understanding and performance of the teacher's role.

The concepts of membership and reference group are essential to
such an enquiry. Membership group simply refers to those groups of
which an individual is a member. Thus, during her period of training
the student belongs to a year group, an education group, a hostel
group, and other formally constituted groups, together with friendship
groups within the informal student culture or rather more formalised
groups of student-run clubs or societies. She will also of course
belong to groups outside college.

A reference group is any group which an individual compares
himself; he will relate his attitudes to such a group. They constitute
a group of "significant others" for the individual. Kelley (1952)
has suggested an important distinction between two major functions
which a reference group may perform. A normative function suggests
that the reference group sets and enforces standards or norms for
behaviour (the "setting" may of course be solely in the individual's
mind). A comparison function may be served by a reference group where
the person evaluates himself and others by the standards of the group.
Thus, say, "classroom teachers" could form a reference group for
students where one of the perceived standards is "good control of pupils",
which the student attempts to emulate - possibly by direct imitation
of a teacher she encounters on a school practice.

Shibutani (1962) is critical of the term reference group when
used to denote "a group with which a person compares his fate". He

rejects the value of the "comparison function" of the reference group on the grounds that any group may suffice and thus the comparison loses force. Shibutani argues that it is important to recognise that a group which serves as a point of comparison is quite different from a group whose culture constitutes one's point of view. This, for Shibutani, seems to confine the meaning of reference groups to its normative function: it is that group "whose presumed perspective is used by an actor as the frame of reference in the organisation of his perceptual field" (Shibutani, 1962, p.132). Thus, for the actor a reference group is an audience (a small handful of people with whom he is in sustained contact, or some broad category - social class, a profession, an ethnic group - or even an individual) to whom certain values are imputed and before whom the individual attempts to maintain or enhance his standing. In this study, however, it is felt that Kelley's normative and comparative functions do have force if a continuum of positive or negative orientation is used in relation to reference groups.

Reference groups, as out-groups which are used to orient behaviour, can be seen as having two differently charged value directions. They are positive if they are seen as embodying norms, values and life-styles which are desirable, coveted or envied. Negative reference groups have the opposite characteristics: they embody norms, values and life-styles which are to be avoided. These two conceptions have been used by Hargreaves (1967) in his study of social relationships among fourth year pupils in a secondary modern school. The A and D forms existed for each other as negative reference groups, whilst for the A stream, teachers constituted a positive reference group. Nevertheless Shibutani's suggestion that such groups are those whose perspectives constitute the frame of reference of the individual is a

valuable one. Frames of reference are perspectives assumed by persons in structuring the way in which they perceive and interact with the world around them. They arise, it is suggested, from the interaction process and from what the individual brings to it.

These uses of the concept of reference group will be used in this study of teacher socialisation. It can be argued, for example, that the "teaching profession" forms the positive reference group of all student teachers, but, as will become clear in the discussion of evidence from the interview sample, students possess frames of reference which are different from those apparently held by certain groups (particularly college tutors) of the profession. Classroom teachers as a group become positive reference groups for students whilst, in some areas of behaviour, tutors can be seen as a negative reference group. Further, whilst teachers as a whole could be held to constitute a normative reference group, tutors, class teachers and peers could be seen as comparative reference groups against which the student may compare himself in arriving at a judgment of his development as a member of the profession or the extent to which he has mastered its technical requirements.

Thus, professional socialisation results in the person who has been through the process taking as his own the perspectives of certain reference groups for a wide range of behaviour. As will be seen, however, the effect of college is incomplete socialisation only, partly because of the differing prescriptions of groups comprising the profession. Further, the conflicting expectations of different role models among and between tutors, peers and teachers make it difficult to derive measures to assess the "effectiveness" of professional socialisation. It would certainly be unwise to accept the evidence of paper and pencil tests only as showing the degree to

which students have understood and accepted the role prescriptions
of their tutors. What can, however, be attempted is an analysis of
the process using certain concepts discussed in this chapter and
employing a variety of methods of enquiry.

To bring more focus into the analysis a model may be constructed
of the process as an input-output system with some specification of
the structural elements and cultural processes which contribute to
the process of professional socialisation. Here, symbolic interaction
theory and structural functionalism can be combined such that
structures and culture within the college can be examined.

Model for the analysis of professional socialisation
of student teachers

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Anticipatory Socialisation Input           │
│  (Expectations conditioned by certain biographical   │
│   and personality variables: age, social class,      │
│   teaching experience, religion, attitudes, reasons  │
│   for teaching, etc.)                                │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
              ┌───────────────────────┐
              │  College Socialisation │
              └───────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
      ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │  Sanctions and Rewards: Norms and Values       │
      └───────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│  College Formal  │   │   School     │   │ College Informal │
│    Structure     │   │  Experience  │   │    Structure     │
│  (Main Course,   │   │  (Placing,   │   │   Peer Culture   │
│  Education Group,│   │   Length,    │   │   Peer Influence │
│  Day/Resident,etc)│  │  Quality,etc)│   │                  │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────────┘

      ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │      Reference Groups and Role Models          │
      └───────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
      ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │        Development of Perspectives             │
      │             Role Expectations                  │
      │       Work - attitudes to college/             │
      │       school requirements                      │
      │       Commitment and Identification            │
      │      Views of the socialisation process        │
      └───────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
              ┌───────────────────────┐
              │  Socialisation Outputs │
              │  to full-time teaching │
              └───────────────────────┘
```

Marsland (1970) adumbrates a model for the study of teacher socialisation which is somewhat similar to, but less specific than the model used in this investigation. He rightly states that:

"Sources of influence on attitude change and specifically on student's conceptions of the teachers role are manifestly complex and multifarious". (p.52)

Marsland identifies the following independent variables in his analysis, and suggests that identification of the mode of systematic patterning of these variables in the structure and culture of the social system of the college is a primary goal in sociological analysis:-

(a) Demographic variables - age, sex, social class, etc.
(b) Personality variables - authoritarianism, extraversion, etc.
(c) Attitudinal variables - indices of attitudes toward and interest in the several components of the social system of teacher education.
(d) Interactional variables - indices of participation in the social system.
(e) Dynamic variables - set of variables peculiarly relevant to professional socialisation and combining components of (c) and (d).
(f) Structural variables - indices of structural location in the social system of teacher education. These should include consideration of both formal and informal structuring.

The linkages between the components of the model are suggested in the diagram on the following page. The model must be treated with caution as the use of strong and weak links, represented as "explanatory powers" between the variables are based on intuition rather than evidence. Further, his use of dynamic intervening variables is not at all clear, for these are given as identity crystallisation, professional identity and role model identification, which can be viewed as outcomes of the socialisation process.

The complexity of such variables makes such empirical treatment as Marsland gives them (students' ticked responses to a single question for each variable) highly questionable. These three features of professional socialisation certainly require investigation, but such investigation must include a deeper probing than Marsland's, including,

Hypothetical sketch-diagram of the system of independent variables in socialisation (from Marsland, D., "An exploration of professional socialisation: the College of Education and the School Teacher's Role", Research into Higher Education, 1969, Society for Research into Higher Education, 1970).

Socialisation Outputs

Dynamic Intervening Variables

Attitudinal Variables

Interactional Variables

Structural Variables Locations in divisions, departments, etc

Demographic & Personality Inputs
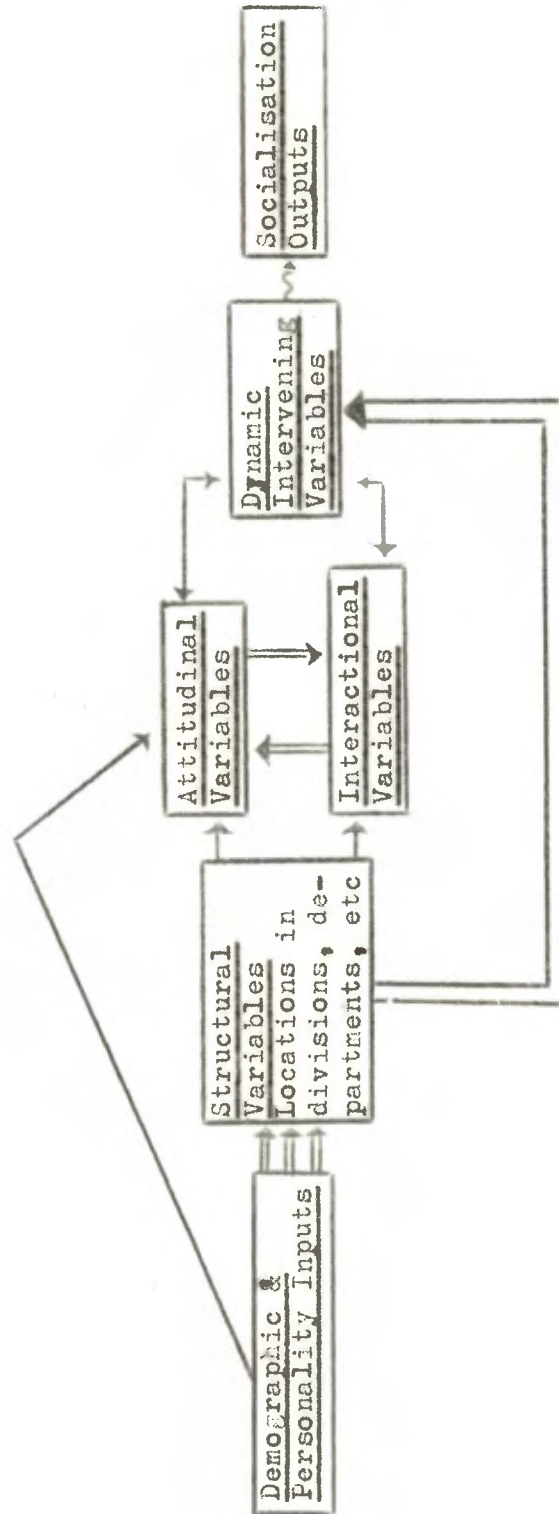
Supposed explanatory (differentiating) power, strong ⟶ weak ⟶

for example, interviews with individual students. Marsland's study is notable for its theoretical sophistication, but relies far too heavily on analysis of questionnaires administered at the start and end of the course. Such methods cannot catch the quality of the variables studied.

However, the value of the model is in terms of how it helps understanding of the social processes involved and Marsland's abstractions do provide a framework for analysis. Thus, if it were applied to this investigation, the following variables were studied:-

(a) Demographic Variables

        Age
        Social Class
        Academic achievement
        Previous teaching experience
        School leaving age
        Religion
        Pre-College employment
        Type of secondary school attended
        Number of unsuccessful interviews

(b) Personality Variables

        Extraversion/Introversion
        Neuroticism/Stability

(c) Attitudinal Variables

        Enjoyment of college
        Value of college course

(d) Interactional Variables

        Contact with staff
        Contact with peers
        Contact with teachers and children
        Perception of significant experiences in course
        Perception of tutor attitudes

(e) Dynamic Variables

        Perception of change
        Perception of impact of college
        Identity crystallisation
        Significant experiences
        Significant role models
        Professional identity
        Professional commitment

(f)   Structural Variables

Year of Course
Education Age Range
Main Course of Study
Resident or Day Student
Hall of Residence
Education Group

Such a structuring reveals a significant omission from Marsland's model for a study of socialisation; the lack of any specification of attitudinal inputs, particularly those relating to education. To suggest further that attitudinal variables, dynamic intervening variables and, to some extent, interactional variables can be regarded as underlined independent, seems clearly to be distorting the use of the term. It implies that a model derived from the natural sciences can be applied rigidly to the study of socialisation and bears all the weaknesses of the extreme functionalist position. The nature of the interaction process itself suggests that attitudes and other outcomes cannot be regarded as independent of such a process. However, the real weakness of Marsland's investigation as noted in Chapter 2, is the disparity in sophistication between conceptual structure and research method.

Strategy for the Investigation

Using the theoretical framework outlined above the strategy to be adopted for the investigation was determined. This would combine a variety of methods to investigate the nature of changes in students' role expectations and the relation between institutional and personal variables which may be responsible for that change. Accordingly, a Role Definition Instrument was devised to measure change in attitude to aspects of the teacher's role; an interview sample was selected and schedules devised for use in interviews to assess the nature of the

socialisation process. An examination of selection procedures would, it is suggested, reveal implicit values which would be of consequence for role learning. Using a measure of college environment, an effort was made to assess the "climate" of college on a number of dimensions. Within this strategy, variables thought crucial to the socialisation process would be both the basis for, and subject of, analysis. The impact of school practice was considered of high importance in the process of professional socialisation. Accordingly, an investigation of this was made which included an attempt to relate observed classroom practice to expressed attitudes.

The dynamic nature of the socialisation process would be acknowledged in this investigation by the use of a longitudinal sample, by the administration not only of an initial and terminal battery of tests, but also by the administration of the Role Definition Instrument at certain key points, during the course; and by the frequent observation recording and interviewing which would take place over the three year period.

There is no doubt that the objectivity of the study can be questioned on the grounds of the participant observer role played by the investigator (Goode and Hatt, 1952, p.120-123). However, the investigator feels he is aware of the nature of the pitfalls of this particular aspect of the study and acknowledges that a multi-disciplinary team, working with a much wider variety of techniques and skills inevitably denied to the single hard pressed researcher would make for a more effective examination of the impact of college. The studies of Chickering (1970) are ample evidence for the validity of this point. Nonetheless it is argued that a certain richness is given to this study by virtue of the investigator's close involvement in the socialisation process itself as a member of the College staff. The detachment necessary to ensure the validity of the study is, it is

further argued, ensured both by the investigator's awareness for
such distancing and by his knowledge and understanding of the
methodology of the social sciences and his study of the process of
professional socialisation. The merit of this claim can only be
assessed by consideration of this study as a whole.

Chapter 4

THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE ROLE DEFINITION INSTRUMENT

Theoretical rationales for questionnaires used in most British
and American studies of teacher socialisation are noticeable by
their absence. Exceptions occur when the MTAI (Cook, Leeds and
Callis, 1951) or Manchester Scales of Opinions about Education
(Oliver and Butcher, 1962) are used; these two instruments have been
reviewed above (Chapter 2). In other cases, ad hoc instruments are
devised to investigate particular aspects of the teacher's role
(Shipman, 1966; Kissack, 1956; Evans, 1952; Steele, 1958). These
consist of a number of statements collected by the researcher which
bear on those aspects of interest to him (corporal punishment, the
junior school, attitudes towards teaching as a career etc.). Cohen
(1965) has used a Role Definition Instrument based on a psychological
view of the role set out in Fleming (1958), but a far more theore-
tically sophisticated study is that undertaken by Kitchen (1965) using
the semantic differential technique (Osgood, 1957).

The Role Definition Instrument used in this research has its
roots in certain areas of teacher behaviour arising from a consider-
ation of the instrumental and expressive components of the culture
transmitted through the educational system (Bernstein, 1966a and 1966b).
These are referred to as the instrumental order and expressive order
of the school, and this dichotomisation of the culture of the school
is used as one basis for the analysis of the nature of the teacher's
role in the present study.

The Instrumental/Expressive dichotomy

Education can be thought of as a cultural transmission, and the
role of the teacher that of agent for this process. The school forms

part of one of the four major socialisation systems controlling the transmission of culture: the family, the education system, the world of work, and the age-group.

A major part of the role of the teacher is concerned with socialisation and instruction (Hoyle, 1969); processes which are in turn dependent upon two larger social phenomena: the central value system and the division of labour. It is in a consideration of these two aspects of the role that we may conceptualise that content of the culture transmitted by the school (or, to put it another way, the culture of the school itself, since education is both an institution for transmitting culture and a part of that culture) as consisting of two components or orders:

The Instrumental Order

"Those activities, procedures and judgments involved
in the acquisitions of specific skills, especially those
which are vocationally important". (Bernstein, 1966a)

Thus the Instrumental Order controls the transmission of skills and their attendant sensitivities.

The Expressive Order

"Those activities, procedures and judgments involved
in the transmissions of values and their derived norms".
(Bernstein, 1966a)

Thus, the Expressive Order controls the transmission of belief and moral order systems.

These two orders of the school can be thought of as a structure of social relationships through which skills or beliefs are transmitted. There is clearly much interrelationship between the two orders such that classroom interaction can rarely be analysed as "pure" forms of the instrumental or expressive. Thus, sixth formers learning differential calculus can be seen to be simultaneously subscribing to "good behaviour" norms necessary to the learning process; and infants listening to a bible story are acquiring "facts".

However, in spite of such considerable overlapping, further justification for the dichotomy can be made in terms of legitimation, performance evaluation criteria, involvement and social relationships.

First, the orders are legitimised by different sources. That is, the justification for the content of the instrumental or expressive orders arises in different ways. The instrumental order is legitimised by the character of the division of labour in society. King (1969) suggests four important sources for legitimation of power within schools:

1. Legality of action: that deriving from Acts of Parliament, Local Education Authorities, or from the recommendations and suggestions of Reports, inspectors, Schools Council, etc.

2. Rationality: a rational belief in the value of an action. Mathematics, although not required by Act of Parliament to be taught, is taught because teachers have a rational belief in its value.

3. Affective Legitimation: the incidence of favourable sentiment, usually of a non-rational nature, towards a course of action. King suggests that

    "affective legitimation of a school's activities derives principally from the pupils' parents, who like to feel the school is doing its best for their children". (King, 1969, p.38)

4. Tradition: an activity continues because "it has always gone on".

The instrumental order then is largely legitimised by rationality. There are good reasons, arising from the nature of knowledge itself (Hirst, 1965; Phenix, 1964), or from those which derive from the division of labour - the occupational structure of society - for teaching most subjects which are taught in school. Industrial society demands certain basic knowledge and skills and it is the

function of the instrumental order of the school to adequately equip the children. It is not however only in content of curriculum that the division of labour in society legitimises the instrumental order, for this order also includes the method or pedagogy of passing on such contents. As the demand for labour passes from that of knowledge of the "3 Rs" or vocational skills to that which emphasises flexibility, and understanding of principles (Musgrove, 1968), so too the instrumental role of the teacher changes from that of solution giver to that of problem setter: there is rational legitimation for the change in the teacher's role-behaviour.

The legitimation of the expressive order is more complex. Affective and traditional legitimation, both non-rational and hence powerful in resisting change, sanction the belief and moral order system of the school. The value system of society at large is used to justify relationships and behaviours in school. A large number of writers have emphasised that the values which the school reflects, rewards and upholds are those generally designated "middle class" (Blyth, 1965; Taylor, 1963; King, 1969a; Hargreaves, 1967; Jackson and Marsden, 1962; Jackson, 1964). Thus, whilst the school attempts to promote co-operation, concern for others and a sanse of justice, there is an underlying set of values inevitably present, usually summarised as achievement, independence, individualism, deferred gratification and a feeling of loyalty to some corporate abstraction (House or School).

Second, different criteria are used in the two orders to evaluate effective performance by the child. Thus, in the instrumental order the criteria of evaluation are held to be rational, objective and universal. The system of internal and external examinations apply to all children of approximately the same age. The child is judged

in these tests and examinations not on what he _is_, but on what
he knows. Hence, the social function of the instrumental order
is inherently divisive; it serves to emphasise differences between
children and between groups of children. This evaluation process
in the instrumental order strains towards inter-personal competition,
fostering self-orientation on the part of the child, and towards a
system of school organisation based on intellectual ability, that
is, towards streaming.

The criteria of judgment in the expressive order are much
more subjective. Although generally much the same standards of
behaviour are expected of all pupils, the judgment of performance
is subjective, varying from teacher to teacher and from school to
school. There will be more disagreement among teachers over the
interpretation of performance in the expressive order than in the
instrumental; a pupil may find it easier to dissemble, or to play
an acceptable role, in the expressive order. However, the social
function of the expressive order is inherently consensual, for its
purpose is, by encouraging subscription to commonly held rules, to
bind pupils and teachers together as a moral collectivity. There will
be, in the expressive order, a strain towards collective orientation
on the part of the pupil. The more divisive the instrumental order
the more difficult it will be to implement the consensual values
of the expressive order, and the literature of streaming has produced
examples of how sub-cultures antipathetic to the school's value
system are apparently fostered by the streaming process (Hargreaves,
1967).

Third, there may be differential levels of pupil, teacher and
parental involvement in the orders. The problems of the working
class child who finds himself bewildered by the values enshrined in
the expressive order of his school has been explored in literature

and the mass media. Jackson's study of working class children in a northern industrial town conveys a vivid impression of boys and girls who wish to succeed in the instrumental order of their selective schools but who find difficulty in adjusting to the demands of the expressive order (Jackson and Marden, 1962). The degree of commitment a pupil may feel towards the two orders can range from a high degree of normative involvement, through calculative commitment to a state of alienation (Etzioni, 1964). Hargreaves' study demonstrates examples of all cases.

Teachers' involvement with the orders can also vary: the liberal arts teacher in a technical college, or the science teacher in a secondary modern school may manifest signs of differential involvement. Kob's model may be used to show examples of teachers with either strong instrumental commitment or strong involvement with the expressive order of the school (Kob, 1961). Musgrove and Taylor (1965) show that teachers in junior schools in working class areas tend to construe the expressive aspects of their role in wider terms than colleagues in schools with a higher class intake. Similarly, parental involvement with the orders may differ according to whether they see the major task of the school as imparting knowledge or shaping behaviour (Gammage, 1966; Musgrove and Taylor, 1965).

Finally, the structure of social relationships through which the two orders are transmitted are different. This difference is expressed in the type of social control used to regulate behaviour. In the instrumental order the control system has mainly bureaucratic features (Gerth and Mills, 1947; Blau and Scott, 1961). Timetables, syllabuses, curricula, registers, examinations, ability grouping, school rules, and hierarchical ordering of staff are examples of rational use of time, space and resources to achieve given ends

in the instrumental order of the school. The connection of the instrumental order with the division of labour is again clearly seen, as the bureaucratic processes in the school can be viewed as preliminary socialisation for the complex occupational structure which is necessarily bureaucratic in nature.

Social control in the expressive order tends to be personalised or ritualistic (Bernstein, 1966a). Personalised control is exercised in the classroom situation where the teacher not only uses his superior age and knowledge to control his pupils, but calls up a variety of techniques: irony, humour, sarcasm, an appeal to good nature or to a particular section of the class, or to co-operate against a common enemy, the examiner. These techniques, in interaction with the teacher's personality enable him to exercise control as an individual over individuals; there is a premium upon the importance of inter-personal relationships.

Ritual acts as a system of social control in the school, operating largely through the expressive order. It is

"a relatively rigid pattern of acts specific to a situation which construct a framework of meaning over and beyond the specific situational meanings" (Bernstein, 1966a)

As such its symbolic function is to relate the individual through ritual acts to the social system, to heighten respect for that system, to revivify the social order in the individual, and to deepen acceptance of the procedures used to maintain continuity, order and boundary, controlling ambivalence towards the existing social system. Bernstein suggests the school possesses both consensual and differentiating rituals. Thus, assemblies, uniforms, plaques, etc., symbolise common values and modes of behaviour; while sex and age relationships, marking off differences between groups, territories, times or properties, serve to order and control the heterogeneous

school population. Rewards and punishments, defining the school's conception of good and bad, tend to embody authority relationships expressed as ritual behaviour, serving a control function in the school.

The expressive order then far less is subject to bureaucratic controls than the instrumental order, its function is potentially consensual, whilst that of the instrumental order is potentially divisive.

The above analysis shows that a conceptual distinction may be made between the two orders which exist within the culture of the school and which are concerned to transmit different aspects of the wider societal culture. A simple model may express the relationship of the orders to other social processes.

Division of labour ———— Culture ———— Belief and Moral
                                                  Order system

        Instrumental   Expressive
           Order   Order
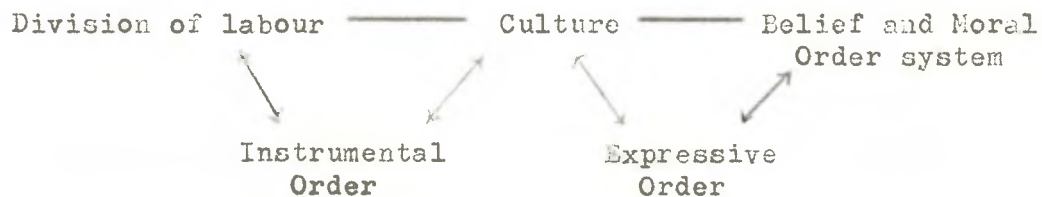
The conceptualising of two orders allows for analysis of schools, or of the role of the teacher, such that account can be taken of the dominance of one or the other order in determining the character of the school or teacher's role. Further, such concepts allow a dynamic analysis to be made of the changes which occur, as a result of change in one or both orders.

The model given above may be used to link changes in the wider social processes with changes in the educational system. In order that such analysis may take place, however, a further concept is required, that of orientation, or direction of change. For the purpose of this study the orientations posited are on an "open" and "closed" continuum, such that a model for analysis of change may be

constructed as shown:

<div align="center">Instrumental Order</div>

| Orientation
"Open" | | Orientation
"Closed" |

<div align="center">Expressive Order</div>
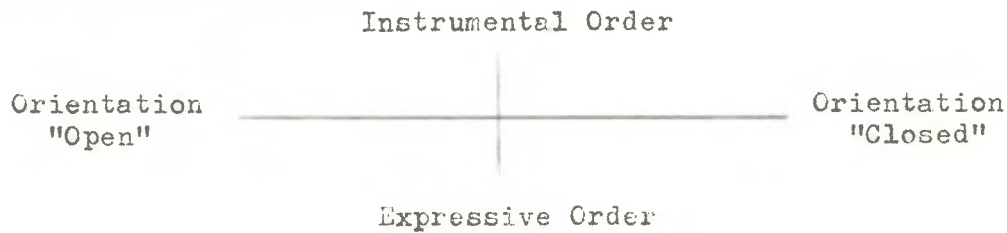
Such a model allows for examination of the school as a complex
control system, or for analysis of the changes in the teacher's role,
and will be used in this study to study changes in role-conception
occuring among student-teachers.

It is necessary to clarify the definitions of open and closed
orientations, in an attempt to show that such concepts are relatively
value free. It is a major drawback of many instruments used to
measure changes in students' or teachers' attitudes that a value
component is built into the questions used, a suggestion that certain
behaviours are more "desirable" than others. The MTAI is to be
criticised strongly on these grounds (Evans, 1958; Rossi, 1966). The
investigator believes it is not possible to attain a fully value
free position. The choice of words "open" and "closed" themselves,
carry a heavy weight of meaning for individuals. Nonetheless, it
is necessary to analyse the criteria used to identify the two
orientations.

In the instrumental order an open orientation implies first,
flexibility of social organisation rather than rigidity, and a
corresponding flexibility in attitude towards the organisation of
knowledge; second, a wide range of alternatives open to pupils
and parents rather than very limited choice; and thirdly, an active
involvement by pupils in the skills being transmitted rather than
a role of passive absorption. Thus, when considering the role of
the teacher a closed orientation implies favouring rigidity of
social structure, organisation of knowledge into clearly defined
"subjects", little or no choice for pupils or parents, and a low

level of active involvement in learning by the pupils.

In the expressive order, three other criteria are used for classification. These are, the extent of ritualisation of social relations, the degree of insulation from or penetration into the instrumental order, and the degree of control over the non-school moral behaviour of the pupil. Thus, an open conception of the teacher's role would favour little ritualisation of school procedures (for example, a playing down of the importance of approach behaviours, school uniform, authority relationships, etc.); independence for the pupil in non-school matters and a good deal of independence in school, and a feeling that teaching in the instrumental order should not be influenced by the prevailing political or religious ideology but should be as objective as possible.

Using the model, it is possible to classify schools and teachers according to their practices and beliefs, to locate sources of tension, and to analyse change. A few examples will illustrate the model's usefulness.
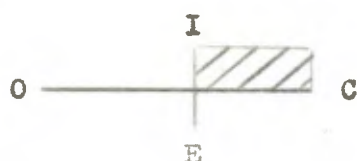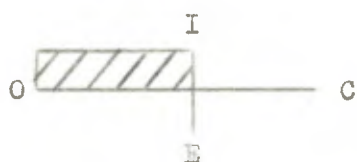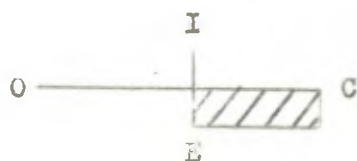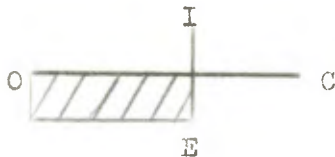
| ```
        I
        ▨▨▨
O ――――┼―――― C
        │
        E
``` | The teacher located in this quadrant tends to favour streaming **by ability, subject teaching and** the pace of learning dictated by the teacher. |
| ```
        I
 ▨▨▨▨┐
O ――――┼―――― C
        │
        E
``` | The teacher located in this quadrant tends to approve of mixed ability classes, education in breadth, to have low regard for traditional subject barriers, and to favour a learner centred class-room atmosphere |
| ```
        I
        │
O ――――┼―――― C
       ▨▨▨
        E
``` | Teachers here are concerned to distinguish sharply between school and non-school, to favour ritual-isation of reward and punishment, and to limit pupil responsibility under close staff control. Teacher control is positional. |

In this quadrant teachers are concerned to blur the boundary between what is school and non-school, to rely less upon ritual procedures of reward and punishment, exercise interpersonal control over pupils, and to favour pupil responsibility through independence and choice.

Congruent quadrants can be easily detected for the instrumental and expressive orders; conflict can arise when an individual teacher's beliefs or behaviours are not in harmony in the two orders, or when different teachers, or Heads and staff, disagree on practices in the same order. Similarly, in the case of institutions, sources of tension can be detected where a school's instrumental order is open and its expressive order closed (as could be the case of a large, denominational secondary school).

Bernstein has suggested (Bernstein, 1967; Douglas, 1966) that a closed orientation is one which favours purity of categories and an open orientation one which accepts mixing of categories. This suggests that a teacher who conceives his role in closed terms sees education as specialist in nature, with well defined subjects consisting of graded subject matter which can be taught in a logically "best" sequence to pupils grouped by ability, by teachers with clearly defined professional responsibilities. There is a concern not to "adulterate" either the subject matter or the grouping of learners or teachers: hierarchies exist both in knowledge and organisation. The open-orientated teacher is much less concerned to keep categories pure. He welcomes mixing or diversity both in subject matter and personnel. The curriculum is seen as offering opportunities for integration; division of knowledge into subjects is seen as arbitrary or as of little importance. The traditional barrier between school and non-school is held to retard learning, and learning itself is seen as a co-operative exercise between teacher and pupil with the teacher acting as a primus inter pares.

The words "discovery", "experience", "wholeness", "experiment", have a positive significance for the open-orientated teacher.

Using the Instrumental/Expressive dichotomy a number of the most important components or controls of each order were chosen for study in relation to the construction of the Role Definition Instrument. These were:

In the Instrumental Order	In the Expressive Order
Curriculum	Boundary Relations
Pedagogy	Ritual Order
Teaching groups	Authority Relations
and Pupils	

The characteristics of these components when related to the Open/ Closed continuum are discussed below. Throughout, an ideal type model, following Weber's conceptualisation, will be presented (Gerth and Mills, 1947). Such description suffers from not corresponding to actual examples in particular schools, but it is held that the analysis of characteristic features identifies important considerations which will affect teacher role expectations and performance. The analysis also formed the basis for initial selection of a pool of questions for the RDI.

Instrumental Order

Curriculum: A closed orientation favours the emphasis of subject barriers and little attempt at integration or interrelation between disciplines. Syllabuses are carefully graded for different ability groups, with the emphasis on teaching the content according to its logical structure. Education in depth, subject specialism is favoured with increasing specialisation as the pupil passes through the secondary school.

An open conception of the curriculum implies a move to a common curriculum which blurs subject barriers and seeks links between them. New subjects are introduced, but the concern is to question the

validity of the traditional subject distinctions (inter-disciplinary enquiry is an example of the type). A move to education in breadth is favoured, or at least, a delay in specialisation (James, 1968).

Pedagogy: A closed conception of teaching method sees the goal of education as one concerned with inculcation of given states of knowledge and an emphasis on contents. The teacher's role is one of solution giver, he mediates between the child and an existing known body of facts and truths. His duty is to ensure that certain minima are acquired by the pupil, and it is he, rather than the learner, who is at the centre of the educational process. In contrast, an open conception of the pedagogy implies a teacher who is concerned that the child acquires ways of knowing, an understanding of the means by which knowledge is created, a grasp of principles rather than facts. The teacher's role is one of problem setter, and experiment and discovery are his method. The pupil takes a much more central part in the process of education and is given more responsibility both for what he studies and the way in which he learns. A consideration of pedagogy also includes methods used to motivate children, particularly praise or mark lists, etc. Here a closed conception refers to teachers who rarely praise pupils, and who rely upon mark lists or comparison of one child's work with another to motivate. In contrast an open conception implies much more frequent use of praise, little reliance upon external incentives and encouraging children to compare their work with their own previous efforts, rather than in relation to other children's work.

Teaching Groups and Pupil Role: A closed conception implies homogeneous groups of pupils based on measured intelligence. Sex and age can also be used as a basis for rigid grouping. The pupil belongs to a school class, a fixed structural unit of the instrumental

order, and in this class he receives his education in all subjects. The size of the class is constant and movement between classes is rare. In contrast, the unit of organisation in an open conception of teaching groups is a more heterogeneous and flexible one. The learners can be in groups of five, ten, forty, a hundred or even one. Setting or non-streaming are typical practices, and in the infant school family grouping is a mode of formal organisation which overrides the traditional grouping by age (Ridgway and Lawton, 1965). Such groupings have consequences for the co-operative nature of teaching roles, and team teaching and individual learning will be favoured (Shaplin and Olds, 1957; Taylor, 1971).

A consideration of pupil role implies that a closed conception stresses group similarities and group differences. The groups themselves tend to be fixed and stable with streaming a typical mode. There will be reduced areas of choice for the children, as curriculum and method will be closely teacher controlled. Hargreaves (1967) has documented how in the individual school he studied the effect of streaming was to polarise attitudes, the A and D forms taking each other's stereotypes as points of negative reference. The aspirations of a minority of pupils are developed and failure tends to be communalised in the lower forms. The closed nature of the social groups implies fixed points of reference and relation to teachers, curriculum, and other pupils. The enhanced aspirations of the few tend to be at the expense of the aspirations of the many.

In contrast an open conception of the pupil's role implies varied social groups reducing group similarity and difference. Non-streaming is an obvious organisational device here and its concomitant is held to be an increased area of choice both in friendship and in curriculum for pupils. The aspirations of the many are raised, bringing with them the problem of possible failure in attainment. Clark (1963) has documented the emergence of

counsellors to control the aspirations of the many where open
access is permitted to a system of higher education. The role of the
counsellors in "cooling out" controls the aspirations of low
achievers in an attempt to match attainment with ambition. There
are fluid points of reference and relation to teachers, other
pupils and the curriculum. In England the development of child
centred methods in primary education may be seen as an example of an
open conception of the pupil's role. A social consequence, which
may be predicted, is that failure becomes individualised in an open
system where attainment can, on the face of it, be more clearly
related to individual abilities and attainments than in the closed
system where all D streamers may find an external reason for their
"failure". Such a prediction, however, awaits empirical demonstration.
Similarly certain features of the ideal type have been much questioned
by recent work, of which Ford (1969) is perhaps typical.

Expressive Order

It is more difficult to identify the elements of social
organisation which transmit the expressive order in the school,
because they are not, like the instrumental order, bureaucratic in
character. However, the contents of the expressive order, concerned
with beliefs, values and norms, are transmitted in a variety of
ways, even if transmission is less self-consciously planned than the
contents of the instrumental order (Lambert, 1966; Bernstein, 1967a).
The following three controls on the transmission of the expressive
order were chosen for investigation by means of the role definition
instrument:

1) Boundary relations between the school and the outside world

2) Through the symbolic representation of the ritual order

3) Authority relations between teachers and pupils

Boundary Relations: A closed conception of boundary relations suggests that the school sharply defines its relationship with the outside world. This may take the form of non-encouragement of parents to enter the school (Jackson and Marsden, 1962). Here the school insulates itself from the family and the local community. Interactions of teachers and parents are closely controlled; often the formation of a parent/teacher association may be a device by which the school limits the extent to which parents may visit the school. The school can also control the penetration of the beliefs, values and moral order of the society into the school by selection of books, periodicals, films. The curriculum itself can be seen as a device by which the school controls its boundary relations, elements of "popular culture" or "youth culture", or non-traditional subjects being excluded from what is taught. The closed conception limits the extent to which pupils and staff extend their activities during school hours into the area beyond the school walls resulting in restriction of pupils' visits outside, and similar controls on visitors to the school.

On the other hand, an open conception implies that the boundary between school and non-school is blurred. This has spatial, temporal, and curricular application. Parents are encouraged to come into the school for a variety of reasons; children make frequent visits with their teachers to the local environment and beyond; extra-curricular activities spill over into the local community; and the characteristics of the local area are seen as a legitimate concern of the curriculum. Thus, not only community studies but elements of youth culture and the mass media may be approved subjects for study.

Ritual: Ritual, as discussed above, gives symbolic significance to apparently routine actions. As such it makes members aware of

their social heritage, reaffirms common bonds and enables individuals to accept social controls. These vitalising, adhesive and disciplinary functions (Durkheim, 1912) of rituals creates a frame for experience within which the individual can relate to his society.

Bernstein (1966a) has suggested that the expressive order of the school is prone to ritualisation as a major mechanism for creating social consensus. He distinguishes two types of ritual: consensual and differentiating. Consensual rituals functioning to bind the school as a moral community, give continuity in time and place, and aid the process of detachment of behaviour from the family and community. School assemblies and similar ceremonies, and dress, signs, tokens, scrolls, plaques are examples of this type. Differentiating/aid the ordering, integrating and controlling of the heterogenous population of school. Thus, they mark off the groups in schools by such features as age, sex and social function.

A closed conception implies a strong ritual order in the school. Thus, school uniform, school assemblies, badges, plaques and ceremonies and signs hold high priority. The rituals of reward and punishment are highly formalised and endowed with much significance (for example, public canings and Speech Days). Differentiating rituals governing age relations, sex relations, special approach behaviour to teachers and certain rooms (for example, the staff room) are highly stressed. Prefects, the House system and the significance of "School" itself are accorded much importance.

In contrast, an open conception implies that the ritual order of the school is weak and is viewed somewhat sceptically by the teachers. Rites de passage are not stressed as pupils move from year to year and from teacher to teacher. The social rituals made explicit or implied by school uniform, assemblies, the prefect system,

or those rituals connected with membership of Houses, are played down in importance. The school is not conceived as a total institution cut off from the outside world; a view which necessarily decreases ritualisation. Further, the organisation of the school tends not to be based on what are seen as fixed attributes of the children (for example, intelligence), but rather, structures embody the principle of diversity. Thus rigid stratification which would facilitate ritualisation of the expressive order is not associated with an open conception.

Authority Relationships: A closed conception implies that teacher pupil relationships of control are based upon the position of the teacher rather than upon his personal characteristics. Discipline is emphasised as valuable in its own right and coercive methods of control, including approval of corporal punishment, is common. Social distance is maintained between teacher and taught and there is a good deal of ritualisation of approach procedures and reward and punishment.

An open conception of authority relationships implies that control is seen as an interpersonal matter, thus the teacher relies less upon authority deriving from his ascribed position than upon the personal characteristics of himself and his pupils. There is a playing down of the traditional roles of teacher and pupil. Corporal punishment is not approved and reward and punishment generally tends to be upon an individual rather than a category basis. Social distance is minimised, the teacher not considering it necessary to be aloof from his pupils. Teachers encourage children to seek reasons for behaviour rather than expecting automatic and immediate conformity to demands.

The Construction of the Role Definition Instrument

Using the theoretical rationale outlined above a Role
Definition Instrument (RDI) was constructed, following generally
the procedure suggested by Likert (1932). This model of the school
as a social system, transmitting instrumental and expressive
components of the culture, was discussed by the writer with two
groups of students (48 in total, all in their third year). These
students formed no part of the longitudinal sample, being the year
previous to its entry to college. The discussion lasted over a term
at weekly intervals, with a number of the meetings held on a purely
voluntary basis at lunchtimes or in the early evening. The groups
comprised Infant/Junior, Junior, and Junior/Secondary students.

After the model had been discussed for four meetings, the
nature of the research project was outlined by the writer to the
groups, together with a brief description of methods used to construct
a questionnaire. A basic pool of fifty items was presented to the
groups. These had been gathered by the writer from discussion with
colleagues, from reading, and from a consideration of the
instrumental and expressive aspects of the teacher's role. The
students were requested to construct a larger item pool which would
represent instrumental or expressive aspects of the teacher's role,
classifying the items according to the various components of the two
orders. Altogether over two hundred and fifty questions were
presented. Some of these were discussed in the groups and, by
general consensus, accepted or rejected as suitable and classified
under what seemed the appropriate heading. The remainder were
discussed by the investigator, a colleague and two students in order
to reduce overlap and to attempt an initial classification.

Thus an item pool of some 109 questions emerged. Each item
was considered in more detail by the investigator with groups
of students and with colleagues to ensure clarity of wording.
Further, three groups of four students each, not previously in the
collection and classification of items, were asked to state whether
each item referred to the instrumental or expressive aspects of the
teacher's role. There was generally substantial agreement among
these students on the classification of the items.

Each item was then considered by the writer and three students
for direction of scoring. The open/closed continuum was used.
Criteria for "openness" in the two orders were:

Instrumental

      (i) Flexible rather than rigid attitudes towards social

          organisation towards the organisation of knowledge.

     (ii) Wide range of alternatives open to pupils.

    (iii) Active pupil involvement rather than passivity.

Expressive

      (i) Little ritualisation of social relations.

     (ii) Blurring of school/non-school boundaries and little

          control over non-school behaviour.

    (iii) Limited interpenetration of expressive into instrumental

          order.

There was no disagreement on the direction of scoring among the
four judgments. Scoring for each question ranged from 1-5, with
"closed" responses scoring low and "open" responses scoring high.

The item pool thus constructed was presented, in a randomised
order, to eighty-four third year students who were asked to express
agreement or disagreement with the items. The headings used were
"Strongly agree/Agree/Uncertain/Disagree/Strongly Disagree".
Students were requested to make two replies to each item - one in

relation to the role of the Primary teacher (5-11 years) and one in relation to the role of the Secondary teacher (11+ years).

Two scores for each item were thus obtained, representing each student's conception of the Primary teacher's role and Secondary teacher's role respectively. Students' scores were punched onto cards and the IBM 360 computer of University College, London, was used to analyse the data. Using the transgeneration procedures of the BMD set of programmes (Dixon, 1968 pp15-21) a total score for each student for the two role conceptions was obtained, and a correlation matrix computed by programme BMD 02D (Dixon, 1968 pp49-59). Item analysis then took place, the researcher comparing each item's correlation with the total score (Likert, 1932 pp46-50). Seventeen items representing the instrumental order and seventeen items representing the expressive order were selected as having high correlations (in relation to other items) with the total scores for role conceptions of both primary and secondary teachers.

These thirty-four items were then examined in terms of their original classification, and a check was made by the investigator, a colleague and two students. A very high level of consansus was reached on all but three items:

No.21 "A teacher should have a good knowledge of child development".

No.25 "A teacher should be prepared to give Sex Instruction".

No.32 "A teacher should treat all pupils alike in rewarding and punishing".

No.21 had originally been suggested as relating to pedagogy, but with substantial disagreement; No.25 had originally provoked much disagreement as to its classification as instrumental or expressive; and No.32 was thought to relate to either Ritual or Authority Relations equally.

In the event, the following allocation of items was agreed upon:

Instrumental Order

a) Curriculum   1, 5, 6, 13, 18, 19

b) Pedagogy   4, 9, 11, 14, 22, 31, 33

c) Grouping and Pupils   3, 7, 15, 29

Expressive Order

a) Boundary   2, 10, 17, 24, 25, 26, 27, 30

b) Ritual   12, 16, 28, 32

c) Authority Relations   8, 20, 21, 23, 34

However, it must be stated here that throughout the lengthy discussions with students and colleagues and educationists outside the college, there was continual stress by all concerned of the difficulty of classification. Arguments were adduced in relation to particular items that a case could be made for them relating to both the instrumental _and_ expressive aspects of the teacher's role. Similarly, within an order many arguments were advanced about the difficulty of classification - as evidenced in the controversy over No.32. Nonetheless, the writer feels that as the students and staff involved came to accept the validity of the instrumental/ expressive distinction, to examine the arguments for the justification of these two orders, and to understand the components of the two orders; so willingness to classify objectively rose, and, with the item exceptions already noted, a very high degree of consensus was obtained. The only items which caused a good deal of concern in terms of their instrumental/expressive classification were No.25 relating to Sex Instruction and No.21 relating to a teacher's knowledge of child development.

However, it must be pointed out that no statistical testing of items for clustering by Instrumental or Expressive classification

or within each of these orders was undertaken. Within the scope of the enquiry it was felt that it was necessary to identify the major dimensions of school within which the teacher's role would take place and to construct a Role Definition Instrument which would reflect such dimensions. The RDI so obtained would mainly be used to obtain students role conceptions on individual items and, probably more importantly (Torgersen, 1958), expressed as total scale scores. The strategy of the RDI enquiry would be to focus upon the significance of changes in student role conception and to analyse these in relation to certain institutional, personal and biographical variables. These results are presented in Chapter 6. The resulting Role Definition Instrument is included at Appendix 4. With the exception of items 1, 2 and 34 all items were allocated using a table of random numbers. The first two questions were felt to relate very generally to major responsibilities of teachers and were therefore placed by the investigator at the start of the RDI. Question 34 relates to corporal punishment and the investigator judged it would be best placed at the end of those items relating to specific aspects of role performance. In the event, the investigator feels that all 34 items should have been allocated by random procedures.

In this form the RDI was administered to a further sample of 53 third year students at the college in order to obtain figures for reliability. After an interval of four weeks the students again completed the questionnaire. A test-retest coefficient of .78 was obtained. Using the Spearman-Brown correction formula (Garrett, 1958) a split-half coefficient of correlation of .76 resulted. It is therefore suggested that for an instrument of this type the reliability is very satisfactory. Further, no

other British studies other than those using the Manchester Scales,
report reliability figures for the instruments used. There is,
in nearly all the studies reported in Chapter 2, an ad hoc approach
to the construction of questionnaires, with the researcher choosing
an assortment of questions which appear to have relevance, but
undertaking little or no serious attempt to relate to a theoretical
underpinning. The RDI used in this study is the result of more
than fifteen months deliberation, discussion and investigation.
Notwithstanding, it forms only one method of enquiry in this research
into the changing nature of the professionalisation process experienced
by students during their time in college.

Chapter 5

THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

The College of Education in this study is a Church of England college of 380 students. It is situated in a densely populated working class area in South London close to the Elephant and Castle. High rise flats replacing old slum property characterise the neighbourhood. The college was founded in 1899 by a wealthy Anglican clergyman, and the main building, reminiscent of London School Board architecture, dates from that time. Approximately two-thirds of the students are in residence and live in hostels close to the main building. Two of the hostels are modern; inelegant but comfortable, purpose built with single study-bedrooms. Of the other three hostels, one is a large block of flats about fifty years old, and two are medium sized Edwardian houses.

The founder's intentions were twofold. First, to provide a supply of teachers for the local elementary schools. His biographer Deedes (1915) provides ample evidence that the founder's conception of the teacher's role was very similar to that of Waller (1932): "a missionary hired to carry light into dark places" Second, to create in the college an atmosphere of "intimacy......gentle manners, and good fellowship and confidence between staff and students" (Deedes, 1915, p.193). Thus, an attempt to establish a tradition of social responsibility and emphasis on the satisfaction derived from interpersonal life within College may be distinguished in the intentions of the founder. In what follows it will be suggested that these two strands can still be detected as major value orientations characterising the College.

The current college prospectus acknowledges its history and gives an indication of these orientations:

Note: In this chapter much use is made of inverted commas. Unless otherwise specified quotations are expressions used by the staff of the college.

"The College's work for seventy years in South London had led
to its placing a strong emphasis on a sense of social responsi-
bility, and it is for this, together with a concern for
children, that its tutors look rather than primarily for
scholastic achievement"

"Being comparatively small, the college can enjoy a friendly
community atmosphere and a pattern of work which has regard
for the individual" (College Prospectus, Undated, but in use
during the interviewing year of the sample of students in this
research)

The sections below consider the Staff, the student selection
procedures and the three year training course. Several theoretical
models will be employed to suggest the values implicit in the college as
an organisation concerned with the professional socialization of student
teachers.

THE STAFF

During the period of this study there were thirty-six full-time
members of staff, eleven of whom were men. Eight of the men were grad-
uates, as were eleven of the twenty-five women. This proportion of
graduates, 72.7 per cent and 44 per cent respectively, is somewhat
higher for that given for all colleges by Taylor (1969, p.211) of 61.2
per cent and 40.8 per cent. A large proportion of the non-graduate
lecturers are in fields where it is difficult to obtain degree qualifica-
tions: Dance and Drama, Art and Crafts, Primary Education. Seventeen
tutors possessed diplomas relating to advanced study of education
(twelve of these tutors were in the Education or Dance and Drama Depart-
ment). Four tutors were engaged in research leading to higher degrees.

The most striking feature of the staff lies in their long service
with the college. The holding power (Central Advisory Committee on
Education, 1963) of the college is strong, for during the whole
period of this three year study only two members of staff left. Both
were members of the Education Department. One was the author of this
research thesis who left for an Institute post after six years at the

college, at the end of the second year of the longitudinal survey. The other had been an infant school headteacher who joined the college at the start of the first year of this investigation. After one year she left, largely due to pressure of work and difficulties with the type of work in contrast to her former successful school experience. The role of the Education Tutor is peculiarly subject to role-conflict in all colleges (Cope, 1969; Taylor, 1969a), and the college under study is no exception. This position was left unfilled for a year, when an infant teacher, an ex-student of the college with eight years of experience, was appointed. These two departures stand in contrast to the stable pattern of staffing. In the seven years prior to the terminal date of this research only two members of staff left for promotion in other colleges, whilst four others left on retirement after long service. Of the thirty-six staff during the period of the study, fifteen (41.7 per cent) had ten or more years service with the college, a further fifteen (41.7 per cent) had served for between five and nine years, and of the remaining six, only the one tutor noted in this paragraph had less than three years' service.

Several points should be noted in connection with this stability of staffing: First, that in its implication that the college is a pleasant place in which to work is a further implication of consistency of teacher-role conception: the role models presented by staff to students were, at lowest, physically the same during the three years course. At a higher level of conceptualisation it can be argued that a consistent set of expectations for teacher behaviour were regularly presented to students by staff. Second, that this stable pattern of staffing stands in marked contrast to the far lower holding power of the local schools in which the students practised. Third, the stability of size and staffing of the college is also in marked contrast with the

experience of many other colleges of education during the same period.

Only five tutors had had experience of other colleges, and the Principal, Vice-Principal, Head of Education Department, and Admissions Tutor had been appointed to their posts from within the college, after each having served as tutors for ten years or more. These internal appointments to key positions within the college also argues strongly for consistency of role-model and teacher role expectation within the college. All four positions within the social system represent highly significant others from whom the students and other staff will tend to receive important impressions and towards whom role behaviour will be orientated.

The Principal was the only member of the academic staff to be resident as it is college policy for hostel wardens to be drawn from the administrative staff of the college. Thus, it was unlikely that the hostel wardens would have significant impact on the students' views on education leading to differences in role conception between hostels. This hypothesis is specifically examined in Chapter 6.

THE STUDENTS [1]

As noted above the college prospectus states that in selecting students tutors look for "a sense of social responsibility.........together with a concern for children.......rather than primarily for scholastic attainment". The academic achievements of the students at the college are below the national average. Taylor (1969a) reports that in 1967 some 37 per cent of women entering colleges of education possessed two or more passes at A level. The corresponding figure for the college studied is 19 per cent for the 1968 intake. Similarly, the proportion of students in the college possessing no Advanced Levels is higher than

[1] Further details of students in the longitudinal sample are given in Chapter 9.

the corresponding national average: fifty per cent of the college's 1968 intake possessed no A levels as against 41 per cent of women entrants to all colleges in 1967 (Layard et al, 1969). Further, 24 percent intake had minimum qualifications for teacher training, or were special entry students.

The majority of students do not make the college their first choice in their initial applications for teacher training. Forty-one percent of the 1968 intake had been rejected by three or more other colleges before being accepted at this college, whilst only 37 percent made the college their first choice.

The average age of students on entry is 20.8 years; the median age is 19.2 years. The majority of the students, 64 percent, enter direct from school, but 22 percent are aged over 21 years, and 18 percent have been in some sort of employment for three or more years before entry. Approximately a quarter of the students have had some experience of teaching before college, but most of this was of short-term duration, only 8 percent having taught for more than one year.

The social class composition of the students tends to be rather more skewed than all women in teacher-training, as 68 percent of the students in the longitudinal sample come from homes in classifications 1 and 11 (non-manual) of the Registrar-General's Scale for occupations, compared with a national average of around 58 percent (Taylor, 1969a). The schools the students have attended tend to mirror the national picture for all students; 77 percent coming from state schools the remainder from the independent sector. Within this figure, 25 percent have attended comprehensive, modern or technical schools for their secondary education and the remaining 52 percent received a grammar school education.

The college has hostel places for 250 students, representing two-thirds of the student population. This compares with the Robbins'

Report's figure of 84 per cent but it should be noted that this higher figure includes students in "digs" as well as in college halls of residence. Taylor gives evidence that in the colleges in London and the South East, whilst 52 per cent of students lived in hall, 34 per cent were in digs and only 14 per cent lived at home. The college in this study does not have any official scheme for student digs, and recognise only the two categories: resident and non-resident students. Students going out of residence have to make their own accommodation arrangements.

Thus students at the college are characterised, in relation to the total population of student teachers, by rather below average educational attainment and rather above average social class background. Only a minority have entered the college as first choice candidates.

SELECTION PROCEDURES

The college selection procedures are given in some detail. It is held that this selection process is crucial as it not only constitutes the point at which entry to the profession takes place, but also that it represents, in microcosm, the view of the role of the teacher underlying the whole of the three year course. Thus it is necessary to analyse closely what takes place in the selection of students as it is held that this initial contact with college, together with the early part of the course, is highly significant in presenting to students a coherent set of values and role prescriptions which characterise the college and its expectations for teacher attitudes and behaviour.

In an analysis which applies to the conditions of the 1960s, Taylor has argued that there is a place somewhere in colleges of education for nearly all the qualified individuals who apply; questions of personality and suitability for teaching are largely irrelevant (Taylor, 1969a, p202). Nonetheless, all colleges adopt selection and interview procedures, and accept only a proportion of all

candidates. It is therefore necessary to examine the procedures adopted in the college studied, in order to make clear the criteria for selection and the assumptions underlying them.

It has already been shown that over three fifths of students are not first choice candidates and many students emerge from "second round" procedures. In this process the Clearing House forms of candidates who have failed to obtain a place in any of the colleges of their choice are circulated to those colleges which still have vacancies available. The college studied is in this position and finds itself interviewing candidates well into the summer term preceding the October entry. On occasion students are accepted during the summer vacation to fill vacant places. The college could expand to 450 students by increasing its day students, which argues for an annual intake of 150 students, but it has not been able to achieve this figure due to a lack of applications.

All candidates are called to the college for a morning of interviews. In order to recruit the 126 students of the 1968-71 cohort, twenty-one interview mornings were held in the preceding academic year 1967/8 (four during the autumn term, eight in the spring term and nine in the summer term). Usually, approximately ten candidates are called to each interview morning. No objective tests of intelligence or attainment or personality tests of any sort are administered. The college prospectus states that the candidates are called for an "informal interview", and this informality is very much a characteristic of the morning the candidate spends in college.

Each candidate experiences three interviews. The Admissions Tutor conducts the first interview, not in her study, but in the Principal's drawing room. "Drawing Room" conveys well the atmosphere in which the student first encounters college staff: it is spacious, elegant, with furnishings, objects d'art and pictures showing a taste out of keeping with the dingy surroundings of the neighbourhood.

The Admissions Tutor in her own words, attempts to "put the candidate at her ease" by general conversation about interests, home situation, and school work. If there are queries about main course work they are usually dealt with in this first interview of between ten and twenty minutes, but the emphasis is not, from the tutor's point of view, upon academic achievement. Only in French, the Admissions Tutor's own subject, is high achievement as a vital prerequisite, stressed. The Clearing House application form which the candidate has completed serves as a basis for the interview, but, again in the Tutor's own words, it is "the personal qualities" of the student which are being assessed.

The candidate next has a short interview with the Principal who similarly stresses informality, and who is concerned to gain "an impression of the candidate as a person". Here too the candidate is encouraged to talk about herself in relation to both in-school and out-of-school activities; any interests in work with children (Sunday-school, Club work etc.) being followed up. If the candidate has any connection with the college, through knowing a student, or coming from a school which has previously supplied students, this is mentioned by the Principal or Admissions Tutor as an encouragement to conversation. The notion of a "formal interview" is, in the minds of the staff concerned, played down as much as possible, and phrases such as "making her feel relaxed", "making her feel at home", "making her feel we are genuinely interested in her as a person", "getting to know her", are much used when describing the interview procedure.

The potential student is then seen in company with two or three other candidates by a panel of tutors in one of the college's two public reception rooms. These rooms have the same qualities as the Principal's drawing room. Any tutor may volunteer for the interviewing panel by signing on a list displayed at the beginning of each term on the staff noticeboard. Three tutors constitute the panel (changed to two tutors

in 1969/70 academic year) and there is no formal requirement as to its composition. Interest and availability are the sole qualifications for interviewing, and in 1967/8 all tutors took some part in interview procedures but the range of involvement was wide. Eleven tutors interviewing once only whilst one interviewed on five occasions. The Education department was represented at ten of the twenty-one interview mornings.

In the panel meeting there is again conscious striving for informality, and a circle of easy chairs is made for the group of three or four students and three staff, with candidates and staff evenly spread around the circle. The staff have not had access to the candidates' application forms, and know little or nothing about the individuals at the interview unless the Admissions Tutor has made a point of specifically mentioning a particular candidate to them. The group is together for between twenty minutes to half an hour, and an attempt is made to encourage discussion, particularly, if possible, between the candidates themselves. If a candidate shows signs of "taking up" another candidate's remark" or "joining in freely" or "contributing nicely but not dominating"[1], this is commented on favourably by the staff selection meeting which ends the morning.

It is not possible to outline the precise form of what happens at each of these panel interviews, but some general comments apply to all. The group of candidates are brought in by the College Registrar to the three tutors. They are invited to join the circle, sitting in the prearranged chairs such that each student will face at least one tutor, but will have another to one side of her. Introductions are made by the tutors and students are asked to identify themselves and say a little about where they come from, which school they are attending and the

(1) All expressions used by staff at the selection meeting

subjects they are studying. Invariably, as they do this, supplementary questions are asked about the journey to college, and those who have travelled from a distance or stayed overnight in London appear to be made objects of special interest. This "travel" interest of the staff is probably less to do with the question of residence or non-residence but mote with the general preliminaries of "putting them at their ease" or "giving them something to talk about" (staff expressions). As the students volunteer items of information about themselves the staff members of the panel attempt to utilise these as starting points for discussion. If all the candidates come from single-sex schools an effort is made to initiate a discussion on co-education; if a particular novel or play is mentioned, this, or a theme arising from it is put up as a basis for a discussion; the "value" of a particular subject, or of the prefect system, or of "play" in primary education, have similarly been used.

It is the writer's experience that such "discussions" inevitably do not go deep, and it would be very unwise to assume that the candidates are not aware that they are "on trial" and feel the need to go through their paces before the tutors (certainly, the interview sample in this investigation, whilst acknowledging the informality of the selection procedure, clearly recognised the nature of their experience). What is general is that certain questions are put to the group and the candidates in turn are asked for their opinions on them. A number of these questions will be purely factual and biographical, relating to home, school and travel to college. A question which is always asked in every panel is about the candidate's experience with children; almost the only thing which can be said with complete certainty about all candidates is that at some time during their morning in college someone has asked about children and their work or experience with them. Work with younger children is especially looked for, and candidates are reminded that the college does not prepare specifically for secondary teaching; that the

major interest of college is in primary schools. Direct questions are
not usually asked about why the candidate wishes to teach, her strength
of motivation being indirectly assessed in the general impressions gained
by tutors during the course of the morning, and from her Head Teacher's
report. Information of the limited usefulness of "Why do you want to
teach?" question is found in Shipman, 1966; Tudhope, 1944. When the
question is asked in the panel it is the writer's experience that a
Regan-Goneril bidding process invariably takes place.

The interview in the panel interview is intended by the staff to
be informal and relaxed, and the method of interview is similarly intend-
ed to give some fore-taste of the college's teaching procedures: group
discussion drawing on personal experience, with tutors acting as primus
inter pares. It might be argued that these procedures constitute an
introduction to "the techniques of manipulative socialization", which
according to Taylor (1969a) characterise some aspects of the training
of teachers. This argument is all relative to what follows in the course
itself.

During the morning students already at the college, and all the
candidates, meet in the panel interview room for coffee. Staff do not
usually join in this coffee discussion, but do usually hand round coffee
(again as part of the informality procedures), retiring to the far end
of the room for their own discussion. The candidates are afterwards
shown around the college and hostels by the students, but students are
not otherwise involved in selection procedures. However, if a candidate
shows she knows a student already at college, efforts are made to locate
that student so that she may show the candidate the college. This may
be seen as part of the general "welcoming" atmosphere of the college.

Thus, an individual candidate will be interviewed separately by
the Admission Tutor and the Principal, will join in a panel interview
with two or three other candidates with tutors, and will have the

opportunity of being shown over the college by students. All will be
reminded during the morning of the college's primary school orientation,
and will realise that the college is very interested in people who have
interest in, and experience with, children - particularly younger child-
ren. There will be on the part of staff a very conscious effort to display
friendliness, an interest in the candidates as people, and whilst school
work and achievement are discussed, the primary focus is upon the cand-
idate's personal rather than academic or intellectual qualities. This
orientation is clearly seen in the selection meeting which ends the
interview morning. Each candidate is discussed, all tutors involved
reporting his or her impression, and agreement on acceptance or rejection
is reached by consensus. The nature of the discussion rarely centres
around the academic capabilities of the student, the assumption being
that even is she is very weak, the nature of the course, catering for
individual needs and interests will enable her to improve and reach the
required standard. Rather, discussion is focussed on personal character-
istics and attitudes in so far as they have been impressionistically
assessed by staff. Favourable expressions of attitudes towards children
are remarked on and held to the candidate's credit, as is work with child-
ren, particularly if this work has been voluntary and in some informal
situation rather than a teaching situation in a school. Pre-college
experience with children is warmly regarded by the staff, but when this
experience is in the form of pre-college teaching, the staff's attitude,
in the writer's judgement, is somewhat ambivalent; pre-college teaching
being regarded, other things being equal, as not as important a qualify-
ing factor as other types of work. The general feeling is that in some
way this prior teaching experience may serve to fix the student in undes-
irable attitudes or behaviour, and to diminish her flexibility, or to
make her less open to the ideas implied in the college course. It
should be stressed that this interpretation is the writer's own and cannot

be objectified, as certainly no candidate has ever been rejected on account of previous teaching experience, but it remains a strong impression, and accords with the general college ethos and values which will be examined below.

Participation in the panel discussions also are held to the candidate's credit, but there is strong staff antipathy towards a candidate who has "dominated" the discussion, particularly if the views expressed by that candidate are interpreted as "inflexible" or "illiberal" or "authoritarian" or reflecting poor attitudes towards children. Similarly, a very quiet candidate in a panel discussion will also be considered at length, but this behaviour will usually be regarded in a more favourable light than that of the "dominant" candidate. The feeling is usually expressed that "college will do something for her", "college will bring her out" (staff expressions used at selection meetings); the stress again being more upon the development of personal qualities of character rather than of intellect or achievement. This is not to say that academic and intellectual qualities are not considered at the selection meeting, rather it is to show that the major emphasis is upon qualities other than these.

Rejection or acceptance then is a function of personality factors and attitudes as assessed by staff rather than ability to cope with academic work. The decision is reached by discussion, never by vote, of the five staff involved, and the Principal regards herself as having only the same power as the other four members. During the discussion on each candidate the Head Teacher's report and a personal reference (usually by a clergyman) is read, together with mentions of what other colleges have said about her at other interviews. For borderline cases these opinions have weight in enabling a decision to be taken. In the use of this written material emphasis is laid upon the personal qualities and strength of commitment mentioned, and staff impressions at interview are

checked against the references along these character dimensions. The
school situation in which the student will find herself is usually
raised in these borderline cases, staff being asked to consider "How will
she make out in X school?" The school mentioned is a local school, diffi-
cult Primary school. The answer to this question is sought in staff
assessment of such qualities as "endurance", "resilience", and "sympathy
and relationship with children" (staff expressions) as evidenced in
their impressions from the interviews and the supporting documents.

These procedures may be construed as the exercise of professional
judgement based on knowledge and experience. The difficulties inherent
in such a situation has been represented in diagramatic form by Taylor:

"The interviewer is being asked to make a decision (A) about
the relationship of certain qualifications and personality
attitudes (B), to subsequent behaviour and performance as a
student (C) and as a teacher (D). It is unlikely that he has
much information about the crucial relationships between (B)
and C, B and D, and C and D on which a decision could reason-
ably be based. In this situation it is inevitable that exper-
ience and hunches should play the greatest part" (Taylor, 1969a,
p.201).

What can be said with some certainty in this situation is that
although the problems of selection pinpointed by Taylor's model apply
equally to all colleges, there is an unspoken assumption within this
college's selection procedures which emphasises certain personality
characteristics as important in the performance of both students and
teachers, and that it is in relation to these characteristics that

selection is made. The analysis of the college course makes clearer how these assumptions are reified in the three year course. Here it is sufficient to make use of Parson's pattern variables (Parsons, 1951) to illuminate how the selection interview embodies those features of the college course which presuppose certain orientations in the role of the teacher and of the student.

Pattern variables represent dichotomous courses of action from which a role incumbent must choose, explicitly or implicitly, before he can orientate himself to the performance of his role. Parsons posits five of these action dilemmas:

1. <u>Affectivity - Affective neutrality</u>

The role incumbent decides how far he will be emotionally involved with the other person in the relationhsip, or how far he will adopt a neutral, impersonal, instrumental stance. The tutor's role at the interview predicates that in the college course the student-tutor relationship will be of the former kind and strongly implies a view of the teacher's role as highly affectively toned interaction with her pupils.

2. <u>Specificity - Diffuseness</u>

The role-incumbent must decide whether to maintain a limited relationship on a clearly defined front in his interaction with others, or whether to orientate towards them as total personalities on a very wide diffuse front. Diffuseness implies that the limits to the expectations one person might have of another are not specified. The tutor's role at interview is to maintain an interest in all aspects of a candidate's behaviour and to show that she matters as a person, a role which will only be moderately modified in the instrumental aspects of the three year course. It makes clear the college's view of the teacher's role as one calling for diffuse involvement with children.

3. <u>Universalism - Particularism</u>

The role-incumbent must decide whether to apply universalistic criteria in his judgement of another, implying primarily cognitive, academic standards of evaluation, or whether he will apply "appreciative criteria" relating to the individual's unique characterisitc, the totality of his individual qualities. Tutors at interview are less concerned with academic performance than with candidate's personalities and attitudes. Whilst throughout the course a concern for academic standards in the students' work is manifested, a stronger emphasis is upon the individual qualities and limitations of the particular student. Further, over the three years, tutors develop strong loyalties towards individual students. Thus, the view of the teacher's role made both **explicitly** and implicitly in the course is one far less concerned with **judging children** by some "objective" academic standard of marks obtained than in relation to the child's unique personality - a recognition of the principle of individual differences and of the importance of the relationship between the teacher and an individual child.

4. <u>Quality - Performance</u>

The dilemma of a role-incumbent's orientation here is somewhat similar to that of universalism-particularism; it is concerned with differentiating between people either on the basis of their abilities or on the basis of certain of their attributes such as age or sex or ethnic group. In the interview situation what the candidate can <u>do</u> is known only in terms of academic performance - her future performance as a teacher can only be guessed at (and the measuring-rod here will be rather more concerned with affective than cognitive performances). The candidate then is selected more in terms of what she <u>is</u> - a young woman with a desire to teach, with potential for development - than in terms of performance, present or future, in a

mainly cognitive sphere. The role of the teacher implied here is one where the teacher makes allowances for age and sex and background, judging the child as a child, rather than evaluating the child only by what he can achieve in certain school situations.

5. Self-Orientation - Collectivity Orientation

The role incumbent must decide how far to pursue his own private interests and how far to pursue those of the group to which he belongs and give priority to the interests of others. It is this latter view which characterises the college. The interview situation sees the tutors concerned with entry to the professional organisation /to which they belong; and concerned for the welfare of their "clients", the candidates; a concern which will become even more evident during the three year course. The role of the teacher implied here is one which expects her to act according to the best interests of the children she teaches. It is a view of the teacher calling for selflessness and which echoes Waller's description of teachers as missionaries.

Thus the college selection procedures suggest that the teacher's role is orientated towards affectivity rather than neutrality, diffuseness rather than specificity, particularism rather than universalism, quality rather than performance, and stressing collectivity rather than self-orientation. A consideration of the college course follows which confirms this interpretation and undertakes an analysis of the primary value orientations of the college.

THE COLLEGE COURSE

It is neither possible nor necessary to describe in exact detail every aspect of the college course. The emphasis here will be upon the Education course, but as this accounts for only approximately two fifths of the time-tabled time, some description of the other courses must be given. In the college prospectus it is stated:

"A tutorial method of teaching is used and much of the work is done
individually and in small group seminars"

Here again the emphasis upon the individual may be noted, and the stud-
ent's early experiences in college serve to reinforce learning the appro-
priate value orientation towards all aspects of education which the formal
organisation of college appears to promote.

On entering college the student encounters three major organisational
features of the curriculum, the Introductory Course, the Main Course and
the Education Course.

The Introductory Course

Students are placed for their first half term in college in six
groups of approximately twenty, on the basis of their interview groups.
Staff are similarly grouped so that on the first day of college the
students will not only meet other students who they may remember from
the same interview panel, but they will also meet the staff who inter-
viewed them. The stress is on, as it was in the interview, "making the
student feel at home", and the hope of the staff is that this familiarity
will ease the transfer from school or work to college. The stated aim
of the course, which occupies two days each week, is "in getting to know
the college and its London environment" (College prospectus p.2.). It
has been the further aim of the Principal that the course should be an
introduction to the college way of working. This way of working, in
terms of the introductory course, is characterised by informality and
lack of clearly structured short term objectives.

The five or six members of staff who have been grouped according to
their interview participation meet before the course to decide what their
particular procedures will be within the general framework of "getting
to know the college and its London environment". The courses which
emerge are various, and take account of the particular interests and

qualifications of the tutors, but certain common features can be noted. First, the students are sent out into London a good deal, often on their own, but occasionally with tutors. They are given a very free choice of what they may study. Many of the interview sample complained of the "looseness", "vagueness" and "ambiguity" of the course. One group, because of the interest of a particular tutor, did a good deal of photography in London; another group prepared an itinerary for an imagined school visit to London. This school focus was unusual – it was the only introductory group gearing itself to a school situation. Another group studied the underground rivers of London; and another undertook a study of the docks.

A second feature of the introductory course is in its lack of lectures or direct teaching. Group discussions with staff is the major formal organisational feature and an attempt is invariably made in each group on the part of the staff to assume a non-directive role and to encourage the students to assume responsibility for leading discussion or giving information to the group. This interchange of roles, with students leading and teaching had been specifically recommended by the Principal, as an introduction to desirable classroom practice.

A third feature, less easily discernible for all groups as the writer participated only in one group each year, is that the degree of staff involvement tends to be fairly small. In the groups studied by participant-observation the total time of staff-student interaction was less than one quarter of the total time available. From conversation with staff in other groups, from indirect observation, and from discussion with students in the interval sample there is no reason to believe that the writer's group experience was untypical.

No evaluation of the work carried out in the introductory course was attempted. This lack of any systematic evaluation procedures characterises much of the college course. There is a feeling among a

number of the college staff that it is impossible, unnecessary or undesirable. Exhibitions of work completed by the groups were however set up in various rooms throughout college and all students were given the opportunity to look at the work of other groups. This formal similarity with Primary school project work may be noted.

Thus the Introductory Course is intended to fulfil a professional and a social purpose - to introduce the student to a "way of working" which may be used in schools and to learn about London and about tutors. Similarly it is meant to afford tutors the opportunity to learn about the students in an informal atmosphere. The evidence from the interview sample shows that students rate the value of the course very low indeed.

The interview sample of this study were asked on several occasions their impressions of the Introductory Course, and whether they felt that it had contributed to their knowledge or understanding of the role of the teacher. The replies show remarkable uniformity, for all students are alike in their agreement that, as far as they could see, they learned nothing about the teacher's task from the course. Only a small minority had enjoyed the course, and this was usually for the personal freedom it had offered them to pursue their own intersts (which in two cases appeared to have nothing whatever to do with teacher education!). The great majority of students appear to have been puzzled, confused and disappointed with this initial introduction to teacher training.

There was much general and particular criticism of lack of aims or direction in the course, and few saw any link between classroom procedures and the course. What is obvious from the interview is that the initial expectations of the students were certainly not fulfilled by this aspect of the college course. There was a feeling of drift and lack of positiveness, and few students thought that they had "got to know the staff well" during the four weeks, several students indeed were surprised to learn that certain members of staff were attached to their group. The amount of staff-student interaction (as measured merely by length of

time when two groups were physically present in the same place) appears, from student report, to have been small.

Five students did however comment that what they had learned during the course was "not to work" and one mentioned specifically that she had learned "the wrong habits" during the course - referring to attitudes toward college work. Day students were particularly critical of the stated aims of the course arguing that they already knew well, and would have preferred work more directly geared towards teaching and children. Thus, in terms of such stated aims as do exist, the Introductory course is not seen as a success by students who feel a need for more direct school experience. The impact upon studets would appear to be a negative one of general discontent.

In spite of the apparently unsuccessful nature of the course it is worth emphasising that its formal aims, imprecise as they are, and its conduct, epitomise many of the values implicit in the role of the teacher as characterised by other college procedures: the value of first hand experience, the emphasis upon group feeling, the principle of integration of subjects (even if this was not well practised on the course), informality, a stress on personal relationships, and an active involvement with the environment rather than a stress on the academic or intellectual. Like the selection interview, the Introductory course can be seen as a microcosm of the process of professional socialisation the students undergo.

Main Course of Study

All students undertake for all three years of their course, one main course or special field of study. The college offers ten main courses: Art and Craft, Dance and Drama, Biology, Divinity, English Literature, French, Geography, History, Music and Physics. With the sole exception of French there are no formal qualifications deemed

absolutely necessary for entry to any of the main courses. It has been seen that the college interview procedure does not lay stress upon academic achievement but rather upon personal qualities assessed by staff. In selecting a main subject, a similar pattern holds: motivation and interest are of great importance. It can be generally argued that the tutors do not choose their students, rather, the students select their own main course. However, all students, except Special Entry students and Dance and Drama students possessed at least an O level or equivalent in their special field.

Unlike many colleges, students are given the first half term to "sample" various main courses, and to switch their allegiance from that shown on their application form. During these four weeks students are free to go from tutor to tutor, to make enquiries about what the course entails and to find out how suited they are to its demands. This period of time is further evidence of the orientation of the college towards the individual and away from universalistic demands based purely on academic achievement. Similarly, much sympathy is given to students who later wish to change their main course of study, and of the 126 students in the longitudinal sample of this study, ten changed main course during their first year.

The method of teaching in the main courseiis, as the prospectus notes, on tutorial and small group seminar lines. In some subjects this is facilitated by favourable staff student ratios as low as 1:3 in two courses over all three years of students. Considering only one year of students these ratios became even more favourable. Taking the third year only of the longitudinal sample, staff-student ratios (to the nearest whole number) were: Art and Craft 1:7; Dance and Drama 1:4; History 1:8; English 1:5; Geography 1:1; French 1:4; Divinity 1:3; Music 1:1; Science 1:2.

In the two largest departments, Art and Craft, and Dance and Drama

which together account for approximately 45 per cent of all students
in college, it can clearly be seen that the nature of the work calls for
a good deal of individual and group work on the part of students. It is
not possible for the writer to comment with total accuracy upon the
standards and pedagogy characterising each department, but what is advanc-
ed as a strong impression gained over six years of conversation with and
observation of main course colleagues is that there is a feeling that
interest and motivation will help all but the very weakest candidates to
achieve the required standard. Academic standards are important, but so
too are the personal qualities of each student. The very low failure
rate of this college (as in all colleges), is partial evidence for this
statement, but the individual tuition which is possible on such favour-
able staff student ratios must also be taken into account.

The evidence of the interview sample is that students perceive
their main courses as being for their own personal development rather
than for providing direct links with the role of the practising teacher.
All acknowledged that the study of the subject in depth probably contri-
buted to their effectiveness as a teacher, but, apart from those students
whose orientation was toward secondary teaching, this contribution was
seen in a fairly limited area of teacher activity. It is suggested that
many students separate their main course work from what they see as the
major function of college and regard this study as only very partly
connected with school and the role of the teacher. Nevertheless, the
argument of this thesis is that the model of the role of the teacher
presented by main course tutors in their own teaching is, whilst main-
taining a due concern for academic standards, congruent with that impli-
cit in the selection procedure and introductory course: informal,
personal, learner and group centred, and concerned with diffuse involve-
ment with students, rather than maintaining a position of affective
neutrality mediated through their subject. This diffuse involvement,

and a concern for integration of subjects is further fostered by main course tutors' active participation in other areas of the three year course, particularly supervision of school practice.

The Education Course

It is in a consideration of the Education Course over the three years of teacher-training that the values and orientations underlying the model of the role of the teacher presented by the college become most clear. Students look upon the Education Course (including school practice) as the major source of learning the norms, values and behaviours appropriate to teaching; Chapter 9 gives ample evidence for this. The interview sample place school practice and the theory of education course in first and second places when asked to identify major sources of influence upon their role learning. Further, Education tutors rank second to school teachers as a group having had most influence on teacher role learning.

How much the views expressed as a result of such learning are an attitudinal veneer and how much they are an expression of genuine belief, issuing in action, is a question examined in greater detail in Chapter 9. What may be asserted is that the students themselves pinpoint the Education course as of greatest significance, in relation to all other college activities, in the process of professional socialization. The Education course is therefore examined in some detail, and it is suggested that in spite of variations which may exist from tutor, the role model presented is both clear and pervasive, and contains those elements which Taylor argues stem from the "social and literary romanticism" which has characterised much of English teacher education in the first half of this century.

Several major organisational features may be observed in the Education course: school practice; club work; summer vacation work;

the undifferentiated first year; age range divisions in the second
and third years and the nature of assessment procedures; and the system
of group discussion which constitute the dominant mode of teaching and
interaction.

SCHOOL PRACTICE

There are four school practices in the three years of training. A
two week, mornings only, practice at the start of the second term
(significantly called "Group Study"); a four week practice in the first
half of the third term, when all students except a few married women go
to Suffolk to work in the village schools and live in the villages; a
four week practice in the fifth term in London schools; and a ten week
final practice taking almost the whole of term seven. The pattern is
thus: First Year: Term 2, Group Study, 2 weeks;
                      Term 3, Suffolk 4 weeks

        Second Year: Term 5, London 4 weeks

        Third Year: Term 7 Final, London 10 weeks

Group Study

The first practice, "Group Study", more than any other exemplifies
the college's educational philosophy. Students are divided into groups
ranging from five to twenty five, based on the students' own age-range
preferences as far as possible, and are then placed in a school with
two to five tutors. The students work, four or five in a classroom,
each responsible for a group of children, usually between five and eight
in number. Students are in school only for the mornings of Group Study
and spend the afternoons with their tutors discussing, as a group, and
preparing for the following day. The tutors' role in the school is desi-
gnated as "helping and advising", and the tutor spends the morning
moving from class to class and from group to group working with the

students and children, or just "supervising". All tutors in the College, Education and Main Course, are involved in this way, there is no role-differentiation as there will be on the second and third year practices. The class teacher tends to play little part in Group Study beyond the administrative formalities at the start and end of the morning.

The closeness of involvement of staff and students on this practice, both in the classroom and the discussion groups which follow maximises the opportunities for students to learn the attitudes which are deemed appropriate by the staff. Their own performance, and that of their tutors, is highly visible and therefore there is a good deal of concern that, being on constant view, their behaviours should be seen to be "right". All students in the interview group comment on this factor of "visibility" and the concomitant need to be seen displaying the right attitudes. What these attitudes are can be rapidly checked by observing the behaviour of the tutors in the classroom, seeing their attitudes towards the children and the work. Further, the tutors are constantly "on hand", and in the afternoon discussion sessions can be questioned on appropriate behaviour in particular circumstances. Thus, the tutor's role is also an exposed one here and students have much opportunity to learn about staff attitudes.

In the classroom the student, with her half dozen or so children, has been told to provide work for the children, to get to know them individually, to establish a relationship, and to observe group pro-cesses at work. The student has already had a term of observing one child, now she is placed in a small group situation as a kind of teacher and required to demonstrate not so much the technical skills of a teacher, but rather the personal qualities that she is a person interesting to children and capable of forming a relationship with them. Whilst preparation of work is urged upon the students, it appears to be considered more important by the majority of staff that

the students' real task is "to get to know the children".

In the discussion groups in which the writer has taken part, and from observation of and conversation with colleagues, words like "activity", "experience", "discovery", "needs"and "interests" are much used, and students are urged to plan their work along these lines. At the extreme end of the scale some tutors advise no specific preparation before the practice, feeling that this might limit flexibility and responsiveness to the children's own characteristics. A strong impression which students/from this practice, confirmed by the interview sample, is one of child-centredness, spilling over into permissiveness. Whilst staff do not advise letting the child do as he likes, nonetheless this impression is held by a large number of students. The idea of a child-centred classroom, rather than a teacher-centred one is brought home to the students as one thought desirable by college. The physical organisation of the classroom, with five groups of children working with five students reinforces this impression, as does the insistence by staff that the work should arise out of the children's needs and interests.

In all groups an effort is made by the tutors to ensure that children and students go physically and mentally outside the classroom walls. Students are encouraged to take their children out, if possible beyond the school walls to the local neighbourhood or even further afield. These journeys, however short, are obviously deemed important by the staff, and are explained in terms of providing experience and opportunities for integration of subject matter. A significant point is that in the secondary schools where Group Study takes place the same procedures are adhered to, and with both first formers and fourth formers many similarities with the primary school groups can be observed.

The problem of discipline arises on Group Study, as on all school practices. The college approach to the solution of such problems illuminates the nature of tutors' views on the authority of the teacher.

Using Weber's concepts, an appeal to traditional authority (that based
on the sacredness of the social order, the traditional status of the
teacher) is ruled out. Legal authority too, in its sense of rules govern-
ing relations in a bureaucracy, is similarly not recommended. The nature
of the social situation (a high degree of inter personal involvement,
with the student in an ambiguous and ill-defined role), together with the
student's interpretation of staff wishes, is felt to make either of these
two types of authority inappropriate. Rather, the authority of the stud-
ent is seen to be of a highly personal type. It is a combination of
legal-rational authority (in its sense of being concerned to give reasons
for action) and charismatic authority. This latter is personal and non-
rational, based on the qualities of the group leader. The very strong
emphasis by tutors on developing good personal relationships in the class-
room is the dominant feature of group study.

The advice to students experiencing control difficulties is in terms
of "getting to know the children". Great emphasis is placed upon stud-
ents understanding the social and emotional causes of the difficulty,
and in showing concern for, and interest in, the child. It is the
writer's judgement that such advice tends to locate causes of poor behav-
iour and learning in the home and neighbourhood, rather than in the
school and classroom. Although advice is given on classroom practice,
students report that this tends to be of a general rather than a specific
type, more concerned with understanding reasons for failure than with
indicating particular courses of action to promote learning. As such,
students take an increasingly sceptical view of the value of the exper-
ience. Further evidence for this is given in Chapter 9, but it would
appear that the dominant qualities of teacher pupil relationships convey-
ed by tutors to students during Group Study are those of diffuseness,
affectivity and particularism. Childcentredness, the value of group
work, integration of subject matter characterise the practice, and there
is a general constellation of feeling about pedagogy conveyed in terms

such as "activity", "discovery", and "experience" as valuable ways of learning.

That the staff consider Group Study of great value may be deduced from the considerable of time it has been in operation, virtually un-changed over more than twelve years; and from intensive staff discuss-ions on teaching practice held during the academic year 1969/70, which judged it of very great importance from the point of view of timing, placement and its contribution towards student development.

No literal marks are given by staff for students' performance on Group Study; this reluctance to assign a literal or numerical mark to an individual is held to be a further indication of the strongly person-centred characteristic of the college. A written report is made on each student bya the tutor who has been most closely involved with her over the two weeks. From a review of the comments, successor failure is assessed largely in terms of personal qualities and relationship with children, and the student's potential is assessed on similar criteria.

Suffolk Practice

This four week practice occupies the first half of the summer term, and, like Group Study, implies a role of the teacher which is person-centred, integrative, and diffuse; one concerned with the expressive more than with the instrumental aspects of the role. The organisation of the practice is the responsibility of the vice-principal and strong personal links have been built up over a period of years by her with the head teachers and "hostesses" in the villages in which the students teach. Students are placed, in self-chosen pairs, in schools and billets where it is felt they will "fit". Many personal considerations are taken into account in this placing. There is a conscious striving on the part of the Education staff responsible to ensure that the individual students wishes are met as far as age range of children is concerned; and the

personality of students in relation to the personalities of heads, teachers and hostesses is much discussed. Those students who have a special diet, or dislike dogs, or intend to take bicycles (all these characteristics are asked for on the form the students complete) are allocated to what are thought to be suitable placings.

Students are urged to look upon the four weeks as more than a purely school practice. They are recommended to take a full part in village life, to get to know the Suffolk countryside and to look upon the time as a "total experience" (staff expression) from which they can benefit professionally and personally. Six pre-Suffolk meetings are held during the preceding term both for administration purposes and for tutors to point out the opportunities which are available in Suffolk. These meetings stress the extension of the teacher's role beyond the classroom and the value of the experience to the students' personal development: both in school time and own time the students are urged to "get out and explore" (staff expression). If students wish, they are granted permission by college to take time off from school to visit distant places in East Anglia.

Students spend the whole four weeks living in the villages and working in the village schools. They are requested if possible not to return to London, or home, during that period, but rather to make Suffolk their base and "exploit its opportunities to the full" (staff expression). All the schools are small, the average size of staff in the Primary schools used by the longitudinal sample in 1969 was 4:1. Only fourteen students practised in secondary schools and the size of the seven schools used ranged from three hundred to six hundred. Discipline in all the schools is agreed by tutors and students to present fewer problems than in London.

The college instructions to students and to schools suggest that students work their way gradually into the task of teaching, beginning by taking small groups of children and spending the first week getting

to know the children and the staff. Although students are required to write to their Headteachers before the practice to ask for information about the school and class, there is no formal college requirement for preparation of schemes of work in advance of the practice. Rather, students are advised to study the needs and interests of the children and the opportunities offered by the local environment, and as they get to know these better during the practice, to base their teaching upon them. "Getting to know" is a much used phrase in the pre-Suffolk sessions, and implies a teacher's role which is non authoritarian and learner rather than teacher centred.

Supervision of the practice by tutors is close, but is concerned as much with the students' personal welfare as with their school performance. Approximately six tutors, education and main course, live in a hotel in Bury St. Edmunds for each week of the practice. They have no obligations for the week they stay in Suffolk other than responsibilities for the students. Consequently, individual students are much discussed, and a good deal of attention is focussed upon problem cases. It is indicative of the diffuseness of the tutor's role that on the Sunday on which the students travel to Suffolk, tutors use their cars to ferry those with difficult journeys from railway station to billets. All billets are visited within the first few days ostensibly to deliver payment cheques, but in reality to ensure that students and hostesses are well matched. This diffuse commitment continues throughout the practice, and early evening visiting of billets continues. Students are encouraged to contact the tutors on any matter, professional or personal, which is giving cause for concern. On the first weekend all students are invited to an informal coffee morning at the hotel with tutors. In 1969 over 70 per cent of students took part in this informal meeting.

Schools are visited by tutors weekly, or more frequently if problems occur, and a written record is kept of each visit. Tutors urge students to look upon these visits as friendly and helpful approaches; they

wish their role to be seen as advisory rather than supervisory or assessing. From the evidence of the interview sample this is not how the students view the tutors' visits. Students showed appreciation of the fact that they were not entirely cut off from college for four weeks, but there was a good deal of criticism, the visits being seen as unhelpful, often too short, and too little concerned with professional matters. There was a certain ambivalence in the students' view of the tutors, on the one hand wanting to be left alone without the interference, as they saw it, of someone coming in to assess their performance, and on the other hand of wanting frequent visits for pedagogic help and advice. This ambivalence shows up in the development of the student perspective on teaching practice discussed in Chapter 9. The tutors' view of their role is thus not congruent with that seen by the students.

The organisational features of the schools support a view of teacher's role as diffuse and affectively oriented. They tend to be small, often with no staff rooms, teachers responsible for a wide age and ability range of children, with relatively few discipline problems. Further, students lived in the village, often at the home of one of the school's children, thus seeing many of the children after 4.0 p.m. These organisational characteristics could be argued to foster this child centred view of the teacher's role. Those students who found themselves in what they saw as "formal" situations tended to be critical of their teachers, and expressed regret at not having been allowed to teach in a "freer" way.

Only one student interviewed reported not enjoying the Suffolk practice, and all except one report it as a significant experience in role-learning, although they do not accord it as much significance as the two subsequent practices. Much emphasis was placed upon the difference between London and Suffolk schools and children, those in

Suffolk being seen as "much easier" (student expression) than London.
In the students' minds there appears to be a good deal of situational
specificity relating to teaching practice (Chapter 7), and whilst the
general complaint against all practices is their "artificiality",
criticism of the Suffolk practice was in terms of its being too unlike
London, and insufficiently preparing them for the difficulties in the
following practice. Nonetheless only one student regretted having gone
to Suffolk, and none wished the Suffolk practice not to continue,
seeing it, on balance, as a valuable personal and professional
experience.

A review was carried out of a 45 per cent sample of the files kept
by students during the practice. Students are asked to keep in these
files lesson preparation notes, lesson assessment notes recording how
the lesson succeeded, and, optionally, details of their own experiences
out of school. The overwhelming proportion of files (48 out of 51)
showed that "assessment" notes occupied between three and five times
the amount of space as "preparation" notes. The lconcentration in
these assessment notes was on a description of how the day had gone,
with emphasis upon individual children's activities, and with some
speculation as to causes of behaviour. The files constitute an enormous
weight of evidence of sympathy and concern for individual children, and
an expressed desire for free and informal ways of working. Discussion
of the teaching practice perspective in Chapter 9 must raise doubts
about the value of such files as it must be remembered that they are
written with regard to their readership - the tutors. What can be
stated with certainty is that students show little awareness of the need
to look very critically at content and technique. Hardly any student
located failures or weaknesses in her own lesson plans and execution.

Some 45 of 51 students had fairly extensive sections of their
files devoted to their own "explorations" in Suffolk, with evidence of

visits to places of interest in the region.

Second Year Practice

Students undertake a four week practice (or more accurately three weeks and three days) in London schools during the first half of the Spring term. Due to the presence of many Colleges of Education in London, the consequent demand for school practice places, and the location of the college in an area characterised by social disadvantage, there is general agreement among tutors that many of the classes which the college must use for practice present major difficulties for a student. These difficulties are largely in terms of children's behaviour problems, for in the second and third year practices "discipline" is singled out by students as their major concern. Nonetheless, in spite of this, and the apparent similarity of the second and third year practices with a more conventional form of school practice than students have so far experienced, it is argued that the major value orientations of college may still be discerned.

As far as possible students' wishes on age range, method of class organisation, and journey to school, are satisfied during the placement meeting held by the Education department. Again, personal characteristics of students are taken into account when allocating them to schools. Students are required to make a preliminary visit to the school, but the need for flexibility in preparation is stressed: the value of looking at the children, "getting to know them", and as the practice proceeds following their interests in preparing lessons. Detailed schemes of work are not demanded; only two out of six Education tutors requested them in abbreviated form before the practice.

Students are again advised to start with groups, rather than with the whole class, and the emphasis is upon gradually assuming more

responsibility. There is no formal requirement about the proportion of time a student should be teaching (i.e. responsible for the class or a group) or about the fraction of the class for which she should be responsible. Interview group students report very varied experience. Two had started almost full time teaching from the second day of the practice, whilst three report that even by the end of the practice they were responsible for the whole class for only very short periods of each day. It is however, not only differing classes and teachers which makes such a situation possible, for the college emphasis upon flexibility of arrangement places a good deal of responsibility upon the student for arranging her own "take-over" programme, and several students chose to delay assuming anything like full-time or even half time responsibility for as long as possible.

All students in the interview sample reported experiencing some conflict over what they construed as the requirement of college ("to work informally") and the situation they found in their schools, where they reported that freedom or flexibility were liable to be interpreted by children as an excuse for licence. What was at issue for students was the difficulty of applying informal methods in classes where they felt their personal authority was fragile and at risk. Thus, much anxiety was expressed about adjusting the college requirements to the realities of the situation.

Inspection of student's files again reveals their pre-occupation with describing and attempting to explain behaviour - particularly bad behaviour-in terms of out of school phenomena, rather than upon teaching technique. There is an emphasis by students, and by tutors, on the need to sympathise with, and understand, individual children. A typical remark in the files after a description of bad behaviour or non-cooperation by a child is: "but how could you expect otherwise,

because..........." and an account of the child's home life and environment follows.

The tutor's role in regard to school practice again reflects the college's recommended view of teacher role. Tutors are certainly concerned for the students' performance as teachers, and seem equally concerned with them as persons. The student is supervised by two tutors: her Education tutor (who is responsible for approximately twenty students) and a main course tutor, known as a school tutor, whose formal obligation is to visit the school regularly. The school tutor has an average five students. It is significantly indicative of college's interpretation of the teacher's role that only in secondary schools - and not then always - it is felt necessary that a student should be supervised by a tutor from her own main course. In the second year practice less than fifteen per cent of students in primary schools were supervised by a tutor of the same specialism. The school tutor signs voluntarily for the schools he wishes to visit and for the students in those schools. Discussion reveals that there is general consensus that generally it is a "good thing" for students not to be supervised in schools by their own main course tutor. This is seen as aiding the notion of integration of subjects.

On the other hand there is agreement that the tutors should know the student in some way if possible; previous knowledge from the interview, introductory course, or some other course being felt desirable. The emphasis is very much on personal relationships between student and tutor: a reflection of the student-child relationship in school. Most tutors (School and Education) interpret their role as seeing the student both in school and in the evening in college, but there was a good deal of criticism from the interview sample about the lack of help on professional pedagogic matters. Again, students experienced conflict over

tutors' visits to schools, wishing them to be more frequent and more helpful, and yet at the same time wishing them to be less frequent as they were seen in terms of supervision and assessment. The apparent friendliness of tutors was often commented on; but so was the desire for detailed professional assistance rather than generalised statements of goodwill. What students said they wanted was detailed constructive criticism of a lesson which a tutor had seen for a substantial period of time, with practical suggestions for improvement. What they felt they got were general statements of satisfaction on a briefly observed lesson, without much practical help.

It is suggested that on this practice the students felt their performance is handicapped both by the difficulties of the school situation and the lack of expert guidance from college. The interview sample evidence suggests that by the end of the second year practice students see the college as a source of general principles about the teacher's role, the implementation of those principles they see largely as being left up to the individual student's own initiative. Specific advice from tutors is limited, as the interview group see it, both by infrequent contact and arising out of general college policy. The general principles, although described in less specific terms are clearly discerned as childcentredness, diffuse involvement, particularism and affectivity.

School tutors write a report on the students they have supervised. An examination of these reports show that again a major criterion for assessing success and potential is the quality of personal relationships with children. Successful performance tends to be determined in terms of a sympathetic attitude and good "contact" with children rather than in measures of children's learning. This stress on relationships is taken as indicating the person-centred orientation of college towards students and to the role of the teacher.

Final School Practice

This practice occupies effectively the whole of the first term of the third year lasting for ten full weeks. It takes place in London schools and again disatisfaction is expressed by staff and by students that because of external pressures a number of the schools and classes used are felt to be unsuitable for student-teaching. The practice is seen by students as the crucial school experience in their college career and (Chapter 9) a great deal of anxiety is generated. Students expect it to be a difficult period and for the majority this proves to be the case.

Students visit their schools before the practicw and there is more pressure from tutors for preparatory work. However, too much preparation is discouraged as tutors are still largely concerned to encourage the students to study their particular class of children in the early weeks of the practice and to gear teaching to the children's needs and interests. The advice given to all students is again to gradually take over their classes, assuming almost full responsibility for the second half of the practice. The college view is that on this practice, students enter as junior colleagues, and their presence in school for almost a whole term will do much to making them accepted as members of staff by pupils and teachers alike.

The organisation of supervision of the practice is similar to that of the second year. The assessment component of the tutor's role figures prominently in students' minds, and it would seem that staff and similarly more preoccupied with grading, even although they are at pains to discount this aspect of their function when speaking to students. Criteria for assessment also appear similar to previous practices, the nature of personal relationships being the major focus of

staff comments on performance, both in written reports and at the final assessment meeting.

THE COLLEGE CLUBS

"The college clubs are the core of the Education Course" states a duplicated handout to students prepared by the College of Education Department in 1968. The clubs take up at least one-third of the time-tabled education time during the first and second year and an examination of them reveals the same characteristics noted in other parts of the course. This orientates the teacher's role towards childcentredness, affectivity and particularism, with a stress on activity, experience and discovery as characterising method. Pococke (1966) has described the work of the College Clubs in much detail which supports this interpretation.

In her first week in College each student is allocated a child aged between three and ten years. Students are given the opportunity to choose the age of the child they would prefer, and allocation takes account of these preferences. For the whole of the first year each student meets her child on Wednesday afternoons each week, calling at the child's home to collect him, bringing him to college for a session of up to two hours, then walking home with the child.

What the student and child do together in college is largely a matter decided by the child. The college has certain well equipped playrooms set aside for use of club children, with clay, sand, painting and modelling materials, games and toys. The children make use of these rooms, or "play" around the college; in the summer they make use of the local park. The student's role is an informal, friendly one. She is not a teacher, and this fact is stressed by tutors who are concerned that "healthy relationships" (staff expression) should develop in a situation which does not resemble school. Nonetheless, the implicit

and explicit purpose of clubs is that through the study of an individual

child the student will learn the role of the teacher more effectively:

> "the study of the growth and development of children together
> with the social relationships they form, is made the focal
> point of the curriculum" (Pococke, 1966, p.1.)

Each week students write what they have observed their child saying

or doing. The weekly notes are submitted to Education tutors, and a

weekly timetabled "club meeting" is held to discuss aspects of child

development which arise out of the work. As a socialisation process

this procedure would appear to be thorough and effective. There is

regularity of contact with child and tutor, and regular supervision of

what is being written affords many opportunities for the student to

learn what is deemed valuable by the Education staff. The importance

of clubs is emphasised both by the timetabled allocation and by the

tutors' comments. The focus on an individual child, and the stressing

of the value of good relationships implies a teacher's role which is

similarly orientated.

Pococke provides evidence that the weekly note-writing is largely

in terms of description with some intuitive interpretations of behaviour

on the part of the students. Although the club work underlies the

Education course, the overwhelming impression from Pococke and from

the writer's participant observation is that much weight is placed by

tutors upon the intuitive and the intangible, upon relationships,

rather than upon closely detailed observation or upon child study based

on a foundation of rigorous study of texts. The uniqueness of each

child is stressed, and whilst Pococke selects certain classifications

of child development for comment, students are not required to structure

their own observations in this way. Thus, by implication, the role of

the teacher which is implied is one which emphasises greatly individual

differences, the uniqueness of the child, the informal relationship

between teacher and pupil, and one which stresses the value of experience

rather than of subjects as a basis for the curriculum. The primary
school orientation of college can also be discerned as can the concern
with the child in relation to his immediate environment. (Pococke,1966,
p 106)

In the second year of the course, students are given the opportunity
to undertake their club work in schools, rather than in college with an
individual child. Forty six percent of the longitudinal sample chose to
work in schools. The focus of school based club work is not upon formal
class teaching but upon individual and small group work. Whereever
possible arrangements are made for students to take their children out
of school to places of local interest. Good relationships are much
stressed by staff, and their value echoed in students' notes and behav-
iour.

The interview sample's views on the value of club work shows much
uniformity. There is a high degree of consensus that in terms of
learning about one particular child, the club situation is regarded very
favourably. Those students who had chosen to change to school based
clubs in their second year expressed dissatisfaction with the idea of
studying one child for two years and preferred the opportunity to work
with groups in a school situation, even if it was not what they generally
regarded as "teaching".

No student questioned the necessity of deep knowledge of child
development to a teacher, but the second year school-based students
questioned whether such a knowledge could come from the club arrangement.
They, and to a lesser extent, the students who chose to remain with
their children for two years, required much more structured courses in
child development, questioning whether such knowledge could come from
their observation, notes and the club discussion periods. The artifi-
ciality of a one to one relationship was stressed, and only three out

of eighteen considered that clubs had been of direct help to them in learning the role of the teacher. All three had chosen to remain with their child for two years. When all students in the longitudinal sample were asked to assess the value of the club experience to them, they placed it fourth after school practice, education lectures and discussion, and informal discussion with other students.

The centrality of the club experience to the Education course provides further evidence that the college is attempting to socialise students into a teacher's role which is child-centred, informal, based on a personal relationship between teacher and pupil, concerned greatly with emotional and social development of the child, and calling for diffuse involvement. All these characteristics are evident in the week to week activities of club work.

SUMMER VACATION WORK - FIRST YEAR

All students are required to undertake "at least two week's residential work in Children's Homes, Hospitals, Camps etc." (College prospectus, undated). During this fortnight of intense involvement with children the students keep a detailed daily record which they present to tutors at the start of the Autumn term. Each student's record and assessment of her experience is discussed in individual tutorials. The work in education groups during the next term arises largely out of this experience and is concerned with a study of the child in the family.

The formal requirement of this piece of vacation work involving close, intense and diffuse interaction with children, and the follow-up work based on that experience, may be interpreted as a significant contribution towards the view of the teacher's role which porvades the Education course. Apart from Club notes this piece of work for many students is the first major written assignment in Education.

THE UNDIFFERENTIATED FIRST YEAR COURSE

During their first year in college students follow an undifferentiated course in Education. Age range choices are not made until the start of the second year. Education Work is in groups, each containing twenty one students. The work of the group centres a good deal around the clubs, and regular discussions are held in which individual children are considered, with the weekly club notes forming the basis for discussion. In addition students visit infant, junior and secondary schools in their first term and write reports on these visits, which again are discussed in the Education groups.

This method of group discussion with a tutor always present suggests a mode of professional socialisation on the part of the college which, by allowing frequent interaction, allows the students to learn quickly the college attitude towards teaching. The interview sample are unanimous in agreeing that this attitude is perceived as the child-centred one described earlier. Further, the interview sample evidence suggests that students detect in the undifferentiated first year course a strong Primary school bias, seeing the emphasis upon the individual child and upon approval for activity methods.

Year lectures are not an approved form of teaching in the college, except for a few talks by outside speakers. Similarly, it is the view of the Education Department that the first year is too early to start on any formal study of the disciplines of education. The first year course is largely geared to the experiences the students are having, or will have, in club or in school. The requirement of regular handing in of weekly notes, the weekly meetings of the Club/Education groups provides the channels for both communication and control. Although students in the interview sample claimed that they "did not know what was expected ofthem" in the first year, they also agreed that they detected in the

apparent informality of the college procedure the conception of the teacher's role which they felt college was concerned to foster.

At the start of the second year, students choose the age-range for which they wish to train over the following two years. The groupings offered are First School (children 5 - 9 years) and Middle School (children 9 - 13 years). Up to 1969, the groupings offered were Infant/ Junior, Junior and Junior/Secondary. The proportion choosing older as against younger children remains, over the years, remarkably constant, two thirds opting for the lower age groups (1966-69, 68 per cent; 1967-70, 63 per cent; 1968-71, 66 per cent).

THE SECOND AND THIRD YEAR EDUCATION COURSE

During the second year within the Education Groups the course becomes differentiated to suit the needs of the particular age range. The method of teaching of the first year is, with one exception, unchanged. The student still spends over one third of her time in the second year on club work, one third in Education discussion groups, and the remainder on a more formal inter-disciplinary study of education. This inter-disciplinary study is carried out by bringing two Education groups together to consider for three weeks a topic (for example, Authority, Curriculum, School and Community, Child Development), using the concepts of a particular discipline to view the topic. Thus, an individual student will listen, with forty other students, to lectures treating the topic from the standpoint of the philosophy, psychology and sociology of education, and will, in this larger group, have the opportunity for questions and discussion. It is significant that the lectures are given to smaller groups than a year group, suggesting that college does not consider this as valuable a way of transmitting information and facilitating learning as the group of forty students. Even in these

"formal" sessions, which organisationally and methodologically seem
to run counter to much of the rest of the Education course, a conscious
effort is seen to adjust the lecture situation to the pervading orienta-
tion towards the role of the teacher. It is also significant that up to
a year before this longitudinal study, such lectures did not figure in
the course, but that all education was carried on by individual tutors
with their own groups.

The work in the Education Groups proceeds, as in the first year,
by discussion and individual tutorials. Again, the opportunities for
the tutor's views on education to become highly visible are built into
the system, and students have, in the regular contact, many opportunities
of learning, or at least learning about, the particular view of the teach-
er's role held by the tutor. Although the work is increasingly differ-
entiated by age-range, the focus upon the individual child and the value
of relationships continues. Over one fifth of the curriculum of the
second year is devoted to a study of special education, with visits to
schools, speakers and films.

In the third year the study of education is reduced to little more
than a term. Term seven is almost entirely taken up with teaching
practice and only four weeks of term nine are available for formal teach-
ing. The major foci of this year's work are the student's special
exercise and preparation for assessment. The special exercise forms
one quarter of the student's final mark in the theory of education.
Students select a topic in which they are interested, and, in consulta-
tion with their tutor, undertake an investigation which issues, in the
final term, in a ten thousand word file, often lavishly illustrated.

Education groups meet once weekly in the third year, mainly to
continue the interdisciplinary study of education begun in year two.
Most work is done in individual tutorials on the Special study, and

interview students report a feeling of the course "winding down" as they become increasingly occupied with the coming problem of assessment.

The nature of the college's assessment procedures reveals again certain similar features to its organisation and methods of teaching. For three years prior to this investigation the college was the only college in the London Area Training Organisation to use continuous assessment only as its mode of certification in education. Students in those years took none of the three-hour examinations which characterise the usual method of assessment in education. However, the year before the longitudinal sample entered, the college reverted to more conventional means of assessment. This reversion was against college wishes, but the experimental period granted by the University of London expired and it was felt more appropriate to join with other colleges who were interested in joining a modified form of the assessment process.

In 1971 half of the education mark consisted of the special exercise and course work, weighted equally. Course work consisted of written work undertaken during the three years representing social, psychological and philosophical aspects of education. For many students a major part of this work was represented by Club notes and summaries, First year summer vacation and follow up work, and follow up work from the Suffolk teaching practice. As noted in Chapter 9 it was by no means unusual for students to experience difficulty in gathering together sufficient evidence to submit as course work. The last term of the third year was spent by some students in re-writing (or writing) essays in order to have a representative spread of work.

The other half of the examination consisted of two papers: a traditional three hour three question paper, and a three hour problem centred paper prepared by the college. This latter presented a profile of a school, a class or a child, and students were required to write on

the problems presented in the paper. As the paper was compiled by college staff, care was taken to ensure that the material of the problems was within the students' experience, having been discussed in education groups.

Thus, the college assessment procedures, it is argued, reflect an unwillingness to accept the validity of the traditional form of examination. If it had been possible the education course would have continued to have been evaluated by assessment only, consisting of course work and special exercise. This is seen by staff as appropriate to evaluate the principle on which the education course is based: that "students take responsibility for their own work" (Education Department handout, 1963). What can also be seen is something of an unwillingness to specify, in objective terms, those cognitive criteria against which attainment may be measured.

Mention should be made of provision for courses other than Education or Main Fields Study. These are examined in some detail in Chapter 9 together with a record of student reactions to such causes. Here it is sufficient to say that they constitute what in other colleges are designated "curriculum" or "method" courses. They represent an introduction to basic concepts and methods of teaching in subjects other than the student's main course. It is felt to be highly significant that in the college studied such terms are avoided, and they are referred to by tutors as "Part 111 courses". The purpose of such nomenclature is to avoid any hint of "tips for teachers" or very specific courses in methodology which might otherwise be assumed. Courses provided are not regarded in this way by staff.

All students follow courses in English, Divinity, Physical Education

and Mathematics and have a choice of options in other subjects. Such courses occupy only a small part of the student's timetable; it is possible for example for a student to experience less than twenty hours of mathematics teaching during the whole three years. The method of teaching on Part 111 courses parallels that in Education and Main Course. There is much emphasis on group discussion and individual topic work. Systematic introduction to methods of teaching are unusual, except in the Physical Education Course. Tutors tend to look upon themselves as resources to be called upon when students are experiencing difficulty in working on material made available for them. There is no formal assessment procedure in the courses.

In the third year the only Part 111 course offered, for all students, is significantly one on "personal responsibility". This constitutes approximately a half term's work on moral education, geared more to student problems than to school. Outside speakers and group discussion on such topics as sex education and community service typify the course. The course is accorded considerable importance by the Principal, and in the Academic Board is spoken of as "contributing to the personal develop-ment of the individual student". In its concern for the interpersonal and affective, it is highly characteristic of the College.

Values

Taylor states that it is at the levels of the social system and personality that empirical evidence is particularly lacking regarding the values of teacher education:

> "We do not have much to go on when it comes to examining the extent to which the symbol system that (prospectuses etc) reflect is important in influencing action systems within individual colleges, or in shaping the individual student's value orientations to his future task or the way in which he performs it". (Taylor, 1969a, p272)

The description of the college given in this chapter makes it possible, together with other evidence in this investigation, to distinguish a set of values which inform action in one college. Analysis of selection procedures and the course itself show that this college embodies a particular complex of social and educational values which are highly visible to students and which convey a particular view of the teacher's role. These are essentially the values of social cohesion through consensus (Parsons, 1961); a view of the teacher as an agent of social cohesion, and a concern to ensure identification with those values both cognitively and affectively. Such values, it is claimed, can be characterised as childcentred; Primary orientated; integrative of subject matter; stressing experience, play and discovery; conservative; and suspicion of the role of the intellect.

Childcentredness is used mainly in the sense that the child, rather than knowledge itself is the major focus of the educational process. Taylor's examination of the concept suggests that it is concerned to secure the student's commitment to the role of the teacher not as a job but as a vocation. This implies diffuse commitment which will issue in action as the assumption of responsibility for the socialisation of the child. The diffuseness of the teacher's role has been made very clear in the preceding analysis of the college. Students are encouraged to define their role-responsibilities very widely and to centre their teaching role upon the child rather than upon a subject. The strong Primary school orientation of the college is evidence of concern to promote this view of the teacher's role. Students' experience in the college reflects that which is recommended for primary children: there is great emphasis upon gearing the course to the needs and interests of individual students who are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. Thus the expressive aspect of the teacher's role

is given prime significance and its instrumental aspect is seen as contingent upon the feeling tone of pupil-teacher or student-tutor relationships.

Childcentredness as the central educational value of college places a lower rating upon knowledge itself. In its view of the organisation of knowledge the education course clearly encourages an integrative approach stressing links between disciplines and a blurring of subject boundaries. The Introductory Course, common to all students, celebrates this value most evidently, but throughout the course, and particularly in advice given on school practice, there is a concern to avoid sharp differentiation between subjects. This is implemented in a series of practices which emphasise experience, activity, play and discovery as keys to learning both in school and college. In college this takes the form of discussion methods of teaching (but rarely involving preparation of seminar papers); stress on visits outside college; and practical, problem-centred work in curriculum subjects. A lecture-based, synoptic, structuring approach by tutors is not a feature of college teaching.

"Conservative" as characterising the college is used to denote that it is an institution concerned to maintain social cohesion by consensus. It has been noted that the college selection procedures are concerned to reject candidates who are seen as too dominant or too forceful. There is a lack of concern to question social structure, an avoidance of discussion of controversial social issues, and a concentration upon educational practices which may appear designed to promote change but which can be seen as ensuring stability. The college concerns itself, like many others, with criticism of the culture rather than structure of society. Thus, it reflects the spirit of its foundation in seeing industrialisation as essentially dehumanising and the role of the

teacher to bring some relief to the culturally impoverished created by modern society. This missionary approach is not concerned to criticise what Taylor picks out as the major structural and economic features of society - the class system, the effects of the division of labour on the distribution of income and wealth. Discussion of politics and of such controversial issues as race or violence are avoided, or, when raised, safely neutralised in group discussion on (for example) the teaching of immigrant children. The childcentred orientation of the college, ostensibly to promote change or to enable the child to cope with change, can be seen as more concerned to ensure stability. Thus, the child is educated to function within his existing social milieu, and the teacher, following the needs and interests of the children, is in danger of narrowing their social opportunities.

Some suspicion of the role of the intellect is held to characterise the college. There is a stress upon the intuitive and intangible, most clearly seen in the high value put on interpersonal relations and group processes in college and school. It is argued that there is some unwillingness to critically examine such concepts as discovery and activity (Dearden, 1969) which underpin recommended methods of teaching and learning for students and children. Taylor argues that the teacher's capacity for socialising the child are strengthened when he operates within a framework of social attitudes and assumptions that value cohesion rather than conflict, loyalty rather than disengagement, and stability rather than change. It is suggested that these orientations similarly discourage critical analysis of concepts and practices and attempt to encourage agreement through group discussions. Detailed examination of evidence, analysis of the act of teaching, and attempts at fairly precise specification of objectives of reading are not marked features of the college. In selection procedures, desirable personality characteristics are not systematically objectified, intuition

acting on person centred criteria being the guide to suitability.
It is possible that this results in the selection of students more
likely to conform. Discussion, the dominant mode of procedure,
could be construed as manipulative socialisation, as tutors by
suggestion and action present a particular model of the teacher. It
can therefore be argued that college procedures do not represent an
initiation into the rational life where "the critical quest for
reasons is a dominant and integrating motive". (Scheffler, 1965)

Chapter 6

FINDINGS - TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

This chapter examines changes in students' role conceptions
as measured by the Role Definition Instrument. Unless otherwise
stated, total RDI scores are used to measure change. This is the
method conventionally used by researchers to measure changes in
student attitudes to education, or to a particular aspect of
education, during a course of teacher training (Finlayson and Cohen,
1967; Butcher, 1965; McLeish, 1970; and other studies reviewed in
Chapter 2). As has been noted, most studies are cross sectional.
A common omission from longitudinal studies is a failure to account
for "dropouts". Here, no account is taken of the scores of those
students who left college in the period between first and last
testing. The benefit of such a procedure is to ensure that the
sample compared consists of the same individuals, thus ensuring
that measured change is a feature of that group. However, it was
felt necessary in this study to not only examine the first, second
and third year scores of the 105 students finally comprising the
longitudinal sample, but also to compare these scores with those
of the original 126 of the first year, and with the 116 of the
second year. This provides a comparison to see if the "dropouts"
significantly affect changes in role conception. During the three
years seventeen students left the college (Chapter 9). Full data
was not obtained for four of the remaining 109 students.

Table 1 shows a comparison of yearly total RDI scores of the
remaining longitudinal sample of 105 students together with scores
obtained at each testing point from total year groups which
include students who left during the course.

Table 1

Total RDI scores of the longitudinal sample at certain points in the 3 year course

		Primary		Secondary		Differences
		Total	S.D.	Total	S.D.	
Year 1(start)	n=105	121.156	8.536	113.651	9.505 }	non-sig
Year 1(start)	n=126	121.873	8.967	114.270	9.451 }	
Year 1(end)	n=105	126.183	8.870	118.294	9.827 }	non-sig
Year 1(end)	n=124	126.468	8.876	118.629	9.692 }	
Year 2(end)	n=105	127.404	7.620	118.312	8.386 }	non-sig
Year 2(end)	n=116	127.319	7.461	118.474	8.249 }	
Year 3(end)	n=105	126.872	9.037	119.083	9.716	

Inspection of the scores, and testing for significance, reveals no significant difference between the scores of the final longitudinal sample of 105 at each stage of their college career and the scores of all students at each particular stage. It is, therefore, assumed that there is no difference in role conceptions between the groups of those who leave during the course and those who complete the course.

Hypothesis 1

During a three year course of teacher training there will be no difference in the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by

    a) First Year and Third Year students

    b) First Year and Second Year students

    c) Second Year and Third Year students

Three sets of scores were examined to test the hypothesis:-

    1. Conception of role as measured by total RDI score

    2. Conception of role as measured by individual RDI items

    3. Scores relating to the expressive component of the teacher's

       role and those relating to the instrumental component

1. Conception of role as measured by total RDI score

In view of the similarity of scores of stayers and dropouts it was decided to compare differences in role conceptions for the 105 students who completed the course. Using the data of Table 1 the following significant differences are noted in Table 2.

Table 2

Significant differences between total RDI scores (n=105)

	Primary	Secondary
Year 1(start) and Year 1(end)	01	01
Year 1(start) and Year 2(end)	01	01
Year 1(start) and Year 3(end)	01	01
Year 1(end) and Year 2(end)	NS	NS
Year 1(end) and Year 3(end)	NS	NS
Year 2(end) and Year 3(end)	NS	NS

Thus, testing of hypothesis 1 using total RDI scores yields the following results:

a) First Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be rejected. There is a highly significant difference between total RDI scores of students at the start of their three year course and at the end of their third year. If, however, the RDI score is taken at the end of the first year, the hypothesis is confirmed. There is no significant difference between the scores of students at the end of their third year, and at the end of their first year.

b) First Year/Second Year: The hypothesis must be rejected. There is a highly significant difference between total RDI scores of students at the start of their three year course and at the end of their second year. If the RDI score is taken at the end of the first year, the hypothesis is confirmed. There is no significant difference between the total scores of students at the end of their first year and at the end of their second year.

c) Second Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be accepted. There is no significant difference between the total scores of students at the end of their second year and at the end of their third year.

Thus, it would appear that students' role conceptions, measured by total RDI scores alter significantly in their first year, but level off for the remainder of their course. The shift is towards openness

of role conception. This finding of a move towards more liberal attitudes confirms much of the research reported in Chapter 2. The general movement can be illustrated as in Diagram 1.

Diagram 1

Changes in total RDI scores during a three year course

However, the weakness of most studies is that they merely measure the attitudes of the start and end of a course (and, in cross sectional studies, of different groups of students). Only Finlayson and Cohen (1967) tested students in their second year, reporting a "peak of liberality" at that point; other studies merely report "gains in progressiveness" (or some other dimension). The finding from this study appears to be that the first year is highly significant for attitude change as measured by paper and pencil tests. Thereafter little change appears to take place. This finding will, however, be much modified in consideration of evidence relating to school practice. It will be demonstrated that these crucial points in the course will much affect role conceptions, reversing in some ways previous trends to openness. Thereafter a process which Shipman (1966) describes as "impression management" operates to restore total scores to their previous levels. Thus, diagram 2 suggests the nature of role-conception change during the course. The points at which scores are depressed represent periods of school

practice. Chapters 7 and 9 provide the evidence upon which Diagram 2 is constructed.

<center>Diagram 2</center>

<center>Suggested role-conception changes during a three-year course of teacher training</center>

Teaching Practice Period ⊗

2. Conception of the role as measured by individual RDI items.

The data shown in Tables 3 and 4 show that, for the 34 individual items of the RDI, testing of hypothesis 1 yields the following results:

a) First Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be rejected. Twenty primary items and twenty-one secondary show changes from the start of the first to the end of the third year. If RDI scores are taken at the end of the first year, the hypothesis is rejected for only five primary and eight secondary items.

b) First Year/Second Year: The hypothesis must be rejected. Twenty primary and fifteen secondary items show significant change between the start of the first year and the end of the second year. If RDI scores are taken at the end of the first, year, the hypothesis is rejected for only four primary and two secondary items.

c) Second Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be rejected. Four primary and three secondary items show change over the third year. It must be noted this represents change on only approximately ten per cent of the items.

What Table 3 shows clearly is that using total scores on an attitude to Education test can only serve as a blunt measure of change. The effect of professional socialisation is differential

Table 3

Significant changes on 34 item Role Definition Instrument (at .05 or better)

Item	Yr 1 (start) to Yr 1 (end)		Yr 1 (start) to Yr 2 (end)		Yr 1 (start) to Yr 3 (end)		Yr 1 (end) to Yr 2 (end)		Yr 1 (end) to Yr 3 (end)		Yr 2 (end) to Yr 3 (end)	
	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
1						+						
2	−		−		−							
3		+				+						
4			+	+			+					
5	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+		+
6										−		
7	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+		
8	+		+		+							
9				−	−	−						
10												
11			−	−	−	−	−	−	−	−		
12	+	+	+	+	+	+					−	−
13												
14	+		+	+	+	+						
15	+		+		+							
16	+		+	+	+	+						
17						−						
18		+			+	+			+		+	
19	+		+		+	+						
20				−		−						
21												
22	+	+	+	+	+	+						
23	+		+	+	+	+		+		+		
24	−	−	−	−	−	−						
25	+		+	−	+	−				−		
26												
27											−	
28	+	+	+	+	+	+						
29				+		+					+	+
30	+		+		+					−		−
31	−	−	−		−				+	+		
32	−		−		−	−						
33		+	−		−	+						
34												
+/− Changes	13/4	8/2	14/6	10/5	14/6	14/7	3/1	1/1	4/1	4/4	2/2	1/2
Total	17	10	20	15	20	21	4	2	5	8	4	3

Key + = Significant increase in item score
 − = Significant decline in item score

over the three years. On some issues students do not appear, as
a group, to alter their attitudes at all (notably the most important
of these is corporal punishment). On other issues students increase
in liberality or openness, but on others, they show negative change
from that which might be predicted. What Table 3 also shows clearly
is that the early part of the course (i.e. the first year) appears
to be the most important period for learning role prescriptions.
Table 4 analyses the data in Table 3 to show the effects discussed in
this paragraph.

Table 4

The effects of professional socialisation. Changes
occuring in a three year course of teacher training
as measured by a 34 item RDI.

Nature of Change	RDI Item Number	
	Primary	Secondary
1. No significant change from first to third year		
a) No change between any years	1,3,6,10,13,17, 17,20,21,26,34	2,6,8,10,13,15, 21,26,27,34
b) Initial decrease Yr 1 to Yr 2	31,29	31
c) Increase in second year	4	4
d) Decrease in second year		30
e) Decrease in third year	27	
2. Increase occuring during Course		
a) Steady increase throughout Course		1
b) Increase mainly occuring in first year of Course	5,7,8,12,14,15, 16,19,22,23,25, 28,30	3,5,7,12,14,16, 18,19,22,28,33
c) Increase mainly occuring in first and second year of Course		23,29
d) Increase mainly occuring in third year of Course	18	
3. Decrease occuring during Course		
a) Steady decline in scores during Course	9	17,32
b) Decline in first year of Course	2,24,32	24
c) Decline in second and third year	11	
d) Decline in first and second year	33	11,9,20,25

a) Items showing no significant change from first to third year
of training.

Professional training appears not to have any marked effect,
as measured by the RDI, upon students' conceptions of primary and
secondary teachers' role in certain areas. The effect of three
years in college does not significantly affect group attitudes
towards teachers having responsibility for making up their own
syllabuses; agreeing that teachers should be prepared to visit
parents in their homes; preferring pupils to acquire broad under-
standing of a number of subjects rather than a detailed knowledge of
one or two; generally strongly agreeing that teachers should have a
good knowledge of child development; disagreeing that a teacher
should attempt to control pupils' dress and behaviour out of school;
and tending to disagree that teachers should be allowed to use
corporal punishment.

There is similarly no change in attitude in disagreeing that
a teacher should use one pupil's work in comparison with another's
in order to motivate or in the tendency to strong agreement with
the view that teachers should encourage parents to visit the school.
Students' attitudes towards frequent use of praise appears not to
alter significantly over three years, for although in the first
year of the course there is a falling off in the numbers agreeing
with this practice, subsequently the group mean score shows no
significant difference.

However, to argue from total scores on an "entry/exit" sample
that there is no real change in attitudes on these issues as a result
of three years in a College of Education is to ignore the complexity
of socialisation procedures. What will be shown in the chapter
on school practice, and in the evidence of the interview sample,
is that attitudes are in fact modified by experience, but that
certain social processes operate to conceal substantive change.

Thus, item 34, relating to corporal punishment, was specifically investigated in interviews and after school practice. Findings there cast some doubt upon the validity of the RDI evidence. The paper and pencil instrument, favoured by researchers of student teachers, can over simplify the nature of the change process.

b) Items for which role conceptions remain stable for one age level but change for the other

A number of student attitudes towards the primary teacher role remained unchanged over three years, whilst the prescription for the secondary teacher changed significantly. Thus, whilst the students tended to disagree throughout the course that the primary teacher's main responsibility was to teach subjects, their role conception for secondary teachers moved from one of tending to agree to one which was far less certain. Similarly, whilst continuously strongly agreeing with co-education for primary children, there was a marked move over the three years towards stronger agreement with this practice for secondary pupils. There was a constant tendency over the three years to agree that primary pupils should be allowed to choose other children with whom they wished to work, but for secondary pupils there was less agreement on the desirability of this practice; a feeling which modified towards agreement as the course progressed. These changes appear to be predictable given both the general orientation of the college towards mixture of categories (hypothesis 8) and the shift in social climate (Bernstein, 1967).

Students were fairly evenly divided throughout the course about the role prescription that a primary teacher should take an active part in the life of the local community, but they began the course with a more general tendency to agree with this involvement for secondary teachers. This concern for involvement however, lessened throughout the course. Increasing awareness of the pressures

of full-time teaching, together with a concern to define certain limits to the role, is held to explain such movement. A similar pattern obtained for teachers allowing children to discover right and wrong behaviour for themselves, with the secondary role prescription moving to less agreement. This move in a closed direction could be due to the impact of school practice but no specific investigation was undertaken in interviews.

Similarly several secondary teacher role conceptions remained unaltered whilst primary roles were seen to change. Thus in the first year of the course there was a marked shift towards allowing primary pupils more responsibility for personal decision making. A similar shift was noted in the first year away from a tendency to disagree with the practice of vertical grouping; students became far less certain about the effectiveness of primary teachers in classes of the same chronological age. Further, the students moved, throughout the course, towards stronger agreement with the prescription that primary teachers should invite visitors into the school to talk about their work and interests; a view strongly held for the secondary teacher's role throughout. The primary teacher's responsibility to act as "substitute parent" became more questioned, a prescription which students consistently disagreed with for secondary teachers throughout the course.

c) Items showing increases for both primary and secondary role concepts

The striking feature revealed by the RDI is that for the great majority of items which show significant increases, change occurs in the early part of the course, in the first year. This finding is a major contribution to the evidence on the professional socialisation of student teachers and has implications for teacher education which are examined in chapter 10. Hypothesis 8 shows that

these changes reflect a move towards attitudes perceived to be held
by staff of the college.

Attitudes which particularly show modification towards more
open role conceptions for both primary and secondary teachers are:
an increasing agreement that pupils in a class may be working on a
variety of topics at the same time; a movement towards agreement
with the practice of mixed ability grouping; a stronger conviction
that teachers should not insist on school uniform for all pupils;
a lessening in strength of agreement that teachers should mark all
the work of their pupils (although the level of agreement that this
is a legitimate role prescription remained, perhaps surprisingly,
strong throughout the course; a lessening reliance on award of marks,
badges, stars, etc., as classroom practices; an increasing approval
of the notion of the integration and interrelationship of subjects;
a move towards strong disagreement with publishing regular mark lists;
and a modification of the view that older pupils should be allowed
more privilege than younger. An increasing approval for the idea of
education in breadth, as opposed to depth, was noted during the course.
There was a significant move towards disagreeing with the idea of
instant obedience from pupils. Given the open orientation of college
on these role prescriptions and a somewhat similar educational climate
(Central Advisory Committee on Education, 1967), such movements are
to be expected - at least at the level of questionnaire responses
(Keddie, 1971).

d) Items showing decreases over the three years

Four items showed decline on both secondary and primary scores
over three years. Thus, whilst agreement was generally maintained
that all teachers needed a good knowledge of the methods and
principles of teaching, there appeared to be an increasing concern

that a teacher should have a good knowledge of a particular subject.
Similarly, growing disagreement was noted with the statement that a
teacher's task was to arrange the classroom environment, then to
stand back and allow children to learn from their surroundings. Both
these movements can be interpreted as the students taking a more
realistic view of teaching. Increasing disagreement was recorded
with the prescription that the teacher's out of school activity should
be largely connected with youth work or sport; a movement seen as
students' increasing concern to define certain limits to the teacher's
role. There was some tempering too, of the agreement with the
prescription that teachers should treat pupils alike in rewarding
and punishing - a recognition, probably gained from experience, of
the difficulty of applying rigid principles of discipline to all
pupils. Further, as noted above, the role prescription for primary
teachers became less favourable to taking on the responsibility of
"substitute parent", and, for secondary teachers, less favourable
towards active involvement in local community activities. For all
these changes towards an apparently less open orientation it is
argued that they represent the students' acknowledgement of certain
practical demands, which arise from the task of teaching itself.

Two items showed primary and secondary scores changing signif-
icantly in opposite directions. Thus students tended to agree more
as the course progressed with the prescription that secondary teachers
should be able to teach a number of subjects well, but the quite
strong level of agreement with this prescription for primary teachers
declined a little. Similarly, whilst there was significantly greater
approval for primary teachers to take responsibility for sex education,
the strength of agreement with this role prescription lessened
significantly during the course for the secondary teacher (whilst
still remaining at a high level). Again it is suggested that these

changes represent an increased concern for the need for primary
teachers to acquire subject matter whilst at the same time expressing
the desire for both primary and secondary teachers to teach across
a wide range of the curriculum.

3. Conception of the role as measured by scores on instrumental
   items and scores on expressive items

Testing of hypothesis 1 for instrumental and expressive item
scores at the start of the first year and end of the second and
third years yields the following results:

   a) First Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be rejected
      for instrumental item scores. The hypothesis must be
      accepted for expressive item scores for secondary role
      prescriptions but rejected for the primary role.

   b) First Year/Second Year: The hypothesis must be rejected
      for instrumental item scores. The hypothesis must be
      accepted for expressive item scores for secondary role
      prescriptions but rejected for the primary role.

   c) Second Year/Third Year: The hypothesis must be accepted
      for instrumental item scores and for expressive item
      scores.

Table 5 shows the results when the items in the RDI are
classified according to whether they more naturally relate to
expressive or towards the instrumental orders of the school. As was
noted in Chapter 4 there was a very high degree of agreement among
observers on which items were expressive ("person centred") and
which were instrumental ("task centred").

It is evident from the table that both primary and secondary
roles show increases over the course in scores for the instrumental
order, but only for the primary role does the score for the expressive
items increase significantly, and that at a lower absolute level.
This increase in instrumental item scores can with some certainly
be attributed to the effects of professional socialisation. Students
in the College show, it is argued, increasing awareness towards

Table 5

Comparison of scores relating to instrumental and
expressive orders of the school, showing changes in
totals over three years of teacher training.

Students n=105	Primary Teacher		Secondary Teacher	
	Instrumental items n=17	Expressive items n=17	Instrumental items n=17	Expressive items n=17
First Year (start)	62.01	59.14	53.91	59.74
First Year (end)	64.39	61.79	57.16	61.10
Second Year	65.59	61.80	57.48	60.84
Third Year	65.75	61.12	58.45	60.62
Significance of Change First to Third Year	.01	.01	.01	NS

certain task centred aspects of the teacher's role. Table 6 demonstrates

this clearly in respect of secondary teacher role, where no fewer than

ten of the seventeen instrumental items show gains over the course,

indicating that in matters of curriculum and method a more open orient-

ation results from training. It will be seen in hypothesis 2 that

instrumental order items increasingly differentiate between role

prescriptions for primary and secondary teachers. This may be interpreted

as the acquisition of professional knowledge by the student, showing

an awareness of the importance of certain classroom practices. More

sceptically it could be argued that students learn to make the

"correct" responses on such matters as methods of grouping children or

organising or marking their work.

The complexity of the process of socialisation is further illustrated

in Table 6. A simple comparison of total scores between first and third

year students (the basis of most studies of this type) indicates

clear increases in "progressivism" or some other dimension. Table 6

reinforces the evidence of Table 3 showing that the direction of attitude

Table 6

Changes in role conception occurring during a three year
course of teacher training as measured by a 34 item RDI
relating to the expressive and instrumental orders of the
school.

Nature of Change	Number of Items			
	Primary Teacher		Secondary Teacher	
	Instrumental	Expressive	Instrumental	Expressive
No significant change from first to third year	7	7	5	8
Increase from first to third year	7	7	10	4
Decreases from first to third year	3	3	2	5

change varies with particular issues. Seven expressive primary items
show increases in scores, against three significant decreases. The
gain in expressive score items is small in relation to instrumental
order gains, but still significant. In the secondary area, expressive
item decreases outnumber gains, suggesting in some degree a modification
of a "pupil-centred" attitude which the student brings to college.
However these changes on idividual items are not large enough to show
significant change on total expressive scores from first to third year.

This discussion however must be regarded with some caution as
the classification of instrumental and expressive items, although
conceptually distinct and agreed by observers (in Chapter 4), can
become blurred in practice. It is nonetheless a finding which carries
conviction both in terms of theoretical constructs of professionalism,
possession of expert knowledge, partly acquired by long training
(Jackson, 1970; Greenwood, 1966), and in terms of empirical evidence on

the effect of professional socialisation upon neophytes (Becker, 1961;
Merton, 1957; Bloom, 1965). It could be suggested that a major effect
of an extended training period would be a significant change in
attitude toward certain instrumental practices of a profession. What
is interesting is that the significant changes in instrumental order
item total scores largely take place early in the training course.
This clearly cannot reflect the precise nature of change in knowledge
which takes place during the three years, but rather a change in
attitude to certain important practices. In the secondary role area
this represents a move away from endorsing a subject-centred approach,
increasing support for co-education, a concern for a variety of
learning activities in a classroom, an increasing rejection of streaming,
a more realistic approach to marking pupils' work, a concern for
education in breadth, a rejection of mark lists, approval of self-
selected learning groups, and increasing diversification of teacher
role.

Hypothesis 2

During a three year course of teacher training there will be no
differences perceived between the roles of primary school and
secondary school teachers by:

a) First Year Students
b) Second Year Students
c) Third Year Students

Three sets of scores were examined to test the hypothesis:

1. Conception of role as measured by total RDI score.
2. Conception of role as measured by individual RDI items.
3. Scores relating to the expressive component of the
   teacher's role and those relating to the instrumental
   component.

Appendix 4 shows RDI scores at each testing point during the three
year course. Tables 7, 8 and 9 analyse this data with regard to
hypothesis 2.

Table 7

Level of significance of differences perceived between the roles of primary school and secondary school teachers on 34 item Role Definition Instrument.

Item	Year 1 (start)	Year 1 (end)	Year 2 (end)	Year 3 (end)
1	001	001	001	001
2	001	001	001	001
3	001	001	001	001
4	NS	NS	01	05
5	001	001	001	001
6	001	001	001	001
7	001	001	001	001
8	001(S)	NS	05(S)	05(S)
9	001	001	001	001
10	05	05	NS	NS
11	001	001	001	001
12	001	001	001	001
13	001	001	001	001
14	001(S)	NS	NS	NS
15	NS	001	001	001
16	001(S)	001(S)	05(S)	05(S)
17	05(S)	NS	NS	NS
18	001	001	001	001
19	NS	01	01	01
20	001(S)	05(S)	05(S)	05(S)
21	NS	NS	NS	NS
22	NS	05	05	05
23	001(S)	NS	05(S)	05(S)
24	05(S)	NS	NS	NS
25	001(S)	01(S)	NS	NS
26	NS	NS	NS	NS
27	NS	NS	NS	NS
28	001	001	001	01
29	01	NS	NS	NS
30	001	001(S)	01(S)	05(S)
31	001	001	01	05
32	NS	NS	NS	NS
33	001	001	001	001
34	NS	NS	NS	NS
Totals:				
All items	001	001	001	001
Instrumental	001	001	001	001
Expressive	NS	NS	NS	NS

Note: Items marked (S) show that the conception held of the secondary teacher's role is more open than that of the primary teacher. For all other significant differences the primary teacher's role is seen as more open.

1. Conception of role as measured by total RDI score

> The hypothesis must be rejected. Students perceive highly
> significant differences between the role of the primary and
> secondary teacher at all points during their three year
> course.

This can hardly be described as a startling finding, but it does

provide clear evidence that students hold a more open view of the

role of the primary teacher than for the secondary teacher.

2. Conception of role as measured by individual RDI items

> The hypothesis must be rejected. Students in each year of the
> course perceive differences between primary and secondary
> teacher roles for over two thirds of the RDI items.

Table 8

Significant differences perceived between the roles of
primary and secondary school teachers on RDI of 34 items

	First Year (start)	First Year (end)	Second Year	Third Year
Number of Differences	25	22	23	22
Primary means greater than Secondary	16	18	19	17
Secondary means greater than Primary	9 (Includes 7 001)	4 (Includes 2 001)	4 (3 at 05)	5 (All at 05)

From a consideration of Table 8, it may appear surprising that

after three years in college, students appear to detect _fewer_ differences

between the roles than at the start of their course. First Years

detect differences in 25 out of 34 items (74%) whereas third year

students differentiate between only 22 items (65%). Examination of

these items in Table 7 however shows that there is a very marked shift

away from the first year tendency to see certain secondary behaviours

as more open than primary. Only five secondary means are greater than

primary means at the end of the third year, at .05 significance only,

against nine items at the start of year one, seven at .001 significance.

Thus, in questions of not marking all work done by pupils, giving
sex education, taking an active part in the life of the local
community and taking up youth work, the students see no differences
between primary and secondary teachers at the end of their course,
where they had originally perceived the secondary teacher as having
a stronger role prescription in these matters. Similarly, in matters
of allowing pupils to discover "right" or "wrong" for themselves,
requiring immediate obedience, inviting visitors into the school
there was a very marked decrease in degree of difference perceived.
Whereas secondary teachers were allowed more discretion in these
areas at the start of the course, at the end of the three years the
differences had narrowed to only a slight favouring of more openness
for the secondary sector. It is suggested that the primary school
orientation of college, together with the fact that all the items
for which secondary item scores were greater than primary belong to
the expressive order, accounts for this aspect of the socialisation
outcome.

3. Conception of the role as measured by scores on instrumental
    items and scores on expressive items

Consideration of the total instrumental and expressive RDI
scores in Table 7 yields the following results:

Instrumental items total. The hypothesis must be rejected.
All years of students perceive clear differences between
instrumental aspects of primary and secondary teachers' roles.

Expressive items total. The hypothesis must be accepted. For
each year of students no significant difference is perceived
between the expressive aspect of the primary and secondary
teachers' roles.

When the items are grouped into expressive or instrumental
categories an effect of professional socialisation is apparently
clearly seen. The same effect was noted similarly with the cross-
sectional sample (Gibson, 1970). Table 9 shows that a number of

expressive order items increasingly fail to differentiate between

primary and secondary role prescriptions, and a study of total

expressive order scores in Tables 5 and 7 shows that throughout the

Table 9

Number of items failing to differentiate between the role
of Primary and Secondary School teachers (out of possible 17)

	First Year (start)	First Year (end)	Second Year	Third Year
Instrumental	4	3	2	3
Expressive	5	9	9	9

course there is no difference percieved for any year. These tables

further show that as the course progresses, instrumental order items

increasingly differentiate between the two roles. Such effects are

attributed to the child-oriented ethos of the college in accounting

for the convergence on expressive items, and the acquisition of

professional knowledge on items of curriculum and method which enable

the student to make increasingly finer discrimination between instru-

mental order behaviour of primary and secondary teachers. Thus all

years feel that the primary teacher should be less of a subject

teacher, more of a classroom arranger, less concerned to group pupils

by sex or by ability, more concerned with breadth than depth, more

likely to praise pupils' work, and freer to make up his own syllabuses

than the secondary teacher. The primary teacher is also seen as

allowing a greater variety of work in the classroom at any particular

time, having a good knowledge of teaching methods rather than a very

good knowledge of one particular subject, and able to teach more

subjects than his secondary colleague.

Several items failed to differentiate between primary and secondary roles at any point in the course. All are expressive order items. There is strong agreement that all teachers need a good knowledge of child development, should encourage parents to visit their school, should treat pupils alike in rewarding and punishing, and that teachers should not attempt to control pupils' dress and behaviour out of school. Of much interest is the finding that on the issue of corporal punishment no significant differences apparently exist for primary and secondary role prescriptions. This controversial issue failed to differentiate between role prescriptions at any of the four points during the course when attitudes were tested. However, as will be shown the effect of a substantial period of school practice is such that attitudes towards this issue are substantially modified.

Several instrumental items show interesting differences developing which did not exist at the start of the course. Students became less inclined to favour comparison of children's work as a means of motivation in the primary school, more inclined to favour vertical grouping for the younger pupils, more in favour of integration of subjects in the primary school, and less favourable towards publishing primary pupil mark lists than in the secondary school.

Thus, the difference in primary and secondary teacher role is increasingly construed, it is argued, in terms of task-centred rather than person-centred criteria. Professional socialisation fosters discrimination in role awareness, the role socialisation process making the student more keenly perceptive of the instrumental differences in the teacher's role at different age levels. This finding would accord with that of Kitchen (1966), and has strong relationship to Burnham's statement of the need for emphasis on role expectations rather than on personality expectations in Colleges of Education (Burnham, 1969). Chapter 9 shows that students enter college with a

generalised commitment towards, and strong feeling for, children.
The effect of training it is suggested is to maintain and possibly
increase this sensitivity towards children, qua children, blurring
the effects of age differences. Such awareness and feeling for
pupils of all ages is only very partially revealed by the RDI. The
College places much stress on the nature of the pupil-teacher
affective relationship. It is therefore suggested that the emphasis
on individual differences and the concern for the individual pupil
encouraged by the college is interpreted by students to apply to all
age levels.

Hypothesis 3

Non-students of similar age and academic achievement to College
of Education students, do not differ from students in their conception
of the role of the teacher.

Sixty-eight women between the ages of 18 and 23, not in higher
education but all possessing at least five 'O' levels, completed the
RDI in the same month as the first year students at the start of
their course. Between two and a half and three years later it was
possible to trace and obtain completed RDIs from only thirty-three
of this original sample (48.5%). The two sets of scores for this
non-student group are shown at Appendix 4. Comparison of student
and non-student RDI scores yields the following result:

> The hypothesis must be rejected. There are highly significant
> differences between the RDI scores of non-students (at both
> sampling points) and of students in all years.

Table 10 shows that there would appear to be a real difference
between the two groups with the non-students consistently holding a
more closed conception of the teachers' role than students. This
difference is revealed most strikingly for both primary and secondary

roles in instrumental order items, particularly the issues of subject teaching, grouping by ability, grouping by age, variety of work inside the classroom, and pupil choice of work-partner. On these items and others, the non-students are much less flexible than students, showing much less approval of the professional attitudes held by intending teachers.

Table 10

Significance of differences in scores between non-students and students.

	First Year students (n=105) v Non-students 1968 (n=68)	Third Year students (n=105) v Non-students 1971 (n=33)
Total RDI Scores		
Primary	.01	.01
Secondary	.01	.01

In the expressive order, the item which most clearly distinguishes students from non-students is attitude to the teacher's use of corporal punishment. Students throughout their course tend to disagree with its use - indeed there is no significant difference between the scores for any year of students on this item. The non-students are inclined to take a harder line on the use of corporal punishment, with proportionately more of them favouring its use in school.

Although there are clear differences between total RDI scores of students and non-students it should be noted that only approximately half the items differentiate between the two groups in the first year. In the third year comparison this proportion was around 42 per cent. The feature of this finding however is that where differences exist

on individual items they tend to be very large indeed, and, as noted above, mainly in the instrumental order.

An interesting finding emerges in considering the total scores of the non-student groups recorded after an interval of approximately three years. Appendix 4 shows there is an increase in both primary and secondary scores approaching the .05 level. The fact that the scores have increased, although not significantly, is felt to indicate, however imprecisely, a slight shift in attitude, attributable perhaps to age or perhaps to a change in the prevailing social climate towards education. In view of the low proportion of the original sample who returned their forms it is thought inadvisable to speculate upon the meaning of the change in scores over the three year period. However, it should be noted that significant increases took place in items relating to corporal punishment, immediate obedience to teachers, and the integration of subjects. Finally, it should be noted that non-students also detected differences, as measured by total RDI scores, between the roles of primary and secondary teachers. This difference however was at a lower level of significance than for students.

Hypothesis 4

When students undertaking a three year course of teacher training are grouped by certain biographical variables, there will be no differences between the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by the groups within each variable. In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:-

    a. Age
    b. Social Class
    c. Academic achievement
    d. Previous teaching experience
    e. School leaving age
    f. Religion
    g. Pre-college employment
    h. Type of secondary school attended
    i. Number of unsuccessful applications

4a. Age

It was decided to group students into those aged twenty years or under and those aged twenty-one or over on entry to college.

The hypothesis must be accepted for the role of the primary teacher. Age appears to make no difference to teachers' role conception. The hypothesis must be accepted for the role of the secondary teacher as perceived by students in their first year, but rejected for second and third year students.

Table 11

Total RDI scores over three years of mature and younger students

		Aged twenty or under (n=83)	Aged twenty-one or over (n=22)	Significance of difference
First Year (start)	P	120.84	122.42	NS
	S	112.98	115.92	NS
First Year (end)	P	125.96	126.94	NS
	S	117.58	120.85	NS
Second Year (end)	P	126.79	129.52	NS
	S	117.00	122.25	.05
Third Year (end)	P	126.55	127.96	NS
	S	118.20	122.59	.05
Average Age on Entry		18yrs 5mths	30yrs 1mth	

Table 11 shows that throughout the course the role prescription for primary teachers as measured by total RDI scores is not significantly different for older as against younger students. The older students are always slightly more open in their role prescriptions, but not significantly so. For secondary teachers however there is a much greater difference seen between the two groups and older students constantly score higher on the RDI than younger. This difference just misses significance in the first year but becomes significant at the five per

cent level in the second and third year of the course. Thus, the older students tend to take a measurably more open view of the secondary teacher's role than younger students and the gap widens as the course progresses. Table 12 shows a consistent trend of older students scoring higher on more secondary items than primary.

Table 12

Number of items, out of 34, where older students score higher than younger students (Figures in brackets represent number of significant differences at .05 level or greater)

First Year (start)	P	20 (5)
	S	23 (4)
First Year (end)	P	15 (2)
	S	22 (4)
Second Year (end)	P	18 (2)
	S	24 (6)
Third Year (end)	P	17 (3)
	S	24 (6)

The lack of difference between the two age groups for primary role prescriptions is attributed to a child centred concept of primary education held by both older and younger students. Investigation among the interview sample tends to confirm this explanation: there was general consensus that given the same basic orientations - the desire to become a teacher and a generalised commitment to children - age and experience would not materially affect role definitions. However, on these grounds it is more difficult to explain the differences in secondary role conceptions. Mature students follow the same course as younger students and the formal organisation of the College does not differentiate between students on grounds of age. Further, the older students invariably lived out of college, and were thus apparently less

susceptible to the influence of tutors.

It is tentatively suggested that this somewhat unusual finding (compared with the findings of McLeish, 1970; Butcher, 1959) could be due to the older students' greater "distance" from the secondary school situation. Being older, they feel they do not "have to take so hard a line" (in the words of one older member of the interview sample) with adolescents as younger students who are only a few years older than the pupils themselves. Younger students in the interview sample (irrespective of age range for which they were training) tended to feel more apprehensive about the prospect of secondary practices, or secondary teaching generally, than the older students who, in the interview situation at least, expressed rather more confidence in their ability to cope with secondary pupils.

An examination of the items on which there was a significant difference between older and younger students reveals some interesting findings. Throughout the course item 24 consistently differentiated between the two groups and was the only one which showed the younger students as more open than older. It states that a teacher's out of school activities should be largely connected with youth work, sport etc. Predictably, older students tended to disagree more strongly with this than younger students. Discussion with the interview group showed that their reasons were in terms of family commitments, recognising that they themselves would find it difficult for a teacher to devote his out of school time to youth work or sport. Sixteen of the twenty-two older students were married women with children of school age.

Twenty-four of the thirty-four secondary items showed the older third year students scoring higher than younger, with the greater differences seen in instrumental items. Older students were very strongly opposed to regular publication of mark lists; favoured more than younger students the view that teachers should make up their own

syllabuses; and were more strongly against comparison of children's work as a motivating device, than younger students. Again, discussion with the interview sample tended to suggest that age and their own personal experience accounted for these differences. The older students felt less confident of their academic ability than younger (Gibson and Pococke, 1969) and so did not favour mark lists for College work or overt comparison of their work with other students. This attitude they appeared to transfer over to the teacher's role. Paradoxically perhaps their desire for more responsibility for syllabus construction arose from the reason that greater maturity argued for greater responsibility. It is suggested that the recognition of their academic shortcomings (as seen by themselves) was not incompatible with their notion of professional responsibility. They tended to see "college work" as distinct from "school work" and felt more confident of their ability in the latter sphere. This dichotomisation of school and college work is discussed in Chapter 9 below.

4b. Social Class

The hypothesis must be accepted. There are no significant differences between the role conceptions of students when grouped by social class background.

The social class composition of the college remained constant throughout the period with approximately one third of the students coming from manual worker's homes. Table 13 shows the social background of the sample.

Students RDI scores were grouped by a manual (I and II) and non-manual (III, IV and V) classification of the Registrar General's Scale. The results are shown in Table 14. No differences are observed between the groupings. This result is not unexpected as social class appears unrelated to either attainment or attitudes of students in higher education. Individual items showed only apparently

Table 13

Social Class Background of longitudinal sample
(October 1968, n=126; June 1971, n=105)

Registrar-General's Scale	October 1968			June 1971		
	No	%	Class	No	%	Class
I	22	17.5	non-Manual	18	17.1	non-Manual
II	62	49.2		53	50.5	
III	27	21.4		21	20.0	
IV	15	11.9	Manual	13	12.4	Manual
V						

Table 14

RDI scores by social class groupings

		Registrar General's Scale		Degree of Significance
		Manual	Non Manual	
Year 1(start)	P	121.01	121.48	NS
	S	113.83	113.23	NS
Year 1(end)	P	126.28	126.04	NS
	S	118.79	117.30	NS
Year 2(end)	P	127.52	127.19	NS
	S	118.62	117.74	NS
Year 3(end)	P	126.97	126.59	NS
	S	119.23	118.41	NS

random differences between groups over the three years. Nonetheless,
one or two items showed differences at each of the four measurement
points, and no pattern was observed in these. It is felt that these
few differences can be attributed to chance.

4c. Academic Achievement

The hypothesis must be accepted. When students are grouped
by academic achievement, no significant differences are
observed between RDI scores.

Students were grouped in two ways: first those who possessed A
levels as against those who did not; second, those possessing minimum
qualifications (5 'O' levels or special entry) against those with
more than the minimum. These are fairly crude measures of attainment
and it is not suggested that they are equivalent to ability (however
that may be measured). Table 15 shows the numbers in each grouping.
RDI scores are shown in Tables 16 and 17. Although the differences
are non-significant it should be noted that the secondary scores for
the less qualified students are consistently higher than for the
better qualified. This is probably due to the number of mature women
students in the former group who have been shown (hypothesis 4c above)
to hold more open role conceptions for secondary teachers than younger
students.

Table 15

Academic Achievement of students (n=105)

Possessing an A level qualification (1)		Possessing Minimum qualifications	
No	%	No	%
51	48.6	26	24.8

(1) Note: 31 students possessed 1 A level
          16 possessed 2 A levels
          4 possessed 3 A levels

Thirteen of the original intake of 126 students were "special entry".
The term implies that the students possessed less than the minimum
standard of five "O" levels but that they had taken the special entry
examination of the University of London Institute of Education for such

Table 16

RDI scores of students grouped by academic achievement

		Students having A levels (n=51)	Students without A levels (n=54)	Degree of Significance
Year 1(start)	P	120.66	121.71	NS
	S	112.87	114.37	NS
Year 1(end)	P	125.77	126.55	NS
	S	117.44	119.27	NS
Year 2(end)	P	126.53	128.32	NS
	S	117.20	119.54	NS
Year 3(end)	P	126.16	127.68	NS
	S	117.64	120.49	NS

Table 17

RDI Scores by academic achievement

		Students with minimum qualifications (n=25)	Students with greater than minimum qualifications (n=79)	Degree of Significance
Year 1(start)	P	122.17	120.82	NS
	S	115.24	113.16	NS
Year 1(end)	P	126.56	126.09	NS
	S	120.47	117.58	NS
Year 2(end)	P	128.93	127.91	NS
	S	120.73	117.51	NS
Year 3(end)	P	128.03	126.49	NS
	S	121.92	118.12	NS

candidates. Two of these students left during the course. The RDI scores of the remaining eleven were examined and were seen to be consistently higher throughout the course, than those for other students.

These differences however were not significant except for secondary RDI scores in the second and third year where they just reached the .05 level. All special entry students were mature women; the higher level of scores is therefore attributed to an age difference along the lines discussed in hypothesis 4a above.

4d. Previous teaching experience

The hypothesis must be accepted for the primary teacher's role. For the secondary teacher the hypothesis must be accepted for first and second year students, but rejected for third year students.

Sixteen students had fairly substantial previous experience of teaching. This, for the purposes of the investigation was defined as not less than three months consecutive service in schools prior to the college course. Of the sixteen students, three had between 4 and 8 months experience, six had one year's experience, six up to three years, and one had nine years experience. Four of the students were under 21 years of age.

Table 18 shows that students with teaching experience consistently scored higher than students without such experience, but the difference was only significant for the role conception of secondary teachers by third year students.

Table 18

Total RDI scores of students with and without previous teaching experience

		Students having taught before College (n=16)	Students without teaching experience(n=89)	Significance of difference
Year 1(start)	P	123.31	120.77	NS
	S	116.18	112.21	NS
Year 1(end)	P	126.28	126.16	NS
	S	119.19	118.10	NS
Year 2(end)	P	128.56	127.17	NS
	S	121.81	117.74	NS
Year 3(end)	P	127.14	126.82	NS
	S	124.01	118.18	.05

With such small numbers it is not possible to establish with
certainty the effect of prior experience upon scores but it would
appear that age and experience are factors in the third year which
make for a more open attitude towards secondary teaching. During the
investigation fourteen of the sixteen students with prior teaching
experience were interviewed (three were already members of the interview
sample described in Chapter 9). The interviews were relatively
unstructured, no interviewing schedule being used, but with the purpose
to attempt to assess the effect of prior teaching experience. All
interviews were conducted before the RDI finding for third year students'
view of the secondary teacher role emerged.

There was strong consensus that practical experience before College
was of benefit to students for two major reasons. First, in the words
of one student, "it enables us to put the theory into perspective".
This view was generally assented to; but the interviewer's interpretation
was that this meant a sceptical attitude to the contribution of theory.
Thus the anticipated effect was that RDI scores for these students
would be <u>lower</u> than for the other students.

Second, these students felt that their previous teaching experience
gave extra confidence both in the practical teaching situation and in
discussion with tutors. It is suggested that this effect helps to
account for the generally higher scores throughout the course and for
the significantly higher secondary score in the third year. It would
appear that this confidence exerts a greater influence than scepticism
of theory. However, it is still difficult to resolve why only in the
third year does a significant difference emerge between the groups, and
then only for the secondary role conception. There was no opportunity
to conduct interviews with the sixteen students after the emergence
of the secondary RDI finding, but it would appear that the effect of

previous teaching experience upon students' reaction to a course of
teaching training offers a valuable field for future investigations.

4e. School Leaving Age

The hypothesis must be accepted. No significant differences
were observed in total RDI scores when students were grouped
by the age at which they had left school.

Eighty-one students had left school at the age of 18 or over.
Twenty-four had left earlier than eighteen years of age. Table 19
demonstrates that school leaving age apparently makes no difference
in students' conceptions of teacher role.

Table 19

Total RDI scores of students grouped by school leaving
age

		Age on leaving school		Significance of Difference
		18 or over (n=81)	Under 18 (n=24)	
Year 1(start)	P	121.03	121.57	NS
	S	113.23	115.02	NS
Year 1(end)	P	125.97	126.93	NS
	S	118.03	119.19	NS
Year 2(end)	P	127.03	128.69	NS
	S	117.92	119.70	NS
Year 3(end)	P	126.77	127.22	NS
	S	118.57	120.84	NS

It may be that selection of the age of eighteen as a grouping criterion
could conceal certain differences which might emerge if alternative
groupings were made. There is a significant correlation between school
leaving age and age of student (0.4027, significant at .01 level). It
has been shown that older students score consistently higher throughout
the course than younger students. However, the relationship between
age and school leaving does not appear to be strong enough to influence
RDI scores.

4f. Religion

The hypothesis must be accepted. Where students are grouped
by religious belief, there is no difference observed between
the groups in respect of their total RDI scores.

Eighty-three students belonged or claimed to belong to the
Church of England. Table 20 shows the RDI scores of these students
compared with group means for "other" students (which included
thirteen non-conformists and four Roman Catholics). Inspection of
individual Catholic scores revealed that they generally fell within
one standard deviation of the mean for total RDI scores at each
testing point. Although it is felt not satisfactory to group all
"other" religions together, numbers were insufficient for separate
treatment.

Table 20

RDI scores grouped by religious affiliation

		Church of England (n=83)	Other (n=22)	Significance of Difference
Year 1(start)	P	121.34	120.44	NS
	S	113.75	113.28	NS
Year 1(end)	P	126.09	126.62	NS
	S	117.84	120.22	NS
Year 2(end)	P	127.46	127.23	NS
	S	118.62	117.12	NS
Year 3(end)	P	126.67	127.62	NS
	S	118.79	120.18	NS

Religious affiliations were taken only at the start of the course.
McLeish (1970) shows that religious belief on entry and completion of
a three year course of teacher training coincided for approximately
80 per cent of students. It is suggested that comparison of attitudes
to teaching between denominational colleges might yield some

differences, but the results from this study give no support to the
thesis that religious affiliation affects student views of the teacher's
role.

4g. Pre-College employment

The hypothesis must be accepted. When students are grouped
into those who have worked for three months or longer before
entering college and those who have not, no difference is
observed between the total RDI scores of the two groups.

Forty of the students had worked before coming to college and
sixty-nine had not. Employment was defined as any paid, continuous
occupation held prior to entering college. The sample thus included
those with previous teaching experience together with students who
had undertaken clerical or secretarial work or nursing, or work with
children. The work experience group includes nearly all the mature
students together with a number of younger students. Work experience
correlates highly with age (0.8187) but does not, in itself,
significantly differentiate between students in role conceptions held.
It is probable that the criterion of three months is insufficiently
discriminating as it includes a number of younger students who had
undertaken vacation jobs only, never seriously considering a career
which excluded a period of higher education.

Table 21

RDI scores of students grouped by work experience

		Three months or more (n=40)	None, or less than 3 months (n=65)	Significance of Difference
Year 1(start)	P	122.16	120.65	NS
	S	115.04	112.73	NS
Year 1(end)	P	126.44	125.01	NS
	S	119.35	117.64	NS
Year 2(end)	P	128.37	126.79	NS
	S	119.47	117.59	NS
Year 3(end)	P	127.24	126.63	NS
	S	120.58	118.02	NS

It will be noticed from Table 21 that generally RDI scores are
higher for the group with work experience, but that this difference is
not significant. If the criterion of one year's work experience is
chosen, the sample reduces to twenty-one, the differences between work
and non-work group scores widen becoming significant in the third year
at the .05 level.

4h. Type of secondary school attended

> The hypothesis must be accepted. When students are grouped
> by type of school attended, no significant differences are
> observed between total RDI scores of the groups.

Of the original sample of 126 students, 65 had attended Grammar
schools (52 per cent), 28 were from public or private schools (22 per
cent), and 33 from Comprehensive, Secondary Modern or Technical
schools (26 per cent).

The RDI scores of the original 126 students were grouped for
first year scores only, and for Grammar, Public and "other" respec-
tively were:

Primary	123.62	119.46	121.44	NS
Secondary	114.06	114.98	114.19	NS

A comparison of third year RDI scores for the final sample of 105
students yielded a similar result. Type of secondary school attended
is therefore thought not to be significant in determining the view of
the teacher's role for the students in this investigation.

4i. Number of unsuccessful interviews

> The hypothesis must be accepted. There is no difference in
> teacher role conception between students who nominate the
> college as first choice and those who do not.

Table 22 shows that forty-seven students (37 per cent) of the
original 126 had made the College their first choice. Their RDI
scores are very similar to students who did not select the college.
It was known that sixteen students had been refused, after interview,
by five or more other colleges before being accepted by the college.

The RDI scores of these sixteen students are not significant from the scores of other students (Primary 119.06; Secondary 112.75)

Table 22

Total RDI scores of students grouped by choice of college
(First Year Scores n=126)

	Sample College First Choice (n=47)	Other Students (n=79)	Significance of Difference
Year 1(start) P	121.79	121.44	NS
S	113.02	114.25	NS

Hypothesis 5

When students undertaking a three-year course of teacher training are grouped by certain institutional variables, there will be no differences between the conceptions of the role of the teacher held by the groups within each variable. In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:-

a. Education age range group
b. Main course of study
c. Resident or day student
d. Hall of Residence

5a. Education age range group

The hypothesis must be accepted. No significant differences are observed between total RDI scores when students are grouped according to their education age range groups.

In the college, students do not select their education age range group until the start of their second year. The first year is spent following a common course with students in six approximately equal undifferentiated groups. No secondary course is offered in the college. In the years preceding the investigation students had been offered a choice of three groups: Infant/Junior, Junior, and Junior/Secondary. From the commencement of this study students were offered

two choices only: Primary (for students training to teach 5-11 year old pupils) and Middle Years (for students wishing to teach 8-13 year old pupils, or older). Discussions held with the two groups of students showed clearly that the Middle Years group wished to teach "older pupils", with quite a strong bias to the secondary age range or top juniors (ten and eleven year olds). The Primary students showed a common characteristic in that they did not wish to teach secondary pupils and were more interested in the younger pupils within their age range.

Thus it is argued that there is a clear difference in orientation as far as teaching intention is concerned. Nonetheless, as shown in Table 23, this difference in preference for teaching older as against younger pupils does not result in a difference in the RDI scores between the groups. This is a finding which runs counter to a good deal of evidence from other investigations (Steele, 1958; Case, 1968; Dickson, 1965; Shipman, 1967). However, both Finlayson and Cohen (1967) and Halliwell (1965) found few differences between role conceptions of students training to teach older as against younger children. They do not report on the institutional factors which might have influenced such a result. In this investigation it is strongly suggested that the college is influential in ensuring that role conceptions of primary and middle years students are not markedly different.

Two major factors affect the finding. First, the significant orientation of the college is towards primary school teaching - a fact which is made clear to potential students coming for interview, again at the start of the course, and emphasised throughout the course. Second, no student, on her application form had chosen to train specifically for secondary teaching. The weak effect of age range

Table 23

Total RDI scores of Education age range groups

		Primary Students (n=71)	Middle Years Students(n=34)	Significance of Difference
Year 2(end)	P	127.83	126.44	NS
	S	118.47	116.88	NS
Year 3(end)	P	127.44	125.62	NS
	S	119.61	118.18	NS
Scores of those students whilst in First Year undifferentiated groups				
Year 1(start)	P	121.47	121.03	NS
	S	112.75	114.00	NS
Year 1(end)	P	125.55	127.00	NS
	S	117.55	118.83	NS

grouping as differentiating between conceptions of the teacher's role has been remarked upon in Gibson (1972). This investigation of the cross-sectional sample, shows that in contrast to this longitudinal sample, third year students grouped by Education age range, do view the primary teacher's role differently. Students training to teach younger children were significantly more open in their role conception. What is suggested here is that the difference arose because the three groupings offered to the students in the cross-sectional sample (Infant/Junior; Junior; Junior/Secondary) enable clearer differentiations to be made in students' role expectations than the simpler Primary/ Middle grouping of the longitudinal sample.

Several factors appear to bear out this explanation. An examination of the RDI primary scores of the groups comprising the cross-sectional sample show a clear progression towards "openness" from the Junior/Secondary, through the Junior to the Infant/Junior group. This last group's education syllabus is specifically geared to

the 5-9 age range in contrast to the Primary Years' 5-11 range.
Thus, it appears that students' role conceptions are influenced by
the formal organisation of college: the teaching groups to which the
students belong influencing the course content and, to some extent,
methodology. An existing orientation towards young children becomes
more sharply defined if the course provided concentrates exclusively
upon young children rather than including some emphasis upon the top
two years of the junior school. When the course (as for the
longitudinal sample) is more widely pitched in terms of age range,
this will serve, it is argued, to counteract the move towards
differentiating between groups noted in other studies.

Second, an investigation of first year students' total RDI
scores grouped according to preferred age range shows no differences
between those students preferring to teach older as against younger
pupils. Table 24 shows the scores. Students were asked, for the
purposes of this investigation, if they would prefer to teach in
Infant, Junior or Secondary schools. As can be seen in Table 24 there
are no significant differences in role conceptions between the groups,
and it is possible that this initial orientation persists through the
course aided by the College's pervasive primary atmosphere.

Table 24

RDI scores by students initial choice of age group
(as stated on first day in college) n=126

	Infant(5-7) (n=48)	Junior(8-11) (n=33)	Secondary(11+) (n=22)	Not sure (n=23)
Year 1(start) P	122.77	122.33	121.46	120.09
S	115.31	111.24	116.46	114.09

Preference stated

It has been noted above (hypothesis 1), that the first year is the time for major increases in RDI scores. The effect of age range preparation in the last two years is therefore limited. It would be interesting to speculate what would have been the effect if students, upon entry to college, had been allocated to age groups. It is felt that the first year would have seen a marked divergence in scores between the groups due to differing orientations of such groups. This is suggested as the institutional factor producing differences in other researches. However, the primary orientation of the college is strongly conveyed in the first year through the undifferentiated course to all students. It is suggested that this acts as a control over subsequent expression of opinion on teacher role.

Finally, it is suggested that the difference between the findings for the cross-sectional and longitudinal samples may be due partly to differences between the two samples and partly due to the temporary influence of the publication of the Plowden Report. This document was the subject of major attention by Primary groups in the year of its publication, and it could be that such attention served to accentuate differences between these groups and the Junior/Secondary.

5b. Main Course of Study

Certain main courses of study contain so few students that results of significance testing must be treated with great caution. From the evidence presented below it is very tentatively suggested that:

a. For Primary role conceptions the hypothesis must be accepted

b. For Secondary role conceptions the hypothesis is also accepted but with less certainty.

Generally then, it is suggested that a student's main course of study has little influence upon her view of the primary teacher's

role, but may have rather more effect upon her view of the Secondary teacher's role. Students select their main course of study from 9 fields. RDI scores for the remaining sample of 105 students are shown in Table 25.

Table 25

RDI scores grouped by main courses

Primary Scores

Main Course	Yr 1(start)	Yr 1(end)	Yr 2(end)	Yr 3(end)
Art & Craft(n=30)	122.37	126.90	128.73	128.63
Dance & Drama(n=18)	120.22	125.83	126.33	129.33
History(n=15)	120.47	123.33	123.00	124.07
English(n=18)	121.22	128.89	128.67	129.22
Geography(n=2)	129.00	137.50	134.50	130.00
French(n=7)	122.29	124.29	130.57	130.57
Divinity(n=9)	121.67	126.11	125.89	122.22
Music(n=2)	119.00	117.50	125.00	120.00
Science(n=4)	117.00	118.75	122.50	119.00
F ratio	0.44	1.60	1.55	2.25
	NS	NS	NS	05

Secondary Scores

Main Course	Yr 1(start)	Yr 1(end)	Yr 2(end)	Yr 3(end)
Art & Craft	116.77	120.77	119.87	122.33
Dance & Drama	112.33	117.78	116.61	118.00
History	113.53	113.13	115.13	114.93
English	114.66	122.72	121.94	121.78
Geography	106.00	108.00	115.00	114.00
French	112.14	116.57	120.00	123.00
Divinity	107.22	117.67	115.11	114.78
Music	108.00	109.00	118.50	113.50
Science	102.75	107.00	106.25	110.25
F ratio	2.22	2.83	2.44	2.64
	05	01	05	05

Clearly the very small numbers of students following Geography (n=2), Music (n=4), and Science (n=4), make it very difficult to interpret real differences between the main course of study groups. The scores were however submitted to an analysis of variance of programme (Dixon, 1968) using programme BMD 07D of the manual. The F ratios shown in Table 25 were obtained. For the groups given the

95 per cent confidence limit is 2.03 and the 99 per cent confidence
limit is 2.69 (Garrett, 1958).

It would therefore appear that there is little real difference
between main course groups in their conceptions of the role of the
primary teacher, but a more marked and possibly real difference
between them for secondary role conceptions. However, if the three
smallest groups are omitted the significant differences disappear.
Table 26 shows the rank order of subjects for each year, with highest
scoring at the top of each column. Again it must be stressed that
the very small numbers make it difficult to generalise but several
features can be commented upon. First, the two geographers throughout
the course have generally the most open conception of the primary
teacher's role and also the most closed conception of the primary
teacher's role. Second, there is a tendency for the science and
music students to score lowest throughout the three years. Third,

Table 26

Rank order of total Primary RDI scores

Rank order	Year 1(start)	Year 1(end)	Year 2(end)	Year 3(end)
1	Geography	Geography	Geography	French
2	Art	English	French	Geography
3	French	Art	Art	Dance
4	Divinity	Divinity	English	English
5	English	Dance	Dance	Art
6	History	French	Divinity	History
7	Dance	History	Science	Divinity
8	Music	Science	History	Music
9	Science	Music	Music	Science

Rank order of total Secondary RDI scores

Rank order	Year 1(start)	Year 1(end)	Year 2(end)	Year 3(end)
1	Art	English	English	French
2	English	Art	French	Art
3	History	Dance	Music Art	English
4	Dance	Divinity	Music	Dance
5	French	French	Dance	History
6	Music	History	History	Divinity
7	Divinity	Music	Divinity	Geography
8	Geography	Geography	Geography	Music
9	Science	Science	Science	Science

the three groups, science, geography and music have the smallest
numbers of students, and their exclusion from the table would mean
a less wide distribution of scores and loss of significance. Fourth,
the scores for individual subjects generally show a similar trend
to that of the whole sample; that is, a marked increase in the first
year and a maintenance of that level in the second and third year.
The exceptions to that trend are the History students' secondary role
conception which remains relatively unaltered throughout the course;
and the Divinity students' Primary score which reverts to near its
first year level at the end of the third year.

However, for this hypothesis the most important finding is that
the relative position of the nine subjects is comparatively unchanged
throughout the course. What this seems to imply is that the
influence of the main course of study undertaken in college is not
significant in affecting the role conception of students.

This may be asserted with a good deal of confidence for primary
role conceptions where no significant differences are observed in the
first or second year and the removal of six students (music and
science) from the third year reduces the degree of significance of
difference observed below the five per cent level. For secondary
scores there is a clear initial difference in role conception between
Art and English students on the one hand and geography and science
students on the other. This difference is maintained throughout the
course. Clearly what is important is the initial predispositions of
students which may be in part related to the subject they have chosen
to study. The size of samples and the focus of interest of this
study do not permit safe generalisations to be made.

Again, as with Education groups, it is suggested that the initial
orientation of students, together with the general ethos of college
is responsible for such changes as do occur in students' role conception,

rather than the direct influence of the main course of study. An interesting check on this finding may be undertaken by comparing the RDI scores of students grouped by main course preferences stated at the outset of their course. Entering students are not required to "go firm" on their choice of main subject until approximately six weeks after entering college. However, for the purposes of this study only, 124 students of the longitudinal sample were asked to state their preference on their first day in college. Results are shown in Table 27. The primary scores show the same pattern noted in the actual main course groups. The secondary scores show no significant differences; what seems to happen here is that higher scoring students expressing a preference for Divinity, Music, Geography and Science opt to join other groups at the point of actual choice. These students open up a gap between these four subjects and others which tends to remain throughout the course.

Table 27

RDI scores of 126 first year students grouped by stated
preference of main course

	Primary Score	Secondary Score
Art & Craft (n=31)	120.16	114.94
Dance & Drama (n=14)	123.07	115.00
History (n=8)	124.50	117.75
English (n=32)	122.57	114.30
Geography (n=5)	121.20	110.80
French (n=9)	124.78	113.78
Divinity (n=17)	120.88	112.71
Music (n=4)	120.50	117.75
Science (n=6)	118.50	107.17
F ratio	0.52	0.80
Significance	NS	NS

The interview sample were questioned about main course student membership, and whilst they claimed generally to see differences between Dance and Divinity students in certain personality variables

(see Chapter 9), there was consensus that students following different
main courses would not necessarily have different conceptions of the
role of the teacher. When acquainted with the nature of the differences
in secondary role conception of the second and first years, third
year students in the interview sample tended to explain the finding
in terms of the "freer approaches" of Art, Dance and English teachers
which possibly separated them from the "more formal approaches,
dictated by the subject" (in the words of one student) of Music,
Science and Divinity teachers. However, it must be repeated that in
view of the smallness of the sample it is felt that this secondary
finding should be treated with extreme caution.

5c.   Resident or Day Student

The hypothesis must be accepted. When the scores of the resident
students are compared with the scores of non-resident
students, no significant differences are observed.

The proportion of students in residence fell during the course.
Of the original intake of 126 students 83 were in residence, 43 non
resident. By the end of the third year only 64 were in residence
whilst 41 were living at home or in their own flats. The college has
no official lodgings scheme.. Younger students increasingly favoured
living out of college as the course progressed. Table 28 shows only
the scores of the original intake and the final sample.

Table 28

Total RDI scores of resident and non-resident students

		Resident	Non-resident	Significance of Difference
First Year(start)	P	121.47	122.58	NS
(n=126)	S	113.76	114.96	NS
		(n=83)	(n=43)	
Third Year(end)	P	126.84	126.92	NS
(n=105)	S	119.05	119.13	NS
		(n=64)	(n=41)	

In the third year there is a correlation of 0.5273 between the Resident/Non Resident and Age categories. A comparison of Table 28 with Table 11 reveals however that the inclusion of younger students, living at home, in the non-resident category tends to lower the RDI scores. The difference for secondary role conception, seen in the third year for over and under 21 year olds, does not emerge here.

An analysis of individual RDI items reveals no consistent pattern of differences between the two groups, although two items (17 and 24) tended to reveal, although less significantly, the differences noted in the testing of the age hypothesis. Here the non-resident students tended to disagree more strongly than the residents that a teacher's out of school activities should be largely connected with youth work or sport, and that she should take an active part in the life of the local community. It is again suggested that students resident in college tend to take a slightly more idealised view of this role prescription, whilst the non-residents (particularly married women with home commitments) view greater involvement with the community and young people with slightly less favour.

5d. Hall of Residence

> The hypothesis must be accepted. When resident students are grouped according to their College hostel, no significant differences emerge between RDI scores.

Resident students live in five college halls of residence, known as college hostels, all very close to the main college building. Students are placed in hostels alphabetically in the first year. At the start of their second year they are given a choice of hostel. This is used by many students as the opportunity to change their hostel. As can be seen Hostel C is relatively unpopular with students (it is a draughty, late Victorian building). Similarly Hostels D and E are old houses with few students (D=6/7; E=12/14) and some traditions of

Table 29

Total RDI scores of resident students by Hostels

| | | Hostel (RDI scores are shown for residential sample of 82 first years*, 70 second years, 64 third years) | | | | | |
		A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	Degree of Significance
Year 1(start)	P	122.69	123.25	120.14	119.50	121.67	NS
	S	115.35	115.63	112.06	115.75	117.56	NS
	n	(26)	(8)	(35)	(4)	(9)	
Year 1(end)	P	126.69	128.88	126.34	121.75	126.33	NS
	S	119.31	119.88	117.89	116.25	121.67	NS
	n	(26)	(8)	(35)	(4)	(9)	
Year 2(end)	P	126.00	129.74	127.64			NS
	S	118.52	120.54	116.64			NS
		(42)	(14)	(14)	(0)	(0)	
Year 3(end)	P	125.97	128.42	128.31			NS
	S	119.03	120.68	117.39			NS
		(39)	(11)	(14)	(0)	(0)	

*Note: At the start of the first year 83 students were in residence.
The figures given in this table however relate to hostel at end of
the first year.

being "first year" accommodation. At the start of the second year
the majority of students choose to live in Hostel A which is large,
modern and comfortable, yet arranged by staircases giving opportunity
for small groupings.

It was thought that this "friendship choice" of hostels in the
second year might result in a polarisation of RDI scores. As is clear,
this does not happen. Friendship groups, from this limited evidence,
does not appear to result in different attitudes to education. It is
likely that college policy on staffing hostels aids this non-differen-
tiation. Hostel Wardens are not drawn from the academic staff but from
administrative staff of college. Students saw their hostel wardens as
contributing nothing to changes in teacher role-conceptions.

There is no doubt (see Chapter 9) that student interaction is maximised in the hostels. Newcomb (1943) found a link between attitudes and student hall of residence. The reason no similar finding is made in respect of RDI scores is thought due to the lack of staff influence and the limited range of attitudes measured by the RDI. Interview students suggested that within the large hostel A many distinct groupings existed of friends sharing similar interests and beliefs. These groupings, it is suggested, would not show up in RDI scores as it is too blunt an instrument and as students' orientations were generally favourable towards children and education. Nonetheless is is likely that some of the small friendship groups may be characterised by differing personal and political attitudes but that these would only show up in very closely focussed enquiries. The interview sample suggested that Hostel B was characterised by a more professional approach ("the dedicated teachers" was a term used). This impressionistic view was not however borne out by RDI scores.

Shipman (1966) suggests that hostel interaction is based on essentially "coffee brew" type groupings, that there is no strong distinguishing political or educational viewpoint characterising college of education students. Both the RDI scores and the accounts of hostel life given by the interview sample support this suggestion. Small cliques of two, three or four students, loosely connected with other similar groups appears to be the characteristic mode of grouping.

Hypothesis 6

When students on a three year course of teacher training are grouped according to certain assessments of their performance on particular parts of the course, there will be no differences in teacher role conceptions between the groups.

In the testing of this hypothesis students were grouped by:

a. Final mark in Theory of Education
b. Final School Practice mark
c. Teaching Practice marks other than Final School Practice.

6a. Final mark in the Theory of Education

The hypothesis must be accepted.

The RDI scores in their third year of students grouped by different grades in the Theory of Education examination reveals no significant differences as shown in Table 30.

Table 30

RDI scores of students grouped by Theory of Education mark
(n=105)

	Theory of Education mark				Significance of Difference
	A(5)	B(26)	C(66)	D/E(8)	
Year 3(end) P	125.52	126.44	126.91	127.59	NS
S	117.94	119.12	118.84	120.63	NS

The final mark in Theory of Education is made up of a combination of four elements: Paper I (a traditional type three hour, three question paper common to four colleges); Paper II (a "problem solving" type of paper peculiar to the college; candidates write for up to three hours in response to a profile of a child or a school situation); Course Work assessment (a mark representing an average of marks for

essays written over three years on the disciplines of Education
on aspects of primary or middle years education); and the mark
for a special exercise (a dissertation on a chosen topic undertaken
mainly during the last year of college).

Table 31 shows that no significant correlations exist between
the final education theory mark or any of its components and the
students' RDI score at any point during the course.

Table 31

Correlations between Theory of Education mark and
RDI scores (n=105)

		Paper I	Paper II	Course Work	Dissertation	Final Mark
Year 1(start)	P	1017	1500	1380	1098	1904
	S	-0422	-0298	0792	-0156	0504
Year 1(end)	P	1179	1499	1313	1001	1583
	S	0715	0533	0634	0666	1036
Year 2(end)	P	-0015	0302	-0753	0426	0335
	S	-0374	-0380	0068	0321	0401
Year 3(end)	P	-0606	-0182	0145	0562	-0341
	S	-1178	-0111	0062	-0523	0106

Note: None of the correlation coefficients are significant:
05=1950; 01=2540.

The finding would appear to demonstrate fairly conclusively that
paper and pencil tests such as the RDI are of little value in predicting
how students will fare in the final Theory of Education examination. It
is clear that in terms of expressed attitudes to educational issues
the Instrument does not discriminate between good and weak students in
terms of their written work in Education.

6b.   Final School Practice mark

The hypothesis must be rejected.

When the RDI scores of students obtaining a distinction mark
(an A on a 5 point scale) on final school practice are compared with
the scores of other students, a significant difference is observed.
Only 9 students in the longitudinal sample obtained an A grade on
final school practice. The scores for the groups are shown in
Table 32.

Table 32

RDI scores of students grouped by Final Teaching
Practice mark

		School Practice Mark				Significance of Difference
		A (n=9)	B (n=39)	C (n=47)	D (n=10)	
Year 3(end)	P	137.72	125.91	125.89	125.50	05
	S	130.00	119.24	117.06	117.30	05

The correlation coefficients for third year RDI scores and
teaching practice mark were .2306 (Primary) and .2756 (Secondary).
The primary figure is significant at the .05 level, the secondary also at
the .05 level. No other years' RDI scores correlated with final
school practice grade, or indeed with the grade on any practice. It
is of interest that the RDI scores of groups of students obtaining B,
C and D grades are very close to each other. Only the nine students
obtaining distinctions appear, as a group, to score significantly
differently. Thus, the RDI would appear to be of very limited value
in predicting success on school practice. It cannot be used to
identify those students who will obtain low teaching practice grades.
Further doubts as to the validity of this finding are raised by the
results of testing hypothesis 6c.

6c. <u>Teaching Practice marks other than final school practice</u>

The hypothesis must be accepted.

Students undertake two practices in their first year (Group Study and Suffolk) and a four week second year practice. Gradings by College tutors and head teachers were collected on a five point scale A-E for the first two practices, and on a three point scale (Above average A/B; Average C; Below Average D/E) for the third practice. Table 33 shows that no significant differences exist between the RDI scores of the groups.

<u>Table 33</u>

RDI scores grouped by Teaching Practice Grade (Sample sizes: First Year n=124; Second Year n=116)

a. <u>First Year Group Study; First Year (start) RDI score</u>

	Tutor Grade				Significance of Difference
	A (n=6)	B (n=32)	C (n=64)	D/E (n=22)	
Primary	124.33	119.62	120.87	122.34	NS
Secondary	115.39	114.03	114.45	113.32	NS

b. <u>First Year Suffolk Practice; First Year (end) RDI score</u>

	Tutor Grade				Significance of Difference
	A (n=12)	B (n=36)	C (n=59)	D/E (n=17)	
Primary	127.23	128.85	125.79	126.43	NS
Secondary	118.43	119.37	117.51	118.20	NS

	Head Teacher Grade				Significance of Difference
	A (n=12)	B (n=36)	C (n=58)	D/E (n=18)	
Primary	125.24	126.02	127.54	129.40	NS
Secondary	116.09	117.43	118.41	120.39	NS

c. **Second Year Practice; Second Year (end) RDI scores.** (Three gradings only, A/B; C; D/E)

	Education Tutor Grade			Significance of Difference
	A/B (n=31)	C (n=61)	D/E (n=24)	
Primary	129.94	127.57	125.88	NS
Secondary	117.71	119.30	117.38	NS

	School Tutor Grade			Significance of Difference
	A/B (n=34)	C (n=53)	D/E (n=29)	
Primary	127.15	127.47	127.24	NS
Secondary	113.42	118.62	118.28	NS

	Head Teacher Grade			Significance of Difference
	A/B (n=32)	C (n=61)	D/E (n=23)	
Primary	126.65	127.07	128.91	NS
Secondary	117.34	119.18	118.17	NS

Notes on Table 33

1. For Group Study the Tutor grade is the grade given by the Tutor leader of a team of staff working with students on the Practice. The grade was arrived at after discussion with other tutors on the team.

2. For the Suffolk Practice, the tutor grade is an assessment arrived at by a team of Education Tutors in consultation with all other tutors who saw the students during the practice. The Head Teacher's Grade was obtained from a report card which the Head completed at the end of the practice in consultation with the class teacher.

3. On the Second Year Practice separate assessments were obtained from the student's Education Tutor, by the School Tutor and the Head Teacher.

A further check of the hypothesis was carried out by grouping those students who were causing "concern" to staff over teaching ability. "Concern" defined by the Principal in a staff meeting at the

end·of the second year practice as those students felt to be "in
need of extra help and attention on school experience" or "likely
to be in danger of failing their final school practice" or "students
whose performance on the second year practice gives rise to doubts
as to whether they can cope in the classroom". These students were
selected by a meeting of all college tutors after the end of the
practice. When the RDI scores of these students are compared with
those of other students (Table 34) no significant differences emerge.

Table 34

RDI scores (second year) of students causing "concern"
to college staff at the end of second year school
practice (n=116)

	Students causing "concern" (n=20)	Other Students (n=96)	Significance of Difference
Primary	123.15	127.15	NS
Secondary	118.95	118.38	NS

Hypothesis 7

When students are grouped by their scores on the personality
measures of extraversion and stability there will be no differences
between conceptions of role of the teacher held by the groups.

An attempt was made to establish whether personality differences
would affect students' conceptions of the teacher's role. At the
start and end of their three year course students completed the
Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck, 1964). This inventory, shows
at Appendix 3, sets out to measure what Eysenck claims to be two
major dimensions of personality, extraversion/introversion and
neuroticism/stability. The inventory or a similar one, the Maudsley

Personality Inventory, has been used fairly extensively in studies of students. The most widely reported personality instrument in studies of student teachers is Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire, as reported for example in Warburton (1963). It was decided after consultation however to use the simpler Eysenck Personality Inventory in order to reduce the demands upon students (who would be involved throughout the course in completing the RDI and other questionnaires); in order not to collect data which would not be used; and because it was agreed to keep the statistical analysis of data as simple as possible. Further, in the investigator's judgment, results from the 16 PF, whilst establishing some differences between student groups and showing some relationships between certain dimensions and performance on the course, do not justify its administration in the present study of professional socialisation. The EPI is easy to complete and score, and, whilst lacking the sophistication of the 16 PF, yields two major personality dimensions by which students may be grouped.

Table 35 shows the scores on the EPI both for the college sample and for Eysenck's normal standardisation groups. There are no significant differences between any student teacher scores on each dimension. The correlations between first and third year RDI testing of the 105 students in the longitudinal sample was 0.709 for Extraversion and 0.675 for Neuroticism.

Testing the hypothesis

7a. Extraversion/Introversion

The hypothesis must be accepted. When students are grouped by EPI scores on this personality dimension, no significant differences are observed between the RDI scores of the groups.

Students were grouped as "high scorers" (extraverts) or "low scorers" (introverts). For the purpose of classification high and

Table 35

Eysenck Personality Inventory Scores: Standardisation
Sample and College Sample

	Age	Extraversion		Neuroticism	
		M	6	M	6
Standardisation Sample					
Total (n=2,000)	27.45	12.07	4.37	9.07	4.73
Student Teachers (n=132)	20.39	12.37	4.46	10.72	4.34
College Sample					
First Year (n=124)	20.78	12.07	4.20	11.59	4.52
Third Year (r=105)	23.31	11.41	4.23	11.51	4.64

Correlation: First Year/Third Year scores E=0.7089, N=0.6753
(Appendix 1)

low scores were defined as approximately one standard deviation
from the mean. Thus, the extraverts were those scoring sixteen or
more on the scale; introverts those scoring eight or less. Table 36
shows that such classification yielded 20 extraverts and 19
introverts in the first year sample of 126, and 14 and 16 respectively
from the third year sample of 105.

Table 36

RDI scores of students grouped by high and low scores on
Extraversion dimension of Eysenck Personality Inventory

		High Scorers "Extraverts"	Low Scorers "Introverts"	Other students	Significance of Difference
Year 1(start)	P	123.53	119.05	122.26	NS
	S	116.97 (n=20)	112.30 (n=19)	114.16 (n=87)	NS
Year 3(end)	P	128.45	125.39	126.77	NS
	S	119.21 (n=14)	119.94 (n=16)	118.86 (n=75)	NS

7b. Neuroticism/Stability

The hypothesis must be accepted. Grouping of RDI scores
by neuroticism and stability reveals no significant
differences.

Neuroticism and Stability were taken as those EPI scores

approximately one standard deviation from the mean (eight or under,

sixteen or over).

Table 37

RDI scores of students grouped by high and low neuroticism
scores on the Eysenck Personality Inventory

		High Scorers ("stable")	Low Scorers ("neurotic")	Other Students	Significance of Difference
Year 1(start)	P	123.42	120.12	121.79	NS
	S	115.84 (n=21)	112.40 (n=19)	114.33 (n=86)	NS
Year 3(end)	P	128.26	125.60	126.84	NS
	S	120.55 (n=16)	117.36 (n=14)	119.14 (n=75)	NS

Hypothesis 8

During a three year course of teacher training there will be

no significant differences between the conceptions of the role of

the teacher held by the College of Education staff and its students.

The hypothesis must be rejected for the students upon entry
to college, but must be accepted for second and third year
students and for students at the end of their first year.

The RDI was completed during the sample's second year by 31

members of the tutorial staff of the college (ninety-one per cent

response). Table 38 shows the comparison of student and staff scores.

Even although staff attitudes were sampled once only it is argued

that because of the strong holding power of the college (Chapter 5)

Table 38

Total RDI scores of students and staff

			RDI Score	Significance of Difference from Staff Score
Staff Score (n=31)	Primary		125.42	
	Secondary		119.23	
Student Score (n=105)	First Year(start)	P	121.16	05
		S	113.65	01
	First Year(end)	P	126.18	NS
		S	118.29	NS
	Second Year(end)	P	127.40	NS
		S	118.31	NS
	Third Year(end)	P	126.87	NS
		S	119.08	NS

the single testing is likely to reflect staff views throughout the
three years. What seems clear is that students enter college with
role conceptions for both primary and secondary teachers somewhat
differing from the College staff, but that during their first year
they move towards the staff conception. However, within this pattern
of apparent agreement with staff attitudes on teacher role
prescriptions, several items consistently throughout the course
differentiated the two groups. Students tended to agree that both
primary and secondary teachers should use marks, stars, etc., in her
classroom; staff were far less certain that this was a desired
behaviour for teachers. Similarly, students favoured sex education
as a legitimate teacher activity, staff were much less convinced
that teachers should undertake their responsibility. Further, staff
strongly disagreed with the proposition that a teacher's out of school
activity should be largely connected with youth work and sport,
whilst the students throughout their course were far less emphatic
in their disagreement.

Of considerable interest is the finding that RDI item 34, relating to the use of corporal punishment did not differentiate between staff and student attitudes at the four points of measurement. However, as shown in Chapter 7, the effect of final school practice is to widen the gap between student and staff RDI scores. Not only does a significant difference emerge between secondary and primary totals, but, for the only time in the course, a difference emerges on item 34, with students moving, at the end of school practice, to a position more favourable to corporal punishment. This difference (significant at .01 level for primary teacher role and .05 for secondary teacher role) disappears at the next time of testing of the whole longitudinal sample at the end of the third year.

Interpretation of the general movement towards staff views are discussed in the light of the interview sample evidence in Chapter 9. At this point it may be argued that the change may represent a substantive change in attitudes to teaching or merely impression management (Shipman, 1966). Thus, it can be argued that the students, during their first year detect the "appropriate" views of teacher role held by staff, particularly Education Department staff (Chapter 9), and reproduce these on paper and pencil attitude tests, or in written work during their course. However, at the "crisis" point of school practice there is a movement away from staff attitudes, particularly with regard to the issue of corporal punishment.

Hypothesis 9

There will be no difference between the scores on Naturalism, Radicalism and Tendermindedness in Education of students at the start and end of their three year course of initial training.

The hypothesis must be rejected for Naturalism and Radicalism, but accepted for Tendermindedness.

The longitudinal sample (n=105) competed the Manchester Scales, Survey of Opinions about Education (Oliver and Butcher, 1962) at the start and end of their course. The scales are critically assessed in Chapter 2. Results are shown in Table 39.

Table 39

Scores of longitudinal sample on Oliver and Butcher's Survey of Opinions about Education*

	First Year Start (n=105)	Third Year End (n=105)	Significance of Difference
Naturalism	31.27	33.15	.01
SD	4.61	4.97	
Radicalism	45.35	46.90	.05
SD	4.87	5.03	
Tendermindedness	41.39	42.90	NS
SD	8.53	8.57	

*The scores are very similar to those of Halliwell (1965) who, with a group of 110 female students, recorded the following means and standard deviations (in brackets): N=31.30(3.95); R=46.24(3.32); T=46.61(6.85).
Correlation: First Year/Third Year scores N=0.3308; R=0.4846
        T=0.6455 (Appendix 1)

These results supplement the findings of hypothesis 1. They show students increasing during their course in Naturalism and Radicalism in Education. It is argued that this is a finding to be expected. The Naturalism items on the Manchester Scales deal with classroom practices, the Radicalism items with suggested changes in education. On both of these scales increased scores are likely to occur as increased knowledge of educational practices appears to affect some attitudes to education during training. The Tendermindedness Scale regards children as persons to be treated as ends in themselves. Students enter College with strongly positive attitudes towards

children, and these attitudes, as measured by the RDI, persist during the three years. Further, the correlations between the RDI scores and Naturalism and Radicalism are higher then with the Tendermindedness scores in the first and third years.

This finding compares with that of McIntyre and Morrison (1967) who found (in a cross sectional study) that for non-graduate women there were highly significant changes on Naturalism and Radicalism between first and third year (.001 level) and lower but still significant changes on the Tendermindedness scale (.05 level). They argue that the effect of college training appears to be in the direction of much increased scores on the naturalism and radicalism scales. McLeish (1970) in his study of ten colleges reports "considerable" differences between the scores on Naturalism in Education at the start and end of the course and small but significant differences in Radicalism and Tendermindedness in Education. He does not give details of the scores but does point out that all changes were in the direction of tutors' opinions.

This chapter has been much concerned with change in students' conceptions of the teacher's role as measured by the Role Definition Instrument. It appears that early in the course students' attitudes, with exceptions on certain issues, move towards more open or liberal positions. The questions arise as to how far students perceive themselves changing and how much they attribute that change to college influence. The interview sample was used to probe these issues over nine terms. However, at the end of the final term all students completed, anonymously, a third year questionnaire (Appendix 3). Results from that questionnaire reveal that whilst a majority of

students feel they have changed quite considerably both as persons and in their attitudes to teaching, a minority only appear to accord college an important role in effecting that change. It is felt by the investigator that the findings which follow are subject to many qualifications because of the limited nature of the questionnaire, and that what is required is the type of detailed study at least of the type undertaken with the interview sample. The questionnaire is considered a blunt instrument for assessing the impact of college.

Question 1 - How much have you enjoyed your three years at College?

	N	% (Approx)
A great deal	36	34
Quite a lot	43	41
A moderate amount	22	21
A little	4	4
Not at all	0	0
	105	100

As with the questions which follow the response categories are open to criticism on the grounds that they only imply a decreasing gradient; that the relative weightings of each category cannot be assumed to be constant, and that they force the student to select a response which may not be appropriate. However, it seems that three quarters of the sample enjoyed their time in college a good deal. Chapter 9 suggests that this may well be due to the interpersonal satisfactions of informal small group interaction.

Question 2 - Over the past three years how much do you think you have changed as a person?

	N	% (Approx)
A great deal	25	24
Quite a lot	38	36
A moderate amount	26	25
A little	14	13
Not at all	2	2
	105	100

Clearly the question is weak in its lack of specification of what constitutes personal change. No scale of values (such as the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values) was employed; and only the Eysenck Personality Inventory to measure two dimensions of personality was used. It cannot be assumed that students share common understandings as to what constitutes "changed as a person". Nonetheless sixty per cent clearly feel they have changed quite considerably. The anonymity of the responses did not allow identification of individual students. It would have been interesting to discover if the fifteen per cent who detected little change in themselves shared common characteristics such as age or religion or some institutional variable.

Question 3a - Over the past three years how much do you feel your attitudes towards teaching have changed?

	N	%(Approx)
A great deal	20	19
Quite a lot	45	43
A moderate amount	28	26
A little	10	10
Not at all	2	2
	105	100

Just over sixty per cent of the students see themselves as having changed quite considerably in their attitudes to teaching. No direction of change is given however and the global nature of the question makes it of little value except for its indication that approximately twelve per cent of students do not feel they have changed significantly. Again, the anonymity of the questionnaire makes it impossible to identify these "non-changers" to see how their judgment is reflected in their RDI score. The interview sample evidence shows however that the question of change is not one which can be adequately investigated without a good deal of sophistication of research methodology. If the RDI primary scores alone were taken

as indicators of change and students' first and third year scores were compared, 68 of the 105 students had apparently changed by more than five points over that period and nineteen of these were in a closed direction. If the criterion is raised to ten points difference the figures become twenty-nine and four respectively. Such an example illustrates the difficulty of such comparisons.

Question 3b - If your attitude to teaching has changed at least a moderate amount; how much do you feel that College has been responsible for this change?

	N	%(Approx)
A great deal	16	17
Quite a lot	27	29
A moderate amount	31	33
A little	15	16
Not at all	4	4
	93	100

Thus, it would seem that only 46 per cent of students who feel they have changed see college making a quite considerable impact on their attitudes to teaching. A more detailed but similar impression is gained from the interview sample with just under half giving the college major importance in role-learning. Rather, it is the experiences college facilitates, particularly School Practice, which affects the students most. This is brought out in the evidence on role models in Chapter 9 where school practices and teachers are seen as the most significant influence on teacher role learning.

Question 4 - When do you feel that your most important learning about the role of the teacher happened?

	N	%(Approx)
Before coming to college	7	7
In the first year of college	3	3
In the second year of college	21	20
In the third year of college	25	24
Steadily throughout the course	48	46
No reply	1	
	105	100

The evidence here conflicts with the conclusion which might be drawn from this chapter. Only three per cent of students see their first year as a significant learning period; the evidence of the RDI, and to a large extent from the interview sample, is that the first year is a very significant period for role learning. There is however among students (and certainly among college staff) widespread belief that major changes take place in the third year. The investigator argues in Chapter 9 that it is the impact of school practice which bears most upon students and that the early practices are particularly important in developing group perspectives to guide action and to serve as evaluators of work demands. It may be that the first year's importance in the students' minds is played down for several reasons. The dimensions of role learning are not specified; there is a tendency to value current experience; the serial nature of college socialisation implies (through its placing of assessment and its unspoken assumption that work becomes more important from the first to the second to the third year) that the third year is the most "vital" year; and the third year practice is the longest the students experience. The argument of this thesis is that the first year is very important to students in learning the appropriateness of behaviour, whether in classrooms, tutorials or questionnaires. The significance of this year may not be apparent to students - indeed from the evidence now produced, it clearly does not rate high. It is held to be certain however that the response to a single question such as this (upon which Marsland (1970) erects a theory of "identity crystallisation") cannot be taken at its face value and requires at least discussion throughout the course with individual students to reveal the complexity of the process by which students come to regard themselves as teachers.

Chapter 7

THE EFFECT OF SCHOOL PRACTICE

In the planning of this investigation it was considered that the periods of school practice would be of considerable significance in the process of professional socialisation. Interviews with students as the course progressed together with a review of the literature confirmed this opinion. It was therefore decided to study the effect that school practice had upon students' conceptions of the role of the teacher as measured by RDI scores; to investigate the correlates of teaching ability as measured by the Final School Practice mark; and to attempt a preliminary study of the relationship between expressed attitudes and classroom behaviour.

The nature of these three studies is limited by the more general focus of, and personal constraints on, the investigation of professional socialisation in college as a whole. Further evidence is offered later from the interview sample, but the findings make only a very modest contribution to countering Tibble's criticism that in considering teaching practice:

> "We have not engaged in any serious evalution of the
> purposes and methods used in this branch of our work"
> (Tibble, 1966, p50)

The evidence which follows bears indirectly upon Tibble's point. It is not subjected to very detailed analysis but it yields sufficient data to raise fundamental questions concerning the effect of practical teaching upon students in colleges of education.

The effect of school practice upon RDI scores

Chapter 2 includes American research suggesting that the effect of school practice is to influence student attitudes in a negative

direction. It would appear that during the teaching experience there is movement away from liberal-democratic views. In this investigation such a change would be represented by a reduction in RDI scores. The period of final school practice was used to examine whether such negative movement of scores would occur.

The college's final school practice comprises a consecutive period of ten weeks in the Autumn Term of the third year. It was resolved to use a substantial proportion of the longitudinal sample to measure how this practice affected role conceptions. The RDI was completed in the week before the practice and in the week following its end by sixty-nine students (representing approximately sixty per cent of the cohort). These students were drawn from five education groups and included twenty-three middle years students and forty-six primary students. The scores at the start of the practice were very similar to those recorded by the entire longitudinal sample at the end of the second year implying that as a group no change had taken place during the three month interval of the summer vacation. For the 116 second year (end) and 69 third year (start) the primary and secondary RDI scores were respectively P:127.32/125.93; S:113.47/118.41. Table 40 gives details of scores at the start and end of the ten week practice.

Table 40

RDI scores at start and end of ten week
period of practical teaching (n=69)

	Start of Practice Score	End of Practice Score	Significance of Difference
RDI Primary Total	125.93	122.75	05
RDI Secondary Total	118.41	114.61	05

Thus a hypothesis that a substantial period of practical teaching will be to leave students' role conceptions unaltered must be rejected. The table shows that RDI scores are significantly reduced, representing a move towards a more closed conception of the teacher's role. This is the first empirical demonstration of this phenomenon in the United Kingdom and the finding confirms those American studies reported in Chapter 2. The evidence of Chapter 9 can be used to interpret the change as due to the "reality shock" of first hand experience of the classroom and to the operation of a school perspective. The administration of the RDI immediately at the end of school practice modifies the effect of a college perspective which may serve to influence students to produce "acceptable" responses in college situations. It is felt significant that at the end of the third year (i.e. two terms after the administration of the RDI at the end of school practice) scores have increased such that the significant differences recorded during teaching practice are eliminated.

Examination of the RDI at the end of the practice showed that scores decreased on 23 primary and 25 secondary items and no items increased significantly. For five primary and four secondary items the decreases were significant. Thus, as a result of school practice students appear to favour more the practice of grouping children by ability for academic subjects (RDI item 7); and to be rather less in favour of encouraging parents or other visitors to come into the school (27P; 30S). Students are less in favour of primary teachers' activities out of school being largely connected with youth work or sport (24).

However, the greatest decline in scores, significant at the .001 level is recorded on item 34 relating to corporal punishment. Here, students moved, as a group, from a general tendency to disagree with

the practice to a position of far greater uncertainty. More strikingly, in terms of numbers of students this meant that whilst 47 and 45 disagreed or strongly disagreed with the practice by primary and secondary teachers respectively at the start of the school practice, at the end of the practice the figures were 27 and 29. Similarly, whilst only 5 and 8 agreed with the practice before entering schools for their ten week experience, at the end of the practice 23 and 21 now agreed with the use of corporal punishment by primary and secondary teachers. Thus, school practice would appear to dramatically influence views on the desirability of corporal punishment. An alternative explanation is that the RDI was completed at the end of school practice using a school rather than a college perspective. Such perspectives could produce different responses to the issue of corporal punishment (Chapter 9).

It would be wrong to assume that school practice experience operates in a uniform manner on all students. Of the 69 in this investigation 46 showed lower RDI scores after the ten week practice for both primary and secondary teacher role conceptions. However, 22 recorded higher secondary scores and 21 recorded higher primary scores. A further investigation was conducted in an attempt to discover if any pattern underlay these movements. It was hypothesised that students' attitudes would be influenced by the degree of difficulty they encountered on the practice, and that in more difficult circum- stances students' attitudes would move in a negative direction. This hypothesis was originally suggested both by Shipman's (1966) thesis that more difficult schools produced lower teaching gradings and by popular student mythology that "tough schools needed tough teachers". The findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between difficulty or ease of the classroom situation and the change in student

scores.

At the end of the school practice, students were asked to rate the difficulty of the situation in which they had found themselves. The scale given was a five point one: Very Difficult/Difficult/About Average/Easy/Very Easy. No criteria were suggested to the students for assessment of the degree of difficulty. The subjectivity of this rating and the error to which it is liable is therefore acknowledged. Nonetheless, the correlation between RDI scores and students' perception of difficulty is revealing. At the start of the practice the coefficients were -0.124 (P) and -0.109 (S). At the end of the practice these non-significant coefficients have become -0.343 (P) and -0.377 (S), both significant at the .01 level. Thus it appears that whilst there is a slight but non-significant tendency for low scoring students to regard their school practice situations as more difficult, this tendency is accentuated by the practice itself. The greater difficulty a student feels her practice school to present, the more likely is she to express a closed view of the teacher's role after her experience of school.

In an attempt to validate the students' rating, tutors were asked to similarly rate the degree of difficulty of the teaching practice situation using the same scale (but again with no criteria given). Ratings were obtained independently for each individual student's situation from tutors who were involved in the practice. Using the Classroom Observation Schedule ratings were obtained from each tutor over the period of the practice and an average calculated for each tutor. A high degree of correspondence was noted among the staff ratings, in only seven cases did ratings vary by more than one point. A tutor rating was arrived at by averaging tutors' average ratings. Table 41 shows that when staff and student ratings are

compared it is possible to identify a "common overlap" representing those situations where both agree on the ease or difficulty of the school practice situation.

Table 41

Tutors' and students' rating of the degree of
difficulty of the school practice situation

	Student	Staff	Common Overlap
Situation rated as Very Difficult or Difficult ("Difficult")	22	14	12
Situation rated as About Average ("Average")	36	35	25
Situation rated as Easy or Very Easy ("Easy")	11	20	10
Total	69	69	47

Note: Correlation between student and staff rating = 0.627

When the RDI scores of the students were examined it was found that of the 22 students rating their situation as difficult or very difficult, 19 recorded lower scores at the end of the practice. All twelve of the "Common overlap" students showed declines in scores for both primary and secondary teachers. At the other end of the scale, of the eleven students who rated their teaching situations as easy or very easy, ten showed rises in RDI scores. All ten were those agreed by staff to be in the same category. Of the six greatest gains and six greatest falls in scores, five of the gains and all six falls were found in the 'easy' and 'difficult' categories of the 'common overlap" respectively. When the end of practice RDI scores of students in the "difficult" and "easy" common overlap categories were compared significant differences were observed between the two groups, the degree of

significance just below the .01 level. However, when scores were
grouped by ease or difficulty of teaching situation as perceived by
students, the difference was still significant at the .05 level.

Table 42

RDI scores of students undertaking a ten week teaching
practice in "easy" situations compared with those in
"difficult" situations

| | "Easy"(n=11) | "Difficult"(n=22) | Significance of Difference |
	(as seen by student)		
Start of Practice			
RDI Score P	125.21	126.24	NS
S	118.62	119.38	NS
End of Practice			
RDI Score P	128.72	120.60	05
S	121.77	113.22	05

Note: Scores at end of practice for Easy (n=10) and
Difficult (n=12) for common overlap students:

P   128.24   118.64   Difference Significant at 05
                                        level
S   121.59   112.14   Difference Significant at 05
                                        level

It would appear therefore that how the student herself perceives
the difficulty or ease of school practice affects to a considerable
extent her attitude towards educational issues. This point may again
be illustrated by student replies to the item on corporal punishment.
Eighteen out of 22 students seeing themselves in "difficult" situations
recorded a decline on this item, whilst only three of the eleven rating
their situation as "easy" showed a greater tendency to agree with the
use of corporal punishment.

The existence of the relationship appears to be confirmed by a
further investigation carried out at the end of the third year. All

105 students were asked to rate, on the five point scale, the degree of ease or difficulty they had encountered on final school practice. The correlation matrix at Appendix 1 shows that these ratings were significantly related with third year (end) RDI scores. Thus, greater perception of difficulty on school practice is associated with more closed role conceptions after that practice.

The assessment of final school practice

The value and effectiveness of grading by tutors of students on their final school practice has been questioned by a number of writers and researchers (Robertson, 1957; Collins, 1959; Rudd and Wiseman, 1962; Allen, 1963; Start, 1967; Anders-Richards, 1969). Criticism takes the form that the school practice mark is of limited validity in predicting future teaching ability; that it is impressionistically derived, based on a very limited range of evidence; that standards and criteria vary from tutor to tutor and from college to college; and that the tutor's assessment function prejudices his advisory function. More recently, Cortis (1970, 1972) has argued that the college mark is more closely related to future teaching "success", as assessed by headteachers, than is usually assumed. Because of the college focus of the current study this section of the investigation quite specifically does not probe the relation between teaching mark and teaching ability after college. Rather, it examines the relationship between the practice mark and certain variables measured within the college socialisation period.

Hypothesis 6b in Chapter 6 has shown that when students are grouped by their teaching practice marks a significant difference is observed between the groups' RDI scores. The students obtaining distinction (A) marks score higher than other students. The correlation

matrix at Appendix 1 shows similarly small but significant relationships
between final practice mark and third year RDI scores suggesting a
tendency for higher scoring students to gain higher assessments. For
the RDI scores obtained at four points during the three year course
the relationships with final teaching practice assessment were as
follows (n=105):

	First Year (start)	First Year (end)	Second Year (end)	Third Year (end)
RDI Primary	0.172	0.101	0.144	0.231
RDI Secondary	0.070	0.130	0.181	0.276

When the RDI scores of the 69 students who were studied over the
period of teaching practice itself are considered, the end of practice
correlations are somewhat higher: 0.292 (P); 0.306 (S). There is
again a significant difference between the RDI scores of students
gaining high grades as against other students.

Such a trend was not observed in scores on the Manchester Scales
of Opinions on education. Halliwell (1965) demonstrated that no
significant correlation existed between teaching mark and scores on
the Manchester scales. A similar finding emerges from this study with
non-significant correlations with teaching mark for each dimension of
the scales as follows:

	First Year	Third Year
Naturalism in Education	0.026	-0.032
Radicalism in Education	0.029	0.190
Tendermindedness in Education	0.010	-0.044

A review of previous studies of the predictors of teaching ability
shows that researchers have concerned themselves largely with personality
factors (Cortis, 1970). Such studies generally show only very slight
relationships between final practical teaching mark (the sole, and
questionable measure of "teaching ability" available to researchers)
and personality traits as measured for example by the Cattell 16PF
questionnaire. In this investigation it was decided to focus upon the

correlates of the final practice mark using only one simple personality
test (the Eysenck Personality Inventory) but a variety of institutional
and biographical data. It has already been noted that questionnaires
on educational attitudes appear to be poor predictors of the final
mark. Appendix 1 shows the correlations with other measured variables.
Significant correlations observed are:-

r	sig	Item

Previous teaching practices

.265	.01	Group Study performance
.259	.01	Group Study potential
.383	.01	Second Year Practice. Education Tutor Grade
.304	.01	Second Year Practice. School Tutor Grade
.220	.05	Second Year Practice. Education Tutor potential
.351	.01	Second Year Practice. School Tutor potential
.272	.01	Second Year Practice. Staff concern
-.271	.01	Third Year Practice. Student assessment of difficulty

Tutors' general assessments

.331	.01	Education Tutor – estimate of potential. Second Year (end)
.656	.01	Education Tutor – estimate of potential. Third Year (end)
.339	.01	Education Tutor – estimate of open/closed. Second Year (end)
.512	.01	Education Tutor – estimate of open/closed. Third Year (end)

Education work

.222	.05	Course work
.281	.01	Final mark in theory of education

Educational attitudes

.231	.05	RDI (P) Third Year (end)
.276	.01	RDI (S) Third Year (end)

There are observed no significant relationships between the teaching
practice mark and the biographical variables of age, academic achievement
or social class, or the personality factors of extraversion/introversion
and neuroticism/stability.

It would appear that tutors' and headteachers' gradings of first and

second year practices are of limited value in predicting final school practice mark. Ratings for each student's performance and potential were obtained from tutors after Group Study (first year) and the second year practice. For the Suffolk (first year) and second year practices a headteacher's grading was also recorded. It is significant that for the two Suffolk practice grades (tutors' and heads') no significant relationships are observed with the final practice mark. This could suggest that the nature of the experience is different from those practices held in London schools. It lends support to the notion that "success" is determined to a significant extent by the particular institution in which the practice takes place. The headteachers' assessment of the second year practice is similarly non-predictive of the final mark.

Tutors' assessments of Group Study and second year practices produce low, but significant correlations. Tutors were asked to rate the practice on a five point scale in terms of student performance and were further asked to forecast the students' potential as a class teacher (Appendix 3). No criteria were given for either judgment. This is however in keeping with college assessment procedures which are wholly impressionistic, a characteristic which is common throughout most teacher training institutions (Stones and Morris, 1972).

An indication of what may be included in tutors' impressionistic assessments is given in their ratings of students on an open/closed continuum. At the end of the first, second and third years education tutors rated their students on a five point scale of "openness". The criteria to distinguish open from closed were suggested as:

- "flexible" rather than "rigid"

- capacity generally to see a number of alternatives rather than just one

- able to examine beliefs and procedures <u>critically</u> rather
than just accepting them ritualistically or habitually.

The quite high (0.512) correlation with final teaching practice
mark, and the significant correlations in Appendix 1 between openness
and tutors' assessments of performance and potential at particular
points in the course suggests that the criteria form part of tutors'
impressionistic evaluations of school practice.

Education tutors were also asked at the end of each year to
estimate the students' potential as classroom teachers. The correlations
between these tutor assessments at the three points in the class were:

First Year and Second Year	.3620	.01 level
First Year and Third Year	.2011	.05 level
Second Year and Third Year	.5668	.01 level

Here again the difficulties inherent in prediction may be seen.
Although the correlation between third year "potential" and final
teaching practice mark is as high as 0.656 a consideration of individual
cases shows how, in the six months between the two assessments, judgments
altered. Whilst 48 students were rated as above average (B or A grade)
on final school practice, only 32 were rated by their third year tutor
as having above average potential. One student with a B grade on
Final School Practice was rated as potentially below average (D) by her
education tutor. Of the students rated average (C) on school practice,
seven were later held to have above average potential (B) and one to
be very weak indeed (E). Such apparent anomalies indicate not only the
caution with which such impressionistic assessments must be regarded,
but also the individual differences which may be obscured by too facile
a reliance on grouped data. Thus, although the tutor's assessment of
potential is clearly related to the final practice mark, it is clear
this is not the only factor taken into consideration.

The question of the influence school placing exercises on choice
of school was considered. Collier (1959) and Shipman (1966) have both
shown that it seems easier for students to obtain high marks in some
schools than in others. In this investigation it was resolved to use
the student's perception of the degree of difficulty her final practice
school presented. A correlation of -0.271 (significant at the .01
level) was noted between "difficulty of practice school" and final
teaching mark, suggesting that the greater difficulty a student
perceives the more likely is she to obtain a lower grading. Table 43
shows the final school practice grades of students in "easy" and
"difficult" schools (using the definitions given above in Table 42).

Table 43

Grade obtained on ten week final school practice
classified by students' perception of difficulty of school placing

Grade	"Easy"(n=11)	"Difficult"(n=22)
A	2 (19%)	1 (5%)
B	4 (36%)	5 (23%)
C	5 (45%)	12 (54%)
D	0 (-)	4 (18%)

Although the numbers involved are small there is an indication
that students seeing themselves in "easy" schools obtain higher grades
than those in more difficult placings. Interviews confirm that students
themselves hold quite strongly to the belief of "the luck of the draw"
as a major determinant of success on school practice. Certain schools
enjoy poor reputations and are regarded by students as unlikely to
enable them to perform well in the eyes of tutors. However it must be
stressed that the correlation noted must not necessarily be regarded as
causal, and it may be that certain factors in placing students (Chapter 5)

or different students' differing conceptions of "difficulty" may account for the finding.

Relationship between observed classroom behaviour and educational attitude as measured by RDI score - A pilot study

An attempt was made to measure how far expressed opinions about education, as measured by total score and individual items on the RDI, issue in action in the classroom. This, in the opinion of the writer, is one of the key problems in the initial training of teachers. British studies have concerned themselves with student attitudes expressed in paper and pencil instruments. None have attempted to measure the relationship between these attitudes and actual classroom behaviour. The only criteria used has been final mark obtained on school practice, and Tarpey (1965) and others have indicated some of the drawbacks of this approach. A preliminary and very limited attack upon the problem is attempted in this study, but the results must be viewed as somewhat inconclusive, pointing on the one hand to the difficulty of measurement of classroom performance, and on the other to the apparent lack of relationship between expressed attitudes and classroom behaviour.

The sheer difficulty of establishing objective measures of classroom behaviour has been discussed in Biddle and Ellena (1964) and Hilsum and Cane (1971). For the individual research worker, with limited time and resources, and working at a distance from the college during the ten week practice period, the difficulties were very great indeed, but it was felt that a determined effort should be made to provide some preliminary evidence upon which further research studies might be based. The writer has been extensively concerned with the measurement of teacher behaviour (Gibson, 1971, 1970), and for the purposes of this study devised a classroom observation schedule

(Appendix 3). This schedule (COS) served as a basis for observation by tutors visiting students in school.

It was decided to concentrate upon the sample of sixty-nine students who had completed the RDI at the start of their final practice. Students are usually visited in school by tutors on average twice every three weeks of the practice. As there are two tutors supervising each student it is possible that a student would be seen by a member of College staff, in some sort of teaching situation, at least a dozen times during the ten week practice. Theoretically, the number of occasions a student could be seen "teaching" is much higher, as some tutors attempt to see their students at least once each week. In practice, the number of times a student is seen when she has responsibility for her class (i.e. is "teaching") is much lower. There are several reasons which could account for this: tutors visiting when the student is not "teaching"; student absence; exigencies of school timetabling; the college's practice of "remote supervision". This last is a method of protocol supervision based on social casework (Caspari, 1965; Clark, 1967). The education tutor sees the student not in school but in weekly evening sessions at the college when the student reports upon a particular lesson she has taught. An attempt was made, with the willing co-operation of tutors undertaking this form of supervision, to obtain information on students using the COS. However, as it was desired to gather first hand measurements of classroom behaviour it was felt that the data was unsuitable for analysis in this investigation. The method does merit detailed investigation but this is a task lying beyond the bounds of this study.

Supervisors visiting schools to see students in the sample were requested to complete a COS as soon as possible after leaving the

student. The fourteen aspects of behaviour on the COS were each rated on a five point scale by the tutor underlining or circling a response. The completed schedules were returned to the investigator (who himself supervised one student). The practical difficulties noted above resulted in a return of usable, completed CO Schedules ranging from one only for five students to thirteen for two students. For three students no COS were obtained.

<u>Number of completed Classroom Observation Schedules obtained for the sample of 69 students on final teaching practice</u>

Three or less	-	32
Four or Five	-	12
Six or Seven	-	15
Eight or Nine	-	5
Ten or more	-	5
		69

It was decided that a minimum of four COS for each student would be required to give validity to the exercise. This criterion resulted in information being obtained on the classroom behaviour of only just over half the sample. In spite of the excellent co-operation obtained from supervising tutors it was only possible to obtain four or more COS ratings on thirty seven of the sixty nine students (53.6%). Such limited evidence on a small sample places major constraints upon any interpretations, but within the compass of this investigation, with its other major lines of enquiry, this is inevitable. The writer is aware that such a complex and important issue requires far more detailed enquiry.

The COS sheets for each student were processed as follows. For each of the fourteen items on the schedule an arithmetic mean was

obtained which was then corrected to the nearest whole number (1-5) to represent an "average" of each student's classroom behaviour over all observations. The method is open to criticism, but it is claimed that it offers evidence gathered from the ratings of skilled observers (Griffiths and Moore, 1967), which may be taken as indicating a "typical" style of teaching behaviour. For example, item 1 asks the tutor about the student's use of praise: "did she praise the children: very frequently/fairly regularly/a moderate amount/rarely/ practically never?" In four or more visits to the school (in most cases by two different tutors), an average score for "praising" behaviour can be calculated on a five point scale which can be compared with the student's score on a similar scale when she is asked about how strongly she agrees or disagrees with the proposition that a teacher should praise children's work frequently.

For the thirty seven students on whom classroom observations were made a correlation matrix was constructed (Appendix 1) comprising the fourteen items of the COS, scores on four items of the RDI administered at the start of the practice corresponding with four items on the COS, the total Primary and Secondary score of each student on the RDI and the final teaching practice mark. The corresponding RDI/COS items included were chosen on the grounds of easy observability:

Item 5   A teacher should try to ensure that in her classroom all pupils are working on the same subject or topic.

Item 16 A teacher should, in her classroom, operate some scheme of marks, stars, etc., for the award of a cup, badge, privilege, etc.

Item 29 A teacher should allow pupils to choose other children with whom they wish to work in class.

Item 31 A teacher should praise pupils' work frequently.

No significant correlations were recorded between any of the four corresponding items on the COS and either the total RDI score or the score on the four individual RDI items which related to COS items. This finding suggests that attitudes about education expressed as pencilled responses to questions on the RDI would appear to be unrelated to observed behaviour in the classroom. When all behavioural COS items were correlated against the four RDI items and total scores, in only one case was a significant correlation observed. RDI item 31 (A teacher should praise pupils' work frequently) correlated significantly (.01) with COS item 12 (Tutors' assessment of lesson): Primary 0.4792; Secondary 0.4223. In view of the finding of lack of relationship with other items it would be unwise to place much weight upon this particular relationship. Tutors did not, in their observation of the students in the classroom, observe use of praising techniques which appeared related to the students' own attitudes towards praise.

As a further check on the relationship between behaviour and expressed attitude students were grouped by "extremes" of each five point rating scale for observed behaviour on the four corresponding items. "Extreme" were taken to be those students rated at the two lowest as against the two highest levels. Thus, for example, on the third item of the classroom observation schedule students were grouped as those who allowed children "a great deal/a fair amount" of choice in work as against those who allowed children "a little/no" choice. Comparison of the RDI scores in Table 44 for these two groups of students reveals no significant differences between the two groups.

Thus, there appears to be little or no relationship between a student's opinions about educational issues and her observed classroom behaviour. The extreme limitations of this study must again be

Table 44

RDI scores grouped by certain measures of observed behaviour
on **final school practice.** **Total sample** 37 students, numbers
in each group shown in brackets

		Students scoring high on COS item	Students scoring low on COS item	Significance of Difference
1. Use of Praise		(n=10)	(n=9)	
RDI item	P	3.90	3.88	NS
	S	4.10	3.88	NS
RDI Total	P	124.80	128.00	NS
	S	117.90	118.67	NS
2. Choice allowed		(n=9)	(n=11)	
RDI item	P	3.88	3.98	NS
	S	4.33	4.16	NS
RDI Total	P	126.89	124.49	NS
	S	118.67	116.09	NS
3. Friendship Grouping		(n=12)	(n=7)	
RDI item	P	3.84	3.71	NS
	S	3.92	3.71	NS
RDI Total	P	125.76	129.57	NS
	S	118.08	115.86	NS
4. Use of Stars, etc.		(n=14)	(n=6)	
RDI item	P	3.04	3.16	NS
	S	2.96	2.86	NS
RDI Total	P	123.80	127.20	NS
	S	119.45	117.33	NS

stressed. It is only a small attempt - albeit the first in this
country - to measure the relationship between expressed attitude
and classroom performance. The lack of relationship found could well
be a result of the oversimplification of the methods used. It cannot
be unequivocally assumed that the RDI scores genuinely reflect
attitudes, or that the true character of classroom behaviour can be

caught in a number of visits to a student on school practice. The finding may have some value however as the evidence from the interview sample suggests that students themselves see no necessary relationship between attitudes on specific educational issues and actual behaviour in the classroom. The problems posed by the question defy simplistic treatment and the investigator sees it as a field for more intensive research efforts.

Finally, it should be noted that the final school practice mark correlates quite highly with items on the COS. This is not surprising as the intuitively arrived at teaching mark is almost certainly obtained from tutors' subjective evaluation of many of the factors included on the COS. The size and significance of the correlations are as follows:

COS Item	r with final TP mark	Significance
1. Use of Praise	.5691	.01
2. Contact with Children	.4671	.01
3. Choice allowed	.5901	.01
4. Friendship grouping	.3978	.05
5. Link with outside	.4356	.01
6. Worthwhile learning	.6196	.01
7. Authoritarian/Democratic	.3462	.05
8. Flexibility of organisation	.5754	.01
9. Involvement	.5693	.01
10. Discovery methods	.5279	.01
11. Use of stars, etc.	.1433	NS
12. Lesson Assessment	.7132	.01
13. Predictive Assessment	.6807	.01
14. T.P. situation	-3766	.05

Of the eleven behavioural items (1-11) of the COS, ten correlate significantly with the final practice mark. The nature of the items give some indication of the sort of factors which appear to be taken

into account when arriving at an assessment of the practice. Here, the high correlation with item 6 "How much do you think the children were learning worthwhile things?" appears to suggest that tutors do attempt to take into account the nature of children's learning. The low correlation with teaching style (authoritarian/democratic) could be regarded as a little surprising in view of the higher relationships with some other items, but seems likely that the lack of definition of authoritarian/democratic might dissociate this more globally descriptive item from the more specific behaviours which could be argued to characterise such approaches.

The teaching practice mark is significantly related to the degree of difficulty of the teaching practice situation as assessed by the tutors. This tends to confirm the finding noted earlier that the final teaching practice mark is related to the students' assessment of the difficulty of the teaching situation, and is further evidence for the suggestion that the school or class in which the student undertakes her practice is a significant factor in determining her final mark. The inverse correlation of item 14 with the Practice mark offers also some confirmation of correspondence between tutors' and students' assessment of the degree of difficulty of the practice indicated by the "common overlap" figures given in table 41.

Chapter 8

FINDINGS - THE COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

Chapter 5 has analysed the nature of the staff, students, selection procedure and the three year course; in Chapter 9 a very extensive examination is made of students' reactions to the socialisation process. This chapter presents evidence relating to the characteristics of the environment of the college. It represents the anonymous responses of 105 students of the longitudinal sample, at the end of their final year, to a College Environment Index. Further, it gives additional information relating to the students themselves.

There have been a number of approaches to the problem of categorising colleges and measuring their environments. Anthropological vignettes and case histories have been used by Riesman and Jencks (1962) and Keeton and Hilberry (1969). Certain conventional or nominal classifications (based on curriculum, ownership and control, sex, geographical location) have been used in comparisons when large numbers of colleges have been involved, and some claims have been made that such classifications can yield clusters of colleges sharing certain environmental similarities (Stern, 1970; Pace, 1969). Other studies, notably Astin (1962) have used certain demographic, ecological or physical attributes (such as average IQ of student body; size; library resources; staff-student ratio; qualifications of staff) as a basis for categorisation and investigation. Astin's Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT) attempts to assess the college environment in terms of characteristics of the student body including size, IQ, and curriculum preferences. More recently Astin (1968) has developed an Inventory of College Activities (ICA) which consists of 33 scales. This is more akin to the fourth type of environment measure which assesses the college "climate".

The existence of these different approaches illustrates that researchers are not agreed on a "best way" of categorising variation in environments. To the investigator it demonstrates that a variety of approaches, such as those undertaken in this study, is more likely to capture the reality of a particular college than reliance on a single method. However, the most widely used approach has almost certainly (Feldman, 1972) been that of attempts to measure students' perception of college "climate", particularly those employing the College Characteristics Index (CCI) and College and University Environment Scales (CUES) of Pace and Stern (1958) and Pace (1963). These instruments comprise statements relating to features of colleges (practices, opportunities, pressures, events) to which students respond either "true" or "false". Such scales as the CCI can be, and have been, criticised in the British context on the grounds that they are overlong, contain statements which are irrelevant, ambiguous and inappropriate to the English college of education, and the questionableness of the particular dimensions alleged to be evaluated.

In this investigation it was felt necessary to obtain a measure of college climate as assessed by all students. Such a measure could then supplement information obtained in other ways and would thus establish more firmly the institutional setting in which the professional socialisation of student teachers took place. It was decided to use the College Environmental Index (CEI) developed by McLeish (1970).

McLeish developed his Index from the CCI of Pace and Stern. He was particularly concerned to create an instrument of direct applicability to three year students in English colleges of education, thus making his Index of particular relevance to this study. Taking ten dimensions which he felt would be particularly valuable to

characterise English college climates, McLeish wrote 100 statements
(partly drawn from the CCI) directed towards these dimensions. In
the case of each dimension ten statements were made and students were
invited to judge whether each was true or false depending on whether
the statement characterised the college. The CEI is reproduced at
Appendix 3.

The CEI can be criticised on the grounds of the possible
arbitrariness of the dimensions. Certainly a comparison of McLeish's
ten dimensions with Astin's thirty-three (Astin 1972) shows that
certain aspects of the college are forfeited. Further, it is open
to discussion as to how far each of the ten dimensions is fairly
represented by the ten questions which comprise it. More work is
needed directly on the CEI, but the investigator's judgment is that
at this stage it provides a useful tool to use in conjunction with
others to assess the institutional setting.

For each of the ten colleges McLeish studied he took two thirds
or more agreement as a measure of consensus. Thus, if two thirds
or more of the students agreed with a particular statement this
suggested a high probability that the statement was true objectively
for the college in question. Less than this, and nearer 50-50,
would make it impossible to say whether students did not know the
facts or if they disagreed because of a marked difference of opinion.
The validity of a statement in this research is similarly taken as
two thirds agreement. Sixty-five of the 100 items of the CEI
satisfied this criterion. Some indication of the way in which students
perceive the college environment may be gained by considering the
means of the ten dimensions of the CEI and from an analysis of those
items showing general agreement by students.

The scoring system employed is such that for dimensions 1-9

inclusive agreement implied a positive (i.e. favourable) view of the college. Scoring was reversed for dimension 10. There are obvious drawbacks to this system as a response set favourable to college can be set up, but the reverse scoring of dimension 10 (the ten items of which were interspersed with the other dimensions' items), it was felt would serve to test whether students really were considering the truth or falsehood of each statement.

Mean scores, it is argued, represent degree of favourableness towards college on each dimension. Thus, the higher the mean the more favourably do students regard college. These means can only be taken as partial indications of college climate, but, as is shown in Chapters 5 and 9, they generally provide supporting evidence on the nature of college procedures and the views of college expressed by the interview sample. McLeish does not record means of dimension scores and gives only results of two-thirds majority items when these are positively scored (expressing favourable opinion towards college). This is both curious and regrettable, for it not only forgoes the opportunity to illustrate high agreement on negative characteristics of college, but it also implies (by omission of this data) a higher level of unfavourable attitudes to college than may in fact exist. Mean scores and number of items showing high levels of agreement are shown on the following page.

<u>Dimension 1</u> - Student Energy (mean 3.160; $\frac{2}{3}$ positive 2; $\frac{2}{3}$ negative 5)

The low score here implies that students generally lack enthusiasm in pursuing their group and leisure activities both recreational and quasi-academic. A formal demand of the college course has probably served to make the score higher than it otherwise would be, for all students are required to spend some of their holiday

College Environment Index Mean Scores

	Mean	SD
Dimension 1 – Student Energy	3.610	2.101
Dimension 2 – Concern for Individuality	7.533	1.721
Dimension 3 – Social Commitment	3.924	2.022
Dimension 4 – Staff Image	6.171	2.164
Dimension 5 – Intellectual Climate	2.943	1.703
Dimension 6 – Clarity and System	2.895	2.278
Dimension 7 – Loyalty to College	3.257	1.917
Dimension 8 – Humane Regulations	5.333	1.955
Dimension 9 – Group Participation	6.286	1.989
Dimension 10 – Lack of Tension	7.029	1.578

College Environment Index – Items showing two thirds agreement on each dimension

Dimension	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$ positive	$\frac{2}{3}$ negative	McLeish's ten Colleges $\frac{2}{3}$ positive
1	7	2	5	2.7
2	6	6	0	6.1
3	8	2	6	1.2
4	8	6	2	3.2
5	9	1	8	0.3
6	5	0	5	0.8
7	5	0	5	1.7
8	7	4	3	4.0
9	5	4	1	6.9
10	5	5	0	4.6
Total	65	29	36	31.5

period working with children. This inflates the positive response to question 81. On the other hand there was general agreement that many students went in for holiday activities of an unconventional kind (Q61). This is borne out by the interview sample who not only

reported many of their peers visiting the United States or camping abroad, etc., but over 70 per cent had themselves spent part of at least one vacation in this way. These two items ran against the general trend of responses to this dimension.

All students agreed that students did not get excited at athletic contests (Q1), and over ninety per cent felt that students did not get so absorbed in various activities that all sense of time or personal comfort was lost (Q11). Over three quarters of the students felt that difficulty was not a spur to effort in the college - that students did not respond with hard work as things became "tougher" (Q51). A two-thirds majority agreed that students did not set high standards of achievement for themselves (Q21), and that they did not put a lot of energy into in and out of class activities (Q41). Two other items narrowly missed a $\frac{2}{3}$ negative majority suggesting that students did not get heated in discussions and that extra curricular activities were fairly few (Q31 and Q71).

Five of McLeish's colleges appear to rate higher on this dimension than the college studied, but it is probably true to say that the students' cool enthusiasm is fairly typical of college of education students as a whole. At the same time that students completed the CEI, they answered a questionnaire relating to their three years in college (Appendix 3). Correlations were established between scores on the two instruments. Students' scores on this dimension correlated significantly at the .01 level with reported enjoyment of college (r=.328). Thus it would appear that students who see themselves and their peers as enthusiastic and energetic tend to enjoy their time in college more than students who feel their fellow students are not so characterised.

Dimension 2 - Concern for Individuality (mean 7.533, $\frac{x}{5}$ positive 6; $\frac{x}{5}$ negative 0)

It would appear that students see the college as valuing the expression of individual viewpoints and independent judgment - even if these differ from the majority or staff view. Over nine-tenths of the students agree that the college encourages students to be independent and individualistic (Q22), and see dress as a matter for personal taste and belief (Q82). More than three quarters agree that in college discussions, essays and exams, the main emphasis is upon breadth of understanding, perspective and individual judgment (Q12); feel they are expected to take responsibility for the details of their own study programme (Q92), and feel that expression of strong personal belief or conviction is quite acceptable in the college. Over two-thirds agree with the statement that a well reasoned essay will be given a high mark even though its viewpoint is opposed to the lecturer's. This last is rather curious as it is part of college policy not to give marks for essays.

Nonetheless the general trend of items in this dimension (two others (Q42 and Q62) just fail the two thirds criterion) is that students perceive the college as interested in students working towards their own value systems and commitment. Encouragement of conformism to established tradition do not seem to characterise the college. There is something of a paradox here between this finding and some of the views expressed by the interview sample concerning the need to give the "right" responses to staff. Yet at the same time the interview sample expressed general agreement with the view that individuality was encouraged, or, at least tolerated. This point is examined in more detail in Chapter 9; here it is sufficient to indicate that there appear to be certain areas of educational theory and practice where students deem it wiser or safer to conform, but in other areas and in areas of personal belief and

behaviour very wide limits are permitted and individuality encouraged.

Favourable views of the college on this dimension are significantly correlated at the .01 level with reported enjoyment of college (r=.390) and with college responsibility for change (r=.413). Thus the more a student tends to regard college as a place encouraging individuality the more likely is she to report enjoying her time in college and to feel that college has been responsible for effecting change in her views on teaching.

Dimension 3 - Social Commitment (mean 3.924; ⅔ positive 2; ⅔ negative 6)

As with McLeish's sample, social commitment rates low in the College. In view of the college's geographical and historical setting - in a largely Educational Priority Area, and the purpose of the college as expressed by its founder - this may seem an unexpected finding. Only on two items do students perceive the college as encouraging social commitment: over three quarters of the students subscribe to the generalisations that college not only encourages them to develop ideals, but also to express them in action (Q33), and that the college regards training people for service to the community as one of its major responsibilities (Q53). It is interesting that both of these can be construed in specifically educational terms i.e. relating to the role of the teacher in the classroom. This may explain the apparent conflict of these views with those expressed suggesting lack of attempts to increase social commitment in specific areas. Thus over two thirds of students do not consider that the college's emphasis on the responsibility of educated people to give leadership is very strong (Q3), or that tutors encourage students to think about taking up unusual aspects of teaching e.g. socially disadvantaged children etc. (Q23).

The a-politicality noted by Taylor (1969a) in student teachers
is evident in lack of active concern about international affairs (Q83),
the lack of strong feelings generated by national elections (Q93), and
in the lack of encouragement given to students to give a lead in
working for social reforms in their local community (Q73). Charitable
causes did not generate a good deal of enthusiasm and support (Q13).

The impression derived from answers on this dimension is that
the students detect no strong social purpose - outside of teaching -
in the college's procedures. This impression is confirmed by the
reports of the interview sample. Although much of the college work
is undertaken in schools in underprivileged areas and students are
in close contact with these socially less fortunate children, students
were much more concerned with learning the job of the teacher in
school and saw this as the major task of college rather than that it
should foster a critical examination of social structure or a concern
to develop strong social consciences which issue in action in work
outside the school.

Dimension 4 - Staff Image (mean 6.171; $\bar{x}$ positive 6; $\bar{x}$ negative 2)

The comparatively high rating on this dimension (originally called
staff-student relations by McLeish) is reflected in students'
responses to questions which relate to staff concern for students as
persons, staff breadth of outlook and for staff objectivity as
experienced by the individual student. It is perhaps not at all
surprising that staff are criticised or joked about maliciously in
student conversations (Q14). Criticism occurs in all educational
institutions; there would be grounds for being seriously disturbed if
this was not a feature of student discussion. Jokes about staff are
a common feature of student life. The item refers however to malicious
joking which is a more disturbing phenomena. It is a poor question

for it does not ask one question clearly and directly, but includes several behavioural items which need to be separated out (Oppenheim, 1966). The interview sample, taken over three years, confirm the criticism and joking which takes place - it is "taken for granted" student behaviour. The impression gained in interviews is that a malicious element in the joking, although sometimes present is not a common feature. Exasperation, bewilderment and astonishment tempered with good humour characterise the interview sample's report of student joking about staff, together with the most frequent criticism of "out of touchness" with the realities of the classroom situation.

The second negative item (Q4) conveys a low evaluation of staff background. Few are thought to have had varied and unusual careers. More favourable responses have over three quarters of the students acknowledging that the staff are interested in students' personal problems (Q44), that they go out of their way to help students in difficulty (Q64), that pastoral care by tutors and individual tutorials are a feature of the college (Q74), and that there are readily available channels for expressing complaints. All these expressive items indicate an apparent high level of concern of staff with student problems. The interview sample confirm this, and the experience of the writer bears it out, but it should be noted that this pastoral care function was at times criticised by the interview and other students because they felt that sometimes it was at the expense of instrumental help - that concerned with classroom practice. There is no doubt that the staff are ready to go out of their way to help students in personal difficulty - the analysis of the college as a social system is an indication of this "person-centred" value informing much of college activity. There is much correspondence between the findings of this dimension of the CEI, the interview

sample's reports, and that knowledge derived from participant-observation. It must however be qualified by the finding (Chapter 9) that students prefer to seek personal help from peers or others before turning to tutors.

In the area of staff assessment of student work over two thirds of the students saw the staff as having a very objective and well-based view of each student's achievement and understanding (Q34), and using careful reasoning rather than personal likes and dislikes as a basis for grading student work (Q34). Thus, on this dimension the staff are quite favourably viewed by students, but it should be emphasised that the dimension reflects only limited perspectives of student perceptions of staff. There are certain areas of staff functioning which are adversely commented on by interview students. As such the findings of the CEI may be seen as providing certain impressions of college, but impressions which must be evaluated in the light of other evidence.

Significant correlations at the 01 level are noted between scores on dimension 4 and enjoyment of college (r=.370); college responsibility for change (r=.367); and help from college (r=.357). Thus students viewing staff favourably are more likely to enjoy their time in college, more likely to regard college as responsible for changing their views on teaching, and more likely to consider they have received good help from college as a preparation for the role of the teacher.

Dimension 5 - Intellectual Climate (mean 2.94; $\frac{2}{3}$ positive 1; $\frac{2}{3}$ negative 8)

The very low score on this dimension, together with the large number of negative response items suggests strongly both that there is no great tendency for students to interest themselves in intellectual matters outside their "official" academic programme, and that the

college does not provide a variety of high calibre intellectual stimuli. On only one item is the students' perception of college favourable: over two thirds agree that the values stressed by staff are open-mindedness and objectivity (Q5). It is arguable that this item could equally well belong in dimension 4: Staff Image, where the students held a generally favourable view of the objectivity of the staffs' own rating procedures. The example demonstrates something of the arbitrariness of allocation of items to particular dimensions.

The students do not see themselves as "intellectuals". Over 90 per cent felt that students who worked hard for the fun of it were not likely to be regarded as typical (Q95); while more than three quarters did not think that long serious intellectual discussions were common (Q25) or that great interest was shown in organised academic discussions where these did not form part of the regular curriculum (Q35). A similar proportion felt that most students did not think of music and art as subjects for study as well as to be experienced (Q85). The view of college as an intellectually oriented or stimulating environment was similarly negative. More than three quarters of students reported the college as not providing individually tailored courses of an advanced nature (Q15), and as not offering opportunities in scientific knowledge (Q55). Over two thirds did not think that students were encouraged to continue studying and take extra courses after leaving college (Q45).

It is felt significant that there was the highest degree of agreement on this dimension. Nine of the ten items satisfied the two thirds criterion, and the conclusion that students saw neither their peers nor the college as strongly academically or intellectually oriented is borne out by the reports of the interview sample. The description of the college in Chapter 5 similarly confirms the

overall impression. From McLeish's findings on ten other colleges, the college studied is fairly typical, as only two of the ten colleges studied show positive agreement on one or two questions of this dimension. The dimension significantly correlated at the .01 level with enjoyment of college (r=.257). Thus there appears to be some tendency for students who see the college in a more favourable light than peers as far as intellectual climate is concerned to report enjoying their time in college more than those peers.

Dimension 6 - Clarity and System (mean 2.895; $ positive 0; $ negative 5)

This dimension purports to measure the teaching effectiveness of staff. The low score suggests that careful preparation of materials, clarity about objectives and enthusiasm for the subject is not a distinctive feature of college courses. Over ninety per cent of the students felt that college courses did not constitute a real intellectual challenge (Q56), a finding which confirms the conclusion for dimension 5, intellectual climate.

On the courses themselves there was substantial agreement (over three quarters) that lecturers did not clearly explain the goals and purpose of their courses (Q16), that lecturers did not really push students' capacity to the limit. Over two thirds of students felt that most courses were not very well organised, progressing system-atically (Q36). This lack of system was noted as characterising students themselves, over three quarters reporting that most students did not follow a systematic schedule for studying and recreation (Q76). Two items which just failed to secure the necessary two thirds agreement were questions 6 and 26 where there was quite strong agreement that the fundamentals of subjects were not probed and that most courses did not require intensive study and preparation out of class.

McLeish had originally designated the dimension "curriculum courses", arguing that the items would provide a measure of the effective preparation of students for teaching by an assessment of the systematic and purposeful nature of the college courses which deal with methods of teaching key subjects in school. As such the findings constitute a strong indictment by students of the value of the preparation for classroom teaching they receive. This impression is borne out by the criticisms of the interview sample in Chapter 9.

Significant correlations at the .01 level show that the more highly students rated the effectiveness of teaching preparation, the more likely were they to feel that they had received good help from college (r=.344), and to feel greater commitment to teaching as a career (r=.267)

Dimension 7 - Loyalty to College (mean 3.257; $\frac{?}{?}$ positive O; $\frac{?}{?}$ negative 5)

Strong loyalty to college is not a feature of the majority of students as evidenced by responses on this dimension. To more than three quarters of the students intense loyalty to college was not seen as common characteristics of students (Q57), and they similarly did not see the history and traditions of college strongly emphasised (Q7). To most students the leaving ceremony for third year students was not a moving and memorable event (Q27). This is perhaps not surprising as there is no official leaving ceremony - the American provenance of some of McLeish's questions can be seen here. However, the fact that a small proportion were able to agree with this item suggests that they, at least, found the effect of student farewells on leaving college of considerable significance. This indicates both the development of friendship networks and the strength of personal

rather than institutional ties; two features of significance for the socialisation process.

It is necessary to note the apparently low influence of the student peer group - at least for the maintenance of "expected codes of conduct", for only one sixth of the student body felt that students exerted considerable pressure upon one another to "live up" to these codes (Q37). McLeish appears to assume that strong student subcultures imply strong college loyalty. This viewpoint is apparently given support by Newcomb's study of Bennington, but it may be questioned on the grounds that the notion of loyalty needs careful definition. Hargreaves (1967) has demonstrated the existence of strong peer subcultures in a school, but his findings show clearly that those members of the delinquescent subculture most strongly linked to each other were simultaneously least loyal to school. The current investigation (Chapter 9) shows that the college is not characterised by the existence of strong student subcultures, and that students develop personal rather than institutional loyalties.

Nonetheless, it seems clear that many students have a sense of loyalty to the college, for whilst almost two thirds of the students do not agree that the college has an excellent and well deserved reputation (Q17), yet just over half of the students would recommend the college without reservation to a friend or close relation (Q47). This last suggests that students are fairly evenly split between those who have an emotional commitment to college and those who do not. Even although some students recognise that the college does not enjoy an excellent reputation, they are none the less ready to recommend it without reserve. This perhaps suggests a stronger attachment to college than those who would recommend it and see it possessing an excellent reputation.

Not surprisingly there are significant correlations (at .01 level) between this dimension and enjoyment of college (r=.343); college responsibility for change (r=.294); and help from college (r=.276). Thus the stronger the feeling of loyalty to college a student possesses the more likely is she to enjoy college, to feel it has helped her to prepare for the role of the teacher, and to feel that college has been responsible for effecting changes in her attitudes to teaching.

Dimension 8 - Humane Regulations (mean 5.333; $\frac{1}{2}$ positive 4; $\frac{1}{2}$ negative 3)

McLeish argues that this dimension measures the existence or absence of an "adult" atmosphere in which status differences, especially between staff and students are minimised and relations between the various college groups are easy and personal. However, there is room for a good deal of questioning this assumption in terms of the items which make up the index. The three items on which there is a large measure of agreement in an unfavourable direction record that there is not a student loan fund (Q8), that students are not frequently reminded to take preventive measures against illness (Q68), and that books and articles dealing with psychological problems or personal values are not widely read or discussed (Q28). The suggestion that these measure the "adultness" of the college atmosphere must be called in question. The existence of a student loan fund cannot be taken as a guide to the quality of relationships; frequent reminders to look after oneself are more characteristic of an adult-child rather than an adult-adult relationship; and reading of books on personal values or psychological problems could perhaps say more about the intellectual climate than about the nature of relationships in college.

On the positively scored items there is a similar ambiguity.

Nine tenths of the students report that they work hard to get unpopular administrative decisions changed. This suggests more about student energy rather than "humane regulations" or tolerance characterising the college. The three remaining positively scored items do however suggest that they are measuring the quality posited. Over two thirds of the students report that in general people in the college show great consideration for, and tolerance of each other (Q78); that most members of staff are liberal in interpreting regulations and treat violations with understanding and tolerance (but this could equally be used for dimension 4, staff image); and that no-one is expected to suffer in silence if some regulations happens to create a personal hardship (Q18). These three items could constitute valid measures for the dimension, but the dimension must be viewed critically as purporting to assess the tendermindedness of the college. The impression gained from the interview sample is that the college is characterised by tolerance - which at times is construed as a laissez faire attitude on the part of the staff - and that there is a genuine concern for the quality of the student/staff relationship.

The dimension correlates at the .01 level with enjoyment of college, college responsibility for change and help from college (r=.310; .346; .314 respectively). Thus (although the dimension is questionable), the more the students perceive college as tolerant and humane, the more likely are they to enjoy college, to feel it is helping them in preparing to teach, and to feel it is responsible for changing their attitudes.

Dimension 9 - Group Participation (mean 6.286; $\frac{?}{}$ positive 4; $\frac{?}{}$ negative 1)

McLeish reports a very high level of group participation in nine of his ten colleges (the exception was a single day college). This

he claims as the most salient feature of the colleges he investigates.
The dimension is claimed to measure the cohesion of the student peer
group, particularly as measured by the fact that a great number of
activities involve substantial sections of the student body. The
college studied ranks only just above McLeish's sole exception and
the general impression is that it is not marked by strength of cohesion
of the peer group as a whole. Nonetheless, over ninety per cent of
students report that much time is spent in common rooms and in one
another's rooms (Q89), and over three quarters report a good deal of
borrowing and sharing (Q19); students working together on projects
(Q59) and helping each other with work (Q29). The sole negative item
records that it is not easy to obtain student speakers for clubs
or societies (Q99).

It is suggested however that this apparent demonstration of
strong group feeling requires closer examination as often the nature
of group activity says nothing about the relation of groups participating.
It is highly questionable whether spending much time in common rooms
or borrowing and sharing truly demonstrates a solidarity characterising
the whole student body. It is suggested (Chapter 9) that both the
nature of loyalties and the nature of participation relate essentially
to small friendship groups and that students do not feel a strong
sense of corporate peer identity. The CEI findings is regarded as
providing evidence for widespread interaction within small friendship
groups and cliques, and it is felt unwise to assume that it suggests
strong cohesion of, and feelings of identity with, a distinct peer
culture. As almost two thirds of the students report a lack of
student organisations actively involved in college or community
affairs (Q79) and as dimension 7 records a low level of loyalty to
college, it is suggested that the findings on this dimension must be

treated with caution: more as evidence of student activity than as making a statement on the nature of the peer group.

Examination of significant correlations (at .01 level) show that students who perceive a high level of group participation are more likely to report enjoying college, to feel that their attitudes to teaching have changed and to feel hhat they have received good help from college (r=.329; .270; .259 respectively).

Dimension 10 - Lack of Tension (mean 7.029; $\frac{2}{3}$ positive 5; $\frac{2}{3}$ negative 0)

This dimension purports to measure the degree of anxiety in college. Statements are negatively framed, in contrast to questions in other dimensions. The value of this procedure as a check on establishment of a response set is limited as it appears that some statements are sufficiently ambiguous to convey to the students that they are to be taken as favourable ("Many students here worry about their future prospects", Q70, can be interpreted as an expression of anxiety or responsibility for example). What can be suggested from the results is that the college appears to be characterised by a lack of major anxiety among students. All students remark that mark lists are not public and that frequent tests are not a feature of the college (Q100) and that there is no intense competition for marks (Q20). This is not surprising as marks are not given for essays and there are no weekly, termly or yearly tests. Thus nearly all students can report that substantial numbers do not take sedatives or tranquillisers at exam times. It should be remembered that the CEI was completed one week before the final theory examinations in Education for the teacher's certificate took place: it does not appear from the dimension responses that this event has made for a very high level of anxiety.

It is certain however that a good deal of tension does exist
in the college, particularly at 'crisis points' in the course -
particularly school practice. Nearly half report that most students
become extremely tense, especially during exam periods (Q40). In
spite of the majority not agreeing and although written exams do not
take place until the final term there seems clear evidence here
that many students are aware of tension in themselves and others.
Again, just over half report that many students worry about future
career prospects (Q70); and almost half report that students given
adverse reports really strain themselves to earn a better one (Q80).
It is felt however that the evidence of the interview sample is more
convincing in pinpointing certain periods in the course as tension
producing. The picture of college obtained from this dimension is
one of few formal examinations demands, and of a fairly low level of
anxiety characterising the students, which for some at certain crucial
points becomes quite acute.

The general picture of college derived from the CEI is that
there is a high concern for individuality and a low level of intellectual
climate. Although the staff are seen to be both fair and friendly
their teaching effectiveness is not highly regarded and there is
generally a low level of student loyalty to the College. Student
energy is low as is their social commitment. The level of peer group
participation is moderate - and is probably of the nature of "coffee
brews" (Shipman, 1966) - and the general level of anxiety fairly low,
but becoming intense at certain times in the course. In relation to
McLeish's ten colleges the college is about average in its "goodness"
as measured by positive responses on the dimensions. It differs most
in terms of a relatively higher staff image and a generally much lower
level of group participation.

The various dimensions of the College Environment Index are
also significantly related to certain other variables obtained in
the investigation. There is some evidence that those students
tending to take a complimentary view of college also tend to enjoy
college more, to feel more committed to teaching as a career and to
feel that college was responsible for attitude change. There is no
evidence available in this study to confirm McLeish's findings that
students with a complimentary view of college tend to be more stable
or toughminded about education than other students. McLeish does
however report that these students give evidence of being more
satisfied in their choice of teaching as a career; a finding given
some confirmation by the significant correlation in this study between
some CEI dimension scores and strength of commitment to teaching.

Chapter 9

FINDINGS - THE INTERVIEW SAMPLE [1]

In view of the length of this chapter a brief synopsis is given below of its major findings. The composition of the interview sample is given together with the frequency and nature of the interviews. Interview schedules are at Appendix 2.

Synopsis of findings

1. Entering students are characterised by seriousness of intent towards teaching.

2. The student subculture can be generally characterised as vocational, but within this a number of distinct groups are observed.

   The characteristic mode of student grouping however is friend-ship pairing, loosely linked in friendship networks.

3. Students discern a number of reference groups and select appropriately from these for different aspects of their course.

4. Students discern a set of college values which they consider to characterise the course and which require particular performances. Students see non-certification as a major sanction.

5. Students develop a sequence of perspectives relating to their college experience.

6. These perspectives tend to contain conflicting elements, but are maintained by their application in particular (or differing) circumstances.

7. Practical teaching is considered the most important part of the course. It operates powerfully upon the development of perspectives.

[1] Note: In this chapter a good deal of use is made of inverted commas. Unless an alternative provenance is given, the quotations came from members of the interview samples, or other students in the longitud-inal cohort, or from written records (mainly School Practice files) kept by those students.

8. The nature of commitment to teaching changes during the course
   from a diffuse idealism to a more instrumental and colleague
   orientated type.

9. Students use an academic/practical perspective to evaluate
   different elements of their course, together with a College/
   School perspective to guide behaviour.

10. Students tend to see their three years in college as a **period**
    of role socialisation, staff tend to see it as a period **of**
    status socialisation. Students hold unfulfilled **expectations**
    for what they regard as the instrumental component of **tutors'**
    roles.

11. Students hold conflicting expectations of professional
    socialisation outputs. These are described as complete
    teacher or minimal competence perspectives. Staff express
    preference for a minimal competence output perspective. Staff
    and student definitions of minimal competence are **differently**
    based.

The Composition of the Interview Sample and some remarks on the procedure

    In the first year of the investigation the interview sample comprised eighteen students as shown below. These students were selected from the alphabetically printed College student list, every seventh student being selected. Appendix 2 shows the letter inviting students to participate.

Student	Subsequent choice of Age Level	Relation to 2nd. and 3rd. Year Sample
1	M	"Held" in Years 2 and 3
2	O	Left in First Year
3	F	Retained
4	M	Retained
5	F	Retained
6	M	Retained
7	F	Retained
8	F	Retained
9	F	Retained
10	F	Retained
11	M	"Held" in Years 2 & 3
12	M	"Held" in Years 2 & 3
13	M	Retained
14	M	Left in Third Year
15	F	Retained
16	F	Retained
17	F	Retained
18	M	"Held" in Years 2 & 3

Note M = Middle School Group

      F = First School Group

      Held = Interviewed only once each term in Years 2 and 3.

All students accepted the invitation to participate. An interview group of between 18 and 20 was aimed at in order to represent approximately 16 to 18 percent of the cohort, to provide sufficient numbers to ensure a reasonably representative sampling of the range of student views, and to keep numbers small enough to ensure that the investigator could interview each student twice each term for not less than a half hour period. In the event, the sample was adjusted in the second year. At the start of the second year students choose their education age range

groups (First or Middle School). The choice of groups resulted as shown above. Thus eight students chose Middle School and nine chose First School. However, the distribution of these numbers among the six education tutor groups was as follows:-

	Tutor	First Year Sample	Added (+) or "Held" (-) in Years 2 and 3
Middle	(A	7	-4
	(B	1	+2
First	(C (Investigator)	2	+2
	(D	3	0
	(E	2	+1
	(F	2	+1
		17	+2

Thus, it was decided that to ensure fairly equal representation from each of the education groups that groups B, C, E and F should have one or two extra representatives. These were chosen again from alphabetical lists of the groups using again the seventh or fourteenth etc. student(s). The students were invited to become members of the interview group by means of letter. It is interesting that all students accepted the invitation. Indeed, the willingness to co-operate in the interview situation and, among the entire cohort, to complete the Role Definition Instrument and other questionnaires, is a notable feature of this investigation. The very high response rates are shown in Appendix 3. It is recognised that such high responses could be subject to a number of interpretations; excessive conformity, excessive control, good personal relationships. This phenomenon is discussed in Chapter 10. Further, the question was taken up with the interview sample itself.

As a result of student choice of education group at the start of the second year Middle School Tutor A had no less than seven of the original

sample. It was decided that four of these should be "held". This meant that they would continue to be seen, but only once each term, and that no detailed records were kept of each meeting. They proved however, a useful check on the remainder of the sample. In addition to the interview sample, the investigator (Tutor C) had regular weekly meetings with his own First School group of some 20 students (reduced to 16 during the second year by landslide,[1] marriage, transfer to Middle School group, and deferment for "out of college experience" for one year). Members of this group were given individual tutorials during their second and third year and the writer used some of these individual contacts to investigate, informally aspects of the research. Thus, although from the start of the second year the formal interview group consisted of some nineteen members, there was also a further impressionistic check with the four members from Group A (reduced by one in the third year) and from some twelve additional students in Group C.

The two extra students from Group C (rather than one) was a decision taken partly for expedience - it is easier to contact members of one's own group than of others. It is acknowledged that expedience is not the best criterion for sample selection, but it is argued that in terms of the time and resources available for this investigation the decision was realistic and does not invalidate the study. The writer, during the investigation, has become fully aware of the drawbacks existing for the part-time researcher and has become an advocate of the research "floor" thesis advocated by Taylor(1972), a body of full-time researchers with time and resources sufficient for their task in schools. Without detracting from the value of the investigation reported in this thesis -

[1] A Jamacian student (in the writer's opinion, an excellent student who had been a nurse for some years), suffered the misfortune of losing her parents and a number of relatives by a landslide. She returned home at once (at the end of the second year), and, in spite of persistent efforts by the College and the tutor, all contact was lost with her.

and it has much to contribute – the advantages flowing from a full-time, professional researcher's investigation, are felt to far outweigh the disadvantages, and allows for greater depth in research.

The interview sample for the second and third year consisted as follows:

Composition of the Second and Third Year Interview Sample

Student No.	Education Group	Tutor	Remarks
3	F	D	
4	M	A	
5	F	D	
6	M	B	
7	F	F	
8	F	D	
9	F	C	
10	F	F	
13	M	A	
14	M	A	Left in Third Year
15	F	E	
16	F	C	
17	F	E	

Added at Start of Year 2

19	M	B	
20	F	C	
21	F	C	
22	F	E	
23	F	F	
24	M	B	Left at end of 2nd Year

Total 19   13F/6M

Together with a) 4 students from Group A – interviewed once only each term;
and b) 12 students in Group C – seen weekly as an Education Group and occasionally used to discuss issues of relevance to the investigation.

The frequency and nature of interviews

An outline plan for the interviews was drawn up at the beginning of the research, based on the theoretical framework given in Chapter 3, with major areas for investigation as shown in the table overleaf. It was recognised however that it would be both difficult and unnecessary to draw up very detailed interviewing protocols at the start of the course, as the dynamic of interaction over three years would undoubtedly throw up new topics for investigation. This in fact proved to be so, but it

was, to quite a large extent, possible to follow the initial strategy and to use the original schedules. These schedules (Appendix 2) were kept fairly brief (Mann, 1968) but covered the areas deemed of major importance in the socialisation process.

INTERVIEWS

Term & "Events"	Number of interviews	Nature of Interview (see Interview Schedules at Appendix 2)
1	2	Reasons for teaching/Commitment/ Groups/Important Work/Significant People
2 (2 wk practice)	2	School Practice/College Values and Sanctions
3 (4 wk practice)	2	School Practice/Important Work/ Role Models
4	2	College Values and Sanctions/ Commitment
5 (4 wk practice)	2	School Practice/Role Models/ Student Groups
6	2	Important Work/Assessment/The Profession
7 (10 wk practice)	1*	Teaching Practice
8	2 or 3*	Teaching Practice/College Values Student Groups/Role Models/ Sanctions and Rewards and Assessment
9	1	Commitment/Models/Values and Sanctions/Important Work

* In Term 7, occupied almost entirely by final teaching practice, it proved exceptionally difficult to interview all students. All students however were interviewed at least once, and in Term 8 over half the students were seen on three occasions.

Thus over the period of the Course students in the interview sample were seen on average twice each term for at least a period of thirty minutes. Some evening interviews went on for much longer. In addition, the investigator, by virtue of his role as a college tutor for the first two years of the study, interacted frequently with these

and other students in a fairly wide variety of formal and informal
situations. For the final year of the study, the researcher was not a
member of the College staff, having taken up an Institute post. However,
he visited the college frequently to conduct interviews and to administer
the RDI and other questionnaires in accordance with the strategy deter-
mined at the start of the research. This detachment from the staff
role in the third year, it is argued, heightens the objectivity of the
study as it is felt that students became even more open in their respon-
ses, recognising that the researcher no longer stood in a dual relation-
ship to them, as his assessment function no longer operated (see for
example the arguments of Morris, 1970; or Cope, 1969. A recent paper
(Chambers, 1972) has however questioned the "myth" of conflicting
elements of the tutor's role, seeing them rather as functional in role
performance).

The style of interview was seen as open-ended and somewhat free-
ranging, with the investigator using his judgement to follow up replies
from students. The purpose was conceived as being to obtain a view of
the nature of the socialisation provess as seen by the students, but to
give order and coherence to these impressions by comparing responses
across the sample and by operating within a conceptual framework which
would ensure that the major elements in the process were covered (or,
rather, uncovered!). A questionnaire (Appendix 3) administered to the
entire cohort at the end of the third year was used to check some of the
impressions recorded. This, it was felt would allow a pattern to emerge
without forcing a preconceived pattern upon the data.

Although the selection of certain topics related to the model which
would guide the investigation must indicate a pre-existing pattern in
the researcher's mind, it is argued that this - examined over a three

year period - allows for a flexibility which ensures obtaining a valid picture of the college as a social system. Mann (1968) argues strongly that "for the purposes of sociological enquiry the form of interview must always be ultimately referable to its value in the advancement of sociological theory". (P.95). The implication here is that interviews - indeed all investigations - should be rooted in theory, and the design of interview questions and follow-ups used in this research acknowledges this principle.

The investigator made several attempts to tape record some interviews and to transcribe the replies, but after a number of attempts this technique was abandoned in favour of notes taken at the time of interview and worked over and expanded after the interview. Tape recording it was felt (by interviewer and students) inhibited the freedom of response, and the investigator did not possess the time or resources for transcription and analysis. It must be understood therefore that the report of findings from the interviews which follows could well be biased by personal selection and prediliction of the interviewer. Nonetheless, it is argued that the technique has validity in the social sciences (Shipman, 1966, Gordon, 1957; Bossard and Boll, 1956; or more vividly, Waller, 1932). The investigator's awareness of such dangers of bias or subjectivity, together with supporting evidence from this and other studies, suggests that the account which follows gives an accurate picture of the process of professional socialisation experienced by a group of students at a College of Education over the period 1968/71.

In the planning of the investigation it was decided to probe mainly through the interviews, in relation to the model developed in Chapter 3 and shown below, the following areas: reasons for teaching; the students' perception of college (formal structure, including school practice); and informal structure (mainly the nature of student subcultures); the nature of reference groups and role models; and the development of perspectives upon which students act during the three years. In what follows the order of presentation is that given in the

Model for the analysis of professional socialisation of student teachers

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         Anticipatory Socialisation Input             │
│ (Expectations conditioned by certain biographical    │
│ and personality variables: age, social class,        │
│ teaching experience, religion, attitudes, reasons    │
│ for teaching, etc.)                                   │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
              ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │  College Socialisation  │
              └─────────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Sanctions and Rewards: Norms and Values  │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

| College Formal Structure (Main Course, Education Group, Day/Resident etc) | School Experience (Placing, Length, Quality etc) | College Informal Structure Peer Culture Peer Influence |

```
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │   Reference Groups and Role Models       │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Development of Perspectives              │
        │       Role Expectations                  │
        │       Work                               │
        │       Commitment and                     │
        │       Identification                     │
        │ The Socialisation Process                │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
              ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │  Socialisation Outputs  │
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preceding sentence with one exception. The students' perception of teaching practice and the perspectives related to it are treated together under the section on perspectives. This is because Chapter 7 has presented a certain amount of the relevant material, because the implications of school practice pervade the students' views of the entire course, and because the perspectives appeared to develop with the students' experience of practical teaching. Apart from this however the outline of the original plan has been followed. Thus, the areas investigated are as follows:

1. **Anticipatory Socialisation Input**

    Reasons for entering Teaching

2. **College Socialisation**

    A. **Perception of College**

    Formal Structure) Values, Sanctions, Rewards
    Informal Structure)

    Reference Groups and Role Models

    B. **Development of Perspectives**
    1. Commitment
    2. Work - evaluation: Academic/Practical perspective
             - behaviour: College/School perspective
    3. School Experience - service/safety and survival/
                            independent perspective
    4. Role expectations - views on punishment
    5. The view of the Socialisation process
                            - the process: role/status
                              socialisation
                            - outputs: minimal competence/
                                       complete teacher

Findings

1. Anticipatory Socialisation Input
   Reasons for entering teaching

This is a popular research area (Evans, 1946; Tudhope, 1944; Altman, 1967; Ashley, 1970) but one which throws little light on the socialisation process. The apparent ease of an investigation into students' motives for taking up teaching doubtless is part of the explanation for the number of researches which exist in this field. Stern has commented that "most studies of motives for entering the teaching profession......have been limited to tabulations of background characteristics and expressed interests" (Stern, 1963, p.416.

The studies themselves are proof of their limited value in an understanding of _how_ students become teachers. It was felt that in view of the major focus of the investigation it was neither possible nor fruitful to spend much time in collecting students' reasons for teaching. However, a discussion with the initial interview sample yielded the same general picture as other studies: the students had enjoyed their time in school, had family approval, were fairly indifferent to salary considerations, felt attracted to working with children, and had made an early choice. A typical response was "I've wanted to teach for as long as I can remember". These generalised motives were not probed in the investigation and no study of the relationships of educational attainment, social class background, personality, other higher education opportunities available, with the decision to teach was made. A study of anticipatory socialisation would be much concerned with such decisions; this study of the socialisation process within College is differently focussed.

However, one stereotype was examined in some detail: the notion of the female student teacher as drifting into teaching; an uncommitted

person who saw a College of Education course as a finishing school, a substitute for some other form of Higher Education; a mere filling in of time between school and marriage. It can be argued that the College under study would be more likely than most to attract this type of student, being small, single sex, with a religious affiliation, and having a somewhat higher than average social class population of students. The "drifter" stereotype exists in the popular mythology of staffroom, and in the condemnations of young teachers in occasional statements of various professional associations (Willey and Maddison, 1971, pp 45-46). It gains its major support from wastage figures of female students entering teaching. Further, Smithers and Carlisle (1970) have reported that approximately fifty percent of third year students at two Northern Colleges of Education would prefer to enter some field of employment other than teaching; and Robinson (1971) has argued that the "reluctant" student teacher is very much present in colleges.

This stereotype is dependent upon a particular view of teaching as a vocation; the image of a teacher totally committed to her children and her job, a model for the community in her dedication and selflessness. This notion is enshrined in Willard Waller's description of the teacher stereotype as a

> "self-sacrificing, gentle, kindly, self-effacing, creative, overworked,
> underpaid, but never out of patience, and always ready to "give freely
> of her time and money" for school purposes" (Waller, 1965,p.419)

Such a view is clearly an idealisation of the teacher. The concept of commitment is examined in some detail below, but here it is claimed that evidence obtained from the interview sample and from the longitudinal group as a whole does not support the stereotype of the young entering woman student as the mere unprofessional drifter. The vague expression, much used, of "wanting to help young children" and the apparent lack of interest in the sterner definitions of professionalism need not be

taken as evidence of a lack of serious intent towards teaching.

Of the sample the three mature students interviewed appeared highly motivated, and maintained this high degree of motivation throughout the three years (Gibson and Pococke, 1969). The younger students claimed generally a lower level of commitment, but even so almost half professed to be "strongly committed" and a further third "committed" to teaching. Only one student, who subsequently left during the first year, appeared to the investigator to possess a very low level of motivation to teach (although claiming to be "committed"), and she, too, appeared keen to work with children in some way. The major impression gained from the first interview was that all students possessed a generalised diffuse motivation to "work with children" (the most frequently used expression), and felt that teaching was the most appropriate outlet for this desire. This impression is borne out in the survey of the whole group of entering students (n=126) with only two students claiming weak commitment to teaching.

Other careers with children had been generally considered by students (e.g. nursing, social work) but rejected in favour of teaching. It is felt significant that only one student out of the total intake of 126 had applied to University. Further, students claimed that the decision to enter teaching had been one positively taken. However, the investigator suggests that "teaching" is a diffuse notion in the minds of entering students, and that students have very little precise notion of the demands of the classroom or of the particular skills they will need to develop. Professionalism as a concept means very little to the new student; certainly, none used the expression. There was a general desire "to help children", "to teach them things", "to work with children", which, it is argued, represents much more than an aimless drift into teaching or a conscious filling-in of time gaining a free higher education as a sort of finishing school experience. This interpretation receives support

from the investigation of Eason and Croll (1971), who report after
interviews with tutors in six colleges of education that generally
staff felt that most students - and particularly women students -
came to college because they wanted to teach.

Summary of oral responses to questions in first Interview (1.1)

Interview Sample(N=18)

Note: Because it was wished to keep the interview open-ended,
response categories were not given. Categories were
made up after the interview and as seen in the data,
students often gave several reasons in reply to each
question.

Q.2.   <u>Why do you wish to teach?</u>

Replies involving wish to help children	18
Replies mentioning social value of education	9
Replies mentioning desire to pass on "knowledge"	2
Replies emphasising unsatisfactoriness of alternatives	7
Replies mentioning general interest in schools (atmosphere, etc)	6

Q.3.   <u>When did you decide to teach?</u>

a) Only two students (both married women) could
pinpoint a definite time (dissatisfaction with
office work)

b) All other replies lacked precision e.g. "can't
say exactly".

c)   (i)   "Always wanted to"   9
(ii)   Primary School experience mentioned   7
specifically
(iii)   Secondary School experience mentioned   7
specifically
(iv)   Technical College experience mentioned   1
specifically

Q.4.   <u>People influencing decision to take up teaching</u>

No single important person mentioned	8	
Teachers mentioned as <u>major</u> influences	5	(13 acknowledged "encouragement")
Parents mentioned as <u>major</u> influences	3	(14 acknowledged support)
"Friends" mentioned	2	
Students claiming "own decision" without one particular personal influence	10	

The decision to teach had been formed early in most cases: "I've always wanted to teach - I can't remember not wanting to" was a typical response. Only two mature students could pinpoint exactly when the decision was taken, in both cases reaction to office or boredom, but the other interview students expressed either an early formed wish or a gradually growing one. There was similar lack of definition of exactly who had influenced them in their decision. Many acknowledged the influence of teachers and parents, but only a minority saw them as major influences. Parents were in fact little quoted as major influences although they had "given support". Nearly all students wished to play down the significance of one particular person and to play up the importance of their own decision reached "on my own; nobody seems to have influenced me directly; I just made up my own mind; I can't tell you how" (First Year Student, aged 18.7). This was a very typical reply, in that it acknowledged that others had had some influence, but that there was rarely a single teacher or occasion which had precipitated the decision.

It is, of course, highly unlikely that students in the early days of their course would admit to a low level of motivation to a little known investigator who was also a member of the college staff. Nonetheless it is claimed, particularly in the light of experience of the students over the three year course, that in the interview situation a feature of the responses was honesty and striving for frankness. To support this claim, the responses to "How long do you think you will teach after qualifying?" were characterised (in the investigator's judgement) by frankness and reality. Only the three mature students, with "completed families" (their claim), saw themselves teaching for"a long period" or "Probably until retirement". All the younger students anticipated marriage during their twenties, but claimed they would "teach for at least three years, probably five", before starting their family. All but two of these fifteen saw themselves probably returning

to teaching when their own children were settled in school. The general cycle of "teach for a few years, then may have children, then come back to teaching, probably part-time at first" was a typical response.

Finally, (question 6 of Interview 1.1) it should be noted that only eight of the eighteen students had chosen the college as their first choice. The others had arrived at the College through Clearing House procedures (Chapter 5). There appeared to be no difference between the two sets of students in interview responses, either in terms of length of teaching career envisaged or in terms of reasons for taking up teaching. Analysis of biographical data and expectation for teacher role reveals no differences between first choice and other students. Of the first choices four had chosen the College specifically on geographical grounds (including the three married mature students); the others on grounds of recommendation of teachers, friends or relatives.

The evidence above argues against the stereotype of the young female student as an "uncommitted drifter". It is however an argument dependent upon a rejection of the notion of the teacher as a totally dedicated individual. The ill-defined views of the new entrants are often much criticised by advocates of a traditional view of profession-alism, but it is held that the roots of "non-dedication" are to be found in a change in the value system of wider society and in the particular values of the youth culture:

> "...the whole climate of opinion today tends to reject the very notion of teachers having a "vocation" with the implication that they are "called", and separated from others by a lifelong commitment to a career which after all is not a priesthood".
> (Eason and Croll, 1971, p51)

This is not the place to argue such a case. The general lack of precision in locating initiating motivation to teach is claimed as a cogent reason for concentrating upon what goes on inside colleges as a study of professional socialisation. It is to this that the investigation of the interview sample now turns.

College Socialisation

Perception of College

It was decided that the interviews would investigate three major aspects of the students' experience of college: its formal structure (courses, staff, groupings); its informal structure (student peer groupings); and school practice (examined under "perspectives" section). Within each of these aspects an attempt was made to probe the students' perception of values, sanctions and rewards which operated, together with the nature of the social interaction process. From this the investigator hoped to derive the reference groups or role models towards which students oriented their behaviour and to examine the nature of the perspectives which guided such action. Chapter 3 has set out the theoretical basis for this approach to the study of the socialisation of student teachers.

Formal Structure

McLeish (1970) has argued that "students were not capable.......
of making a total assessment of their college as an ongoing system".
He attempted through interviews to discover the kind of relationships existing between student groups, between students and staff, and between these groups and the administration, in order to "throw maximum light on the total college environment" (p.77). Both from his interviews and from students' essays written specifically for his investigation, McLeish judges that students seem unable to assess their college environment with any degree of objectivity. As McLeish's investigations consisted only of single interviews by himself or another person unfamiliar with the College, and as he later accepts that by students answering a 100 item questionnaire a valid picture of college environment can in fact be obtained, his devaluation of student objectivity is somewhat suspect. Certainly, in this research into a single college by an investigator

playing a participant observer role, interviewing students regularly
over three years, a counter claim is made that in fact students can and
do perceive the nature of their college environment with a good deal
of accuracy.

The interview students perceived the course as being in three parts:
Main Course, Education and Part 111 (or in the students' terminology but
not the staff's, "Curriculum") courses. They saw staff as being attached
to particular courses, and made a very clear distinction between Main
Course and Education tutors. They did not appear to be aware of the
grades lecturer, senior lecturer or principal lecturer. Within the
departments they knew who was "in charge" or Head of Department, and
appeared to perceive fairly accurately individual tutor's specific
responsibilities for particular areas of parts of the course:

"Miss Z does all the school practice arrangements"

"Mr. H. does the maths"

"Mrs. Q does all the work for the Suffolk Practice"

"Mr. J teaches psychology of education"

For Part 111 Courses, students attached responsibility for learning
about "how to teach" the various subjects to the subject (Main Course)
tutors. Two curricular areas, the teaching of reading and mathematics,
were seen as the major responsibility of Education Staff. There was
a good deal of uncertainty about the precise nature of Education tutors'
responsibility for "method" or "curriculum" courses. It should be
noted that the College view (expressed by the Academic Board) on school
preparation was that it should be a joint responsibility of all members
of staff; this principle was celebrated in having two tutors for the
supervision of each student on school practice: an Education tutor, and
a school (Main Course) tutor. Nonetheless, student uncertainty over
"method" was shared by tutors, for a constant feature of formal and

informal staff discussion was responsibility for teaching students "how to teach". This debate continued throughout the investigator's six years in College, and in his view, was never finally resolved.

Students gained their view of the College structure from the groups to which they were allocated. They spend three years in an Education and a main course group, and much shorter periods of time in other groups with varied composition. When questioned on knowledge of and interaction with tutors, generally students were able to identify accurately individual tutors' functions in the College; certainly those tutors they claimed to know. Later interviews showed that students became more accurate in their perception of staff responsibilities and roles. This finding is perhaps not surprising in a small college with only thirty four members of staff.

From the second term students claimed to detect quite clearly a general college ethos which characterised all their experience of college. Interview 2.2 yielded a variety of adjectives which appeared to cluster so as to present a coherent view of the college atmosphere: "friendly", "warm", "easy-going", "very child-centred", "relaxed", "a bit woolly", "concerned to make us feel at home", "not very demanding", "pleasant", "too easy", "puzzling after school - it seems permissive, we do as we please". As the course progressed students became increasingly critical of what they saw as the college's lack of concern to "stretch" (student expression, much used) their intellectual potential. Throughout the three years they were consistent in acknowledging and appreciating the warmth and friendliness of the college, but they also generally appeared to regret the apparent lack of structure and planning in courses, the low level of standards expected or accepted, and the lack of direct guidance in classroom practices and techniques. This the investigator interprets as students seeing college characterised by the loosely defined expressive values of friendship, emotionality,

"wholeness", intuition and spontaneity, and playing down the instrumental demands of students for specific instruction. For example, the importance of discovery method was recognised by the students, but they generally felt that they were left too much on their own ("left to sink or swim" was one student's expression) to discover things in which they felt they were entitled to instruction.

Certain elements of the college course were seen by students as institutionalising particular values: the universal demand for all students to undertake club work in their first and second year was often quoted as the "child-centredness" of college; the discussion methods in Education and Main Course as celebrating a concern to develop group feeling and to examine personal experience; and the assessment methods and refusal to award marks to written work as evidence of both concern for individuals and as lack of concern for standards and intellectual development. (Note: since these paragraphs were originally written at the end of the three years of interviews, indirect support comes from a letter from an ex-student of the College published in the Times Educational Supplement, 16 June 1972. Discussing assessment as a form of examination, she regrets the lack of formal three-hour examinations and claims".. at the end of three years.I knew painfully little about the subject (education) outside the four cr five pieces of work which I had to produce.....yet I gained a merit in education". Clearly dissatisfied with the system of assessment in college she argues that this method tended to "obscure the basic outline" of a subject as it encouraged the student as it encouraged the student to concentrate on very limited areas, and at the same time raised the level of anxiety for students).

The values implicit in the course and discussed in Chapter 5 appear therefore, from a very early stage in the course, to be fairly clear to students. The Education course was most frequently identified

as epitomising these values, but students claimed that similar characteristics were to be found in the teaching of their main subject. The shorter courses similarly were described as incorporating a college style based on the value of personal relationships, an attempt at warmth and friendliness, a "playing down" of the role of intellect and a "playing up"of intuition. Informality rather than careful organisation and planning thus characterised the College course for the students. The consensus of opinion appeared to be appreciation of the concern of the college for the individual student but regret that this concern resulted in vagueness and neglect of instruction in classroom techniques.

To probe the sanctions and rewards operating, students were asked what work they had outstanding and what would happen if they did not complete it (Interview 2.2; 3.2; 4.1; 8.1). Certain features characterised the replies. Students found the formal demands of the course somewhat vague. Often students appeared not to be clear as to just what work they did have outstanding. In Education, club notes were very frequently mentioned, but usually with an indication that this was a constant feature of student existence: a taken for granted assumption that club notes were to be invariably regarded as "outstanding". This applied particularly in the third to sixth term of the course where, although weekly notes were still required, this demand was often commuted by joint arrangement of tutors and students to a monthly or termly submission. Also in Education, students were able to mention the major pieces of work: their special study or their summer holiday work with children. Apart from these however there was little general pattern in education course requirements existing among students. They were aware that at the end of the course they were to present pieces of work representing evidence of study of the philosophy, psychology and sociology of education. For some students this was interpreted less in terms of conventional essays than in the submission of club notes or pieces

of work following on from a school practice, or their vacation work
with children. Students were writing Education essays, but it was a
marked feature that the number and frequency of these appeared to depend
upon the individual tutors, among whom there existed wide divergence
of opinion on the value and place of such essays.

"Mr. Y insists on at least one essay a term" (Third Year Student)

"I haven't written an essay in Education yet" (First Year Student,
end of third term)

"I've had to scratch around to find essays for assessment. I've
really only got two. I'll have to do a lot of writing this term"
(Third Year Student, eighth term).

In the main courses too a similar lack of clarity emerged over what
the students were expected to produce. Even in such conventional
school subjects as history and English the load of written work often
seemed to the students light and ill-defined except in the final year
when students were working on dissertations required for assessment. In
the more practical subjects of Art, Needlecraft, Dance and Drama it
seemed almost non-existent (these students accounted for approximately
half of the cohort). Students in these subjects were obviously putting
a great deal of time and effort into their productions, and quoted this
as "outstanding work", but usually the only demands for written work was
from the Education course, except, again, for the Main Course disserta-
tions undertaken in the third year. In the Part 111 subjects there
appeared to be no formal written demands, although in history or geo-
graphy students had work outstanding for files they were preparing on
particular topics.

Generally then, there is a clear picture that the College was
indeed attempting to ensure that "Students take responsibility for their
own work" (College prospectus, undated), but this resulted in many
students being not clear as to what was expected of them, and almost
certainly not pushing themselves very hard. They knew that at the end

of the course they would usually have to produce a certain minimum of work in Education and main subject, but for many in their first and second year this seemed an ill defined and far distant requirement. Interview 4.2 posed the specific question "How hard do you work?" The replies showed fifteen (of nineteen) students admitting to not working very hard. Further, all interview students felt in interview 4.2 that most other students did not work hard - an impression they confirmed in the final term of the course. The replies by the entire cohort to the College Environment Index (Chapter 8) shows less than eighteen per cent of all students agreeing that students do   put a lot of energy into their college work. It is argued then that the lack of clarity in defining work demands together with much responsibility placed on students to pace and assess their own work, resulted in the students being dissatisfied with their own efforts. Further, students felt that they could have worked very much harder, particularly in their first and second years.

Students were asked what happened to "good" work,(how indeed did they know it was good?) and how were they criticised for poor work. Although all students reported that the possibility of failing the course was a fairly constant preoccupation of students (in that it occurred in many student conversations) it is somewhat surprising to record that nearly all students claimed that not only did they not know how they "were doing" on the course, they could also give very few instances of how they were rewarded or punished by the college. Students had been accustomed in their schools to having literal or numerical marks recorded in their work. This was not a practice of college; tutors wrote what comments seemed appropriate on students' work. This practice led to a good deal of criticism, even although students acknowledged that they understood the reasons behind it:

"I know we are supposed to measure ourselves only against
ourselves, but honestly, it would help to have some clear
guidance as to where we stand".

Students criticised the lack of specific guidance as to what was
"right or wrong" in their essays or notes. They found, even in the
third year, the practice of tutors in asking them to assess their own
work somewhat unsettling and irritating.

Praise was reported to be used a good deal by tutors, but students
were often critical of the way in which it was used:

"I don't want my (club) notes with "good" on them. What does
it mean anyway?"

"The trouble is that everything seems to be good. You can't
really tell how you are doing".

Thus the reward system of college appeared to the students to be
one of deferment: knowing how they had done on the course would not
really be known until after they had left college, and then only in
terms of how they fared in the certificate examination. The general
feeling of the students was that their work, when felt to /be good was
often not acknowledged as such:

"I just got my file back without any comment on it at all"

Students discerned and acknowledged the College viewpoint that
what was important in assessment was how they themselves felt they had
done, but certainly for all but two members of the interview sample
this was not felt to be sufficient. When pressed for details as to what
would count as college recognition, students argued that what they
wanted was individual discussion with tutors over how they had done on
school practice, or in a particular piece of course work with specific
and detailed criticism and advice. This is somewhat surprising as a
particular feature of the College is claimed by staff to be its system
of individual tutorials. Nonetheless students very generally reported
that they often did not have as much opportunity as they desired to

discuss their work and progress with tutors.

As students perceived the formal structure of the college then, apart from final certification itself, a reward system appeared to be lacking, except perhaps in the subtle social interaction of the groups - several students reported the existence of "favourites" in groups who appeared to monopolise tutors' time and affection. This aspect, although of great interest, was not pursued. Students saw themselves as being left to generate their own motivation as far as the demands of the formal structure were concerned.

The sanctions operating appeared equally ill-defined. Some students initially were surprised by the question (2.2; 3.2) "What will happen if you don't hand in your work?" This was partly due to the fact that they felt eventually they would hand in something: they may reinterpret the demands nearer to their own wishes, but after all, "College gives us that option doesn't it?" It has been argued earlier that the students were characterised by seriousness of intent. They recognised that they were in the college to become teachers, they wished to become teachers, and felt that this would necessarily entail a good deal of work. Many of them expressed surprise at the relatively little amount of work which was expected from them, certainly in the first year or two.

The students generally were markedly a-political and were little interested in testing the strength and nature of the authority of the College. All saw clearly the ultimate sanction of non-certification, all acknowledged it was a fairly constant student preoccupation, but upon probing no individual felt that it could not be avoided. The resolution of difficulties, such as not handing in work, would be in some "talking out" process, rather than a "talking to" punishment. One tutor enjoyed a considerable reputation for her practice of "carpetting"

certain students who had not handed in a required piece of work. One
of these students was in the interview group and had experienced several
such sessions. Her comment was that "the first time students come out
feeling pretty awful" and were afraid that if they did not do the work
then they could be told to leave College. But after a time it was claim-
ed that students saw it less as a "talking to" than an exercise, albeit
somewhat traumatic at first, in pastoral care: "Her bark's worse than
her bite", "She means well".

Sanctions for non-performance of written work tended to be seen as
only used in the very last resort, and to consist of an appeal to
reasons as to why the work should be done, or the substitution of another
piece of work. When the invesigator persisted with: "But what would
happen if you refused to do any written work?" it was at this point
that the Principal would be invoked. Here the students' feelings were
that the Principal attempted to avoid unpleasantness and was concerned
to investigate, sympathetically, reasons for non-performance. The
Principal appeared to enjoy a very good reputation for the quality of
personal relationships with students. The threat of the sanction was
worse than the actual experience. It would appear that the threat or
probability itself constituted the sanction. Of the interview sample
two had been to see the Principal over poor work or poor attitudes to
work in their second year. Both reported that the interview had been
characterised by cordiality and reasonableness, but that it had been
pointed out to them that if they continued not to work then she would
have no alternative but to recommend that they were not suited to teach.
Unless they fulfilled certain formal requirements for certification,
then how could she justify their proceeding to the certificate assess-
ment in the final term?

This appeal to the threat of non-certification because of the need
for a certain minimum of work appeared to be the major sanction within
the college. In fact it was rarely exercised as among the students

as a group there was a strong undercurrent of belief that it was "fairly easy" to be requested to leave college, or to fail the course. It is argued that this, rather than any exercise of power by the staff ensured that work was done. It was largely student generated anxiety which acted as the sanction upon non-performance. However, this appeared to operate within a framework of student expectation that work had to be done. Even if students defined particular pieces of work (e.g. Club notes in the second year) as "unreasonable", the legitimacy of the tutors setting work was never questioned. No student doubted that student teachers should work hard. Thus, there was a peer norm that work had to be done - indeed ought to be done - and students accepted that they should be anxious if they were not working. The reasonableness of the work demand itself was never in question: staff had a right to expect written work. The College system allowing for relatively easy change of courses or tutors allowed students who felt they did not get on with certain tutors to avoid them, or to reduce contact to a low level, and one interview student had quite deliberately taken this action in Education.

Thus, although non certification could be a real possibility, sanctions existed largely in the students' own minds, and college authority was never, in the experience of the investigator, seriously tested. Not one of the students who failed to complete the course during the three year investigation (16 of the original 126 intake) left by deliberate college exclusion. In cases where the College felt the student ill-advised to continue there were long discussions among staff and with the student by tutors and the Principal. This in itself is of course a form of subtle social pressure and it is held that the status and power of students as against tutors is clearly unequal. The practice of the College however is to attempt to avoid the impression

of "forcing out" students. Rather, the stated objective is "to come to an understanding, getting them to see their own weaknesses or unsuitability" (Principal at staff meeting considering "weak" students - undated). Obviously, particularly at periods of school practice, students were suggested in Academic Board meetings as unsuitable to teach. The process would then be set in motion to give the students a number of opportunities to prove herself and to her tutors whether or not she could really "make the grade".

In six years as a College Tutor, the investigator was only once involved in a protracted case where the Principal was required to exercise her power to exclude a student on grounds of unsuitability and where the student was concerned to resist very strongly against the decision. The student in question had no ability to control children (and seemed to have no potential for developing that skill). She was given three extra opportunities in different schools over a period of two terms to demonstrate that she could. Both College and the schools felt she was unsuited to teach. The student did not agree but was eventually required to leave, against her wishes. The event occurred prior to the entry of the longitudinal sample.

An investigation, on the following page, of the reasons why students left the College during the three year course demonstrates that the sanction of exclusion for poor academic work was not apparently used. This is in spite of the fact that concern was expressed on numerous occasions by staff about the low academic standards of some students. Lack of ability to perform adequately on school practice appeared the major reason for non-completion of the course.

Thus the major control appears to be an affective one, relying for its effectiveness on motivational states which already exist in the great majority of students and which are demonstrated by the fact that they have chosen to become teachers.

Students from longitudinal cohort of 126 who
did not complete three year course

Student	Left	Reason
1.	Term 6	Parents killed in landslide in Jamaica - All contact lost. (College felt suitable).
2.	Term 3	Stated own unsuitability for teaching during Practice 2. (College agreed).
3.	Term 1	Left after 3 days. Own volition. (College presumably felt suitable).
4.	Term 6	Withdrew for 1 year - returned later to complete course.
5.	Term 2	Left after first teaching practice - Own volition. (College felt practice to be reasonable).
6.	Term 6	Withdrew after extra teaching practice - Own volition. (College felt unsuitable).
7.	Term 3	Poor Teaching Practice. Advised to withdraw. Student agreed.
8.	Term 3	Own volition - to study Art. (College felt suitable).
9.	Term 4	Own volition. Against College advice.
10.	Term 6	Withdrew own volition for 1 year. College offered place to return.
11.	Term 6	Pregnancy and marriage. (College felt suitable).
12.	Term 4	Own volition. Thought herself unsuitable. (Against College advice).
13.	Term 7	During 3rd year practice. Own volition. (Against College advice).
14.	Term 6	Poor Teaching Practice - student agreed.
15.	Term 2	Pregnancy and marriage. (College offered place to return).
16.	Term 6	No clear reason discovered - probably student felt dissatisfied with College. (College felt her unsuitable).

Analysis of reasons for leaving of sixteen students - showing College view*

College felt student suitable for teaching*

a)	Student felt unsuited or preferred other occupation	5
b)	Student returned or offered place to return to College after interval	3
c)	Pregnancy/marriage	2
d)	Student left after 3 days	1

College felt student unsuitable for teaching*

a)	Student left after discussion with staff - apparently at own volition	4
b)	Student left - probably from own dissatisfaction with College	1

TOTAL	16

*Note

The "College view" and student reasons were obtained by the investigator from informal discussion with staff. Wherever possible students were also interviewed to probe reasons for leaving and to obtain their own views on the matter. In every case "suitability" appeared to be judged on actual or potential classroom performance and not on academic work.

In the study of interaction with tutors two major lines of enquiry were undertaken. First to discover how many of the College staff students "knew", and claimed to have contact with; and second, the nature of that contact. Students were given a list of College Staff and asked how many staff they "knew well". This procedure was undertaken in Term 2, Term 3, Term 6 and Term 8. Results are shown below:

Average number of Staff known to Students
(to nearest whole number)

| | College Staff (out of 34) whom students claim to: | |
	"Know"	"Know well"
Term 2	20	8
Term 3	24	10
Term 6	24	10
Term 8	23	11

The figures were obtained from only seventeen students in the interview sample and there was a wide range between students. One student in her second year claimed to "know" all members of staff, and to "know well" twenty of them. At the other extreme was a student in her second year claiming to "know" only fourteen tutors and to "know well" only two of them. It is felt that such differences are not necessarily truly representative of the degree of difference in interaction with tutors, but rather to reflect students' different interpretations of "know" and "know well". The investigator's test of "know" was to suggest "Do you know what he/she does in College? Do you have some contact with him/her?" For "know well" the suggestion was "do you feel you know the tutor well enough to decide whether or not you would go along to see him/her about a personal or school problem? Do you

have a good deal of contact with him/her?"

This is a somewhat loose and intuitive approach, but it is claimed that it does yield a fairly consistent pattern in spite of the wide variation. Nearly all students claimed to "know" the Principal and senior tutors: those who had introduced their "subject" during the first term. They also "knew" the two or three tutors who had interviewed them, the tutors on their Introductory course, most members of the Education Department and their main course department tutors, and those tutors of any Part 111 courses they had undertaken. Tutors "known well" usually included two or three Education Tutors, one or two main course tutors and other main course tutors known from the Introductory Course or from Part 111 courses.

With a view to investigating the nature of tutor-student interaction students were asked on a number of occasions to describe how they had spent their time over two days. What emerged from this study is that there appeared to be fairly limited tutor-student interaction outside of the formal timetable. Certainly, coffee and tea and all meals rarely if ever were taken with tutors present as members of the group. Similarly there were hardly any mentions over the three years of any evening contact with tutors. The exception to this last finding was that during periods of school practice a good deal of student-tutor contact took place, but it was usually because of school practice itself: a problem having arisen, or a tutor having made a specific request to see the student. For all interview students the "College day" finished somewhere between three and six o'clock. It was accepted that little or no contact would take place with tutors after that time (all tutorial staff were non-resident - see Chapter 5). Home, boy-friends and student peers only were mentioned as evening contacts except during the school practice periods.

Interaction with tutors then was usually about some point of college business. Very few students reported discussing personal problems with tutors and most claimed that in the first instance they would ask for help and advice from someone other than a tutor. However several tutors were mentioned as known to be "very active" in helping students, and the vice-principal in particular had the reputation for spending much time helping "other students" with personal problems. Another qualification to this picture of limited, instrumental interaction is the semi-formal nature of the interaction with tutors responsible for dramatic and musical productions and for the activities in the College Chapel. The impression gained is that only a minority of students took an active part in these events. Of the interview sample one was "very active" in chapel affairs; five had taken part in College or student plays; and four had taken part in a musical activity. This probably represents understatement of the proportions taking part, as all students, as part of their course would undertake some activity in music or drama. Nonetheless, the investigator came to the conclusion that interaction with staff was on a fairly limited front mainly connected with the College course itself.

A much more detailed investigation is required to check the accuracy of this conclusion but the findings were discussed with several colleagues who, initially expressing surprise, acknowledged a measure of agreement with the finding. An investigation of how tutors spend their time, would, it is suggested, yield interesting results. It is likely that such an enquiry would be strongly resisted by the majority of tutors. The investigator had been under the impression that he spent a good deal of his time counselling students in non-professional matters. In his final year at the College (the second year of the study) he recorded his actual meetings with students over a period of

three weeks, and, although finding them frequent was somewhat surprised
to find that less than six percent could be regarded as specifically
personal counselling or pastoral care. How typical is this experience
is a matter for empirical investigation.

The major reported interactions with tutors were in lectures (few)
discussion or course groups (many) and tutorials (fairly few). Thus,
it is suggested that students view tutors mainly instrumentally. They
welcome the warm quality of personal relationships which they feel to
generally characterise the College, but they find that except for periods
of school practice their contact with tutors is usually of low intensity,
is concerned with some aspect of the college course, and, from their
point of view, is regarded instrumentally as an opportunity to acquire
knowledge or skills which will help them in the classroom or to gain
their certificate. It is suggested that the importance of tutors as
"significant others" tends to reduce during the course except for the
"College" perspective on work noted below, and at times of assessment
and stress: school practice and the final assessment period in Term 9.
The more important reference groups for students become teachers and
other students. Such findings generally confirm those reported by
Wilson (1966) that students see staff as having more influence on their
intellectual development than other students, but feel that their peers
are of greater influence on their social and interpersonal development.

The Student Subculture

A number of attempts were made with the interview sample to gain a
picture of the informal structure of college: some insight into the
nature of student groupings. The major method consisted of asking
students how they had spent the day or two before the interview, the

groups to which they belonged, and for their perception of student groupings in college. The method was informal and open-ended, but a consistent and clear picture emerged. There is not, among students, a strong sense of corporate identity, a feeling of belonging and loyalty to the College. Loyalties are to other individual students, the characteristic grouping in college being small friendship groups arising apparently from such variables as main course or age or hostel. Students largely enjoy their college life but view it instrumentally: it is a way of becoming certificated as teachers. Enjoyment arises from the small friendship groups not from a sense of collegiate pride evenalthough students see the atmosphere of the college as warm and friendly.

Only three major sub-groupings of students are discerned: a "Union set", a "Chapel set", and a "Dance-Drama set". These three groups are exceptional in being seen as fairly active. All three however have small membership, with Dance-Drama the largest comprising approximately fifteen discernible members. A small group of "mature married students" is also identified. There is very little mixing between year groups of students, indeed the year group is probably the strongest sense of corporate identity that students possess. There is little or no differ-entiation between resident and day students, although for day students the institutional loyalty is generally weaker than for resident students. Boyfriends and marriage became increasingly important during the three years and tend to be the dominating out of college interest for the great majority of students, serving to weaken a sense of college loyalty and identification. Students tend to see themselves as fairly easy-going but with a strong undercurrent of "gossip and bitchiness" charac-terising much of their conversation.

There is a quite strong expression of desire to teach, together with an acknowledgement that hard work does not characterise students, except at times of "crisis" - school practice and final assessment.

There is a general playing down of interest in the theoretical, and a
diffidence about ability to tackle academic work. "Keenness" is something
which students do not like to display before their peers, and there is
an avoidance of long discussion on professional issues. Politics are
rarely discussed except among the "Union set", and with one or two
exceptions students avoid any direct involvement in political action
inside or outside the college. It is a student norm to reveal dissatis-
faction among peers with "the College line" on teaching, but there is
very little open challenge to College authority and none of a fundamen-
tal nature. Relations with tutors are generally fairly easy, with
students acknowledging warmth and friendship in their contacts.

Clark and Trow (1963) have characterised four types of student
subculture, academic, nonconformist, collegiate and vocational,
generated from the combination of degree of student involvement with
ideas and identification with college.

		Involvement with Ideas	
		+	-
Identification with College	+	Academic	Collegiate
	-	Non-conformist	Vocational

Clark and Trow see the American campuses of the early 1960s as
characterised by the growth of a vocationally orientated student sub-
culture: students not strongly identifying with their colleges and
not strongly interested in theoretical study. Rather, students were
seen to be at College in furtherance of their employment prospects.
College was thus a means to a lucrative career. This picture of
American campuses must clearly be modified by the events of the latter
half of the 1960s: the emergence of the radical protest movement on
American campuses, which, in terms of Clark and Trow's model can be
interpreted as a growth of the non-conformist subculture. The model
itself can be criticised in its suggestion of clear categorisation of

student identification and involvement. It gives little indication of the range, mixture or subtlety of student groupings on the continua between the polarisations.

There is little doubt that in the college studied the student subculture appears to be characteristically vocational. Students have not a strong sense of involvement with college, nor are they as a group characterised by strength of interest in theoretical study. This is not to suggest that there are not students in the college with a real interest and concern for ideas. In the year group under study the investigator is aware of at least seven students who are very strongly "involved with ideas" (one was in the interview sample). These particular students were identified by staff as having major interests in theoretical study. The interview sample student was character-ised by her strong criticism of college for not offering sufficient intellectual challenge. However, there is no evidence that such students formed a clearly identfiable group, rather, they are to be regarded as individual students who stood out from others by their strong interest in academic work. Only two appeared to be close friends.

It is suggested that fruitful studies could be undertaken of student subcultures in Colleges of Education using different models. It might be possible for example to use "strengths of commitment to teaching" or "active/passive involvement in student affairs" or "work oriented/pleasure oriented" generators for such a model, but the evidence from this study does not support the view that student groupings are made on the basis of these factors. However, in an attempt to provide a model which will embrace both the typical grouping (friendship pairs or triads) together with the discernible groups of chapel, union, dance-drama and marrieds it is suggested that the voca-tional quadrant of Clark's model can be extended thus:

		Major Interests (other than teaching)	
		Within College	Outside College
Corresponding with College Grouping	Yes	College positive (differentiating)	College negative (differentiating)
	No	College positive (consensual)	College negative (consensual)

Here the generators for the model refer to whether or not the friendship group is based on a formal organisational group, and the interests and activities of the student group. Thus, the model could be applied to the observed groups as shown.

		Major Interests	
		Within College	Outside College
Corresponding with College Groupings	Yes	Dance/Drama Pairs/Triads	Pairs/Triads
	No	Chapel Union Pairs/Triads	Married/Mature Pairs/Triads

The weakness of the model is that membership of the categories is not mutually exclusive. A small number of students were very active in two of the discernible groups (Dance/Drama and Union). Nonetheless it does provide a basis for investigation of student groupings and could be used to investigate how far the College formal structure promotes growth of student subcultures.

The model is concerned with variables other than commitment to teaching, taking this aspect for granted, but nonetheless acknowledging that this commitment can range from strong to very weak. It proposes that student groups arise from the nature of similar interests rather than complementary needs, and from interaction within College allowing the discovery, development and exploration of those interests. Thus, some

college timetabled groupings will, it is suggested, give rise to student friendship groupings and this will in turn serve to reinforce the formally constituted group. The effect here will be to further differentiate the formal group from the rest of college formal and informal groupings. A clear case is the Dance/Drama group who are identified by all students as an active group, membership of which is almost entirely defined by membership of the College main course, and which, as the course progresses, becomes more tightly knit and seen as "apart" from other main courses and student groups. Thus, the Dance/Drama group is formed firstly on the basis of initial interest in the subject, but the nature of the interaction process (regular daily meetings, group activity, dependence of members on each other's performances, rotation of formal leadership role among students) serves to ensure that strong in-group feeling develops perceived by members and non-members alike. Thus, the formal structure of the college promotes the growth of a particular student subculture set off from the remainder.

The Chapel and Union sub-groupings are smaller than the Dance-Drama and are not so clearly identifiable with a main course. It was thought that the Divinity main course would comprise the majority of chapel set members or that most members of the Divinity course would be actively involved with the Chapel affairs or identified by others as so involved. Investigation among the interview sample did not support either of these beliefs, showing that the eight or nine members of the set were spread over five main courses. A similar conclusion was arrived at for the Union set: it was not dominated by a particular course or formal grouping. Thus, it is argued that these two sets represent a different type of student grouping from Dance/Drama in that they do not serve to differentiate between a particular group within the formal organisation of college from others. Rather, they represent a consensual element within the college formal groupings, serving to break down any barriers erected by time-tabling.

The third quadrant - College negative (differentiating) - is
represented by students who are brought together by a College course but
whose interests (other than teaching) lie outside the College, particu-
larly those of the college course itself. Thus, student groupings here
would be indifferent or antipathetic to participation in student activities
based on college, seeking their satisfactions outside college, even though
friendship corresponded to a formal grouping of the college. The reported
activities here were entirely leisure based, centring on boyfriends and
the enjoyment of communal sociability in foursomes and sixsomes, visiting
pubs, dances, cinemas, places of interest, etc. It bears resemblance to
the "fun" subcultures of Gordon (1957) and Coleman (1961) or to the
Collegiate subculture of Clark (1963) with the exception that it does not
identify with college. The interview sample reported many examples of
such friendship pairings among other students, indentifying by name in
interview 5.2 some fourteen pairs or triads which had common main course
membership. Friendship pairing was also reported as the most character-
istic mode of grouping in interview 8.2 but no record was made of actual
groups.

The final quadrant contains those student groups who do not share
membership of a common main course or other college grouping. Here, a
group of some seven or eight mature married women were clearly identifiable,
taking coffee and meals together and having home and children as common
topics of interest. All were non-resident. It contains also many friend-
ship pairs and triads whose members do not share the same main course.
In interview 5.2 fifteen such groupings were identified by name.

To suggest something of the nature of overlapping membership, and of
the difficulty of clear identification it is argued that the model is
perhaps better presented as pairs of continua:-

Major Interests

	College	Non-College
Based on College Groups	College positive ⟷ College negative (differentiating) (differentiating)	
	↕	↕
Cross College Groupings	College positive ⟷ College negative (consensual) (consensual)	

Subcultures, should, by definition, possess a set of norms and values which mark them off from groups possessing other norms and values. What is clear from this investigation is that membership of the identified subgroup does not imply possession of radically different sets of values from other students. From the reports of the interview sample, from discussion with other students, from staff comments, no consistent pattern emerges which differentiates between the groups other than in major interest and behaviour in college. Thus the three groups described were seen as more active in participation in student affairs, but - as far as the investigator could judge (and the material available for judgement is acknowledged to be limited) - neither between the groups themselves nor between the groups and other students was it suggested that there was a real difference in commitment, in attitude to children, to education or to college itself, or in other professional attitudes or personal standards of behaviour.

The lack of objective testing for subcultures, particularly by means of sociometric tests, means that the findings of this section are somewhat impressionistic, and precise membership of all groups could not be determined. What is important for the study however is that it did not appear that the different groups were differently oriented to the teaching profession. Because of the major focus of this study it was decided not to use sociometric testing. This, it was felt, might forfeit the goodwill of students and was felt unlikely to yield results of value to which this

investigation could do justice. Such testing demands a major research effort beyond the means of an individual worker. However more detailed research is needed into the nature of student groupings in Colleges of Education.

The identified sets then would appear to have much less impact upon the socialisation process than the much smaller friendship pairings which represent the dominant mode of social relationships within the informal structure of the college. Within the sets, students reported the existence of such pairings which interacted more frequently than the whole group. Thus, the model suggested represents not so much subcultures as groupings within a student subculture. A brief description of each group illustrates this point.

The Dance/Drama Set

This comprises some fifteen plus members representing main course students. The level of group interaction is higher than any other formal college grouping as throughout the three year course the members met daily to rehearse and practice movement techniques. Group loyalty was high, students identifying themselves as group members and claiming much satisfaction from their work and from group membership. Each student took it in turns to lead the group in a production of a dance/drama, culminating in very intensive involvement in productions for final assessment. In addition the students undertook on their own initiative a number of productions for public performance. Students depended on other members of the group for effective performance and this gave rise to strong sanctions in the form of group disapproval and appeals to group loyalty to discipline members who did not attend technique sessions or rehearsals regularly and punctually.

The group tended to take coffee and meals together and non-resident students of this group appeared to spend much more time in college than

other non-residents. However, within the group the existence of friendship pairs and triads was strongly noted. There did not appear to be a set of values clearly marking off the group from the rest of college. Other students and group members suggested that the major focus of interest, dance/drama, was the motivation for group formation and the reason for its continued existence, but that within the group opinions about education or political religious and social issues reflected the differences within the college as a whole. Chapter 6 shows that group testing using the Role Definition Instrument confirms this statement for attitudes towards certain educational issues.

Non-group members, reporting the existence of the group characterised their descriptions by the use of such adjectives as "lively" "noisy", "extraverted", "ebullient", "vigorous", "outgoing", and saw the group "sticking together outside lecture times". To some extent this impression is confirmed by the findings from the Eysenck Personality Inventory, which shows the Dance/Drama main course scoring significantly higher on extraversion than other main course students. Group members also saw themselves as "more outgoing" than other students, but as a group the students were not rated differently as teachers by tutors throughout the course.

From discussion with four Dance/Drama group members at the end of the second year it appeared that it was made up of two triads five pairs and two students whose College main friend belonged to another main course. This finding however was not checked by sociometric test. There was little reported interaction with Dance/Drama students in other years of the course.

The Chapel Set

This group appeared to comprise some seven members who interacted fairly frequently with a small number of students in other years who

shared a similar intense interest in College Chapel activities. These
students (three were main Divinity) appear to represent the diminished
counterpart of a much larger group which had played a very active part in
College life between the two World Wars. One member of this reported set
was in the Interview sample, but as far as the investigator could judge
group membership had no significant consequences for professional social-
isation. No direct checking of this impression was undertaken other than
potential for teaching or school practice results, but it is clear that
for this small group of students, chapel played an extremely important
part in their everyday life, probably as an extension of their commitment
to their own home churches. It is suggested that the nature of sanctions
and rewards relating to Chapel attendance and activity in this student
grouping arose from a complex of personal motivations and group involve-
ments which lie outside the scope of this investigation.

The Union Set

Six students were usually mentioned, from the second year onward,
as comprising an active group. These held official posts in the students
union, and those interviewed reported giving up a great deal of time to
Union activities, inside and outside the College. There did not appear
to be a radical questioning of college authority among the group, rather
an increased desire for participation in the decision making processes
affecting the college curriculum and pattern of teaching practices.
Other students identified this group of students as "leaders", but as far
as the investigator could judge neither the group nor its individual
members saw their role as one working for alternative ends to those
formally set by the College.

Group members reported spending a great deal of time together, but
also reported that their "major friendships" did not necessarily lie
within the group. Again, like the Dance/Drama and, probably, Chapel
sets, the groups are not distinctive subcultures within the College, but
are students sharing similar interests and activities but with a range of

values similar to the whole year group of students, and characterised more by friendship pairs than by group membership. Neither in commitment to teaching, teaching practice results, tutors' gradings or theory of Education results do the group members appear to differ from other students.

<u>Mature/Married set</u>

This comprises approximately six members, one of whom was a member of the interview sample. All were married, with children, and from fairly early in the first year spent much of their coffee breaks and lunch hours together. They tended to leave the College at the earliest opportunity in the afternoon in order to be at home for their children and husbands. They are characterised by hard work, a very marked keenness and desire to do well on the Course. As a group they were sceptical about the attitudes and efforts of younger students. Further, they were also sceptical in their own conversation of much of the College course, but tended to be less openly critical to tutors, explaining that their major motivation was certification and that they did not therefore wish to jeopardise their chances of success. The interview group/discussions centred mainly on family affairs. It should be noted that all "mature marrieds" were not members of this group, several making a conscious effort throughout the course to identify with the younger students rather than with their age peers.

Of all the groups only this one appeared to have an expressed uniformly high level of motivation to teach. Apart from them, the student norm appeared to be to play down public expressions of "keenness", although admitting to it in private conversations. This apparent coolness of younger students towards teaching and towards what the College <u>could</u> offer was much criticised by the mature/married set..No reports were given however of overt friction between

the set and other groups of students.

The descriptions of the identifiable groups given above should be regarded in the light of the characteristic student grouping: pairs or threes or occasionally foursomes, of students meeting in hostels and over meals and coffee whose conversation, except at times of school practice, centred much more around personal emotional and social topics rather than professional issues raised in the course. Deep examination of such professional issues appears to be discouraged by the student subculture and controversial issues are avoided ("to keep the peace" in the words of one student). There is an unspoken assumption that serious discussion of education is taboo, and various forms of ridicule are reported as employed to keep offenders within bounds. Within the friendship pairs however there is a great deal of "emotional unpacking" taking place, and all interview students reported much discussion taking place on their own or other students' personal problems and affairs - particularly those relating to boyfriends and future marriage - and to discussion of other college cliques. At times of school practice a great deal of mutual aid takes place, both between pairs and among the wider, more loosely knit, friendship groups. Again, at these times conversation is marked by a severely practical attitude to education. There develops an assumption that "hard-headness" pays and that students should help each other: making apparatus and sharing techniques which will enable the next day in school to be successfully completed.

The consequences for professional socialisation of the particular nature of the student subculture would appear to be that students take an increasingly instrumental attitude towards the college course. This is explored in the discussion of student perspectives developed below. The norms developed included a strongly critical attitude towards the relevance of College teaching; a scepticism concerning the college "child-centredness"; a depreciation of theory; an avoidance in student discussion

of political and educational issues - particularly where these are
controversial; and a major preoccupation in student discussion with their
own personal and emotional affairs - affairs which arise less from diffi-
culties with the college course than from friendship ties. Conversation
largely centres around these interests and certain leisure activities associated
with them. The sets and friendship pairs are maintained by such common
interests and by the emotional support generated within such groupings,
particularly at times of crisis and in the face of common difficulties.

Sanctions reported by students appear to centre around the withdrawal
of emotional support from those who appear to be identifying too strongly
with college: laughter, subject-changing, ridicule and scorn, avoidance,
direct criticism, appeal to the"obvious" commonsense and practicality of
students and teachers. These reported activities generally take place
"off stage", in interaction in college rooms, over meals, etc. Evidence
for their existence exists in the independent reports of interview
sample members and in some direct observation of such behaviour in College
Education groups. Verification can only take place by a much more
thorough-going investigation, probably using participant observation.

The student subculture of college would appear to exercise a good
deal of influence over the personal behaviour of students. The nature
of friendship pairings and the looser networks of friendship groupings in
which they operated, exercised a major control over moral decisions,
interview students reporting that other students (but rarely they them-
selves) were strongly influenced by others. For example, one hostel was
consistently reported, both by one student who lives there and by other
interview students, as considerably "laxer" (students' description) in
sexual behaviour than other halls of residence. Another hostel was
described as much more "workish" than others.

All students reported a "close or very close college friend" whom
they acknowledged as having major influences over their behaviour.

Personal difficulties would be much discussed in the friendship pairings, and although students were concerned to emphasise that their actions and beliefs were based on their own judgements, it seems clear that both the close friends and the generally accepted norms of loose-knit friendship group (often hostel based) played a large part in shaping those decisions.

The friendship structures are also tempered by the presence of boyfriends. It is taken as a norm that a student should have a boyfriend; all members of the interview sample confirm this fact and one student who did not possess a boyfriend reported feeling "unusual" in not having one and being under a personal felt pressure to conform. For approximately just over half the students the boyfriend is "local" in the sense that he lives close enough to college to allow one or two evening visits and certainly visits during the weekend. Visiting is two way; boyfriends coming into college or the students meeting their boyfriend in his own college or digs or home. Such an arrangement breaks down the strength of such student subcultures as might develop and serves to attenuate a sense of College identification and loyalty. This occurs with greater effect as the course progresses as the students tend to form more permanent relations with boyfriends. During the third year students become increasingly outward looking: anticipating both their first teaching post, finding new accomodation in many cases, and the prospect of marriage. Thus, the "senior" students in college who could presumably do much to foster the corporate spirit among others, in fact spend little or no time in this activity being concerned with the world outside or with their individual problems of final assessment.

The weakening of traditional College culture should not be interpreted as a deleterious movement, a worsening of the quality of College life. Rather it represents a reflection of the change in both the nature of the

teacher training institution and in the nature of societal expectations for young females. On the one hand Colleges of Education have become more open, less closed and total institutions which were characteristic of the period up to the 1950's. The College under study has a geographical position which serves to militate against its closed nature of earlier days: it is close to central London and to many other institutions of higher education. The changing expectations for women are a commonplace of sociological investigation (Banks, 1954). The mythology of the profession itself positively encourages the stereotype of the extreme nubility of young women students. It is not surprising that the students of this sample reflect the trend towards earlier marriage and less selfconscious informal relationships between the sexes.

The investigation into friendship groups reveals a finding of considerable interest and practical importance. It would appear that the typical friendships which are made develop early in the course and are strongly influenced by hostel placings. The interview students who were resident in their first year report almost uniformly that their particular college friend emerged from a small group which had been arbitrarily placed by the College on a particular landing or corridor. These early formed relationships largely endure throughout the course and in the second year dictate both the choice of hostel, and to a large extent, the choice of education group within a particular age range. Data collected in interviews with some 23 students is shown on the following page.

Thus, it is suggested that the major control on friendship patterns appears to be initial placement in hostel. Common interest in a main course of study is the next control and appears to be a stronger influence for day students than for residents. Finally, education groups appear to act as consolidators rather than determiners of friendship patterns. Friendship choices are largely laid down in the first year, thus when

Friendship Patterns

(Sample: 23 students then
in third year)

1. Reporting a "close or very close" College friend   23

2. Friend known before College   1

3. Friend sharing hostel in first year (16 resident)   13

4. Friend undertaking same main course   9

5. Friend in same education group (chosen in 2nd year)   16

education groups are chosen in the second year, pairs and looser friendship groups representing associations of such pairs strongly tend to opt for the same group. Evidence for this is provided not only by the interview sample, but by the fact that at the start of their second year five members of the mature/married group opted for the same education group. Tutor action was taken and the group was met with the suggestion that it would probably have a limiting effect upon discussion if all members were in one group. The mature/married set thereupon agreed to spread itself over two education groups.

Reference Groups and Role Models

At the end of their three year course students in the longitudinal sample responded to a questionnaire probing the impact of college. Two questions related to role models. Results from the 105 students who responded are shown below:-

Question 5 List in order of importance to you the most significant experiencesin learning the role of the teacher in school. (You may wish to award "equal" placing)

	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Average Placing	Final Placing
Teaching Practices	103	2	0	0	0	0	1.01	1
Education Lectures and discussions	7	42	26	18	2	10	2.96	2
Club Work	0	24	16	25	19	21	3.97	4
Main Courses	1	4	8	17	29	46	4.97	6
Other College Courses	0	7	13	25	30	30	4.56	5
Informal discussion with other students	6	33	31	16	10	9	3.17	3

Question 6 List, in order of importance, the groups of people you consider to have had most influence on you in learning the role of the teacher in school. (You may wish to award "equal" placing)

	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Average Placing	Final Placing
Education Tutors	39	35	18	4	1	8	2.21	2
Main Course Tutors	7	15	34	33	8	8	3.42	3
Teachers and Heads	65	32	3	2	1	2	1.55	1
Other Students	0	28	34	25	8	12	3.52	4
Boyfriends/Husbands	3	1	9	20	47	28	4.90	5
Others (Please specify	3	4	6	5	10	78	5.40	6

It seems clear from replies to these two questions that students regard teachers and heads in schools as their most significant reference group. Question 5 shows that teaching practices carry far more weight with the student than any other part of her course as far as learning the role of teacher in school is concerned. This finding confirms the investigations of Williams (1963) and Morrison and McIntyre (1969). Question 6 modifies the information of Question 5 and suggests something of the importance of tutors (particularly Education tutors) and other students in role-learning. Discussions with the interview sample suggest that students more sharply differentiate between different groups as the course develops in terms of the behaviour thought expected by those groups. Thus it will be suggested that the relatively high weighting given to education tutors in teacher role learning relates to some extent to a different behavioural dimension than that for teachers and heads.

Students begin their course of initial training with College tutors as very significant others towards whom their behaviour will be oriented and from whom they expect to derive techniques and knowledge. Early discussions with the interview sample revealed that College staff were regarded as "super-teachers". The fact that they held College posts appeared to mean, in the entering students' view, that tutors knew, and would pass on certain things which would enable the student to perform well in the classroom:

"The Staff will teach us how to teach" (Interview 1.1)

"The tutors are I suppose the best teachers who will show us what to do" (Interview 1.1)

"Although they are very friendly I'm a bit scared of them (tutors) really - they seem to know so much" (Interview 1.2)

This view of the college staff was to give way fairly quickly to a less idealised, more instrumental view, with the view of the Staff "knowing it all" giving way to a view of them as being "out of touch". It is suggested that the influence of school practice and of other students serve to effect this change. School practices in particular heightens the critical

attitude towards College tutors. One effect of the first and second school practices was to modify the expectations students possessed for the tutors' role. Tutors were seen as assessors of the practice and as "general emotional supports" (Interview 5.2 q.6). The expectation that they would provide specific assistance in classroom matters became attenuated. Students increasingly felt that they would gain fairly little in the way of concrete advice, for dealing with a particular subject or topic. Rather, they now expected, and reported getting, a certain amount of opportunity to "talk out our difficulties" particularly with matters of classroom discipline and control.

There was general consensus among the interview sample in their second and third year that they saw the role of College staff as instrumentally non-specific, being much more concerned with expressive support and assessment. Whether this is an accurate description of the staff role is open to question. There is however little doubt that the students, from their reports, saw it in this way. A number of exceptions were reported, where tutors gave fairly precise instructions as to how to teach a particular lesson. The great majority of interviews however report this to be unusual.

Students' orientation towards the college staff as a reference group became more and more concerned during the course with satisfying them as to competence in the College course and in school. These two areas became increasingly separated in the students' minds. In the college course, the initial impression of tutors was maintained throughout. There was a feeling that in academic matters staff "knew their stuff". Although there was occasional criticism of main courses that the work was little beyond what had been studied in school, generally there was acceptance that the staff were competent both to teach their subjects and to judge the students' performance in those subjects. In Education too the same general impression prevailed during the three years, particularly in the disciplines of education. What was questioned was not the staff's ability in these disciplines, but the

relevance and legitimacy of such subjects in the initial training course.
However, the students accepted that it was necessary to display competence in
these subjects, even if they privately questioned the appropriateness of
such work for student teachers. They felt that the tutors were the major,
if not sole, group towards whomtheir behaviour in this area would be
oriented.

It is argued therefore that for the Education Theory and Main Course
components of the college course, tutors were highly significant others
for students. They were seen as having monopoly of teaching and assessment
procedures with strong backing from the external examiners involved. Thus
in these areas students felt constrained to pay very close regard to what
they felt tutors required, and, indeed, to accord them legitimate expertise
in these areas. Further, students for main courses (but to a much lesser
extent for Education) appeared to genuinely accept the desirability of
these subjects.

A distinction has been drawn (Chapter 3 above) between reference
groups as sources of standards and as groups to which entrance is desired.
College Tutors for Main Course and Education clearly constitute reference
groups of the first type: they embody academic standards which the students
must reach. However tutors do not constitute a reference group of the
second type in the two remaining areas of the College course: Part 111
courses and school practice. Here, the evidence of the interview sample
strongly suggests that teachers and heads are seen as having more signifi-
cance for the students. Students acknowledge that they must demonstrate
competence to the tutors in these areas, but they recognise the existence
and desirability of a different set of standards held by teachers. This
finding represents a refinement of the "college frame of reference/school
frame of reference" of Finlayson and Cohen (1967), and the "on stage" of
responses of Shipman (1966) in that it points to those areas in which

college tutor competence is accorded legitimation, and to those areas where it is not.

In the area of practical teaching students clearly are more oriented towards the views of practising teachers than towards their tutors'. The evidence from questions 5 and 6 above and from the interview sample implies strongly that students come to see teachers as their major source for ideas on how to behave in the classroom. Practising teachers form a reference group which students aspire to join; they are further, a source of standards to guide classroom behaviour. Early in the college course, students are oriented towards their tutors for this function; after experience of school practice however they develop this other reference group of teachers which becomes of major importance for them. What the interviews yield, which is concealed in the responses to questions 5 and 6, is that both teachers and tutors act as important reference groups, but for different aspects of classroom behaviour and for different purposes.

Tutors increasingly are viewed as assessors of the practical teaching experience, and as such the students develop a "safety and survival" perspective to enable them to cope with what they see as tutor requirements (see perspectives section below). Thus, students accord tutor requirements a lower place than teachers' requirements in their personal evaluation of classroom practices, but regard them as important in the process of passing the standard. A shorthand developed in the interviews characterising what students perceive as staff expectations in the practices: full, neat files; group and individual work; maximum visual display; activity; but above all close, warm relationships with children, the ability to "get on" with school staff, and a teaching procedure based on children's interests and needs. These requirements are not spelled out precisely in the students' minds, but they nonetheless serve for almost all students as a convenient set of prescriptions to ensure success from the College standpoint.

However, interview students report that teachers and heads (but particularly classroom teachers with whom they undertake their practice) generally serve as a reference group from which a different set of prescriptions for success will be obtained. These prescriptions are, for the students, of more importance because they ensure not just the safety of passing the assessment procedures, but because they will ensure survival in the practice and afterwards on taking up their first post as teachers.

Numerous descriptions were given of these "teacher standards", but it is possible to derive a similar shorthand list to compare with the College list in the preceding paragraph. Students suggest that often what they gain from their supervising teachers is some specific advice on how to teach aspects of certain subjects and how to control individual children and classes. Principles reported as gained from teachers include: maintenance of social distance; firmness; starting off as something of a martinet and gradually relaxing; a balance of class and group work; a need for for some quiet periods when no-one other than the teacher should speak; a high degree of teacher control of work, certainly in the early stages of establishing a relationship with a class; clear directions, and a reduction of pupil choice. All these classroom behavioural standards, together with specific advice on the teaching of reading or number or particular school subjects, appear to be the contribution of teachers as role models for students. The emphasis is on keeping the children busy: the piece of classroom lore which nearly all members of the interview sample quoted at some point in their three years was "Satan always finds work for idle hands to do". The assumption was that for student teachers, or for teachers on probation, the value of the work was less important than the activity it engendered: busy children would not be difficult children. Thus, whilst both tutors and teachers were concerned with activity as a principle of classroom behaviour, students saw different motivations behind the same

interest, and whilst acknowledging the legitimacy of the tutors' demand for some "worthwhile" justification, privately felt that at this stage of their career, the teacher justification - to diminish discipline problems - was of more importance.

Students accepted that the perspective they developed on school practice allowed them to maintain two sets of standards which often conflicted with each other, although they contained common elements. For the tutors it was necessary to be seen as a warm, sympathetic teacher, concerned with keeping order certainly, but concerned to understand each individual child and to provide for his interests. Examination of school practice files throughout the four practices revealed far more attention given in lesson evaluation to a discussion of individual children and their emotional and social difficulties than to an examination of teaching technique.[1] Indeed this lack of attention to considering teaching method and favouring of discussion of children and relationships is a prime characteristic of teaching practice files as shown in Chapter 5. Lesson notes would give in some detail the method to be adopted, but follow-up notes only rarely discussed the lesson in terms of success of the method as judged by what children had learned.

From their supervising teachers, students reported acquiring a repertoire of techniques and skills which could be used to teach effectively. The investigator suspects that the test of effectiveness employed by the students (and probably derived from their teachers as suitable measures for student performance) was one of class control, class quietness and general pupil "business" and output. Although many students reported enjoying their practices, nonetheless they were looked upon as hurdles.

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[1] After the second year practice thirty-five files were examined by three tutors. Assessments were made of all contents except Lesson Preparation under three headings. There was a high level of agreement between the three judges resulting in the following weighting: Discussion of individual factors 55 percent: Discussion of social factors - 21 percent: Discussion of knowledge and technique - 14 percent.

as obstacles to be overcome, and a generally short-term view was adopted: what lessons would successfully get the student through the next day or two? For these tactics (rather than strategy) teachers were seen as highly significant others, for they were seen as knowing the children, knowing what to teach, and knowing how to teach it. Thus, teachers were able to generally fill the instrumental need felt by students: supplying expertise which would ensure short term success in the classroom, sufficient at any rate to survive the practice. Tutors did not appear to be willing to supply this expertise. Further (and partly as a result of this "unwillingness") they became increasingly defined by students as unable to supply the need, because they were "out of touch", not in daily contact with the practicalities of everyday classroom life. Teachers were however ready to supply this knowledge to students, or, rather more accurately in terms of the evidence of the interview sample, could not avoid supplying it for they were very highly visible to students, either directly by their presence or in the evidence of the children's work and children's expectations. A number of students reported learning what to do by not following the advice or example of their teachers. In this case the supervising teacher was seen as a negative role model, practising in a way which the student disapproved. Nevertheless she remained an important source of learning for students.

In the area of school practice then, both teachers and tutors formed reference groups for students, but not only were teachers seen as a more important group, the two groups were seen as emphasising differing characteristics in the role models presented. The same feature was found in discussion of Part 111 courses. Students generally looked to these as a source for classroom expertise although the College specifically avoided designating them curriculum courses. Students were much more highly critical of such prescriptions for classroom practice as were advanced in these courses than in Education or Main Courses. Increasingly through the three years students tended to see teachers as possessing more expertise in

curricular areas, particularly in terms of "putting it over". Thus, students appeared progressively to see teachers, rather than tutors, as sources for pedagogic skills. Whilst the tutors were still seen as "knowing a grat deal about their subjects", they were increasingly charged with lacking knowledge of the classroom situation, without which, it was argued, their recommendations were of relatively little value. In main courses or the disciplines of education the tutors' expertise went largely unchallenged by students, (even if the relevance of such knowledge was questioned), but increasingly in areas of practical teaching there was criticism of both lack of guidance and of the guidance actually provided.

Two factors appeared to contribute to this growth of scepticism on the part of students. First, a stereotype of "the college tutor" clearly existed in student popular mythology and was strongly supported by the student subculture. This stereotype defined the tutor as "out of touch" by virtue of the adoption of the role itself. However successful a college tutor had been as a teacher or a head, the taking up of the role of tutor, automatically distanced the ex-teacher from the classroom, and this distancing, in the student view, meant that the realities of the classroom situation were no longer understood. The stereotype saw the tutor as more and more concerned with "theory" - a term used interchange-ably with "academic" as having pejorative overtones. The role of college tutor meant, for students, that lack of daily contact with children and with the school teaching process, would inevitably lead to "artificial" and "unrealistic" prescriptions for practice and to an increasing "wooll-iness and vagueness". The stereotype was supported by a large number of anecdotes, some apocryphal, some derived from actual events in college and heightened in continual re-telling and adaptation, which were used among students to demonstrate the truth of the stereotype of the "out of touch"

tutor. This role stereotype was, it appears, learned fairly early in the course and reinforced by the experience of school practice. The investigator suggests that in some way it acts as a defence mechanism for the preservation of student self-esteem, for it allows rationalisation for personal failure or difficulties in the classroom. Thus, the causes for failure can be externalised into appeals to lack of advice or poor advice. It is the investigator's experience that the stereotype is a similar part of teacher mythology; certainly the interview sample gave numerous instances of this negative stereotype existing among the teachers with whom they undertook their practices. Thus, the role of tutor itself gave rise to increasing scepticism towards Part 111 courses on the part of the students.

The second factor accounting for scepticism lies in the reduced control tutors possess over student learning in the area of Part 111 courses. College has not the same monopoly power over teaching and assessment as in Education and Main Course. Teachers on school practice contribute in a major way (in the students' view) to learning about how to teach different subjects. Thus, teachers could lay claim, by virtue of performing the task daily, to expertise in this area. Students therefore saw Part 111 courses as containing much material or method which could best be acquired in school, from teachers, rather than from tutors. Further, students claimed that success in these courses was best demonstrated in the classroom rather than in the fact of attendance at a college course. It should be noted here that the Principal was required to certify that students had attended, and reached the required standard in, the various Part 111 courses. This appeared to be largely a formality although several tutors used it as some compulsion to ensure attendance. At no time in the study was a student failed because of lack of success in a Part 111 course. The certification procedure for this part of the

course appeared to be a formality only: no tests were applied to check the standards reached. For students then, the real test of the success of Part 111 courses lay in their direct applicability to the classroom situation, and it was on these grounds that much of the criticism arose, for teachers were seen as contributing more to the students' learning than tutors.

From the responses to question 6 and from the interview sample it would appear that teachers form the most significant reference group for students, with tutors as the next most significant. Education tutors appear to have more importance for learning the class teacher role than main course tutors; an impression which was not clearly supported by the interview sample. It was not possible to deduce a clear pattern from the interviews as to the relative weight attached to Education or Main Course tutors. Students appeared to be governed to some extent by the stereotype of "college tutor", but within this somewhat restricted framework they were concerned to discriminate between individual tutors, rather than between Education and main course. Thus one main course tutor was consistently (and exceptionally) singled out for praise in terms of the practical advice she offered in her subject for students in school. Similarly one Education tutor attracted a number of adverse comments in terms of lack of any advice given on how to work in school. These comments on individual tutors were increasingly proferred as the interviews progressed although it was not part of the purpose of the study to elicit them. It is suggested that the findings of question 6, giving more prominence to Education tutors than to Main Course tutors may flow from the fact that they are seen by students as having much more importance on the assessment of school practice procedures, and in the fact that many education discussions necessarily centred around practical issues in school. As Part 111 courses (with one exception,

mathematics) were provided by Main Course tutors, it may be that the adverse evaluation of these courses served to depress the estimation of the contribution of such tutors in role-learning for the students.

"Other students" would appear to rank fourth as a reference group in relation to teacher-role learning. The interview group findings suggest that other students are a major reference group in terms of personal behaviour. For teacher role learning students tended to play down the direct contribution of ther peers. Interview students acknowledged that they gained a certain amount from their fellows in formal discussions and rather more in informal discussions, but they were unwilling to accord more importance to other students than to teachers or tutors. A sceptical note was sounded by one third year student:

> "We are not concerned to impress other students. We know them
> too well. They aren't the ones who decide whether we pass or not"

Such comment further illustrates the importance attached to the tutors' function of determining entry to the profession by certification.

During the first school practice (Group Study) other students were highly visible, being in the same classroom. In the second practice (Suffolk) students lived together in pairs in a Suffolk village for a month and worked in the same school. For the third and fourth practice the college attempted to place students in schools in at least pairs to give support to each other. However, in spite of these organisational devices, students did not see other students as major sources of learning what to do in the classroom. Although the expertise of some of their peers was acknowledged ("P - is marvellous in the classroom, full of ideas and never seems to have any trouble"), nonetheless they were seen as contributing relatively little to instrumental learning. Although this could be taken as supporting Wilson (1966), this is somewhat surprising, for many interviews gave examples of what students claimed to have

learned from each other in terms of classroom practices, techniques and equipment. Students also gave many examples of the mutual support which took place at periods of school practice, but saw this student co-operation primarily as expedients to enable the practice to be passed successfully.

It is clear that the students themselves do not see their peers as legitimate sources for learning and the reason for this lies partly in the student role played: being a student implies that one necessarily knows less than the tutor or teacher. Thus, not only do the students not expect to learn much from their peers, they tend to discount what they do learn from that source. This is an interesting finding as a large part of the discussion method of teaching much practised in the college is based on the assumption of "learning from each other" (Head of Education Department at Departmental meeting, undated). Students saw their tutors as appointed to "teach teaching" an expectation which diminished as a result of experience during the course as the students turned to other groups for this guidance at times of school practice. Nonetheless, they were unwilling to accord major importance in learning in this area to their peers: "It's the blind leading the blind" was a sceptical remark made in interview 9.1 which sharply but accurately reflects student feeling.

Several students mentioned the great support they received from boyfriends or husbands, particularly when these were teachers. For three or four students these extra-college influences appear from question 6 to be major role learning sources. The interview group however whilst acknowledging this help saw it as general emotional support, rather than as contributing specifically to classroom expertise. Again, as with "other students" but to a greater extent, students did not see this group as a major legitimate source of role learning:

"Of course it helps to have your boyfriend interested - but if
he's not a teacher he doesn't really understand. He can help
though by just being sympathetic" (Third Year Student, Interview 8.1)

Students sometimes mentioned children as major sources for learning
about the teacher's role. Six of those seven students who placed "others"
first or second in response to question 6 all gave "children" as this
major influence. This however raised the question of whether children
can constitute a reference group or role model for students. They cannot
act as role models; only teachers or tutors or possible other students
appear able to fulfil this function. Similarly they are a reference
group neither in the way of representing a potential membership group,
nor as one from which standards for teacher classroom behaviour can be
taken. Nevertheless, as some interview students pointed out, it is
impossible to act as teacher without their presence and as such they
will shape and modify teacher behaviour. However, it is argued here
that professional socialisation involves certain processes: Identifica-
tion, imitation, role playing, which are learned from observation of
(directly or indirectly), reflection on, and adaptation of teacher models:
other adults playing the role of teacher. Thus, knowledge of children
is a vital element influencing the performance of the role, and children
constitute a group of significant others towards whom behaviour is
directed; but they essentially represent a role-set group - a group in
conjunction with which the role of teacher must be played. It is a
group which has a different function, status and qualitatively different
composition from that of teacher.

There is some indication from the interview sample that students'
reference group orientations change during their three year period of
college socialisation. This change can be described as a move away from
a child - to a colleague - orientation and from a college - to a school-
orientation. Thus, students entering college are strongly child-

centred and see the educational process as centring largely around the
children; at the end of three years this child-centredness has been
modified (but not extinguished) and is partly replaced - in terms of
judging the success of classroom performance - by an orientation towards
colleagues. This orientation is concerned with being recognised by other
teachers as a successful practitioner. Children still remain very import-
ant for the third year students, but other teachers have become much more
significant than they were in her first year. To be a good colleague
becomes important in the minds of the students (a concept partly
generated by experience of school practice in team teaching situations).

The School is increasingly viewed as a place where adults, as well
as children, must learn to live together, rather than just as a place
where the student can enjoy a relationship with her children. If the
respect of colleagues is to be kept, then children must be controlled,
noise kept down and procedures adopted which will keep one's fellow-
teachers satisfied. This increasing colleague orientation and the
relationship between the college and school orientation is further
discussed in the perspectives section below.

The citing of children as an important influence in role learning
does however indicate the difficulty of understanding the socialisation
process. The specific contribution of the interview sample shows that
it is possible through the use of questionnaires only to grossly over-
simplify the process. Again and again students were concerned to qualify
their remarks and to modify the suggestions of one significant other or
group. They saw fairly clearly the variety of models presented in
school and in college, and whilst stressing the importance of teachers
(both supervising teachers on school practice and those who had taught
them in their own schooldays) they also acknowledged that college acted
in a multiplicity of ways to provide role models. Thus, it was not only

the style adopted by a tutor when in a formal student group, but it was also the variety of experiences provided by college - reading, writing, discussion, viewing films and videotapes, work in the college clubs, holiday work with children. All these and others were mentioned as influencing role learning in some unquantifiable way. What did become clearer was that professional socialisation, insofar as it existed as a concept for students, meant something different for students than for tutors. Students tended to have a highly instrumental view of the process, seeing it as one of role socialisation, equipping them with skills, techniques and knowledge to operate successfully in the class-room. Tutors saw it as status socialisation, a process which saw many of these instrumental demands as more suitably fulfilled "on the job" in the classroom, or later in in-service education. For tutors, status socialisation was concerned with a development of understanding of that body of theoretical knowledge rules and principles which, in conjunction with the classroom practical skills would result in professional compet-ence and status. It is this difference in perspectives on the profess-ional socialisation process which gave rise to much dissatisfaction with the college course.

College Socialisation (continued): Development of Perspectives

(1) Commitment to teaching as a career

One of the characteristics of a professional is that he is committed
to the notion of his occupation as a career (Greenwood, 1957). The
interview sample was used to investigate the notion of commitment and
its definition and change during the course. At the start and end of
their course all students were asked to respond to the question "How do
you feel towards teaching as a career?" The following figures were
obtained for the final sample of 105 students:-

	Start of First Year	End of Third Year
Strongly committed	40 (38%)	26 (25%)
Committed	42 (40%)	39 (37%)
Moderately committed	21 (20%)	37 (35%)
Weakly committed	2 (2%)	1 (1%)
Not at all committed	0 —	2 (2%)

The scale can be criticised on two major counts, first that the
second and third suggested categories do not necessarily imply a decline
in commitment, but second, and more important, that no definition of
commitment is attempted. This latter area was investigated with the
interview sample in an attempt to bring more precision to the concept
and to investigate the nature of change in commitment over the course.
The table suggests that the effect of college socialisation is to
attenuate the degree of commitment felt to teaching. (Results from the
original 126 students show no significant difference in commitment from
starting figures of the remaining 105, the percentages being 37, 40,
22, 2, 0 respectively).

It is argued that the evidence from the interview sample, allows
the process of change in commitment during college to be seen less as a
reduction of commitment, but rather as one of a move from idealistic
child-centred commitment to a more realistic or instrumental and

and colleague centred commitment. It involves a greater knowledge of what the job of teaching entails, a redefinition of relationships with children and other teachers, a change in reference group orientation, and an increasing concern to resist pressures for a total involvement with teaching. This may be seen as amplifying Eason and Croll's (1971) finding that during a course of training tutors reported that they felt students' motivation to teach grew stronger.

Students in their first interview expressed a generalised commitment to teaching. This commitment was essentially of a diffuse nature. Students tended to define it in terms of strong attachment to children and concern to "help" (a word much used by the sample). There was an eagerness to express this commitment in action, by getting out into the schools and to have as much contact with children. Two interview students in particular were characterised by an almost breathless eagerness to "start teaching". The mature students and those with some teaching experience were less openly enthusiastic but they were still expressing their commitment to teaching strongly in very general terms, mainly centring around the children:

> "Yes, I'm strongly committed to teaching. I enjoy working with children, I want to work with children; although I say it myself I'm pretty good with children".

> "Well, teaching is just something you want to do. You can't spell it out exactly. It's liking children, not in a sloppy way. but they're the main reason for teaching aren't they?"

As was seen above in the discussion of the stereotype of the student teacher as "drifter" there is a widespread feeling among the students that they will undertake a "fairly substantial" period of teaching after leaving college; there is seriousness of intent about their commitment. Nonetheless, the general impression gained in the first interviews is that there was almost a "rosy glow" in the anticipation of the teaching experience. It was difficult to avoid forming a

"Miss Read" image of the student sample on entry as they generally appeared to see themselves enjoying close, warm, friendly relations with their class(es), tempered by a certain self-disparagement and humour, but nonetheless based on positive and affectively-charged relationships with individual children, but with little appreciation of the difficulties in attaining that ideal. There was some apprehension, but it was generally played down. This type of commitment was to be altered during the three years, particularly as a result of each teaching practice. The importance of the relationship with children would remain but in a more precisely defined form, and there would develop stronger commitments to colleagues and to the possession and enjoyment of particular expertise.

In the first interviews there were no spontaneous references to "the teaching profession". It did not appear that students felt any particular attachment to the profession of teaching, other than in a personal desire to become involved with children. Questions of status, esoteric knowledge, autonomy, or professional evaluation (Jackson, 1970) did not arise either directly or by implication in response to interview questions. At the entry stage to teaching, students saw their commitment in terms of a fairly vaguely defined service ethic expressed as the desire to help children.

The second interview of the first term saw little change in the nature of the commitment, but a clearer definition of expectation of college had emerged: the College's job in the students' eyes was to equip them with the expertise to cope in the classroom, particularly on the school practices which were approaching. The pattern of the first practice (Group Study, see Chapter 5 above), appeared to confirm the students in their original concept of commitment as the practice appeared particularly child-oriented. Each student would have a group of about five children for the fortnight at the start of the second term;

little precise instruction as to how the student was to behave with the children was given by staff. The major message the students reported gaining from staff was "get to know the children; follow their interests". It was to be the impact of the first school practice and the subsequent practices which would have the major effect upon level and type of commitment.

The picture emerging from interviews after the first school practice, and even more particularly after the second and third year practice, was an attenuation of the high level of commitment originally expressed, and a re-definition of its nature. Whiteside (1969) has coined the expression "reality shock" to describe the impact of initial period of teaching upon students. Certainly, the reports of the interview sample confirm this. A major effect of their experience in school was to slightly reduce the level of commitment. Only in two cases did students claim sharp and extensive decreases in commitment. More importantly the effect of class-room experience was to suggest and define alternative notions of commitment.

A modification of the "Miss Read" image took place. A major reported effect of the practices was to show the students what they felt to be their own shortcomings in technical skill to cope with the demands, intellectual and emotional, of the children. The commitment with each practice tended to become increasingly defined as "recognition of the need to do a good job in the classroom by getting them to learn something" (Second Year student). Other students reported:

> "When I came to College I thought children were little angels - well not really that, but I thought that all you had to do was to give them a start and they'd work on their own. I realise this isn't so now" (First Year)

> "My main impression is how little I know about controlling kids, let alone teaching them something" (Second Year)

"It wasn't like this at home. We spent Wednesday afternoons in the Infants and it was easy - just reading and helping with models" (First Year)

"The job of the teacher is to teach them something. Mine wouldn't listen most of the time. They don't concentrate" (First Year)

"I went into school thinking that friendship and relationships were what counted. I still believe this, but know that what I need in addition is lots of things to teach them and to know how to teach them" (First Year)

These are selected quotations, the last from a school practice file, but they bear out the change which took place, a change which is also documented in Chapter 7 and in findings from the RDI on certain attitudes, particularly towards corporal punishment. As the question of commitment was raised at interviews during the three years, students increasingly wished to say, or in a number of cases were prompted to say, how they defined this commitment. The basic commitment to children remained, but the "rosy glow" disappeared. Students used the expression that they were still committed:

"But this means going home feeling you've taught something - and that's what I don't feel I'm doing yet". (Second Year student after School Practice).

This can be interpreted as the focus shifting from children to method; or, more likely, from a single focus, relationships, to a multiple concern which included children and knowledge and skills.

There was a marked shift from an independent approach - the desire to get into the classroom and work on one's own, establishing "a real relationship" with the children, towards one of increasing instrumentality and appreciation or depreciation of colleagues' (teachers in the schools) skills, and a concern for acceptance and approval by these colleagues.

"Mrs. F (School Practice class teacher) is so good. She's organised. She's got one thousand things for the children to do. I just feel lost for ideas". (Third Year)

"Mrs. G (School Practice class teacher) scares the children to
death. They are incredibly quiet. It's unreal and she just
wants them to learn useless things. I want to get them started
on individual work but they are so tight it just goes into chaos
and she steps in. I haven't any confidence". (Third Year)

"What I want are ideas to keep them quiet and busy"

"They just run around and don't listen. But they are O.K.
with Miss H". (Second Year)

"If only I could create an atmosphere in the class like Mr. T -
he's friendly, but they work and seem to enjoy it". (Third Year)

The feeling is conceptualised as a desire to acquire and be the master

of certain skills which will enable the student to "perform well" in

the classroom (tomorrow or on the next school practice: the time scale

is a limited one). It also becomes a desire to be "as good as Mrs. F"

or "not like Mrs. G". There is a growth towards professional commitment

in terms of the wish to acquire the expert knowledge thought possessed

by teachers:

"How do you teach them reading? I just don't know and what we've
had in College isn't going to help me" (Third Year student after
final school practice).

"School is the place where I've really learned what teaching is
about. It's exhausting but it's rewarding. I just want to be a
good teacher" (Third Year)

"Committed? It means doing a good day's work in the classroom
and going home feeling you've taught something. That's what I
mean by being committed to teaching" (Third Year student).

Possibly because of the very low level of political and professional

student activity in college there are only very infrequent references to

the idea of the teaching profession as a corporate body. Commitment

remains largely on an individual basis, first to children, then to imita-

tion or emulation of other teachers, acquisition of skills, and being

seen "to do a good job" in the classroom. The third year students, parti-

cularly after their final practice, whilst they are still committed to

teaching, have tempered their early idealism. They certainly do not feel

they are on the threshold of entering a noble profession - the phrase
called up sceptical or derisory smiles and comments. They are still commit-
ted to children, but on the basis not only of enjoying good relationships
but also of getting them to learn, cognitively, morally and emotionally.
Their commitment is directed towards the class or the school, not to the
abstract entity of "the profession". Teachers Unions are seen mainly
as insurance policies. There is a concern to teach "as well as" a
particular teacher encountered on a school practice and, by keeping order,
"not letting down" other teachers. Commitment means developing and
improving professional skills which they generally feel they lack. There
is a growing concern throughout the course to define teaching as something
other than a 24 hour day, 52 week year commitment, and to establish that
teachers should have interests outside teaching:

> "For goodness sake, if I'm going to be a good teacher it means
> I've got to get _away_ from it".

> "It's a job. No, it's not a job like a bus driver's, but it's
> a job. You've got to cut yourself off. You can't live it and breathe
> it".

> "She (the Headmistress of a teaching practice school) expected me to
> spend all my time in the place or thinking about the bloody place.
> Well I can't, I don't, and I don't think I should".

> "Look, most of us are going to get married and have our own
> families. We want to do a good job but this doesn't mean we're
> like nuns".

> "I'm dedicated. That's a word I wouldn't use in the Group (the
> Education Group). It's a dirty word. But it doesn't mean I'm not
> dedicated to other things. My boyfriend. You've got to be interes-
> ted in other things. I want to teach. I love teaching, but a life
> of only teaching would be narrowing".

> (All Third Year Students)

The pressure of outside commitments, particularly planning for
marriage, appeared to do much to attenuate the ill-defined but near total
commitment expressed at the start of the course. As can be seen however,
the notion of commitment itself changed radically, from diffuse child-
centredness towards focussing upon skills and colleagues, but with students

never conceptualising this as commitment to a profession.

The consensus on the wish to teach for a number of years after college, then to return to teaching after marriage and family can be seen as a further index of commitment, although the real test could be thought of in terms of what actually happens rather than expressed predictions. This expression of commitment appeared to remain constant throughout the three year course. Thus, as in the discussion of the female student as uncommitted "drifter" earlier, it would appear that the college students did possess a genuine if re-defined, commitment to teaching, which took account of the likely life-cycle of the married woman. This finding has some support in the report of Smithers and Hallawell (1972) who found in a study of 300 graduate or final year students in two colleges and one university that over 90 percent of the female students envisaged remaining in schools for their whole career.

(2) The Work Perspective

Academic/Practical - the evaluation of work demands

One of the problems facing students upon entry to College is to
select which demands made upon them by the College staff will have
priority. Certain demands will be unavoidable: periods of school
practice must be attempted; children who attend the various College
clubs will have to be met and brought to and from College; at the end
of the Course there will be a certain irreducible demand for the produc-
tion of written work. Even these demands however may be tempered or
met in part; other demands have less apparent insistency or compulsion
and the student must decide how she will meet them. It is argued that
the way in which the student copes results in, and is the result of,
the development of perspectives relating to work. The interviews relat-
ing to "Important Work" represent an attempt to probe the formation of
these perspectives.

The first interviews produced a broad picture similar to Becker's
initial perspective: "try to learn it all" The major task of college,
as formulated by the students, was that it "will turn us into teachers".
(Interview 1.1).[1] Investigation of this expectation yielded very
imprecise knowledge and expectations. There was an awareness that
"something called Education" was to be studied, together with a Main
Course subject and unknown parts of the timetable designated "Introduc-
tory Course" or "Part 111 courses" Students expressed keen anticipation
for all parts of the college course. Some apprehension was expressed
at the prospect of school practice and the club work with children, but
the general picture was of eager willingness to come to grips with the

[1] The eighteen students questioned were asked "What do you expect from
the College?" All replied to the effect that they expected to be prepar-
ed for teaching.

demands of the course. The conception of the course held by students might lack clear definition, but the attitude towards it appeared positive and optimistic "I want to get started on it all" declared by a first year student characterised the early interviews. Thus, the initial perspective was a "total" one of keenness and desire to learn as much as possible.

As Chapter 5 demonstrates, the College puts emphasis on the statement "Students take responsibility for their own work" (College Prospectus, undated). The effect of this in practice, together with the impact of the Introductory Course, produced a disorientating effect upon the students. The second interview in the first term produced a fairly uniform pattern of replies to the question "Have you been surprised at anything that has happened since you came to College?" Students voiced their surprise and regret at both the lack of structure in their introductory course and in the apparent lack of supervision by staff.

> "We don't get as much guidance as I expected" (Interview 1.2)
>
> "I don't know what the (Introductory) Course is about" (1.2)
>
> "I'm not sure how I'm doing. Apart from Club notes I haven't produced anything of my own. It's so unlike School" (1.2)
>
> "We don't seem to have got down to learning what to do with children" (Mature student, 1.2)
>
> "I don't think any of us have got the hang of it yet. I like the freedom but some people seem to take advantage of it" (1.2)
>
> "We are left so much on our own" (1.2)

It would seem unfair not to balance these comments with the comments of the students on what for many of them was a welcome release from close supervision. Nonetheless the picture certainly emerged of a rather disorientated student body, working away at various self chosen tasks on the Introductory Course (which formed half the timetable for half of the first term), cut off from the reassurance of the marked

essay which had been a feature of their schooldays. The initial "Total" perspective was undergoing reassessment because it was not clear to students where the College priorities and goals lay: "I'm not sure where I'm going - or where I'm supposed to be going" 1.2).

McLeish (1970) has claimed that the student cannot gain a full view of his College. Certainly, it would be expected that the students' definition of her "classroom situation" will be different from that of her tutors (Esland, 1971). The students in their first term certainly underwent (as they reported) major difficulties in learning what the course was about. In the opinion of several of the sample there had been an "abdication" by the College staff of the responsibility for teaching them about teaching. This was a minority view as most students still very much regarded the staff as possessing certain valuable knowledge and skills which, in time, they would reveal, initiating the students into the mysteries of teaching. Nevertheless at this early stage of the course the students were able to discern certain elements of the course to which they began to attach different evaluative weightings.

On Education and Club work there was still comparative suspension of judgement. Work in clubs with the children was still fresh and interesting. Writing club notes was becoming something of a chore: "She (the child) always does the same thing - and I don't really know what to look for" (1.2), but it was not unbearable. Further, the Education Course held much promise for the students in learning how philosophy, psychology and sociology would help them with their teaching. Teaching Practice was not far over the horizon, and students were already visiting different types of school. Thus, in the first term the Education course held a certain future attraction. Its objectives may

not be clear, and no one had asked them to write an essay but there was
a general expectation of "useful things to come" (1.2) All the students
however commented on the very marked difference between school and
college expectations for regularity of written work.

The students' main course   generally provided a firm prop in
relating what went on in College with what went on in School. It was a
distinct subject, its objective was seen as "for our own personal
development" (1.2), and it seemed to clearly possess a body of knowledge
and skills which the student could work at and master. Even here,
however, there were some difficulties, for, as with Education, formal
lectures were not a feature of the Course and much reliance was put on
a discussion method which did not appear to be particularly congenial
for some of the interview sample:

> "I feel so exposed. You are not told as we were at school. I
> know its better, but its worrying too". (1.2)

> "I haven't said anything yet in the group. Its mainly Mr. X
> (the tutor) and two or three of the talkative ones" (1.2)

However, there was a familiarity and a reassuring certainty for
most of the students in their main course of study.

Much doubt and uncertainty centred on the remainder of the course.
For the first half term Introductory Course groups met and worked on a
topic related in some way to London. This course was the focus of much
discontent, unrest and criticism both during the course and subsequently.

> "It's just a waste of time for me. I'm a Londoner" (1.2)

> "I can't see what its got to do with teaching" (1.2)

> "I feel I haven't done a thing really. We've been on visits,
> but I can't see the purpose" (1.2)

> "Looking back, I didn't do a stroke in the first five or six
> weeks. (6.2)

A second or provisional perspective, one of personal selection,

emerged during the first term. Here, generally, the students worked at what they liked. The offer had been made to them to take responsibility for their own work, and, with the exception of the requirement of club notes (weekly notes written after each meeting with the child), this is what they reported doing. For over half the interview sample this effectively meant doing no written work at all except for club notes, and these were often brief in the extreme.

> "Noone seems to bother whether we work or not, whether we write things or not. There's no checking." (1.2)

For the majority of the interview sample then, the self-set requirements of the first term became attempting to read as much as possible from the long reading lists provided, visiting schools, and, above all, discussion - in the formal groups required by the timetable or in the frequent "brew-ups" in students rooms or over coffee or tea in the Buttery or Student Common Room. Most students reported that in fact they read very little in spite of their desire to study, because of the "easier option" of talking with their peers. Thus, the perspective of "personal selection" succeeded quite quickly the earliest concern to "learn it all". This selection, it is argued, was made partly on genuine preference - and much of it was expressed in social intercourse with other students - and partly from the set requirements of the course where such requirements existed. However, it is argued that the evidence from the interview sample showed clearly that this initial, naive perspective and its subsequent self elected work and activity were themselves quickly replaced by a perspective which would last throughout the course and which can be traced to the impact of the first school practice. This final perspective, designated "academic/practical", would characterise the greater part of the three year course and would be confirmed and strengthened by the experience of school practice each year.

The striking feature of the first interview of the second term, held just after the practice was the unanimity of the students in feeling they had been inadequately prepared for the practice (see Teaching Practice perspective below). Many of them had enjoyed some parts of the practice, but all felt they could have been helped by College much more. How far this was an accurate perception, and whether it arises from misconceived expectations are major problems in the study of college preparation. What is certain is that the impact of the first school practice, designed by College as a "gentle introduction" (Education Department circular, undated) to the classroom situation, was, for many students, the major event in their first year. Even those with experience of teaching found "new hazards" (1.2) in the situation as they were now "students - without any real position or authority" (first year student, 1.2; a remark which recurred throughout interviews in all years).

There was consensus that this first practice had been nervously awaited and that it had been "an exceptionally tiring fortnight" (1.2) No less than eight of the interview sample of eighteen had missed some portion of the fortnight (mornings only) in school. No detailed probing of reasons for absence was undertaken (as it was felt this could jeopardize the interview), but this high rate of absence character-ised all school practices. This fact is interpreted as evidence of the major impact the practices have upon students.

The main differences between what had been expected and what happened (Question 2, protocol 2.1) emerged as difficulty of children, lack of sustained interest by children, and lack of help from staff. Questions 6 and 7 of this protocol were used to probe the students' expectation of the staff role, officially described by an undated Education Department handout as "students and staff work alongside each other on this practice". It emerged that generally students had been

left free to do as they wished and that where constraints had been

placed on the work to tackle or the methods to be employed, this was

more likely to have been done by a classteacher rather than by a tutor.

There was some feeling of being "lettdown" by staff on the practice:

> "I expected them, I suppose, to be in with us most of the time.
> I don't think I'd like that really, but the fact was we only
> really saw them for the afternoon discussions" (2.1)

> "I saw quite a lot of them in the first day or so, but after that
> they just popped in to say hello" (2.1)

> "My kids were quite well behaved when the tutor or class teacher
> was about, but were devils when I was on my own after the first
> day" (2.1)

> "I loved it, but I don't know how I did. Noone told me" (2.1)

In developing their replies the students became unsure as to what

precise role they envisaged the staff playing. There was noted in all

the interview students a struggle between the desire to work entirely

alone, getting on with work with the children as a separate, isolated

group, and the desire for both help and approval. Students reported

more help from class teachers than from tutors, and were critical of

the type of approval they were awarded by the staff:

> "You felt that anything would do. It was all lovely" (2.1)

> "What I wanted was to be shown how to get Mary who can't read,
> to fill up her morning - I want to know how to teach reading
> and other things - not just a smile" (2.1)

There is of course a balance to this critical picture:

> "It was such a relief to see a familiar face" (2.1)

> "Miss A (tutor) was so good with the children" (2.1)

Nevertheless the consensus of the sample after this first practice,

and every subsequent practice, was that they needed to know much more

about teaching, and that the College seemed almost to have embarked on

a "conspiracy to deny us knowing about how to teach!" (First year

student, 2.1)

The result was that the academic/practical perspective emerged which would affect the students' behaviour in many ways, but particularly her decisions as to what work was important and what was not. The students, from this first school practice onwards developed an increasingly instrumental view of their course. The question they used more and more to test the "value" or "usefulness" of a particular part of the course was "How much help is this going to be to me in the class-room?" This actual formulation was used by at least two of the students in responses relating to work. It became increasingly the view of the investigator however that the test was very generally applied. Certain work was classed in the student's opinion as "academic". Here the work may be intrinsically interesting to the student, it may be of value to her in passing the assessment procedures of the college, but the student's test of its relevance to her as a teacher was whether it "would work in the classroom". The majority of students enjoyed their Main Course work, they often acknowledged what they felt to be its contribution to their personal development. Similarly a lesser number enjoyed their Education work, but here the test of the academic/practical perspective was even more stringently applied. Increasingly the students came to see the primary task of college as the production of teachers and this they tended to define more and more narrowly. Certain parts of their main course and Education courses were of value as being of intellectual interest and relating to the world of non-school, but the really relevant part of each course for the intending teacher were those contents, skills, methods which would help with the next teaching practice or the early days of teaching in the probationary year.

The "academic" work was not without value. Indeed, it was often regarded of intense interest particularly where the student felt a genuine attachment to her subject or to one of the disciplines of

education; but the academic perspective dictated that it should be viewed first as having little relevance to the classroom, and second that its immediate value was in producing a piece of work which would count for assessment. The nature of the college's assessment procedures could mean that this latter instrumental valuation was not applied so rigorously as when the conventional three, three-hour examinations were used. Nonetheless the "academic" work required by the College tended, for the majority of students to adopt a slightly unreal appearance: its use would be that the student would be seen by her tutors as "playing the academic game" (student expression, interview 9.1. q.5). As the course progressed, this classification became applied more and more to the education course. Becker's final perspective "giving the faculty what it wants" (Becker, 1961) cannot be fully applied to the College situation on account of the difference in assessment procedures, but the somewhat bizarre element which he points up where faculty demands are treated with a mixture of exasperation and amusement was to be found in the interview group.

Club notes and the infrequent education essays became firmly classed as academic:

"I've got my club notes to do, I haven't done them for five weeks. They are not important, the whole situation is artificial" (3.2)

"I keep up my club notes but I only do it because I'm expected to" (3.2)

"They (Club notes) help me understand the individual. But they aren't of help to me in the classroom except in a very general way" (6.2)

"Well I'm doing an essay for Mr. Y (Education Tutor). I need it so that I've for one on sociology of education to hand in for assessment" (8.1)

"I'm behind with my (Education) dissertation. I'm really interested in it. (The subject was adopted children). But it isn't much help for teaching" (8.1)

"Theory is alright I suppose. But it doesn't seem to help me much on practice" (8.3)

"Look, you take (Class of 4th Year Juniors). What you want to be able to do is to control them and get them working p and them liking and respecting you too - well, I haven't found much in College to help me with them" (9.1)

The "academic" perspective could also almost be named "theoretical", with the exception that this came to have a pejorative connotation for the students ("Oh, that's alright, in theory") whereas academic is used to imply that the students saw it as having a use and a value but that this lay outside of the classroom. As such, much of the main course became part of the students' academic perspective, although parts of the content of subjects were seen as very directly of practical value for the classroom:

"We're working on a dance-drama. Although its at our level, there's an enormous amount you can use in school" (8.1)

"Much of my History Special Study isn't of relevance for the classroom, but some of it is, and it helps to know a lot about the (Roman) period" (9.1)

The "practical" perspective was applied to resolve what would be of value in the classroom from the Education and main course. Its major critical application however was towards the Part 111 element of the course. These were the parts of the College course other than Education and Main Course, and were usually interpreted by the students as "Curriculum courses", to give the "know-how" of teaching that particular subject in the classroom. As noted earlier the expression curriculum courses is directly avoided by the College itself as it fears too narrow an interpretation by students as "tips for teachers" (also see discussion on role and status socialisation below). That student expectation of these courses is that they should be specifically class-room orientated is clear from the interviews, as is the "practical"

yardstick by which the students measure them. Certain courses were very
heavily criticised for not fulfilling what were felt to be legitimate
expectations.

> "I went along thinking I'd learn how to teach # Well, I haven't.
> It was all about concepts" (6.2)

> "It was a range of speakers who were dead dull. Wasn't at all to
> do with school. I stopped going" (6.2)

> "If we don't learn how to teach here, where are we going to learn
> it?" (6.2)

> "We don't seem to learn about teaching in Main Course or in
> Education - well, a bit - and I don't seem to be learning much
> about it in the (auxiliary) course" (6.1)

> "They work on the assumption that the kids will be naturally
> interested. Try it at (local school - with poor reputation
> among students). What I want is a lot of things to do to keep
> them at it" (6.2)

> "I enjoyed the......course, but it was at my level, and it wasn't
> of help for school" (6.1)

Again, it is possible to produce quotations which speak highly of
the Part 111 courses (one, the Physical Education course, was consis-
tently praised as providing "lots of techniques" for school use). The
general tenor of opinions expressed by the interview sample is very much
as represented by those given. As the course progressed the comments
grew more and more frank and the accusation of "being out of touch" was
increasingly levelled during interviews at a number of the college
staff.

Many of the students' comments may seem naive and to be based on
unrealistic expectations or too mechanical a view of teaching. Nonethe-
less they do fairly represent the consensus of view among the students.
The students do expect that College is going to initiate them into
certain skills and techniques which will very directly and immediately
aid them in the classroom. When these expectations are not fulfilled,
and when the students are brought up against their lack of expertise

(as they often were on school practice), then they experience resentment, frustrations, anger and a general sense of being "let down". In this context it is claimed that they develop their academic/practical perspective by which they will order their priorities for work demands from tutors. They are most vitally concerned with the "practical", as this is what will assist them through the next trying experience of school practice. Everything the college course offers them is held up to this touchstone, if it does not measure up to the rigorous demand of classroom relevance it became defined as "academic". As such, it still has its value, but the value can be either purely instrumental in terms of passing the certificate course, or of long term value to the individual without any immediate practical relevance.

This dichotomous perspective may seem harsh in its application and regrettably narrow in its judgement of a course of professional preparation. The investigator considers that there is excellent evidence that it exists,[1] but also considers it evidence of the fact that students (indeed all humans) can operate on the basis of opposing perspectives by recognising the appropriateness of their application in different situations, or by allocating them to different time scales. The students in this sample recognised the limited nature of their claims upon the college staff. They acknowledged the difficulty or impossibility of "getting on the inside of a subject" in a term or two. They were prompt to acknowledge what they felt to be their own shortcomings, and showed clearly that they thought teachers should be "fully educated people" (9.1)

[1] The James Report, The Education and Training of Teachers (Department of Education and Science, 1972) has suggested a somewhat similar evaluation by students of "theory courses" in Colleges of Education. Robinson (1971) provides comparable examples.

having access to and understanding of many areas of human experience
which would seem to have little direct relevance to the classroom. None-
theless they could simultaneously maintain an academic/practical perspec-
tive on the content of their course together with this wider recognition
of the need for an educated profession (or rather, for "educated
teachers", as the concept of the profession appeared very little developed
during the course). Merton has pointed to similar conflicting elements
in the professional socialisation of student-doctors:

> "....medical education can be conceived as facing the task of
> enabling students to learn how to blend incompatible or potentially
> incompatible norms into a functionally consistent whole"
> (Merton, 1957, p.70)

It is felt that the apparent paradox arises from the situation in
which they find themselves. On the one hand they feel they have to
give an excellent account of themselves on school practices, and on the
other they are exposed to a course of Higher Education which the College
conceives as genuinely liberal rather than narrowly vocational. The
students feel, and admit to the feeling, pulled by the apparently conflic-
ting demands of the course: to be good class teachers and also to
demonstrate a concern for rationality and a search for reasons which
characterises higher education. They can produce, as do the tutors,
good explanations as to the fact that the two demands do not conflict,
that an "educated teacher" will be a "better teacher". But the pressures,
strains and demands of the practical teaching situation during the three
years, with the inbuilt factor of supervision and assessment makes it
difficult for them to keep this synthesis to the fore. They therefore
adopt the academic/practical perspective as, it is claimed, a short term
expedient which will see them safely through college. As such it informs
other perspectives students develop, and some which flow from this basic

perspective are now examined.

College/School perspective - a guide to behaviour

Closely related to the academic/practical perspective is one which may be called college/school. This relates to appropriate behaviour - mainly centring around the questions "What shall I say? How shall I act?" (Becker, 1961) particularly when tutors are present in discussion situations or when with children. It is claimed that this perspective also develops early in the course, mainly as a result of practical teaching experience. The students increasingly differentiated between what they claimed "goes in college" and what "goes in school". At one level, that of dress and appearance, it was fairly easy to visually discern the perspective being applied. Periods of school practice would produce a general "toning down" (third year student) of appearance. The jeans and sweaters, kaftans, blankets of everyday College wear would give way to more restrained and conventional dress. Although there is now more latitude in schools allowed for teacher appearance, there are still strong controls operating in many schools to ensure what is thought to be a suitable appearance. During the three years, five of the sample reported having pressure brought to bear on them in some way about their appearance in school. None reported similar pressure in College and it appears to the investigator that there are no overt constraints on appearance in College and very few covert controls. However no school practice took place without the question of appearance being raised by at least one school.

It is however, at the level of expression of opinion and behaviour that the perspective is of much more importance and raises questions about the validity of the RDI findings, or, indeed, any paper and

pencil tests of attitude undertaken with College of Education students.
It has already been recorded in this study that throughout the course
the students paid tribute to what they saw as the warm and friendly
atmosphere of the college, and claimed that independence and individua-
lity were generally encouraged. The findings from the College Charac-
teristics Index seem to confirm this. The dimension "Concern for
Individuality" records the highest score of all ten dimensions, and
there was strong agreement that the expression of strong personal
belief or conviction is quite acceptable in the College. The findings
of the interview sample raise questions about the validity of this
viewpoint however, for in the second and third year particularly,
students claimed to exercise their judgement considerably in order to
avoid clashing with College staff or School staff on what they felt to
be controversial issues. The College/School perspective can be repres-
ented as a search for consensus within the particular context of the
two separate institutions. Thus, the students claimed that in discussion
with college tutors they would deliberately avoid "exposing" themselves
on issues on which they knew, or felt they knew, that tutors had strong
and opposing opinions. The same principle would be applied in school
practice with teachers where the perspective of "safety and survival"
tended to dictate behaviour to ensure that direct confrontations with
teachers, which could result in possible failure, were avoided.

The "College" perspective tended to differentiate between what
could be said in written work, in formal discussion groups, what could
be said to an individual tutor, and what could be said in a peer
group. There was claimed to be an increase in frankness in each of the
four situations. The considerations which operated to develop and
control this perspective were those of sanctions and personal relation-
ships. In the interview students' discussions the prospect of failure

on the course was a fairly constant preoccupation, it certainly appeared
to form a background to their thoughts, even those who were clearly
"good". This fear of failure appears to account for much of the students'
claim to cautious behaviour. Tutors were seen as being the final
arbiters of passing or failing - both on the theory part of the course
and the practical teaching. Therefore, the perspective dictated, little
must be done to arouse the anger or dislike of tutors, even although
they might be seen as fairminded. They were considered to hold very
real power in terms of denying access to the certificate - the licence
to teach. A large part of the tutor's judgement would be on the basis
of written work and here it was safer to reproduce what were regarded as
conventional views rather than to jeopardize one's chances:

"What's the point of sticking your neck out?" (Third Year student)

This, it was claimed was fairly easy to do in conventional type
essays or in the special studies undertaken in education. The students
claimed that the "College viewpoint" was fairly clear and that students
reproducing that viewpoint or at least, working within its framework,
would meet with approval. This general viewpoint (Chapter 5) was
characterised as "progressive" "liberal" "permissive", necessitating
"following the interests of the child", "child-centredness", "concen-
trating on good relationships, everything else will follow" (all third
year expressions, 9.1). In terms of specific educational practices this
meant approval for the open classroom, the integrated day, non streaming,
vertical or family grouping, no corporal punishment, child interests as
the basis for the curriculum, the non-authoritarian teacher, strong
warm emotional relationships, and strong links with the local community.

Students argued that whatever their real feelings about the general
philosophy or the specific practices, they knew that during their time

in college, they should not be seen to disapprove strongly. If possible
they should be seen as embracing the ideas and practices. Critical
appraisal would certainly be asked for by the staff, but the interview
students felt that such appraisal should always come down on the side of
the advantages flowing from the practices, rather than their disadvantages.
Thus the College perspective is somewhat akin to Shipman's (1966) claim
for "impression management" among students. Education written work was
felt to be most "public" in that it most directly counted for assessment
and that strong views expressed in it would be difficult to qualify.
The interview students claimed that it was possible to write on issues
which might be controversial having regard for certain "ground rules" -
these being the perceived values of the College and the concern to
become certificated.

Similarly, in group discussions the same considerations applied. The
use of assessment procedures by the College, it is claimed, probably
added to the use of the college perspective to guide behaviour. In the
second and third years students increasingly claimed that they felt they
were being assessed in their groups, in terms of their contributions to
those groups. They saw their position as doubly exposed for they were
subject to assessment by their tutor on the one side and to the criticism
of their peers on the other. It was felt "safe" not to get too deeply
involved in an argument as it "might be taken the wrong way" by a tutor,
or might be subject to the scoffing and ridicule of one's peers. Thus,
again a "safe" line was adopted which for some students issued in action
as little or no contribution to discussion for three years (one third
year student - not in the interview sample - claimed to the investigator
that she had spoken only twice in an Education group during her whole
time in College). For some students it meant qualifying strongly held
views if it was felt these were not in line with the tutors. For other

students it meant "agreement with the general line" (third year student) using only those views which were felt would gain approval.

There appears in this College perspective to be an element of deceit or hypocrisy about which two points must be made. First, some students claimed to be well aware of this, arguing they they expressed their own view in Education groups fully and frankly, but that other students, known to disagree strongly with tutors, never let this disagreement emerge. When interview students were probed on particular issues (corporal punishment, streaming, parental visiting were most frequently used), it was found that the students would admit to some qualification of opinions they had expressed in group discussion. Thus, students fairly quickly picked up what they saw as counting for approval in college and used this knowledge in their interaction with tutors.

Second, the interview students tended to assert that "to a large extent" (9.1) the college values did in fact reflect their own theoretical positions; it was only in difficulties of practical implementation that differences arose.

In individual tutorials, the students argued that much depended on "the quality of the relationship with the tutor", and "how well you know him or her" (8.1). It was generally easier, students claimed, to be more frank in a face-to-face discussion with a tutor than in a group, but much depended on who the tutor was and how far he could be relied on to honour confidence and to be objective in his judgement. As the interviews progressed students increasingly cited members of staff by name with whom they felt they could or could not be frank. There obviously existed in the student body a popular classification handed down from year to year, about the "trustworthiness" of each tutor.

The impression gained by the investigator however was that only in the student group, without tutors present, would the frankest exchange of opinion take place, and even here social factors would constrain full

freedom of expression. This was because individual students held no power over each other in terms of success or failure on the course. There was a feeling of "being in the same boat" (8.2) facing common difficulties which drew the students together, and in the solidarity of the coffee group allowed for open expression of views. This statement requires qualification however, for interview students acknowledged that it was often best to "take the easy line" in the peer group, by "just joining in a condemnation of the College view" (9.1) in general terms and not being prepared to probe in detail the assumptions or arguments of a particular issue. As the section on student subculture shows, detailed analytic discussion of specific educational practices were not a feature of student peer groups; the norm was to eschew this type of debate.

The discussion of the College perspective inevitably raises questions concerning the validity of the interviews themselves. If interview students argued that it was not possible to be fully open with a tutor, what is the consequence of this admission for the investigator's sessions with them? The investigator was for the first two years a College tutor and thus stood in at least a triple relationship to them: instructor, judge and researcher. The question arises as to how much reliance can be placed upon the students accounts as, by their own admission, they claim to detect the "College line" or an individual tutor's "line" and give him what they think he wants to hear or see. The investigator, as made clear earlier, is much aware of this difficulty and recognises it as a criticism of the interview technique. There was a conscious attempt to avoid it be prefacing each interview with the statement that it was in confidence, in no way connected with the course, for the purpose of research only, and that nothing said would jeopardize the students college career. Nonetheless, if this thesis

is concerned to argue for the existence of a "College perspective" it must recognise that it can have consequences for the study itself.

The evidence from the RDI and from school practice can however be used as some support for the frankness and objectivity of the interviews. The early increase recorded in RDI scores is interpreted as a general move towards the "college view", but the effect of school practice is such as to severely shake the college/school perspective and to result in genuine expression of less open views on teacher's role. This makes for a reduction in RDI scores when the instrument is administered immediately at the end of school practice (Chapter 7). Further, the investigator claims that his training gives him an awareness and sensitivity to the genuineness of response and feels that this genuineness characterised the interviews - particularly as the sample progressed through the course. Obviously much depends on the investigator's quality of judgement and his success in conveying to the students his impartiality and "trustworthiness". It is this claim to an awareness of the problem which helps to sensitise any researcher, but it would be wrong not to admit that there is a real problem of validity of perception and interpretation. This section of the investigation is necessarily somewhat impressionistic, but the evidence from other chapters offers support. In any study of professional socialisation a variety of methods must be used and one of these should be a more intuitively based, impressionistic enquiry, but its contribution to the whole will be eventually judged in terms of how it supplements, supports, confirms or synthesises with the evidence from other methods. The existence of a theoretical framework in which to work helps, it is claimed, to give accuracy to the impressions and intuitions.

The "school perspective" is essentially of the same quality as the college perspective. It guides the student towards behaving and speaking

appropriately in school. Here, two major constraints are operating: first, what the student feels her tutor expects of the practice and how he will judge success; and second, what are felt to be the demands of the school. The tutor expectations are translated into action by grouping children within the class for work on topics or themes, a playing down of a "subject" approach, the need to be seen as friendly and warm in interaction with children, maximum use of wall and window space for colourful eyecatching display, individual and group work rather than classwork, and a neat, voluminous file. For the school it generally means a much more sceptical attitude towards these practices.

Thus, when the student is visited by her tutor she is concerned to be seen teaching "in the college way" (8.3) Interview students said that they quite consciously accepted this - some expressing that this was the syle of teaching they favoured anyway, but the majority claiming that their personal preference was for a modification (in two cases a drastic alteration) of the approach. The school perspective for the final three practices then very much became "try to ensure that the college tutor sees what he wants to see" (9.1)

For the school itself however, students were often faced with the problem of coping with adverse criticism of the "College view" in the staffroom and in their own experience in the classroom, in close contact with their class teacher. The perspective adopted in such cases was reported as one of open or tacit disagreement with the College method, using the argument that "we have to do it in this way, because we are expected to by the College". Quite often of course, there was a good deal of agreement between the college and school prescriptions for practice, but there seems little doubt that a stereotype exists in the minds of many teachers of the inadequacy of college preparation and the ill-advisedness and "out of touchness" of its educational prescriptions.

Certainly this critical attitude was much reported by students. The investigation of this stereotype is not the subject of this study although its roots are felt to lie in the nature of the social relationship with tutors remembered by the teacher of his student days, and in the ambiguities and uncertainties which the teacher feels characterise the current teacher-tutor relationship.

For the student, the school perspective is based on the discovery that what counts as valid procedures in school are not necessarily those which count as valid prescriptions by college. She feels she must therefore deprecate, or keep silent on college prescriptions, and approve or keep silent on school prescriptions. This would appear to be the formula for a good deal of felt conflict within the student which could be dysfunctional in her performance of the task. What is claimed however is that with the exception of a minority of students, most maintain the college/school perspective as a device to enable them to operate successfully in both environments. The students' major problem is in satisfying simultaneously the conflicting demands of school and college. This she can do by the device of explaining her actions in the classroom in terms of either perspective to the two parties involved:

> "To her class teacher: "The college expects me to do a project/ teach them in groups" etc.

> To her tutor: "The school expects me to teach them as a class/ start more firmly than I intend to go on" etc.

These explanations, together with an indication that she recognises the unsatisfactoriness of the methods she is compelled to undertake, will serve to see her successfully through the practice to the satisfaction of both College and School. The division between thought and action becomes apparent again, but here this very dichotomy is used as a

facilitating device to ensure that the course is successfully completed.

Thus, the College/School perspective could be used to explain the RDI score increases registered in the first year and those shifts towards liberality noted in the review of the literature in Chapter 2. It can further be used to explain the falling off in scores recorded by many studies after a period of full-time teaching not a real regression, but a more frank response to the questionnaires. Completion of questionnaires in a college context may be regarded by students as an extension of the college course calling for similar responses.

The perspective develops, it is argued, as a result of school practice and from interaction with college peers. It was commented on particularly after the first long school practice - the Suffolk practice in Term 3. Here, the students were exposed for the first time in their course to an extended period of close contact with teachers, and with relative insulation from tutors. The four weeks of the practice were not only spent in schools but much of the students' spare time was spent with the teachers if they were resident in the villages. It was found that the comments on the differences between college and school prescriptions were made strongly after the first school practice, but it was during and after this second practice that the comments became markedly uniform, with even students in highly favourable situations concerned to point to the difference in college and school knowledge.

The sequence it is suggested the development of the perspective takes is that a College perspective tends to characterise the first term - or even the first two terms. Here, the "view" of college is accepted uncritically, or judgement is suspended, or the student feels that her own and her peers doubts are unjustified. But with the impact of the sustained interaction with teachers from a substantial period

of school experience, the dichotomous perspective emerges and student behaviour in school and college is largely governed by it, and it is sustained by the sanctions which tutors and teachers are felt able to exercise over the students.

(3)   The Teaching Practice Perspective

Certain interviews (2.1; 3.1; 5.1; 711) were spent almost exclusively in probing the students' perception of and attitude towards school practice. Almost no interview passed without some aspect of teaching practice being mentioned. A major finding from the study is suggested to be the enormous importance which students attribute to the practices and the part they therefore play in structuring students' perspectives on the course and teaching. Most see them as a "series of hurdles which have to be got over" (third year student, 9.1). They certainly represent times of considerable stress for the students and stand out as major landmarks in the students' view of the whole course.

A wide range of reported enjoyment of school practice was found: eight out of seventeen third year students in the sample reported enjoying the four practices. Upon further investigation this reported enjoyment took on something of a Curate's egg character - good in parts. "Enjoyment" was not found a fruitful concept to pursue and helped little in understanding what actually happened on the practice. The most profitable line of investigation was thought to be the degree of diffi-culty which students reported experiencing. There seemed to be a relationship between this and the tutors' assessment of the students' practice (Chapter 7). The work with the interview sample concentrated on attempting to uncover a tentative model which would suggest the development of student perspectives on school practice: the experience which students considered to be most vital part of their course.

It is argued that a sequence has been detected which can be described and identified as follows on the next page. The perspectives overlap but they develop in the order shown and represent guides for action on which students base their behaviour. They are related to the

Teaching Practice - the development of perspectives

The Service Perspective

First Practice Term 2

The Safety and Survival Perspective

Second Practice Term 3

Third Practice Term 5

Final Practice Term 7

The Independent Perspective
(for some students)

Entry to full-time teaching

Academic/Practical and the School/College perspectives being particularly concerned with the practical and school orientations of these perspectives.

The initial perspective, "Service", is characterised by idealism and an attempt to put into practice with a small group of children on the first practice, or with a class on the second, what is seen as the "College view" of teaching reported above in the discussion of the Academic/Practical perspective and in Chapter 5. The result for students interviewed is that:

"It doesn't work - or at least, for me it doesn't" (5.1)

"I'm not ready to do it. You can only do it when you are an experienced teacher - when you've got control" (5.1)

Interview 2.1 concentrated on the first school practice, Group Study. Irrespective of the schools in which they had undertaken the practice, or the tutors who had supervised them, there was very strong consensus of feeling in the students evaluation of the practice. The findings from the interviews given below conveys the students' impressions. Eighteen students were interviewed.

Question 1 Did you enjoy the practice?

a) Twelve students reported a mixture of feeling - some parts were enjoyable, some parts were not.
b) Two reported enjoying the practice.
c) Four reported definitely not enjoying the practice.

Question 2 Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected and what happened?

a) Fifteen reported   that the children were much more difficult

than they anticipated (both in terms of control and of sustained interest)

b) Fourteen reported experiencing difficulty in keeping children occupied throughout the practice.

c) Eleven reported being surprised at lack of direct help from staff.

Question 3   What were your impressions of the children in your group?

a) All reported liking the children in their groups.

b) Fifteen referred to finding them much more difficult to control and teach than anticipated (Probing revealed that this tended to mean that one or two children out of five or six gave the student discipline problems).

c) Thirteen students reported on the apparent influence of parents, neighbourhood or mass media in inhibiting learning and motivation.

Question 4   How much preparation did you do for this practice?

a) Fourteen reported doing a good deal of preparation before the practice.

b) Ten reported that the practice was so tiring that they found it increasingly difficult to prepare as they felt they should.

c) Six reported doing virtually no preparation over the weekend of the two week practice because of feelings of tiredness and a desire to get away from all thoughts of school.

Question 5   Can you describe what you think you learned about teaching during this practice?

a) Fourteen reported on how physically and mentally exhausting they found it - stressing the fact that "real teaching" would not be like the practice as they could pace themselves much better.

b) Twelve stressed the need for discipline, control or social distance (The expression "I was really too friendly and they tended to take advantage" characterised these replies).

c) Seventeen reported feeling unprepared for teaching and stressed their personal need to acquire skills and knowledge to use in the classroom.

d) Thirteen reported learning little from college tutors of direct relevance to the classroom.

e) All students reported learning comparatively little from other students, but stressed they gained emotional support from them.

f) Nine students reported learning from teachers in the school, but nearly all reported having fairly limited contact with school staff on the practice.

Question 6   How much contact did you have with Tutors during the practice?

All students reported regular discussion meetings with some tutors during the practice, but fifteen reported that contact with tutors in the classroom was less than expected.

Question 7 How do other students feel about Group Study?

a) Seventeen reported that most students felt that practice had been a stressful period.
b) Eleven reported student dissatisfaction with help given by college tutors.
c) Twelve reported some feeling of disillusionment among students (expressed in terms of the need for more discipline/control than had been thought).

Question 8 Did you miss any part of the practice?

Eight students (44 per cent) reported missing some part of the practice. A variety of reasons were suggested voluntarily by students but were not probed by the investigator.

Thus, the view of this first school practice, as reported in the Academic/Practical perspective above, is seen to be of crucial importance in the teacher role-learning of students. Its impact was such as to ensure some redefinition of the students' perspective on practice teaching, moving away from idealism to a harder, safety first view of school experience in college. It is a perspective concerned with surviving the practice rather more than with treating it as a progressive step to acquiring professional competence.

The idea of going into the classroom as the servant of the children, someone who will gently guide and help them to learn, a friend and a confidante, becomes severely attenuated by this experience of the first school practice. The impression is confirmed and strengthened with subsequent practices. Meeting children and teachers, together with the "reality shock" (Whiteside, 1969) of the classroom brings home to students the difficulties the great majority of them will experience on future practices. For all there is the seen hazard of assessment to be overcome. Tutors will visit the school to observe the student in action and will grade the student on what is seen and heard.

From experience then, the student generates a second perspective on school practice, which is "to survive and play safe" (5.1). This

perspective is applied particularly to the second year practice taking place in schools in South and East London. Survival means getting through without excessive emotional upset and to the satisfaction of the tutors and teachers. It therefore implies "learning the rules of the game" (5.1), by which tutors and teacher are thought to operate. This expression is a conscious formulation of what most students appeared to do intuitively. The preferences of College and of individual tutors are felt to be fairly well known, and there is a large body of student folk-lore upon which to draw both for general guidance and for specific details of what individual tutors preferred. Schools are more of an unknown quantity, but the serial nature of the socialisation process (Wheeler, 1966) ensured that there was always in college a cohort of students who had had experience of the schools and whose knowledge could be tapped about heads, individual teachers and, in some cases, classes. As the Final School practice in term seven took place in the same group of schools, similar considerations also applied in this practice.

Thus, the students entered schools for their third and final practices in terms five and seven with a good deal of knowledge to guide their behaviour. "Safety" meant fulfilling significant others' expectations - giving both tutors and teachers what students felt they wanted - and not attempting something which it was known would incur displeasure. As was seen in a discussion of the School/College perspective, students could to some extent play off tutors and teachers against each other by pointing out the different expectations to which they (the students) were exposed. An acknowledgement of the legitimacy of each party's expectations and an attempt to show that the student was conforming to their safety and survival process, and students

reported a large variety of devices to neutralise criticism and to

fulfill such expectations:

Tutors:

"She came in at a terrible moment, so I took her to a group
and said she had to help them" (3.1)

"I asked if I could come to see him after school as I had
problems. The thing to do is to admit to problems and ask
for help. Most students don't like doing it" (5.1)

"I covered the place, floor to ceiling with their (the children's)
work. Whatever it was. This is a lot of what you're judged on"
(5.1)

"I hated my file but I knew he always asked for it, so I really
did a good one" (5.1)

"I said she'd (the tutor) come to listen to the story. They
(the children) behaved marvellously" (7.1)

"Mrs. T (class teacher) didn't want me to rearrange the desks,
so I couldn't could I? This is what I told Mr.Y (tutor) and
he went to see her" (7.1)

"Mrs. Q (teacher) already had a project going so it was difficult
to start one of my own. This was why it didn't go very well"
(School Practice file, second year)

"I seem to have spent all my time on this diplodocus (constructed
as a large mural of egg boxes, paint etc.). I don't seem to have
done much else. But this kept them busy and anyway it looked
tremendous. Mr. X (Tutor) thought it was great" (5.1)

Teachers:

"I told her college said[1] I had to do a project. (5.1)

"He (the teacher) was so fierce with the children. I didn't dare
relax because I knew they would take it out on me. I had to be
stern until almost the end of the practice" (5.1)

"I said I had to get them going on measuring things like the hall
and classroom. We had to do lots of graphs and things. College
expects it" (5.1)

[1] As far as the investigator knows - from a six year experience as a
College Tutor - the College does not insist upon a project being
undertaken on a school practice. But as Chapter 5 makes clear,
students can be forgiven for gaining the impression that certain
procedures are standard and desirable.

"I've just got to take them as Mrs. R (teacher) does. College
says we have to fit in and thats what I'm doing. It would
create a terrible fuss to try to start altering things" (3.1)

"Mrs. S (teacher) is so critical of college. I just kept quiet
and got on with it" (8.1)

The perspective appeared to issue in action in the classroom in
students attempting to maintain greater social distance between
themselves and children than in their first practice. Further, there
was a concern to ensure the children were constantly occupied in
order to minimise (as seen by the student) problems of control. The
age of children was a factor which apparently qualified the applica-
tion of the perspective as students reported they felt they could
relax more with younger children, but this appeared to apply to very
young children only - generally the reception classes of infant
schools. The development of the safety and survival perspective is
illustrated by interview students' replies to a similar set of ques-
tions after the second and third practices. Eighteen students inter-
viewed in each case.

Second Practice (Suffolk) Interview 3.1.

Question 1. Did you enjoy the Suffolk teaching practice?

a) Twelve reported enjoying the practice. Upon probing much of the
   satisfaction derived as much from non-school as school experiences.
b) Only one student reported definitely not enjoying it.
c) Five reported a mixture of feeling.
d) Twelve students reported that they were much concerned about the
   possibility of failing the practice.

Question 2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you
expected and what you found?

a) Nine students reported finding children less difficult than they
   expected.
b) Eight reported they were surprised that they enjoyed the practice(!)

Question 3. What were the children (and teacher) like in your class?

a) Fourteen students commented on the difference between their
   London experience and their Suffolk experience. The Suffolk
   children were seen as rather easier to control, but still often
   presenting quite formidable problems.

b) Thirteen students reported getting on well with their teacher and adapting to their methods of teaching.

Question 4. What did the school seem to think that College should be doing to prepare you for the practice and to help you during the practice?

a) Fourteen students reported "quite strong" criticism of college preparation.
b) Fourteen reported "quite strong" criticism of help given on the practice.
c) Class teachers were reported as far more critical of College assistance than Heads.
d) All students reported that teachers expected College to provide specific instruction in skills and techniques of teaching. In primary schools it appeared that all teachers expected students to enter with a fund of college provided ideas and approaches.

Question 5. How often were you visited by a tutor?

a) Sixteen reported an average of a visit each week.
b) Tutors' reported time in classroom varied from "two minutes" to "a whole morning". Twenty to forty minutes appeared typical.
c) Eight students reported getting "direct help" from tutors (but four qualified this by claiming it was not really enough or specific to the problem in hand).
d) Six students reported getting "no real help" from tutors on the practice.
e) Thirteen students reported that they were glad to see the tutors but felt they could have been helped more.
f) Eleven students reported some feeling of apprehension of anxiety in connection with the tutor's visit.

Question 6. What do you think you learnt about teaching?

a) Fifteen students reported learning a good deal from their classroom teachers. (Three of these reported learning in a negative way - "how not to do it").
b) Eight reported learning from tutors (See 5c above).
c) Nine reported that they were "harder" towards children on this practice than on the first practice (This was stated in a number of ways, mainly making the contrast with Group Study, stressing the need for firmness, directness, narrowing of choices and "keeping a little remote").

Question 7. How do other students feel about the Suffolk Practice?

a) Fifteen students felt that students generally agreed it was rather easier than the first London practice.
b) Eight reported that students enjoyed the practice.
c) Nine reported that much satisfaction derived from the non-school factors associated with the practice (village-living, summer, evening and weekend social trips).

Question 8. Are there differences between the London and Suffolk Practices?

a) See 7a above
b) See 3a above
c) Eleven reported finding major difficulty in handling a class for the first time.
d) Nine felt they had done well on the practice (better than on the London practice).
e) Ten felt they had no indication from College as to how they had done on either the London or Suffolk practices.

Question 11. Did you miss any part of the practice?

Twelve students (sixty-six per cent) reported missing some part of the practice. (The interpretation of this finding is complicated by the fact that students were permitted by college to take the odd day during school time to visit places of interest).

It is felt that in the replies it is still possible to detect some of the idealism which characterised the students' approach to the first school practice. This is probably attributable to the undoubtedly more favourable conditions in which the school practice is undertaken. However, the pattern of responses to the second year practice in Term 5 shows that the Safety and Survival perspective characterises the students' views.

Second Year Practice. Interview 5.1.

Question 1.

a) Thirteen reported mainly not enjoying the practice.
b) Two reported enjoyment.
c) Three had no strong feelings either way.
d) Anxieties were reported on two major counts: the problems of discipline and the possibility of failure.

Question 2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected and what you found?

a) Fourteen students reported that the practice was more difficult than they expected. Most had expected problems with the practice but these proved rather more than expected.
b) Much stress was laid on the control problems of individual children.
c) Nine students compared the practice with Suffolk, stressing the comparative ease of the country practice.
d) Six students reported having to do less imaginative and adventurous work than they wished to do - because of difficulties with children.

Question 3 How often were you visited by a tutor?

a) The range of reported visits ranged from four in one week to two only over the whole four week practice. Generally students were visited about four of five times during the practice: once or twice by an Education Tutor, the remainder by a School Tutor.

b) There was much criticism of the role of tutors. Again, lack of specific classroom oriented advice was often cited. Nine students reported little direct help from college, nearly all students (16) felt they could have had much more help.

c) Tutors' reported visits ranged from ten minutes to about an hour. Typically, about half an hour appeared to be the length of time spent by tutors in the classroom.

Question 4. What was the attitude of school towards you and towards College?

a) Seven students reported being made welcome by their schools.

b) Six reported feeling that their School did not really welcome them.

c) Twelve students reported a strongly critical attitude towards college existing in their schools. Criticism emerged as lack of preparation and lack of appreciation of the practical problems of the classroom on the part of the College.

d) Fourteen students reported school taking a "harder line" towards children than college apparently did. There was, in school, a critical attitude towards what were seen as unrealistic prescriptions based on lack of understanding of the nature of children's motivations.

Question 5. Did your Head/Class teacher criticise the college during the practice?

See 4c above.

Question 6. What have you learned on this practice?

a) Sixteen students stressed the value of firmness, organisation, restriction of choice in interaction with children. Contrasts were often made with the Group Study and Suffolk practices and in the investigator's view the problems of discipline and control of children were uppermost in the minds of all interview students. It was in this interview that the Safety and Survival perspective emerged most clearly with these sixteen out of eighteen students stressing the need to ensure that in order to pass the practice and to satisfy the demands of both school and college, it was very necessary to restrict children's behaviour in the classroom.

b) Eleven students reported significant learning from teachers, particularly in the area of skills and techniques.

c) Six students reported significant learning from tutors.

d) One student reported significant learning from other students (On probing, this was found to be help in art and craft work).

Question 7. Have any of your attitudes changed as a result of the practice?

a) Nine students reported that they saw themselves as having become less

child-centred and more teacher-centred, particularly over the issues of punishment and streaming.
b) Six students reported their views on corporal punishment had hardened as a result of the practice (A typical response was "I still don't believe in it, but I just don't see how to avoid it all the time - especially if the teacher does it").

Question 8. Who was the major source of help to you on the practice?

a) Eleven students reported that class teachers were of most help, particularly over how to deal with individual children and how to teach particular topics.
b) Two students reported tutors as major help.
c) Five students could not identify one major source of help.

Question 13. How many days of the practice were you not in School?

Ten students(55 per cent) reported missing some part of the practice.

The survival and safety perspective played a large part in all school practices following Group Study. It must be understood that this is a perspective suggested by the investigator as an explaining device for behaviour. It would be wrong to assume that students used it to consciously manipulate tutors and teachers as the selection of quotations may suggest. However, there is little doubt that students did view the practices as major obstacles to be negotiated. If practices were enjoyed this would be for most students an unlooked for bonus. Certainly students enjoyed being with children; this was, as has been shown earlier, a major part of their motivation for coming to college. But the nature of this liking for children underwent something of a change as a result of school practice, for not only could tutors or teachers stand in the way of certification, so also could the children. For one third year student it took an extreme form: "it was me or them" (Fortunately they both survived with little apparent harm).

This viewing of the teaching practices as obstacles to be overcome to ensure certification led then to the formulation of the "safety and survival perspective". There was, it is felt, no real element of deceit, but students did report attempting to ensure that their behaviour

would "fit" with what they thought expected of them by school and college, and they were very concerned to maintain order among the children both for better learning and to ensure successful completion of the practice. A good deal of what was reported done in the classroom was suggested as being done as a result of felt expectations from school or college, rather than from personal conviction. The picture emerged of many students not really knowing what they were doing, but attempting to fulfil what they understood to be the prescriptions of school or college. At the same time students attempted to ensure that the classroom situation did not get out of control by "playing safe" in the demands they made on the children, a process which meant in practice, following the class teacher's methods and procedures, but having some regard to known college requirements.

Out of this, it is suggested, grew for a number of students (but not it is felt, for the majority) an "independent perspective" on school practice. This independent perspective represented increasing confidence arising from greater knowledge of children and a growing repertoire of teaching techniques. Third year students, although reporting on the "traumatic effect" of final school practice, also tended to show far greater faith in their own judgement and showed many more signs than had been evident in the second year practice of questioning openly the demands which were made on them. In some ways it can be construed as a more realistic redefinition of the earlier "service" perspective, because students were now less determined to "play safe" by obeying the "rules". They were still greatly pre-occupied by the threat of failure, particularly at this crucial point of final school practice, but there were indications that more signs of the "professional" teacher were emerging in the students' greater autonomy in selecting method for

herself. This process was by no means felt to be complete and the characteristic attitude of outgoing third year students was to admit how little they felt they knew. Nonetheless, there was in the investigator's judgement, a genuine shift for a number of students during the third year practice away from the "survival and safety" perspective towards a more autonomous position where the student felt guided more by a set of rationally derived principles than by the often irrational appearing and conflicting demands of school and college. This is interpreted as a move towards a more genuinely professional position. The investigator's judgement however is that only five or six of the interview sample, and a similar thirty percent of all students probably had developed such a perspective.

For most students the safety and survival perspective continued to characterise the third year practice. Responses to certain questions in interview 7.1 demonstrate this.

Question 1. Are you enjoying school practice?

a) Eleven students reported that on the whole they were not.
   Reasons centred around difficulties of discipline and control
   and the length of the practice.
b) Three students reported they were enjoying it.

Question 2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected
and what you found?

   Thirteen students stressed few or no differences between expectations
   and reality. Their expectations related to the difficulties of the
   practice - these they generally found to be fulfilled.

Question 5. What do you think you have learned about teaching?

a) Eleven of the students appeared to be firmly operating on the
   safety and survival perspective as their replies stressed the need
   for caution, following teachers' methods and prescriptions with
   little need to "put on show" for College, the importance of surviv-
   ing from one day to the next, the lack of future planning, and a
   reliance on traditional authority to ensure work was done.

b) Twelve students reported teachers as significant sources of learning for classroom procedures.

c) Five students reported feeling they could now be much more relaxed in the classroom, but all five reported that this feeling decreased towards the end of the practice due to the length of the practice and the felt pressure of assessment.

Question 8. Have any of your attitudes towards teaching changed as a result of this practice?

a) Eleven students reported that their concern for control of children's behaviour had increased.

b) Four students reported an increase in favouring corporal punishment - but all acknowledged that in theory - they felt this to be wrong.

Question 9. Who is the major source of help to you on this practice?

a) Twelve students reported class teachers as most significant sources of help.

b) Three students reported tutors as most significant sources of help.

c) Five students (including 2 in (a) and 1 in (b) were concerned to stress that although they had received help, they felt they were now much more able to undertake school practice without sole regard for local circumstances - school or college).

Two further measures support the suggestion of movement towards a more independent perspective. Students were asked how easy they found it to think of themselves as teachers. The points at which the question was put and the resulting percentages are shown below:

Numbers: Terms 1 & 9 entire cohort. Other terms, interview sample.	Percentage of students having at least moderate confidence in seeing themselves as teachers.	Percentage of students finding it "difficult" or "very difficult"
Term 1 (n=126)	80	20
Term 2 (n=17) (First Practice)	76	24
Term 3 (n=18 (Second Practice)	72	28
Term 5 (n=18) (Third Practice)	66	34
Term 7 (n=17) (Final Practice)	82	18
Term 9 (n=105)	92	8

With the exception of the first and last term, all the "soundings"
were taken during or immediately after school practice. What is argued
is that they demonstrate the existence of the development of the three
posited dimensions of the perspective: confidence in the first term
giving way to uncertainty in the first three practices. The impression
gained from the interviews is that students see the need for manipulation
of teacher and tutor impressions and feel constrained to behave as they
feel these others wish on school practice. However, the final practice,
although strongly influenced by the safety and survival perspective
does appear to represent a movement towards a more confident and indepen-
dent position.

Second, when third year students were asked (Interview 9.1)to look
back over the course and to say which they felt to be the "most important"
practice, they unanimously chose the third year practice as of most
importance. The reasons given tended to fall into the pattern that it
was "less artificial" than other practices, being almost an entire term
long; that they felt more like members of the school staff than on
earlier practices (although three students felt they were treated by
schools less well than on earlier practices); that they learned more
about teaching; and that they felt more confidence than on earlier
practices.

Such discussion illustrates the over-simplicity of Marsland's (1970)
approach to the question of identity crystallisation. Such probing
cannot be undertaken by his method of analysing the responses to a single
item on a questionnaire. It is clear from this study that the majority
of students are able to visualise themselves as teachers before entering
college. The process of professional socialisation is such as to give
sharper focus to this identification, but also to expose the student to
experiences during her training which cause her to question her identifi-
cation and commitment. The outcome however appears to be stronger and
more general identification.

4. <u>Role expectations - views on punishment</u>

Changes in role expectations as measured by the Role Definition Instrument are analysed in detail in Chapter 6. With the interview sample however it was decided to investigate one particular aspect of teacher behaviour, that relating to corporal punishment. The findings illuminate the RDI result. Item 34 (A teacher should be allowed to use corporal punishment) produced a remarkably consistent group score on each of the four applications of the Instrument during the course, no significant differences being recorded between any year. The effect of final school practice was to depress the RDI item score considerably, a decline which was reversed on the final administration at the end of the third year. There was a considerable range of opinion among the cohort of students.

The interview sample confirms that a wide range of opinion exists but, more importantly, it demonstrates the difference between expressed attitude and practice which is not apparent in the RDI finding. The investigator recorded the corporal punishment scores of each member of the interview sample and had these available at each interview. There appeared to be quite a high level of consistency between the RDI response and the initial response to the interview question "Have you a particular attitude to corporal punishment?" Those who had recorded strongly disagreement with the RDI item again stated they were strongly against its practice, those who were "uncertain", again tended to state they were "not sure". Subsequent discussion and elaboration however revealed major qualifications to the stated position.

At the early interviews just over half the students generally took a strong line against corporal punishment, often recounting stories of their won experience in schools: it was a brutal and brutalising process; it did no good; the student felt she would be

unable to administer it - indeed would refuse to do so. Five students agreed with the practice, seeing it as "regrettable but necessary" (1.2) The effect of the three year course however appeared to be a general move towards acceptance of the inevitability of the practice, particularly for young children. The long discussions with interview students on this topic revealed the complexity of attitude which exist. What is claimed is that the interview sample experience demonstrated to the investigator that it is possible to hold two apparently conflicting opinions simultaneously, to recognise the paradox of this situation, but nonetheless to operate on the basis of both, using first one, then the other as justification for action. Thus students could argue it was "wrong in principle", and simultaneously argue that it was "necessary" or of "value". (6.2)

By the third year, all but one of the interview students, irrespective of their stated attitude towards the "rightness or wrongness" of corporal punishment, were saying that they would, under some circumstances, use it as a method of discipline and felt it justifiable. Much discussion centred upon what was corporal punishment and "how you see it" (8.2). A "quick slap" on the hand or legs of an infant or junior child who had been bullying another child was seen as "natural and necessary" and "hardly counting" as corporal punishment. The third year students particularly could marshall a battery of reasons in support of the practice.

> "We learn in the course that there are some things a youngster can't understand. Well, he can understand a slap. He connects it with what he's doing, sees that it's bad, and stops doing it". (8.2)

> "Tell me of a mother who doesn't use it. You've just got to". (8.2)

> "It may be rare, once in a thousand times, but you've got to be a saint to get through a year without doing it somehow". (8.2)

"It's natural, it's instinct. I know I should reason it out, but it seems quicker and I feel its more effective". (8.2)

"I came in the room and there he was poking at the jerbil with a stick. So I slapped him and said "How do you like it?" (7.1)

"The class teacher does it". (7.1)

"I was exasperated". (8.1)

"They expect it". (8.1)

"The parents use and expect it". (8.2)

On school practice the official rule of college (and presumably of all schools) is that students may not administer corporal punishment under any circumstances. In practice, many of them (fifteen out of eighteen) admit to having used it in some form in primary schools, but that it rarely comes to the attention of the College Tutors.

There are certain trends in the attitude to corporal punishment which may be detected from the findings of the interview sample. First there is a real difference (not revealed by the RDI finding) between its use in primary as against secondary schools. The RDI suggests that students do not differentiate between the use of this sanction at the two levels. The interview sample were unanimous in feeling it was, if used, more appropriate for younger children. The feeling was that older pupils were more amenable to reason, that it was more of an affront to their personal dignity as adolescents, and that the age gap between teacher and pupil was often such as to make it inappropriate. For younger pupils it was seen as "more natural" and students who argued that the practice was morally wrong would qualify this position by stating that it was a line of last resort which had to be used when reason failed.

Second, all students were very firmly against the ritualisation of corporal punishment. One student, consistently throughout her three years agreed strongly with the practice (in both primary and secondary schools) using a variety of arguments to justify her position.

This student however joined with the others in condemning what she
called "the public execution". If it were to be used as retribution
it should be swift and sharp, to be done as quickly as possible and
"in the heat". She recounted stories of public caning (of boys) she
had seen, or heard of, in her own school, and strongly condemned the
practice. This condemnation was the view of the entire sample. Thus,
at this level it is clear that for the sample, and, it is thought,
for the entire cohort, there was very strong disagreement with the
practice.

The third trend is that through the course the students came
to differentiate more and more finely between occasions when the
practice was justified and when it was not. In the early interviews
few attempts at classification of offences were adduced, but by the
third year a fairly consistent and clear pattern had emerged: that
it was never appropriate in instrumental aspects of the role - a pupil
should never be punished in this way for poor work. Where it was
considered appropriate was in the expressive aspect of the role - to
deter bad behaviour, to act as retribution for that behaviour or
(for one student) to positively teach good behaviour(!). For the
students, "anti-social behaviour" was increasingly used as the
appropriate occasion for punishment, particularly bullying or
unprovoked attacks on other pupils. Two students claimed its effect-
iveness as a control for temper tantrums (but not, on probing, as a
cure).

Fourthly, the control aspect was stressed. Fewer claims (only
the student mentioned earlier) were made as the course progressed for
its effectiveness as a cure for bad behaviour. It was viewed
instrumentally as a device for "ensuring he doesn't upset the others",
"for maintaining order", "as an ultimate deterrent" (8.2). At the

start of the course many claims were made for corporal punishment as a learning device, "It shows him that he's wrong", "it will teach him not to do it next time". "It does them good" (1.2). The effect of the College course seems to be to reduce these claims and to bring the students to the point where they see it (however rarely used) as a practical device for classroom control. Many could argue cogently against the practice, but would finish with the "inevitability" argument: "The practicalities of the classroom situation are such that you can hardly avoid using it now and again" (8.2).

Finally, the second and third year students were characterised by their increasing concern to clarify what was to be counted as corporal punishment. They saw it as a continuum extending from the nudge or shake or push as "an encouragement to hurry up" to the ritual use of the cane on the backside. Individual students would draw their own line as to what counted as corporal punishment where they thought appropriate and legitimate. Legitimation was accorded only to moral offences. Appropriateness was seen as direct contact by the teacher's hand without use of cane or ruler or other instrument and only on the hands or calves of younger children.

The interview sample then, reveals the complexity which is obscured by the RDI finding. Only one interview student was firmly against corporal punishment in any form whatsoever (8.2). All the others admitted to its use as a legitimate sanction in certain circumstances. The effect of college socialisation appears to be to move students away from an idealistic stance on this issue, being willing to apply the same principle in all cases, and towards a slightly more favourable view of the use of certain forms of corporal punishment in particular circumstances. This change, it is argued, stems largely from the experience gained during the students' period

of school practice. It would be unwise to interpret the shift as more towards a less radical position, but rather as an increasing awareness of the complexity of the dilemma central to a reconciliation of thought and action.

It is difficult to use the term "perspective" in this context, as it applies to one particular aspect of teacher behaviour and student expectation. Certainly teaching is a problematic situation and students do develop "co-ordinated views and plans of action" (Mead, 1938) to cope with it, but in respect of corporal punishment the "co-ordinated view" includes inconsistent elements which themselves form part of that view. The general conclusion from this small investigation is that when students finish their college course, they feel an apparently inevitable tension between what they feel to be correct and how they know they have acted and will act.

5. The view of the socialisation process

From the interview sample it can be suggested that staff and students are distinguished by different perspectives they hold on the process and the outputs of college professional socialisation. First, students increasingly tend to view their time in college as role socialisation, whilst staff view it as status socialisation. Second, staff hold a view of the socialisation output to teaching which sees the move to membership of the profession as colleague entry; students only partly share this view seeing it rather more as student entry. These two perspectives are now discussed as:-

      Perspectives on the process of socialisation   - role/status
                                   socialisation
      Perspectives on the outputs of that process   - minimal competence/
                                   complete teacher

Role/Status Socialisation

There appears to be a divergence of expectation between students and staff on the function of the college course. Interview students laid great stress on the fact that they were in college to become teachers and this for them mainly meant acquiring skills, techniques and knowledge which would be of very direct help to them in the classroom, particularly on school practices and in their first post. More and more the interview group reported that in their view Education and Part III courses should be to provide this expertise; an expectation which they considered largely unfulfilled. Main courses were seen for personal development, but even here there was quite a strong trend to expect that much of what they learned would be of fairly immediate classroom relevance. Thus, students saw themselves adapting the content of their main courses for use in school, and further showed that they had expectations that their main course studies would also include some examination of how to teach the subject.

This is interpreted by the investigator as the students' expectation that the college course should be concerned with role socialisation: a relatively limited training in method and content of practical applications. The College/School perspectives discussed above clearly implies this view of the socialisation process.

No formal interviews were held with staff, but as a tutor the investigator was closely involved in regular and intense formal and informal interaction with colleagues. It is suggested from these contacts, over a period of six years, that the staff view of the process is one of status socialisation (Bidwell, 1962). This expectation is much less narrowly defined, and much more concerned with non-classroom issues than that of the students. It acknowledges that the function of the college is to produce teachers, but this is interpreted far less

instrumentally than the student view. The **college** view of a **teacher**
(stressed in a number of Academic Board meetings but also expressed
as personal opinions by almost all members of staff to the
investigator) was that she should be "an educated person". Chapter 5
has demonstrated the stress of the college on broad, person-centred
objectives rather than any concentration on detailed analyses of
techniques which teachers required in the classroom. The assumption
which underlies this view of status socialisation was that a good
teacher would be one with a liberal education, who was "mature in
personality and judgment" (senior member of staff at Academic Board).
The College's function, given this expectation, was to concentrate
on the "higher education" aspects of teacher education.

Within the College there was a strong body of opinion against
what were described as "tips for teachers": specific courses to
train in particular skills of immediate classroom relevance. This,
it was felt, would be "narrowing", as students would be teaching
"merely mechanically", without understanding the principles which
underlay the practice. The expression "tips for teachers" tended to
be used pejoratively by staff, to imply an older, less liberal,
narrowly vocational approach to teacher education. Staff generally
made a clear distinction between "education" and "training", and there
is little doubt in the investigator's judgment that a very strong
consensus among college staff favoured "education" as an interpretation
of the college course, whilst the students were characterised by a
similarly strong consensus favouring "training". Thus, both students
and tutors agreed that the primary task of college was to produce
teachers, but this had different meanings for the two groups. In the
investigator's view however both tutors and students neglected,
because of their differing perspectives, the "professional" aspect of

teacher education: a concern to understand and analyse principles underlying practice, a hard critical examination of classroom practice using such criteria, and a willingness to use a knowledge of the technology of education to develop rational approaches to teaching.

The nature of the evidence to support the existence of these two socialisation expectations has, for the interview sample, been documented above, but it gains much support from a review of other published evidence relating to student and staff views of the purpose of the initial teacher preparation. The staff view is contained in the journal of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, Education for Teaching. In articles and editorials there is a consistent theme that teacher education is about much more than teaching "fundamental classroom skills". These skills "are only developed over time and the Colleges can play only a partial role" (Thompson, 1969). The student view stated at its strongest is to be found in The Future of Teacher Education (National Union of Teachers, 1969) a paper prepared by the National Young Teacher Advisory Council which makes a strong plea for role socialisation as described above. The two positions are set out clearly in Taylor (1969a).

Evidence from the interview sample confirms this student expectation of role socialisation. Teaching practices strongly reinforced the view as students generally felt ill-equipped to cope with the immediate demands of the classroom. In interviews 6.2 (q2) and 9.1 (q6) students were specifically asked "What changes would you make in the course". In every case a suggestion was made that more time should be given for "classroom preparation" with precise requests for courses on "how to teach reading"; "how to teach number"; how to organise a classroom"; "how to work in groups"; "how to run an integrated day"; "how to teach science" etc. The unanimity on

this point was complete. Further, when in interview 6.2 (q3) students were asked how much help the course had been to them so far as a preparation for teaching there were usually strong disclaimers that they had been "taught" anything about specific classroom skills. At the end of the course (Interview 9.1; q9) students were asked if they could detect a "college style" of teaching. The emphasis on informality and the value of relationships as valued characteristics of the course, were again emphasised by students, but in a majority of cases the point was made that although the college appeared to prescribe this particular style, it did very little to give detailed instruction of how to implement it and simultaneously effect learning.

A question to the entire cohort at the end of their third year asked the 105 students who answered it to estimate the value of the preparation they had received in college to help them carry out the role of the teacher. Six percent considered it very good help; forty percent of moderate help; and fourteen percent felt the preparation they had had was only poor help. Thus, approximately fifty percent of all students clearly felt they could have been helped more by College, a view which is held to support the concept of role rather than status socialisation as characterising students. It is perhaps rather surprising when considering other studies of student satisfaction that so many students (46 percent) considered they had received good help from College for their role as teachers. Eason and Croll (1971) report for example that seventy five percent of students in the six colleges they studied considered that their college tried not at all or only tried a little to develop students' understanding of the classroom situation. Student Unions' reports are even more critical of the value of college help (National Union of Students, 1964). However the picture is balanced to some extent by the Bristol Institute research with almost 3,000 non-graduate probationary teachers, seventy three percent of whom felt that their initial training had been at least "reasonably adequate" (Bolam and Taylor, 1972). It is suggested that the reason lies in the probationary teacher's greater awareness, at the end of their first year of teaching, of the problem of defining initial training as role socialisation only.

The argument of this section however is that there existed in college two different views of the socialisation process: role socialisation, held by the students and status socialisation held by staff. Such differing perspectives have implications for the professional socialisation of teachers in terms of how outputs to teaching are regarded.

Minimal Competence/Complete Teacher Socialisation outputs

Bloom's (1965) review of studies of the socialisation of medical students identifies an issue involving the relationship between the training the student receives and his relationship to the medical profession. The question centres around the completeness of the training provided by the school. This issue was investigated among the student-teachers and it appears that whilst the staff of the College held what may be called the "minimal competence" view of the training process, the students maintained a somewhat inconsistent view of the socialisation output, anticipating both a "minimal competence" and a "complete teacher" result from their course.

The "minimal competence" view sees the College as laying only a groundwork of basic knowledge and expertise in the student on entry to full time teaching. It will be the job of in-service education to build on these skills to turn her into a more complete teacher. This view is clearly consistent with the view of status socialisation maintained by the staff. It is a view fully documented in Education for Teaching and in the "partial role" of college of Thompson (1969) quoted above. There is no doubt in the investigator's mind that all members of college staff took this view of the socialisation output, but this is an opinion unsupported by "hard" evidence of an objective nature. No record was kept of the many occasions on which this viewpoint was expressed but the view expressed by a tutor at an Academic Board (undated) is typical:

> "We cannot fully equip them to teach and we should not try.
> Our job is to give them a start and to make sure they have
> the right attitudes to carry on learning".

In contrast, the "complete teacher" view of the socialisation process certainly was held by a substantial proportion of students and is compatible with, and flows from, the role socialisation

perspective. This view expects the college to provide the student
with a complete set of competences and standards which will enable
her to move into her first post as a fully fledged professional, able
to control and teach a class of children. The perspective is
concerned only with classroom competence and does not take account
of relationships within the school, between school and society, or
within the profession.

It is argued that most students held both "minimal competence"
and "complete teacher" views simultaneously but favoured the latter.
In interviews they argued strongly for the need that they should go
out "fully equipped to teach" (6.2); that "the job of the college
is to turn us into teachers" (6.2). On probing, however, even the
strongest advocate of the "complete teacher" view would much modify
her position and acknowledge a major role for in-service education
and the impossibility of acquiring in college mcuh other than an
initial competence on which to build. Nonetheless, it appeared to
be a view, widely held among students, that the college should do
something much more than provide "minimum competence". It would
appear that staff and student views of the elements of competence
differed. Staff tended to define it in terms of personality and
attitudes, students saw it in terms of particular skills and techniques.

These conflicting views have consequences for how the status
of students whilst in college is seen. A minimum competence view
implies a status for students as "junior colleagues" in relation to
their tutors and to teachers in schools. They are seen as junior
members of a profession slowly acquiring skills which will accumulate
through the whole of their teaching career. The right attitudes are
thought to be fundamental to the process and the central concern of
training. It implies that the process of becoming a teacher is a

cumulative one, with initial and in-service education not sharply divided, but basically part of the same continuing process. Professionalism is acquired gradually - not suddenly and dramatically upon certification. The certification procedure will not be an abrupt status change, but merely part of a gradual transition from new entrant to full membership of the teaching profession.

The "complete teacher" view on the other hand appears to imply a somewhat lower status for the student teacher. Certification now does become a most important moment, marking the transition from low status to high status - from student to teacher. In the alternative view, teachers are and will always be in some sense students; in the "complete" view the student appears as subordinate to tutors and teachers. Her competence is questionable until certification when she becomes "fully fledged". There will be radical transformation from novice status to professional status. The complete view sets up expectations for the relationship of the college to the profession. It implies that college is the sole and necessary proving ground for competence, and that, whilst an integral part of the profession, it has a role clearly distinct from it. There is little overlap of function as the suggestion is that the college task will be complete in itself rather than merely the commencement of a gradual process.

The minimum competence view on the other hand acknowledges a good deal of overlap between initial and in-service education. College preparation will only be part of the business of professional socialisation, rather than the whole process itself. Thus, it would seem that whilst the minimum competence view may lower the status of the college, it appears to raise the status of the student, for she becomes, at the start of her training, a junior colleague. The

complete view on the other hand appears to accord considerably
more status to college by narrowing its function, simultaneously
attributing great importance to that function. However, it can be
argued that it reduces the status of the student who is firmly
regarded as a "student" until abrupt certification procedures
initiate her into full membership of the profession.

Students' perception of change

In their final term the interview students were questioned as to
whether they thought they had changed as persons or in their attitudes
towards teaching. Further, they were asked to assess the college's
contribution and to say when in the course they considered any major
change to have taken place.(9.1, qq 7,8,9). Their replies provide
additional evidence to that presented in Chapter 6 when all third
years replied anonymously to a questionnaire posing similar questions.

Of the seventeen students only two (both younger students) felt
they had changed as persons very little. The remaining fifteen claimed
that they had changed but found difficulty in identifying precisely the
nature of the change. The expression "more mature" was used by twelve
of the students, and the general tendency of replies appeared to imply
a liberalising of attitude, a readiness to suspend judgement and a
recognition of the existence and validity of other points of view.
These qualities appeared to constitute much of the students' definition
of maturity:

"I'm not so ready to jump to conclusions now"

"I think I see much more how difficult it is to say something
without qualifying it"

"I'm not so sure about what's right"

"I'm much more thoughtful than I was - not so quick at judging"

As no questions were asked relating to political or religious attitudes
and as no test such as the Study of Values was administered it is not

possible to assess the attitudinal dimensions of change. Students were

not prompted and only two students mentioned political attitudes (one

had become more "left"; the other had not changed in any way); two

students mentioned that they had become "rather less religious", and

expressed this in terms of becoming "less sure" about their beliefs.

All fifteen students who had changed "as persons" felt that college was

"in some way" responsible. The majority of replies took the form that

school practice (eleven mentions) and interaction with peers particularly

one or two close friends (twelve mentions) had contributed significantly.

Tutors were mentioned but not it appeared, accorded major significance.

Students themselves pointed to the difficulty of quantifying change

or identifying change agents with precise weighting:

> "I know I've changed. I know (close friend) has probably had a
> lot to do with it, but then too so has the whole period in college -
> it's too difficult to sort out"

> "Tutors haven't influenced me personally at all. But its hard
> to say.........It's the whole thing".

> "Just being in schools and meeting kids and teachers -
> that's made me grow up. And living in (College Hostel)"

> "It's being together with other students for three years. But
> I couldn't be precise. You can't"

When asked to consider if their attitudes to education had changed

significantly, thirteen of the seventeen felt that they had done so.

The remaining four suggested that in terms of "basic attitudes" (student

expression) to children and teaching they had changed little or at all.

The feature of the replies relating to the nature of change was a

diversity which again illustrates that the complexity of the process is

one which group testing by questionnaire is in danger of obscuring.

Thus, individual students pointed to their greater tolerance, but at

the same time argued that they felt less permissive in classroom

procedures than when they had begun training. Several replies illustrate

this apparent contradiction:

> "I'm more tolerant I think - because I understand more.

But I'm much more firm (in classroom practices) than I was"

"I am much harder than when I came to college. I think I
thought all children were little angels. But at the same
time I still like them as much - more even"

"On some things I'm more relaxed. On others I've tightened
up. Like physical punishment"

Students generally wanted to stress that they had entered college
very well disposed towards children, and that this fundamental concern
persisted through the course; indeed, could have increased somwwhat.
What students wished to emphasise however was that they had become much
more knowledgeable about children and about education. The result of
this, in the investigator's judgement, was a tempering of earlier
idealism: students still wished "to help children" (1.1) but now
recognised that this meant placing restrictions upon children's behaviour
in the classroom:

"I'm not so green now. When I look at the first years now I
think they don't know what's coming to them"

"I know I'm different. I feel I know so much more - and I
know I don't know much"

"Sometimes I think I don't know anything, but I do know I
know much more than when I was a first year"

"It would take me a week to tell you (how I've changed), but
I don't think my basic attitude has changed. I know a bit more
what to do (in the classroom)"

"I know you've got to be more strict"

"I'm more confident. I get in and get them working. A
teacher's got to be positive and I was far too easy in
Group Study"

Because of the open-ended nature of the interviews it is not possible
to quantify precisely the replies of the students even although some-
thing of their tenor is given above. However an attempt at classifica-
tion yielded the following pattern (n=17) in respect of attitudes to
education:-

Students acknowledging little or no change   4

Students thinking they have changed significantly   13

"Generally more tolerant" and similar expressions   8

"More aware of need for good personal relations" (ditto)   9

"Less permissive" in some respects   10

"More knowledge" and similar expressions   11

It would appear that by "more tolerant" students are referring to their greater understanding of social and psychological factors in learning difficulties. At the same time the students feel the resolution of such difficulties lies partly in closer teacher organisation and control. Thus the general finding from the interview sample is that the process of professional socialisation cannot be construed as one of steady liberalisation of attitude. Rather, students see themselves as maintaining and perhaps deepening their original concern for children, but acquiring experience and knowledge which not only helps understanding and refining of this concern, but also develops attitudes which issue in action in less child-centred practices.

The thirteen students who felt that their educational attitudes had changed were unwilling to give precise expression to when such change had occurred. They were generally concerned to stress the difficulty of indicating a particular point in time, but periods of school practice were frequently mentioned as "having had a strong effect". The third year practice was given more emphasis (in terms of mentions) than earlier practices. No categories were suggested to the students and the investigator's findings on the early development of perspectives were unknown to them. Although the following classification of the students' replies shows little emphasis upon the first year of the course, nonetheless the investigator believes that this early period has great impact upon students, but that such impact (in terms of development of perspectives) becomes incorporated into students' taken for granted

assumptions and are considered commonplace. Thus the conditions of
their formation are not to be identified by students without much more
detailed probing than was undertaken in the final interview.

> "Difficult to identify with precision"   8
> First Year   0
> Second Year   1
> Third Year   4

The college's responsibility for effecting change was also seen
by students as a complex matter. The thirteen who felt they had changed
significantly differentiated between different aspects of the course.

> "It depends - school practice, enormously - a lot of the discussions,
> well, hardly at all I think"

> "Main Course has helped me. (School) taught me a lot. So has
> Education in some way"

> "My club child. I learned a lot from him. He made me more
> tolerant"

> "The Suffolk Practice made me think teaching was marvellous.
> (Second Year Practice School) Changed that"

All acknowledged that the college had had some impact but the range was
considerable. A clasification of factors mentioned in the open-ended
responses yielded the following mentions (n=13):

> "College" quite considerably (or more) responsible   6
> "College" little responsibility   3
> "School practice" responsible in some way   13
> "Tutors" responsible in some way   7
> "Other students" responsible in some way   7

There is again evidence for the strong effect of school practice upon
students who clearly linked the practices with development of skills
in operating effectively in the classroom. This, as noted earlier,
meant using a school rather than a college perspective.

From the interview sample evidence then, students generally
acknowledge that the college experience contributes to personal change

in some way, cognitively or attitudinally. There is however much doubt
expressed by students over the quantification of such change, although
it would appear that the experience of school practice influences
educational attitudes in a more significant way than tutors or other
students.

Chapter 10

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

"Clearly more research needs to be done into the way in which,
in the training situation, stereotyped images of an occupation
may be replaced by more subtle, complex and even ambiguous
perceptions of the professional role. As far as teaching is
concerned, this would involve detailed longitudinal study of
the students' initial images and the various ways in which these
may be modified by their limited opportunities for contact with
reality through such things as meetings with teachers, visits
to schools, teaching practice and exposure to the ideologies
of education during the training period."

(Whiteside, 1969, p412)

A study of the professional socialisation of student teachers
presents major difficulties for the individual, part-time researcher.
The important studies of such socialisation in other professions have
been large scale, full-time team research (Becker, 1961; Merton, 1957).
A more recent study of student-nurses is the result of seven years of
investigation, three of which were spent in full-time participant
observation by three sociologists (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968). The
individual researcher must necessarily attempt a more limited
investigation and must carefully define his objectives and methodology
with regard to what is a realistic scale of operation and achievement.
It is claimed that what is needed are more extensive interdisciplinary
studies of the professional socialisation process.

This research may be conceptualised as using a systems model
approach (Astin, 1966; Taylor, 1969b; Cohen, 1972; Lomax, 1972). Such
an approach involves examining contextual, input, process and output
variables. There is, however, in this study concentration upon input
and process variables; contextual and output variables have been
largely omitted because of the particular focus of the investigation.
Thus the foregoing chapters have examined selection procedures, analysed
the nature of staff and student role conceptions, and related these to

students' social, educational and personality characteristics (input variables). Further, the nature of social and academic organisation concerning the courses, methods, institutional and informal influence within college have been investigated, together with the emergence of student perspectives resulting from this socialisation process (process variables). Contextual variables (the historical, normative, political and demographic factors influencing teacher education) have been largely ignored except at the micro-level of the historical and social background of the college itself. Similarly, output variables (numbers, wastage and effectiveness in the profession) have only been considered in relation to the college, and no attempt has been made to follow the students into full-time teaching.[1] A more extensive study would necessarily attempt to examine the impact of college training upon practice in schools.

The danger of the systems approach is that it relies too heavily on traditional structural-functionalist approaches and is in danger of neglecting the students' interpretation of the process in which they are involved. The reviews of research by Taylor, Cohen and Lomax noted in the preceding paragraph are examples of how the ongoing dynamic of the college situation may be overlooked in a simplistic reliance on questionnaire batteries using categories which are meaningful to the investigator but which do not necessarily reflect what constitutes

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(1) This is not strictly true. In the summer term following the end of the training course (i.e. in the third term of full-time teaching), the RDI was sent to all 105 members of the final longitudinal sample. Eighty-one instruments were returned (77 per cent). Lower total scores were recorded for both primary and secondary teacher role than at the end of the third year in College. The primary score was significantly lower, at 05 level, but both scores were still significantly above entering first year scores. Attitudes to corporal punishment (item 34) showed a marked decline (significant at 01 level) for both primary and secondary scores. It was however decided not to include this finding in the study because it is felt that such changes need to be related to the institutional contexts of the schools in which the ex-students are teaching. It was not possible to include such investigation within this research.

reality for the students. One outcome of this study is an increasing
scepticism in the mind of the investigator of studies which rely solely
upon administration and analysis of instruments (such as the MTAI,
Manchester Scales, RDI, etc) without regard for the institutional context
and without concern for alternative methods of investigating the
impact of college. Concentration upon such a naive approach (albeit
using complicated statistical treatment) characteristic of the majority
of reported research, is thought to be highly inappropriate in the
context of teacher education, or indeed any process of professional
socialisation.

This chapter now examines some of the issues raised by the findings
of the investigation in the light of the theoretical framework used;
makes several specific recommendations in relation to the professional
preparation of teachers; and finally points to specific areas where it
is felt further research investigations are required.

Issues arising from a study of professional socialisation

The value of the model used in the investigation is illustrated in
this section which examines certain issues raised by major findings
of the research. These relate to the institutional setting of
professional socialisation; the question of normative inconsistency;
the increasing professionalism of students; the objectives of college
preparation for classroom teaching; the importance of teaching practice
and the first year of college; and the degree of student conformity
and genuineness of response.

a) ## The importance of the institutional setting of professional
   socialisation

This investigation shows that the institutional context of the
socialisation process will affect the nature of student response to
that process. Thus, unless the values underlying courses and procedures

are identified, understanding of professional socialisation and of
changes in teacher role conceptions will be incomplete. Extensive
analysis of the academic and social organisation of a particular
college is required if changes in role conceptions are to be meaningfully
interpreted. This study shows that the college is characterised by a
clear set of values which inhere in, and are refracted through all
aspects of its selection, preparation and certification of student
teachers. These have been characterised as child centredness; primary
school oriented; conservative; a stressing of the value of experience,
discovery and play; and a preference for the intuitive rather than the
intellectual. The stability of staffing in the college, and the
practice of promotion from within, ensures consistent presentation of
college values to students throughout their course. It has been shown
that students identify these values in the procedures in which they are
involved, and see the college possessing a "climate" which stresses a
high level of concern for personal relationships and individuality,
together with a low level of intellectual activity.

It is argued that this institutional setting affects students in
two major ways; first, in their role conceptions as measured by the RDI;
and second, in the development of a set of perspectives identified in
the preceding chapter. Students' RDI scores increase significantly over
the course, representing a movement toward the role conceptions of their
tutors. In view of previous research this finding is to be expected
and represents a general movement towards more open attitudes
characteristic of students in higher education. However, what is
significant in the college studied is that testing of hypothesis 5
reveals no differences between the RDI scores of the age-level groupings
of students (First and Middle Years groups). This runs counter to the
general trend of research findings that students preparing to teach

younger pupils tend to record higher scores on the various instruments used than students preferring to teach older children. In the college the effect of the undifferentiated first year course, the strong primary orientation, and the formal organisation of second and third year age-level groupings is held to account for the lack of difference in scores. Students are required to defer choice of age range for over twelve months after entry to college, and in the first year undifferentiated course there is strong emphasis upon the importance of personal relationships between teachers and pupils of all ages. This appears to result not only in the similarity of age-level group scores, but also in a decline in the number of expressive order items which differentiate between primary and secondary role conceptions for all students. Such results are interpreted by the investigator as outcomes of professional socialisation effected by institutional arrangements.

A further consequence of institutional characteristics is the development of a set of student perspectives particularly in relation to experience in college and school. These have been described as college/school and academic/professional perspectives. The clearly identifiable values of the college call out what students see as situationally appropriate responses in judging the value of work or the demonstration of particular behaviour. Students assess what is required by the college and attempt to produce satisfactory responses within college, even if they do not define such responses as appropriate in other contexts. Such behaviour echoes research findings in many fields: that people act within situations, according to the requirements and relationships of those situations. The crucial point here is that the students are interpreting their situations and actively responding in the construction and operation of perspectives.

b) <u>Normative inconsistency</u>

Given then the accuracy of the observation that students operate
on a set of perspectives which guide their behaviour in particular
circumstances the question arises as to how students reconcile the
apparent incompatibilities between the perspectives. Merton maintains
that this problem faces anyone studying professional socialisation,
but chooses to locate the incompatibilities in the culture of the
professional group itself, arguing that:

> "... for each norm there tends to be at least one co-ordinated
> norm, which is, if not inconsistent with the others, at least
> sufficiently different as to make it difficult for the student
> and physician to line up to them both ... medical education
> can be conceived as facing the task of enabling students to
> learn <u>how to blend</u> incompatible norms into a functionally con-
> sistent whole" (Merton, 1957, p70).

Here Merton is locating **less** the task facing the student-teacher,
the reconciliation of a college/school perspective, but rather the
existence of norms attaching to the task of the teacher which, in
relation to either perspective, present difficulties. The clearest
example would probably be that of reconciling the need for good
personal relationships with the norm to maintain some degree of role
distance. Nonetheless, he does identify the existence of normative
inconsistency existing within a profession and shows that the students'
problem, confronted with significant others who stress different aspects
of the role is to make a synthesis which is both personally and
professionally acceptable. Shipman has suggested that the student in
a college of education does this by impression management, by presenting
herself appropriately to the different reference groups. It has been
noted earlier that Finlayson and Cohen (1967) hypothesised, but
did not test, that students in training possessed two frames of
reference to which their attitudes were related. The College frame of
reference made for much agreement with tutors on matters of classroom

organisation and pupil relationships. The School frame of reference stressed the importance of discipline and control and it ensured agreement with practising teachers.

Further, Gross (1965) has posited a two stage process of socialisation in the taking up of a professional appointment in school. The preparatory stage is one of formal training when the skills, values and attitudes prescribed for entry to the professional group are tuaght. The second phase is that of "organisational reality", when "the neophyte is confronted with limitations to his desired activities imposed by the organisation, in this case, the school". In the current study the two stages occur during the training course and result in the generation of group perspectives. The students in the sample develop group perspectives which enable them to cope with the ambiguity and ambivalence they face when entering the demanding school practice situation and finding that some of the prescriptions of college will not "work" for them in that situation. Support for the notion of different perspectives, situationally applied, is found not only in the work of Becker (1961) but also in the findings of Newsome, Gentry and Stephens (1965) who suggest that the effect of teaching practice is to reduce the level of logical consistency of students on educational matters.

It is argued that the institutional setting itself promotes the development of sets of perspectives containing normative inconsistencies. The college of education represents an institutionalised socialisation setting which necessarily develops a group of "professional educators" (Wheeler, 1966) who possess their own recruitment and career structure separate from that of the general practitioners - the teachers in schools. Thus, teacher education in colleges of education is seen as attempting to equip the student with a set of prescriptions and

behaviours which will not always find favour with classroom practitioners. It could be argued that the college is in fact presenting the student with an alternative professional identity to that of school. The student, caught between the conflicting demands of the two institutions develops perspectives which will allow her to operate effectively by acting in a way which is situationally appropriate. That she can do so is due to certain features of the professional socialisation process itself: "studentship", legitimation, sanctions, and the autonomy and invisibility afforded by certain aspects of the school and college situation.

"Studentship" represents both "a fertile collection of cautionary tales, rumour, crudely outlined strategies for survival" (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968) and a role which is functional in legitimising error. Thus, the position of student places the potential teacher in a subculture which is rich in stories about tutors, teaching practice schools and the college course. This student subculture allows a critical attitude to the demands of both school and college to be struck, and, importantly, contains a wealth of prescriptions for survival. In Becker's study this resulted in "giving the faculty what it wants". In the current study it results in endorsing in discussions and writing the perceived values and orientations of the college. The school practice file may be seen as an example of this. Student mythology argues that tutors attach high importance to the presentation of the teaching practice file. The great majority of students therefore present files which are neat, voluminous and child-centred, even although in private they very strongly question the value of the file.

Next, the student role legitimises error. Thus, students are perceived by tutors and teachers, and, importantly, by themselves, as

less than full members of the profession. As such they are allowed
to make mistakes by virtue of their role as students. Lower levels
of competence are therefore expected and accepted for classroom
performance by both teachers and tutors. The label of "student"
itself could be argued to predispose more experienced professionals
to expect inconsistency of expression and behaviour. Further, the
student role allows the student to dissociate herself to some extent
from a college "line". Thus, the students recognise that they are
preparing for the role of teacher, not for the role of college tutor,
and they see themselves as a group whose interests are less similar
to those of their tutors than to those of teachers in school. This
allows them to define certain tutorial demands as non-legitimate.
This non-legitimation is less in terms of non-performance than of
performance without commitment. Thus, school practice files, club
notes, some essays, and attendance at courses which are not enjoyed
or thought irrelevant, are undertaken, but judged using an academic
perspective. Their usefulness is then seen in terms of passing the
college's assessment procedures. The student role itself then
legitimises the operation of apparently normatively inconsistent
perspectives as it enables the student to cope with incompatible role
expectations held by members of her role set. Being a student allows
her to define other groups as making certain demands which have to be
met but which are not necessarily geared to the student's own conception
of what teacher preparation should consist.

The sanctions which these different groups possess (from non-
certification to making life uncomfortable on school practice or in
college) are also effective in ensuring that the student conforms to
the formal demands of the course. Such formal demands will place her
in situations in school where differing expectations are held for

performance. Accommodation to these expectations will, it is argued, partly depend upon how far the school can reward or punish her during the period of intense interaction during the practice. The situational appropriateness of the student's response will thus depend to some extent on the nature of the sanctions operating in college and school. The relative insulation of the two institutions allows the student to operate using appropriate perspectives in the face of conflicting expectations.

Finally, both college and school afford a measure of autonomy and invisibility to the student enabling her to resolve incompatible demands. Although in college she must publicly present herself through essays and other written work, it is very possible to reduce interaction with tutors to a fairly low level of frequency and intensity. The discussion method largely employed by tutors makes this more difficult than in a formal lecture situation, but even so it is possible, particularly in the large education groups, to maintain a "front" or to contribute minimally. By far the greater part of a student's time is spent in interaction with her peers. It is in the informal structure of college (where the peer group comes to recognise incompatibility of expectations as a fact of student teacher life) that tensions can be resolved by appealing to the individual and group support available. Further, although students do not have autonomy over whether they will present college work, they do have a good deal of choice over how they will present such work, and this flexibility, together with the legitimation for adopting perspectives provided by the student role, which enables the student to fulfil uncongenial demands.

The school setting of teaching practice is similarly functional in supporting the existence of the students' perspectives. Classroom interaction on school practice is characterised by its intensity, but

is seen by students as being of fairly limited duration. Although
the supervising teacher is responsible for her class (and the
willingness of such teachers to delegate this responsibility to students
varies greatly), the classroom situation does give the student
opportunity to experience autonomy. The practice setting ensures
a relatively high degree of invisibility to the college, and visits
from tutors can be predicted with some accuracy. Thus students can
practice, for a good deal of the time, the role for which they see
themselves preparing, without direct college supervision or intervention.
The major complaint of the interview sample about the school practice
situation was its "artificiality", where much of this artificiality lay
in the need to be seen "giving a performance" for a visiting tutor
or examiner. Nonetheless, "closing the classroom door" is a mechanism
which operates for students, as it does for teachers (Toby, 1952) to
reduce role strain.

In the teaching practices the student role itself serves to
preserve the individual student's self esteem, for she is enabled to
attribute failure to the position rather than to herself. Thus, she
can argue that it is because she is practising the role of teacher
as a student that problems ensue, rather than from any personality
or performance shortcoming. The student role allows her to externalise
failure and to locate its cause outside herself. As such "studentship"
can be seen as a functional device allowing the student not only to
cope with incompatible demands by using appropriate perspectives, but
to satisfactorily complete the course itself.

From this investigation then, it would appear that the student's
role as student has a major effect upon her responses to the process
of professional socialisation. Students are always conscious of their
student status, and the procedures of college and school are such as to

be constant reminders of their lowly position in the educational
hierarchy. It is argued that the self images as teachers which
students develop are mediated through the student role and that this
role acts as a major control for behaviour during their three years
in college. Although tutors emphasise that students should regard
themselves as "junior colleagues", there is little doubt that students
see tutors and teachers defining them as students; a position which
inhibits the development of a professional self image during training.
On school practices the students argue that even the children largely
regard them as "students" rather than "teachers". Thus, the student
role as student forms a constant background to college and school
activity: it affects behaviour ranging from responses to research
questionnaires to teaching practice performance, and it develops and
legitimises perspectives which are referable probably more to present
circumstances than to future views of oneself as teacher. The evidence
in this investigation thus supports the findings of Merton (1957),
Becker (1961) and Shipman (1966).

c) Increasing Professionalism

Given the importance of the student role in evoking and maintaining
perspectives, there seems little doubt that the effect of three years
in college is to increase the professionalism of the students. By this
is meant a shift over the course from broad, ill-defined and idealistic
aims ("to help children") to more sharply focussed objectives which
stress the instrumental skills of the practitioner. The substantive
concern for children does not, it is held, diminish, but rather
becomes more clearly defined as helping with particular aspects of
cognitive, social and emotional growth. One effect of this may be
seen in the increasing differentiation between expectations for primary
and secondary teachers' roles in RDI instrumental order items rather
than in expressive items. This effect is held to be due to greater

professional knowledge acquired during the course.

Simpson (1967) has defined the process of professional socialisation as a shift from broadly based societal aims to a regard for the actions and judgments of certain significant others, and finally, to the internalisation of values of the profession. Kitchen (1966) showed that first year college of education students were characterised by wide aims and values whilst third years were concerned with specific responsibilities related to teaching. This investigation confirms something of both Simpson's theoretical formulation and Kitchen's empirical evidence. Thus the students increasingly, as the course progresses, defined their tutors as less important sources for learning the role of the teacher than teachers themselves. Teachers became a highly significant reference group in terms of classroom practice. The significance of tutors was more and more seen in a college rather than a school context, highly important for certification and the assessment of school practice, but enjoying relatively low status in terms of help with the practical problems of teaching.[1] Further, the interview findings show that there was a greater concern for the development of instrumental skills; and the RDI results showed increasing professionalism with development of more discriminating attitudes to such prescriptions for teacher role as environment arranger only, or as treating all pupils alike.

Thus, within this view of professionalism, the traditionally accepted characteristic, the service ethic, becomes qualified by a more discerning (or realistic) outlook. Increasing knowledge gained during the three years leads to a redefinition of earlier idealist attitudes towards children and education. The decline in several RDI

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(1) A very crude categorisation of significant others may be suggested as follows: tutors for intellectual/theoretical matters; teachers for professional matters relating to school; and other students for emotional/social considerations.

item scores can be seen as evidence of a more realistic approach to professional activity. Students were tempering their entering attitudes with not only a more instrumental view of the teacher's role demands, but with an appreciation of their own life cycle pattern. Chapter 9 has shown that the image of teacher as "dedicated professional" was not held by the students; rather the career-line was seen to be broken by marriage and children. The realism of this view is echoed in Olesen and Whittaker's study which found that graduate nurses in training did not contemplate life-long commitment to the nursing role:

> "This scheduling of their life cycle was a perfectly sensible acknowledgement on the students' part of the residual ambivalence still existent in American life at this time around the familial responsibilities and work commitments of working wives". (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968, p295)

Internalisation of values is of course much more difficult to measure than a shifting of reference groups or closer focussing of objectives. Without internalisation the process of socialisation is not complete. It is argued that only long term studies extending well into a student's teaching career can gain some measure of such internalisation. Nonetheless, the discussion of student conformity and honesty of response on pages 452-457 below is relevant to the question of the degree to which students internalise professional values.

d) **College preparation**

Students and tutors do not share similar views of the objectives of the socialisation process. The student view of the process has been identified as role-socialisation; the staff view the process as status socialisation. Thus, what students expect from their college preparation is that they should be equipped with certain skills, techniques and knowledge which will enable them to operate successfully

in the classroom. The staff expectation is rather that the college's purpose is to turn out an "educated person" who will possess certain attitudes to teaching; those flowing from the values identified in Chapter 5. Thus, professional socialisation has different meanings for the two groups involved. The evidence of the interview sample is such as to show that students do not accept the tutors' view, feeling that their attitudes towards children and education are already "satisfactory", and their prime requirement is teaching skills.

Something of the student view is reflected in responses to the Third Year Questionnaire, when all students were asked to rate the value of the preparation they had received in college to help them carry out the role of the teacher. Only 46 per cent felt they had received "very good" (6%) or "good" help (40%). Forty per cent felt that they had received only "moderate" help and 14 per cent "poor" help. Thus, less than half the longitudinal sample saw the help they had received as "good". This finding needs to be compared with that showing three quarters of all students reporting enjoying the college experience at least "a lot". Such enjoyment would appear to be related more to interpersonal relationships than to professional preparation. It would therefore appear that student reservations in attributing "good" preparation to the College experience is to be explained in terms of differing expectations of the purpose of the course. It is clear from the interview sample that students' expect- ations for preparation in instrumental skills tended to be seen as unfulfilled. The interview sample were strongly in favour of dropping from the course such "irrelevant" experiences as the Introductory Course in the first year. They stressed over and over again the need for more practical help, particularly in the context of Part III courses which they required restructuring to be more directly geared, as

curriculum courses, towards classroom methodology and content. Such a finding is similar to that of Eason and Croll (1971) who report that 44 per cent of students in six colleges considered their curriculum courses gave them least satisfaction of all college courses. The CEI score which relates to such courses similarly shows students giving this aspect of professional preparation a low ranking. The major point at issue here is that in the emphasis on status social-isation the college is making an assumption about the nature of student attitudes which does less than justice to the level of commitment the students actually feel towards children and education. Such an assumption results in a course, which, from the students' viewpoint, is less satisfactory professional preparation than it might be.

e) Teaching Practice

For students there is little doubt that the most significant part of their college course in relation to teacher role learning were the periods of school practice. Not only are they almost unanimous in according it first place as their most significant experience in learning the role of the teacher, but it forms a constant background to their thinking, a source of major anxieties, and a representation of what they feel they are in college for. Chapter 7 shows that the effect of school practice is to depress the level of RDI scores (a result similar to that of Hoy, 1967), and that both satisfaction with and success on school practice appears related to the particular school in which practice is undertaken: the more difficult the school is seen by the student, the less likely is she to obtain a "good" teaching practice result. Further, the degree of difficulty of the school similarly appears to influence the degree to which RDI scores change:

again, the more difficult the school, the more likely is a student's
score to fall.

What appears to happen is that the school perspective becomes
more important as the three year course progresses. During periods of
school practice it operates strongly and the lowering of RDI scores
could be interpreted as students answering a "college exercise"
(usually undertaken using a college perspective) using a school
perspective. The lower level of scores (particularly on issues such
as corporal punishment) is due to the immediate experience of school
where a "harder" line is taken than in college. Keddie (1971) has
argued that teachers also act using two perspectives - which she
designates Educator/School. Thus staff discussion (in a humanities
department) could operate on an "Educator" basis, but a "School" basis
in the classroom would result in different action ensuing.

In relation to the teaching practice mark, this research shows
that there appears to be an element of situational determinism at work.
Again, institutional features - the placing of students in particular
schools - affects the outcomes of professional socialisation. The
predictive value of practices prior to the final practice can only be
described as fairly low. What is particularly significant is that
there is no relationship between tutors' (or heads') ratings on the
Suffolk Practice and the final mark. This is interpreted as evidence
that Suffolk presents a very different experience to practice in the
London schools. It is also clear from the research that intuition,
based on a judgment of personal relationships, appears to characterise
tutor criteria for assessment more than an analytical approach to
students' behaviour or a consideration of children's learning.

It would appear that headteachers work on a different set of
criteria for assessment than tutors, for the correlation between heads'

and tutors' assessments for the same practice (second year) are non-significant. Further, whilst the relationship between tutors' assessments of second year practice and final practice are of the order of 0.6, the relationship between heads rating of second year practice and tutors' rating of final practice is non-significant at 0.1847. Heads and tutors are apparently considering different aspects of behaviour, teaching skills and relationships.

The finding of situational determinism in relation to school practice is felt to be of major importance. It carries implications for both assessment and performance of students. What is not clear is the nature of the relationship between the student's view of difficulty of her school and her practice mark and RDI score. It may be that some students are predisposed to take a pessimistic view of their school experience; an outlook which results in poor performance and grading. On the other hand the student's estimation of the degree of difficulty or ease of her school may be more objective, and poor performance may be a result of genuine difficulties.

The school practice situation is highly functional in the process of professional socialisation. It provides opportunities for the student to practice her skills and to gain experience as a teacher. At the same time as providing these performance opportunities it can be seen as providing the college with a major sanctioning procedure: students have a constant preoccupation, never far below the surface, with the danger of failing their school practice. The development of the professional and school perspectives can be seen as unintended outcomes of the experience of school practice. The justification for school practice is that it provides not only performance opportunities, but the opportunity to relate theory to practice. What happens is that perspectives emerge which are sceptical of theory and which place a

low evaluation upon college work. Students view their practices as necessary and highly important - as do tutors, but the evidence shows that the early practices are instrumental in bringing about a fairly radical restructuring of students' attitudes towards the college course.

f) The first year of college

Consideration of the early impact of school practice upon students together with the RDI findings of hypothesis 1, pinpoints what appears to be a factor of major importance in the professional socialisation of student teachers: the importance of the first year in college. There would appear to be little doubt that this early experience of college is of real importance in shaping attitudes, both towards teacher role and towards the course itself. It is of great interest that students themselves, at the end of their third year, attribute only limited significance to the first year experience. Of the 105 students in the longitudinal sample only three locate the first year as of most importance in learning the role of the teacher. When the RDI scores are considered, significant movements take place in the first year, whilst in the second and third relatively few changes are noted. It is acknowledged that the significance of the first year RDI score may be open to several interpretations (genuine change in attitudes; impression management). Nonetheless in this investigation (as in Finlayson and Cohen's) the first part of the course sees the major changes towards more open definitions of teacher role. (Callis, 1950; Brim, 1966). As the most marked change is in instrumental order items it could be argued that students make significant perceptions early in their course which are only little affected (as measured by the RDI) by subsequent experience. In view of the increase in knowledge which may be assumed to take place during the three years it is possibly

surprising that instrumental order items do not change even more significantly during the course.

The RDI finding runs counter to both tutor and student opinion that the greatest change takes place in the final year. Apart from the already expressed interpretations that present experience is valued more than earlier, and that the sequential nature of the course promotes such judgments, the resolution of this apparent paradox probably lies in the fact that the RDI is a very blunt instrument which cannot catch the complexity of student's thinking about teacher role or about their course. What it does do however, is to identify a basic set of attitudes to which students became sensitised early in the course. A consideration of the magnitude of RDI scores and their changes gives some indication of the weakness of the instrument. The total score changes, although significant, are quite small, as are the individual item changes. Too much reliance, it is felt, should not be placed upon interpretation of such changes in group scores. What is significant is the number of items which show _no_ change over the course. Finlayson and Cohen found that 72 per cent of their items showed no significant change from the first to the third year. In this investigation the corresponding figure, although much lower, is still of the order of 41 per cent. Discussion of changes and non-changes has been undertaken in Chapter 6, but what is illustrated is that such instruments are insufficiently sensitive to detect the true nature of changes during the three year process of professional socialisation. Again, it must be stressed that the use of such instruments as the RDI imply wrong assumptions to the process of professional socialisation. What may be taking place is not so much _change_ of attitudes, but _strengthening_ and refining of existing dispositions.

Notwithstanding, it is felt perhaps surprising that such items
as corporal punishment or the nature of a teacher's responsibility
for making up her own syllabus show no change over the course. The
findings from the interview sample reveal that significant changes
do take place for individual students (as indeed does inspection of
individual scores). Reliance on RDI scores, concerned only with group
nature of change conceals such change. As will be argued later a
more valuable line of enquiry for students of professional socialisation
at the present time would be examination of individual students to
assess the impact of the course upon them. The investigator feels
that such studies would reveal that early experience is highly
significant in professional socialisation and that school practice and
student peer groups contribute in very large measure to such impact.

g) Student conformity and genuineness of response

In spite of RDI evidence on lack of measured change in certain
areas of teacher role conception, this research has been conducted
on the basis of a view of the student as an active agent in the
socialisation process, making choices and constructing perspectives,
and interpreting her experiences rather than passively experiencing
them. Such an assumption raises two points which recur throughout
this research. how far are the students in college highly conformist;
and how far are their responses to questionnaires or interviews
honest expressions of attitudes?

Throughout the three year research period a major characteristic
was the willingness of the students to participate in completing the
RDI and other instruments, and to undergo extensive interviewing.
The high response rates shown in Appendix 3 raise questions about the
ease with which students accepted the investigator's demands.

Similarly, a major feature of the college is its comparative quietness: there is a marked lack of open questioning of authority, and the students are not noted for any form of political activity. Such a finding might appear to run counter to the assertion that studies of professional socialisation must be based on the image of student as active participant. Further, the college selection procedures might be instanced to show that potential "troublemakers" are eliminated at interview (or even before). Thus it could be argued that the college chooses those students who "fit" its notion of what a student teacher should be. Again, the single sex of the student body argues for such an interpretation: female, mainly middle class background, with a fairly low level of academic achievement and a concern to "teach". Such a combination, it could be held, would make for conformity and lack of radical questioning of institutional values. Further, the stereotype of the respectable conforming student teacher has a long history. (Taylor, 1969a).

In the current investigation no tests for acceptance of authority were used, and it is therefore not possible to relate observed responses to any conformity measures. What is claimed is that whilst it is accepted that the high response rate raises such questions, nonetheless the interview sample evidence shows that the students are in fact highly critical of their experience in college, and that lack of outward, group protest cannot be taken as evidence of passivity of thought or uncritical acceptance of college prescriptions. The college is generally characterised by good relationships, and whilst these may be interpreted as evidence of manipulative socialisation, it is felt that this accounts for the students' willingness to participate in the research. More positively, the high level of student response to questionnaires and interviews may be interpreted as a sign of active

interest in the problems and opportunities both of the professional
preparation of teachers and of the research problems associated with
that process. The interview sample students - chosen at random -
evinced, throughout the three years a high level of interest in the
research; a response interpreted by the investigator as an expression
of genuine interest in reflecting upon their experience and subjecting
it to some form of critical appraisal.

However, the question remains as to how honest students were in
their responses to the RDI, other instruments and interviews. There is
clear evidence, reviewed in Chapter 2, that it is fairly easy to fake
MTAI scores; similarly, it is felt that the RDI is also open to
"faking good". The movement in the first year towards the level of
tutor RDI scores may therefore be interpreted as impression management,
as adoption of a "front" presented to tutors. Further, the interview
responses may be seen as a "psyching" process (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968);
giving the tutor what it is felt he wants to hear. The research
itself argues for the existence of a college/school perspective which
is used by student to produce situationally appropriate responses. If
this is held to generally characterise student responses to college
situations, how much reliance can be put on student responses to
questionnaires or interviews?

The investigator claims that three pieces of evidence may be taken
as signs that, although results presented in this research may be
susceptible to "psyching", nonetheless such results have validity.
First, the movement in RDI scores represents a trend familiar in
higher education: a shift towards more liberal positions. Such findings
are common in studies not only of teacher education but of student
groups in all forms of higher education. It would have been surprising,
it is held, if no change had been recorded on any aspect of the RDI
over the three years. It seems unlikely to the investigator that such

results are due solely to machiavellianism on the part of the students. The RDI score movements observed are generally to be expected in the light of other research evidence.

Second, there is some evidence provided by the Lie scores available from the Eysenck Personality Inventory, Form A, administered in the first and third year. The results are shown below:

Eysenck Lie Score

Lie Score	Year 1(start)	Year 3(end)
0	6	5
1	14	20
2	22	32
3	27	21
4	18	17
5	9	7
6	6	2
7	3	1
	105	105

Eysenck comments that:

"If only Scale A or Scale B is employed an 'L' score of 4 or 5 would be considered to constitute the cutting point where Inventory answers ceased to be acceptable". (Eysenck, 1964, p14)

Thus, it would appear that nine first year students and three third years may be classified as "liars" on the EPI. It could be held that such students should be excluded from the RDI testing. However, identification of the students show that the three third year "liars" had lie scores of only 2, 2 and 3 in their first year, and the nine first year "liars" all scored four or less in their third year. The correlation between the lie scores in first and third year is 0.4581 (whilst the coefficients for Extraversion and Stability are 0.7089 and 0.6753 respectively). Further, of the seven third year students who scored five, only two recorded a score of five in their first year.

Thus, the only lie scale score used in the investigation would appear to be of very limited help in identifying potential and consistent "liars" throughout the course.

Further, the EPI lie scores appear to show that in the third year a higher level of honesty of response appears to apply. It could be argued that at the first administration of the EPI (and other instruments) there is a greater tendency, or temptation, to "fake good" than in the third year. Students on their first day in college are confronted by a problematic situation. An unknown researcher - who is also a college tutor - asks them to fill out certain questionnaires. The higher level of lie scores could be taken as evidence that students wish "to put on a good face", to show the "right" attitudes. It could therefore be argued that concern for impression management is at its height on the first day of the course even although "correct" responses are not fully known. Usually students are not required to commit themselves publicly on the issues presented in the RDI so early in a college course. Nevertheless, in spite of a possible concern to give the "right" responses, thus inflating the RDI score, it is of much interest that at the end of the first year, a significantly higher level of scores is recorded. This could be regarded as representing a substantial shift in level of group response. Thus, although the RDI results are regarded with some caution by the investigator, it is held that they are not without significance in the context of the investigation as a whole, even although it is maintained that they are probably never free from the operation of some form of college perspective.

More convincing to the investigator are the discussions held with the interview sample members. Clearly, personal judgment enters here, but it is claimed that the interview students, particularly in their

second and third years were characterised by a high degree of
honesty of interview response. Opportunity was taken to ask
individual members about how much _their_ replies could be relied
upon if _they_ argued for the existence of a college perspective. There
was agreement by all students, that in that face-to-face situation,
with confidence in the integrity of the investigator, honesty could
be assumed. In the third year in particular, when the investigator
was not a member of the college staff, but was still in very regular
contact with the interview group, the relationship was felt to be
one which would encourage frankness of expression. Although the
PDI, it is argued, is treated in some measure as a "college" exercise,
it is asserted that the interview and participant observer methods
provides material which, for a study of professional socialisation,
is representative of the process as seen by students. It is claimed
that this research, like that of Shipman in England, and Becker and his
associates and that of Olesen and Whittaker in the United States
provides a valid description of professional preparation because of
similar methodology. This depends as much on the acceptance of the
validity of the observers' accuracy of perception and interpretation
of student behaviour as upon analysis of questionnaire data. The
argument of the preceding chapter is that although students are engaged
in constructing and maintaining "fronts" for application in particular
circumstances, they recognise this process and give a genuine response
in interviews with an investigator who enjoys their confidence. The
redefinition of attitudes to children and education noted over the three
years is taken by the investigator as evidence of honesty of response.

The model set out in Chapter 3 has served as a basis for this
investigation of professional socialisation. The conceptualisation

and the methodology remained relatively unchanged throughout the period of the investigation and it is argued that the model used represents an adequate structure for study of the experiences of student teachers in a college of education. Certain weaknesses are present in the research[1] but it is argued that the study of the college as a social system and the analysis of the interaction process together with the nature of student responses to their experience represents as accurate a picture as it is possible for a single-handed researcher to produce. The use of the concept of perspectives has been more widely used than is usual, and it may be preferable in future studies to separate out notions of commitment, identity and role conceptions from the development of perspectives which relate to students' views on the course itself and strategies to deal with its demands. In a study of the relationship between person, situation, institution and profession the model provides a framework for under-standing the process of professional socialisation.

Recommendations relating to professional preparation

It is felt appropriate to make suggestions which have general application to the professional socialisation of student teachers rather than recommendations which refer particularly to the college studied. The grounds for this lie in the fact that the investigator feels that the preceding chapters, although analysing structures and processes in one college, nonetheless identify certain principles which

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(1) For example:
  a) The third year questionnaire and College Environment Index were answered anonymously. It is unfortunate that personal estimates of change cannot be compared with RDI changes.
  b) A more rigorous statistical analysis of scores could have been undertaken. The major orientation of this study argues against such treatment.
  c) The validity of the instrumental/expressive dichotomy used in the RDI may be questioned on the grounds of its identification in practical teaching situations.

apply to all students in teacher-training. Further, it appears
likely that imminent structural changes in teacher education may
result in the disappearance of the college in its present form.

The proposals are adumbrated only and relate to what the
investigator feels are major issues identified by this research. Thus,
they relate to structural features of colleges; to role and status
socialisation; to the need for a more rational and analytic approach
in college courses; to a consideration of school practice and the
need for closer school and college links; and to the place of main
courses in the initial preparation of teachers of younger children.

The discussion is necessarily characterised by brevity and
generality as it is felt inappropriate to specify in detail the precise
working out of such proposals. The concentration is upon principles
which could be acted upon in the light of local circumstances. Further,
there is no attempt to prescribe a complete curriculum for colleges
of education, but rather an attempt to suggest some ways in which the
quality of professional preparation could be improved. The investigator
is aware that such treatment does not consider the difficulties of
implementation and that it omits discussion of other important factors.

The institutional factor which appears to create major problems
is that the initial preparation of teachers is largely carried out
in single purpose institutions which are not only insulated from
contact with other professions, but which enjoy only limited contact
and ambivalent relationships with the institutions in which students
will spend their professional lives - the schools. On the first point
it is clear that the isolation of the colleges is recognised (Department
of Education and Science, 1972), and it seems very likely that future
structural developments in initial training will be moves away from the
monotechnic-type institution. The investigator recommends the
acceleration of this process.

The second point - the relationship between professional preparation and practice - is felt by the investigator to be more crucial, for in the college studied it results in the development of perspectives which sharply dichotomise the college and school experience.[1] Recommendations to improve the effectiveness of the professional socialisation of student teachers should therefore be geared to synthesising these perspectives. Thus conceptualised, a central feature of the process of professional socialisation becomes not an attempt to ensure invariable consistency of presentation of norms, values and prescriptions, but rather an attempt to ensure that these inconsistencies are recognised by students, tutors and teachers; that inevitable inconsistencies are acknowledged, and that institutional arrangements are made to reduce other inconsistencies in order to prevent the development of cynicism or rejection of the college experience.

This implies that clear specification is required of criteria upon which college tutors judge the success of school practice or college work. It is recommended, therefore, that in individual colleges meetings of tutors and heads and teachers in practice schools should work out joint policies on assessment. This would inevitably mean examination of criteria for judgment of effective teaching. Such criteria should be made public to students (who should also be involved in such meetings) and could form the basis for ongoing discussion throughout the three year course. Similarly, the objectives of college presented work should be made clearer to students and should themselves constitute subjects for critical appraisal by students and staff.

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(1) It is held that such perspectives are not peculiar to the college studied, but generally characterise students in colleges of education. Detailed studies of individual colleges are required to test this assumption. (The work of Shipman (1966) and Finlayson and Cohen (1967) appear to support the assertion).

It is suggested that much of the reason for conflicting interpretations of the objectives of the college course held by students and tutors flows from a misunderstanding of the nature of professional socialisation. It should be clearly recognised that adult socialisation does not necessarily mean changing the individual; it may simply imply confirming and extending existing attitudes and behaviour patterns. Once socialisation is seen in this way it is argued that a major obstacle to the construction of more suitable courses is removed. Lack of recognition of this crucial distinction issues, in the college studied, in an emphasis by tutors on value-change rather than upon acquisition of teaching skills, and an underestimation of the importance of the student peer group as the prime source of emotional satisfaction. The college's constant stress on relationships may overlook that these can be best fostered between teacher and pupil through successful performance of tasks.

The investigation shows that students possess a high level of concern for children as individuals. They enter college with, if anything, an idealistic conception of children and teaching. The values of college, highly person-centred, require therefore no dramatic or traumatic value change in this respect. Students' expressive involvement with children is already high, possessing as they do a diffuse generalised commitment to education expressed as a strong desire to "help". The college is therefore perhaps mistaken in its major emphasis upon status-socialisation rather than role-socialisation. It can be argued that in college procedures there is the assumption that tutors possess a monopoly of quality of feeling for children or sensitivity in the matter of personal relationships. Concentration upon the expressive, upon attitude change, may assume that entering students have wrong attitudes, or insufficiently sensitive ones.

Students do in fact enter college well disposed towards children
and they interpret their subsequent experience of the course with
its emphasis upon attitudes rather than developing specific skills as
insufficiently preparing them for classroom teaching. Such
interpretation promotes the emergence of the academic/practical and
school/college perspectives.

The expectation of students is for training in the skills and
techniques of teaching. They are prepared to take for granted the
tutorial concern for principles, centring largely around personal
relationships, expressing rather a demand for more specific instruction
geared to classroom practice. What is recommended is that colleges
could do more to meet students' expectations in this respect. This
could be implemented both through Part III courses and through work
in (rather than visits to) schools from the start of the course. This
combination of curriculum courses and practical work in schools could
be thought of as "applied education units" to be undertaken alongside
the study of the theory of education and main courses. What is
required is an analysis of the elements of the teacher's role at each
school level, with identification of the knowledge, skills and
procedures which can be taught in initial courses. Such applied
education units would need to be set within an adequate theoretical
framework[1] presented to, and analysed by, the students.

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(1) As a minimum it is felt that a college of education should be able
to offer such applied education courses in arts and crafts, dance and
movement, music, drama, physical education, environmental studies, (and,
for middle school students, history and geography), mathematics, general
science, religious education, teaching of reading, infant school methods,
junior school methods, middle school methods, creative writing and
speech, English, social studies, a foreign language. The theory of
education courses, acquainting the student with the disciplines of
education, would form the background to such courses. Concurrently there
would be opportunities to practice, with children in local schools, the
skills acquired through these courses. In urban areas it is felt that
such arrangements could be satisfactorily effected. The model for such
professional preparation is more fully set out in Booth and Ross (1972).

The difficulties attaching to such a prescription are illustrated in Mason and Croll's (1971) finding that 76 per cent of their sample of staff in six colleges of education report that "Students often fail to grasp the intended professional relevance of a particular course in the college programme". This comment is a wry reflection on the same researchers' finding that 75 per cent of the students thought that their colleges did not try or tried only a little to develop their understanding of the classroom situation. In the college studied tutors similarly commented on the students' lack of understanding of the purpose of Part III courses. Nevertheless, it is clear that students are generally dissatisfied with their preparation for the classroom. The investigator feels that it is through comprehensive provision of applied education courses and frequent opportunity for practice of skills that dissatisfaction could be lessened.

There is a need in the professional preparation of teachers for a stress on the rational and analytic; for a concern to develop qualities of judgment, imagination, insight, objectivity and discernment. Such qualities are not the prerogative of main courses (see below pp 468-69). The College's stress on status socialisation, although vitally important in its stress on an intuitive approach to relation-ships, nonetheless neglects opportunities for reviewing those many elements of teacher role which lend themselves to a more analytical or structured approach. The concentration upon the affective life results, it is argued, in the underplaying of the role of intellect in examining professional behaviour. Both classroom techniques and interpersonal behaviour afford many opportunities for analysis, reflection and practice (Stones and Morris, 1972; Hargreaves, 1972).

Changes in the college curriculum should be undertaken with a view to maintaining its concern for the personal. What is needed is

the adoption of a more rigorous approach to professional preparation
and a concentration more specifically upon teaching certain aspects of
classroom skills within a conceptual framework which both ensures
that the freedom of the learner, the student, is not violated, and
which enables her to understand the relationship of the particular
piece of behaviour to a more general theory of teaching.

The danger of providing applied education courses solely geared
to a role socialisation conception is a tendency to overlook the
rational basis for teacher behaviour. Too narrow a definition of
initial preparation could devalue it into a set of specific prescriptions
for action. It is accepted that students need to hold principles in
consideration of which they will act - action based on rationality.
Nonetheless, the investigator believes that to over-emphasise this
danger would be to undervalue the students' ability to generate
principles from specific cases, and to act, in the light of those
principles according to the circumstances of the situation. It must
also be remembered that in-service education is accepted as a necessary
part of professional education. Such in-service education can offer
both theoretical study and opportunities to retrain in practical skills.
Thus, the investigator recommends a "minimum competence" conceptual-
isation of the college process, with students acknowledging the
preparatory nature of the course. The move into teaching is therefore
seen not as a/ dramatic transition point, but as part of a gradual
process of increasing professionalism.

The research illustrates the great importance of the first year,
indeed the first term in college. In the college studied, the
Introductory course serves to present very early in the course, an
inappropriate model to the students. It runs counter to their
expectations and accelerates the construction of conflicting perspectives.

Its replacement by courses which focus more directly upon learning of classroom skills would be more relevant to student needs. Student expectations are particularly sensitive at this early point in the college course and the research suggests that many students are "set" in undesirable professional orientations by their experience of the first term. There seems little reason why the legitimate professional expectations of students should not be met, and met as early as possible in the course. The early provision of applied education units could modify the development of perspectives which define college activity as of very limited relevance to the classroom.

There is a need for closer involvement of schools and colleges. Such involvement requires, in the view of the investigator, structural arrangements, rather than reliance on informal expressions of intent. The major mechanism would be in terms of staffing of colleges and schools. Greater use of joint appointments is therefore recommended, with some tutors teaching part-time in schools and with teachers undertaking certain specific responsibilities in college. Further, experiments need to be made with secondment patterns to enable appointment of outstanding teachers to take responsibility for applied education courses. This would not only provide greater variety of role models available in college, but would also reduce the increasing differential valuation which students ascribe to tutor and teacher role models. Visiting and supervision of school practice is not sufficient in students' eyes to sustain tutorial credibility in respect of pedagogic advice. It is considered significant that the tutor who enjoyed highest status among students for her Part III course undertook a regular teaching obligation in a local school. Whilst it is recognised that such a recommendation carries major implications for career lines of college staff, nevertheless the teaching of applied

education units by staff actively involved in both institutions is
felt to offer considerable opportunities for the improvement of
college preparation.

In relation to school experience in the course, whilst students
are characterised by their strength of feeling towards children,
there is little doubt that teaching practice is increasingly seen as
an ordeal, an experience to be survived rather than an opportunity
to practice professional skills and to increase understanding of the
teaching-learning process. Part of this difficulty has already been
located in the students' lack of skills to practice; part inheres in
their status as students. The student role, although functional in
legitimising error, can, on school practice, inhibit the development
of a professional identity. A major problem of professional
preparation is how the college and school can give the student greater
status to assist this development.

It has been noted that a student's self image as a professional
is conditioned in a major way by how significant others see her.
(Huntingdon, 1957; Simpson, 1967). The implication here is that
until tutors, teachers and children begin to define her as a teacher,
the student's self image will be slow to develop. Certain arrangements
could probably assist the process. Thus, whilst students must always
be regarded as beginners in the profession, colleges can help not
only in providing the student with professional skills, and in
involving her in the decision-making processes of college but in
careful attention to school practice placing. It is the counsel of
perfection to urge that students should not be placed in unsuitable
teaching situations, but there is no doubt that many students in
London schools undertake their practices in classrooms which would
extend a well-experienced teacher. One solution for reducing the

pressure on practice places lies in a reduction of the number of
colleges. Such remedy is hardly within the courses of action open
to an individual college. However, in the college studied the
continuance of the Suffolk practice appears very desirable, for
although it appears unrelated to success on the final practice (as
measured by tutors' assessments), it provides a welcome variety of
experience for the students.

What is recommended is that colleges should examine their school
practice pattern and placing using the concept of the applied education
unit to provide short term but intensive school experience. This
argues for a modification of current conceptions of school practice,
supplementing it with the development of teaching skills within college,
using, for example, microteaching techniques, simulations and
interaction analysis using videotapes (Gibson, 1969). To develop
an adequate self image of themselves as teachers it is vital that
students experience success in a classroom situation, and such
substitute activities must be quickly followed by practice in schools.
This requires a flexibility in college and school procedures which,
at present does not exist, but which is urgently needed.

Further, on longer periods of practice teaching colleges could
focus more upon assistance to students than upon assessment. This
would imply abandonment of any grading scale other than a simple
pass/fail dichotomy. In the investigator's view far too much time
has been wasted in all colleges with the finer points of grading of
practical teaching. It would be more valuable from the student's
viewpoint if she were clearly aware of the criteria which college
(and school) use to judge effective teaching and if she gained rapid
feedback on her performance. Whilst abandonment of the five point
scale would deprive educational researchers of statistical material
it is argued that effectively it would constitute no real loss in the
professional preparation of teachers. Similarly, the keeping of school

practice files is a college requirement which would benefit from
critical appraisal to pare away many of the irrelevancies which
students feel the college expect from them. More regard to analysis
of the classroom situation and to children's learning success and
failure located in teaching methodology would, it is suggested, be
more valuable than the discursive discussion currently adopted and
accepted in such files.

From the school viewpoint certain procedures could improve the
experience of practice. First, the appointment of professional
tutors in schools is strongly recommended (Gibson, 1972b). This
would give students immediate access to both affective and pedagogic
help. Second, schools could ensure that students are given colleague
status, accepted as members of the staffroom and afforded a voice in
staff discussion. The institutionalisation of initial training in
colleges of education has in the past, resulted in unrealistic
expectations for college outputs - the "complete teacher" model. Closer
co-operation would result in shared responsibility for preparation
by schools and colleges. Until all members of the profession accept
the need for continuing professional education, shared by the members,
the school experience of students will be less valuable than it might
be. The minutiae of such a proposal (referring to a student as "Miss X"
in conversation with children, rather than "the student") cannot be
spelt out here, but in the everyday life of the classroom it is of
vital importance in aiding or inhibiting the development of an
adequate self-image. Such arrangements could facilitate the more rapid
growth of the independent perspective on school practices.

Finally, in relation to main courses it is recommended that their
appropriateness for students preparing to teach younger children
should be radically questioned. The traditional argument has been that

main courses contribute to the student's "personal development".
Such a conception is felt to be inappropriate for many of the students
in this study. It appears to equate "personal development" with
academic study; and it implies that such development cannot be
effected through the study and practice of education itself. Further,
it neglects the fact that the teacher of infant or junior or middle
school pupils must necessarily teach a wider range of subjects than
her secondary colleague. There appears no real reason to the
investigator why the personal development of the student could not be
undertaken other than through main subject courses. There is a
strong case that such students should have the opportunity to devote
more of their time to the study of the applied education units sketched
above.

It is therefore recommended that structural and procedural changes
should be made to allow students to vary the balance between the three
major elements of their course (main subject, theory of education
and "applied education"), such that for some students the main course
element could perhaps be as little as one-eighth of the timetabled,
or assessed work. The investigator feels that applied education
courses, in conjunction with study of the theory of education[1] offers
similar opportunities for the development of judgment and insight as
main subject. Thus, for First School students (who will be responsible
for the whole range of their children's school learning) it is envisaged
that five or six units could be studied in some depth over the course.
For Middle School students perhaps three or four units could be under-
taken in depth. It remains the assumption of the investigator however
that both these groups of students would need to undertake, in lesser
depth, a wider range of applied education units.

(1) Using a team teaching approach in co-operation with main course
tutors attempts could be made not only to provide a grounding in content
and methods of teaching the subject areas, but also to identify the
logical and psychological aspects of such subjects.

Future investigations into the professional socialisation of student teachers

This final section makes suggestions of major areas requiring further research and argues for a variety of methods of investigation.

A study of the professional socialisation of student teachers involves measuring the impact of college upon attitudes, knowledge and skills. Further, it involves assessing how this impact, at the level of attitudes, issues in action both during the course and later, in full-time teaching. For the investigator, "issuing in action", however difficult to measure, is the crucial test of how college has really affected students. The point has been well put by A.R. Cohen:

> "Until experimental research demonstrates that attitude change has consequences for subsequent behaviour, we cannot be certain that our procedures for inducing change do anything more than cause cognitive realignments". (Cohen, 1964, p138)

Such a position implies that future studies should follow the student into full-time teaching and attempt to examine how values and attitudes expressed in college are related both to later expressions and to action. Thus, what is needed are studies to test how far professional values are internalised - for until their internalisation takes place, the process of professional socialisation is incomplete. Such studies would test the level of acceptance of values both by responses to attitude inventories and by observation and recording of classroom behaviour. These studies would continue beyond the first year of teaching and would take account of the institutional context in which the teacher operates: the characteristics of the school in which she teaches.

Such researches imply both specification of the characteristics of professional socialisation, and longitudinal studies of groups and individual students. The focus upon a model of professional socialisation would imply for example that early in the course investigations would concentrate on the nature of students' self images and professional images,

would study the nature of changes in these during the course and
after it, particularly in relation to role models encountered; and
would examine the nature of the development of professional identity
and commitment. As indicated in the preceding chapters these are
not simple phenomena either to specify or to measure, but without
attention to them, the study of professional socialisation of teachers
will remain at the comparatively trivial level which has generally
characterised past studies.

The necessity for the study of individual students, incorporated
into investigations following the progress of groups through college
and into teaching, serves to emphasise the essentially interdisciplinary
nature of the study which professional socialisation requires. Case
studies are needed which would give extensive data on those students
who do show changes as measured variables; on those students who do not
show such changes; and on those students who leave the course before
certification. The study of individuals would facilitate direct
observation of everyday behaviour and would allow such individual
students to introspect upon experience, thus allowing for a more
reflexive approach to the problem of professional socialisation
(Garfinkel, 1967). Further, longitudinal studies of groups and
individuals would give opportunity to take frequent "soundings" through
questionnaires, interviews and observations which would avoid the
oversimplifications of cross sectional studies (Dickson, 1965).

What this investigation shows clearly is the vital necessity for
future studies to take account of the institutional setting of the
socialisation process in college and school. Thus, investigations
are needed of the structures, processes and values of particular colleges
and schools together with attempts to assess the impacts of those
particular institutions upon students and teachers. A model similar
to the one used in this investigation would be of value to probe the

normative and attendant sanctioning systems of a college evidenced
in its formal and informal structure. This would involve detailed
analysis of courses and assessment procedures and a consideration of
the nature of authority in college or school and its relation to
teaching or leadership styles adopted by students on practice or in
qualified teaching. The availability and influence of reference groups
and role models would be a particular focus of enquiry.

The importance of the student peer group in the process of
professional socialisation is only slowly being acknowledged in
Britain. More studies are needed of the types of grouping in the
informal structure of college. Attempts are required to identify the
nature of student subcultures in colleges of education. These will
become even more important as the nature of the intake diversifies and
as colleges become less monotechnic in character. The orientations of
groupings identified must be compared with those of the staff of the
colleges to discover if substantively different views of the course
and its outcomes are held by students and staff, or between different
groups of students.

This study has suggested that little interaction takes place
between year groups in the college studied and that the year group
is an important source of identity for the student. Studies are
needed of the nature of inter-year interaction in the formal and
informal structure of colleges. Such studies would seek to measure
its effect upon the emergence and maintenance of stereotypes held by
students of staff attitudes and objectives, and of "formulae for
success". This implies research into the effect of residence at
particular institutions of a more closely focussed style than those
of Brothers (1971), resembling more those of Newcomb (1943) and
Vreeland and Bidwell (1965). Further, with the potential growth of a

higher proportion of non-resident students at colleges and universities,
the effect of living at home upon students will become an increasingly
important field for study.

What is vital is that studies should be undertaken of the nature
of personal interaction between student and student, and student and
teachers and tutors. It has been argued that professional socialisation
is of the commonplace. It is embedded in:

> "the frequently banal, sometimes dreary, often uninteresting
> world of everyday living". (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968, p297)

Although it is held that this observation is only partly true of
student teachers (as they clearly see periods of school practice as
regular crisis points in the course, representing a sharp contrast to
the more easy-going pace of life within the college), nonetheless in
its stress on the ongoing social process at the level of individual
experience, it illuminates the importance of everyday personal
interaction in the socialisation process. For Olesen and Whittaker
professional socialisation did not occur in the "abstract or exalting",
but in the mundane, in the:

> "minute starts and stops, the bits of progress and backsliding,
> the moments of reluctant acquisition of a new self and the
> tenacious relinquishing of the old..." (p 297).

The implication of this study for future investigations is clear.
Such studies should examine how the participants in the progress
interact and interpret their experience.

Clearly too, studies are needed of student types in relation to
colleges and college courses. There is some suggestive evidence in
this investigation that the college attracts only a limited range of
the available student population, and that its selection procedures
are such as to deny entry to applicants with particular characteristics.
Thus, studies need to be undertaken of the characteristics
of students applying for teacher training as against other forms of
higher education; of applicants and acceptances in particular colleges
as against other colleges; and of student members of different courses

within the colleges. Whilst a certain amount of information is available in the first area, very little is known in the other two. It is suggested that selection for colleges is made upon the basis of criteria which, if not public, are nonetheless implicit in college procedures. Studies of individual institutions could make clear those criteria and examine how far such criteria make for conformity or otherwise as characterising the student body during its experience of college.

Such studies could well take account of the anticipatory socialisation of students, examining how such input variables as age, previous teaching experience, social class or academic attainment have influenced the choice of teaching as a career; and how far the decision to teach has been affected by significant others encountered prior to college. With the prospect of the decision to teach being, for many students, delayed until after two years of experience of higher education, the study of anticipatory socialisation will present new opportunities for research into teacher education.

Such focus upon the institutional setting would enable research into the accuracy of student perception of college. It is suggested that students may, through stereotyping, oversimplify and distort the expectations of college. The development of the college/school perspective in this research is some indication of this phenomenon. A closer study of tutors' expectations and behaviour would, it is suggested, reveal that individual tutors do not fit the stereotype of "activity methods" implied to them, being more concerned for a balance of methodology and behaviours. Nonetheless there is no doubt that such conceptions do exist in the minds of students. Studies are needed, on the lines of Biddle's examination of shared inaccuracies in teacher role expectations, of what students feel tutors expect of them and a comparison of these expectations with tutors' actual

expectations (Biddle, Rosencranz, Tomich and Twyman, 1966). A
wider focus upon professionalisation would examine how far students'
expectations for role socialisation, rather than status socialisation,
compared with expectations of other members of the profession. Thus,
studies could usefully be undertaken not only of tutors' expectation
for socialisation outputs, but for those of heads and teachers also.

It is suggested that studies which are not needed are those
which are not related to the institutional context or those which
concern themselves with correlates of the final teaching practice
mark. Of the first, enough has been shown already to demonstrate the
vital importance of considering the socialisation setting. Of the
second, it is suggested that there has been excessive concern in the
past with the teaching practice mark which, in reality, has little
or nothing to do with later teaching experience. The issue of what
constitutes effective teaching has undergone major but inconclusive
research in the United States. What is needed rather is identification
of what any particular institution, or group, or individual tutor
or teacher considers to be "effective teaching". This, it is argued,
needs to be studied in terms of specification of behaviours appropriate
in classrooms, and related to particular school settings. The
important question for the researcher into professional socialisation
then becomes a study of how students acquire the attitudes, knowledge
and techniques that the institution in which he finds himself deems
important. Thus, it is argued that analysis in relation to practical
teaching marks of instruments such as the RDI, MTAI or Manchester
Scales represents a singularly otiose research exercise, even more
so when no account is taken of the school or college situation.

The importance of school practice experience in the socialisation
process is clearly seen in this study. Its importance is matched only

by its almost total neglect by British educational researchers.
Studies are needed to examine the impact of school practice, both in
its effects on student behaviour and attitudes in school and its
influence on attitudes to the teacher-training course as a whole.
Studies of actual classroom behaviour and the effect of students
monitoring their own performances are felt to offer opportunities not
only to increase knowledge, but to improve practice (Wragg, 1970).
Further, studies are needed of the contribution of "supervising
teachers" to shaping the role expectations of students. McAuley (1960)
and Johnson (1969) have given some indication of their importance in
American school settings. Some finely focussed studies of a relatively
small number of students and their supervising practice teachers
could be illuminating. These studies would examine how far such
teachers shape students' attitudes or techniques. With the rapidly
approaching appointment of professional tutors (Department of Education
and Science, 1972) who would be concerned not only with the induction
of newly qualified teachers, but with students on school practice, it
is vital that research is undertaken into how such school based tutors
will affect the process of professional socialisation (Gibson, 1972b).

The methods of future investigations into professional socialisation
should be chosen in the light of Taylor's comments on educational
research:

> "(Educational research) is more likely to be successful and to
> be used if it is multi-disciplinary in its approach, if it is
> undertaken with a clear awareness of its scientific limitations,
> and if its practitioners have an adequate awareness of the range
> and content of relevant work in the disciplines on which they
> draw ... In other words, there is a need for several models
> of research". (Taylor, 1969b, pp224-225)

Taylor goes on to argue that researchers into teacher education and
into other aspects of education have been too hesitant in recognising
the existence of these different models:

"We have apotheosized the controlled experiment, the
limitation of variables, the careful tests of statistical
significance, the precise question and the modest
conclusion". (Taylor, 1969b, p225)

Similarly Olesen and Whittaker (1968) referring specifically to

professional socialisation are critical of before and after research

designs which take no account of the actual experience of students

and staff. They argue for efforts to reveal what constitutes reality

for the individuals and groups involved in the process in any particular

institution.

Such viewpoints, together with the evidence of this study, show

that as the process of how students become teachers is a multidimensional

one, it calls for a variety of methods which cannot be drawn only

from the natural sciences. The methods used in this study, applied

with more sophistication by a team of full-time researchers could

yield valuable findings about with the process. Questionnaires are

relatively easy to fake and at best yield only partial insights. The

criticisms of the MTAI made in Chapter 2 apply equally to the RDI and

Manchester Scales used in this study. Such instruments, notwithstanding

the sophistication of their construction and the opportunity for

complex statistical treatment they afford, are basically, it is argued,

naive and simplistic. They relate only slightly (if at all) to actual

classroom behaviour, and, used alone, they neglect the extreme

complexity of the social processes which form the background of their

application. They provide data which, whilst describing groups in

very broad and general terms, are open to misinterpretation and over-

simplification. There is a need for use of such instruments to be

balanced with analyses of the institutional setting and personal and

group responses, employing interviews, observation and examination of

the institutions manifest and latent structures and processes.

Further, the methods of study must be such as to be able to probe

accurately the students' views of the process in which they are involved.

The danger of simple input/output models, before/after designs is
that they may assume passivity in the student. The professional
socialisation process is seen as something undergone by the student;
he is acted upon and moulded with little chance of influencing
outcomes. Rather, the conceptualisation of the student should be that
assumed in this research: as an active choice making factor in his
own socialisation. Such an assumption would mean that the student's
view of the process is at least as important as that of the tutor's or
the researcher's. It sees the student actively, not passively,
involved in shaping his present action and future behaviour:

> "The students do more than simply talk back: they are, in
> fact, actively involved in the shaping of existential
> situations in which acquisition of professional and adult
> role behaviours occur". (Olesen and Whittaker, 1968, p8)

It implies using research methods which are not necessarily concerned
to produce quantified and reified results and involves questioning
whether the traditional use of attitude inventories has much to do
with how the students ordinarily live their lives in and out of college.
It will strive both for description and analysis of long term and
immediate situational problems facing students in college and school,
and for similar treatment of how the students themselves interpret
such situations. Finally, it acknowledges that students' actions will
be related to their self image of themselves as teachers and their
beliefs about their future careers and the pressures which will exist
for them as teachers. It is for these reasons that future studies of
professional socialisation should be characterised by electicism of
theory and methodology, and must attempt to relate the initiatives and
responses of the individual and the group to their immediate situation,
to their institutional setting and to the societal context in which
all are involved.

A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix 1

Correlation Matrices

Matrix 1
(pp 481-483)　　Classroom Observation Schedule Scores, RDI Scores,
　　　　　　　　Final Practice Mark.

Matrix 2
(pp 484-485)　　College Environment Index, Third Year Questionnaire
　　　　　　　　(answered anonymously)

Matrix 3
(pp 486-492)　　College Assessments, student attitudes and
　　　　　　　　characteristics.

Appendix 1

Correlation Matrix 1

Classroom Observation Schedule Scores, RDI Scores, Final Practice Mark

37 students: 25 variables
(Chapter 7)

05 = .325
01 = .418

Variable No

1	COS item	1	Praise
2		2	Contact
3		3	Choice
4		4	Grouping
5		5	Links
6		6	Learning
7		7	Authoritarianism
8		8	Flexibility
9		9	Involvement
10		10	Discovery
11		11	Motivators
12		12	Lesson Assessment
13		13	Potential
14		14	Difficulty
15	RDI item	5P	Choice
16		16P	Motivators
17		29P	Grouping
18		31P	Praise
19		5S	Choice
20		16S	Motivators
21		29S	Grouping
22		31S	Praise
23	Final Teaching Practice Mark		
24	RDI Total Primary		
25	RDI Total Secondary		

Full details of COS and RDI are given at Appendix 3

Correlation Matrix 1

Row	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3	Col 4	Col 5	Col 6	Col 7	Col 8	Col 9
2	2552								
3	7083	3797							
4	5030	0153	6642						
5	3233	2024	4931	5422					
6	4348	5800	5516	2787	3729				
7	3004	2125	1862	0943	3305	1233			
8	6246	3567	6629	4586	5207	4431	4463		
9	7157	5927	6667	4641	5241	5888	4664	6220	
10	4744	4999	5616	3650	5626	5290	2795	5409	5693
11	-1454	1294	0816	0395	2960	0751	0081	1566	0436
12	5942	4261	6597	5136	5943	5943	3371	5688	6473
13	3729	6637	5400	2677	3492	6120	0906	4415	6215
14	-0061	-5000	-0816	-0097	0512	-3591	1046	-0892	-1609
15	0769	-0565	-2129	-0679	-1123	-2266	0110	-2126	-0204
16	-2829	1699	-2251	-3441	-2743	-1454	-1482	-0417	-2379
17	2138	1252	0747	-0637	0547	0547	-0908	2066	1466
18	2264	1858	3072	-0289	.1984	2796	2273	2289	1468
19	0278	0882	-0930	-0720	-0480	-1704	1339	-0957	1214
20	-0849	3976	-0375	-1426	-3114	1932	1028	0219	-0148
21	1729	0522	-0495	-2232	0012	1322	-1130	0643	0362
22	1120	2950	2350	-0882	1400	3236	1666	2077	0867
23	5691	4671	5901	3978	4356	6196	3462	5754	5693
24	1201	0896	1523	-0530	0321	-0733	0311	2466	0609
25	0642	1270	0534	-0191	0553	0438	1550	1225	1137

Correlation Matrix 1 (cont..)

Row	Col 10	Col 11	Col 12	Col 13	Col 14	Col 15	Col 16	Col 17	Col 18
11	1031								
12	6509	1911							
13	4828	1913	7187						
14	-1641	-0278	-0125	-3273					
15	-1915	-1952	-1769	-1099	2340				
16	-1717	0032	-2699	-0169	-2658	-1146			
17	0984	-1406	1525	1947	1406	-0172	0953		
18	1918	1220	4792	2745	0422	-2244	0464	1042	
19	-2240	-0959	-0356	0517	1514	3968	1652	1631	1807
20	-0029	-1304	-1346	0637	-3122	-0736	6392	0952	0315
21	0434	-0877	0894	0929	2064	-1190	1157	0835	2717
22	2256	2536	4223	3221	-0845	-2870	2157	0630	9102
23	5279	1433	7132	6807	-3766	-2581	-2787	1122	2535
24	1099	-1431	0076	0827	1708	4448	4051	4912	3483
25	1900	-0307	0932	1050	2002	4381	4361	3877	3636

Row	Col 19	Col 20	Col 21	Col 22	Col 23	Col 24
20	2144					
21	1659	-0028				
22	1640	1502	2340			
23	-1276	-0448	1097	2957		
24	3561	3372	3253	3638	2896	
25	5293	3426	4682	3914	3451	6939

Correlation Matrix 2

College Environmental Index (CEI) Third Year Questionnaire (3YQ)
(answered anonymously)

105 students: 17 variables
(Chapter 8)

05 = **.195**
01 = .254

Variable
No

1	3YQ item	1	Enjoyment
2		2	Change as person
3		3a	Change as teacher
4		3b	College responsibility for change
5		7	Teacher image
6		8	Commitment
7		9	Value of College help
8	CEI dimension	1	Student Energy
9		2	Concern for Individuality
10		3	Social Commitment
11		4	Staff Image
12		5	Intellectual Climate
13		6	Clarity and System
14		7	Loyalty to College
15		8	Humane Regulations
16		9	Group Participation
17		10	Lack of Tension

Full details of CEI and 3YQ are given at Appendix 3.

Correlation Matrix 2 (cont..)

Row	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3	Col 4	Col 5	Col 6	Col 7	Col 8	Col 9
2	0547								
3	1667	3534							
4	4110	2114	4552						
5	0548	-0385	0543	1148					
6	1430	-0659	1346	1990	2432				
7	2825	2649	2092	3392	1941	2723			
8	3282	0453	-0109	1725	-1099	2252	0814		
9	3903	1909	2229	4183	-0299	2469	2110	3506	
10	1664	1882	-0278	-0084	-1376	0996	1485	5202	2189
11	3695	2341	1619	3669	-1810	1870	3574	3258	4967
12	2572	0325	1303	1549	-0342	1843	1499	5178	4041
13	2138	-0189	0196	2033	0422	2669	3435	2947	3037
14	3425	0240	2349	2941	-1871	0843	2758	4049	3049
15	3098	0974	1355	3461	-0842	1963	3137	3809	5397
16	3291	2033	1857	2696	-1203	1334	2591	3629	4775
17	2088	0409	0763	0489	0681	-0995	0677	-2519	-1296

Row	Col 10	Col 11	Col 12	Col 13	Col 14	Col 15	Col 16
10	1.0000						
11	3370						
12	4565	3132					
13	2236	4055	3652				
14	2755	3533	2431	3431			
15	3276	4752	4362	4743	4928		
16	3807	4510	3313	1319	3589	4452	
17	-2464	0042	-2069	-2987	-0788	-1122	-0670

Correlation Matrix 3

College assessments, student attitudes and characteristics

105 students: 46 variables

05 = .195
01 = .254

Variable
No

1   Final Teaching Practice Mark
2   Student's assessment of difficulty of final practice
3   Education Tutor's assessment of potential (Year 3)
4   Education Tutor's assessment of student as open/closed (Year 3)
5   Education Paper 1 mark
6   Education Paper 2 mark
7   Education Course work mark
8   Education Special Exercise mark
9   Education Final mark in Theory examination
10 EPI Extraversion score (Year 3)
11 EPI Neuroticism Score (Year 3)
12 EPI Lie score (Year 3)
13 Manchester Scales. Naturalism in Education (Year 3)
14 Manchester Scales. Radicalism in Education (Year 3)
15 Manchester Scales. Tendermindedness in Education (Year 3)
16 Group Study. Tutor performance rating (Year 1)
17 Group Study. Tutor potential rating (Year 1)
18 Suffolk Practice. Tutor rating (Year 1)
19 Suffolk Practice. Headteacher rating (Year 1)
20 Education Tutor's assessment of potential (Year 1)
21 Education Tutor's assessment of student as open/closed (Year 1)
22 Second Year Practice. Headteacher rating
23 Second Year Practice . Education tutor performance rating
24 Second Year Practice. School tutor performance rating
25 Second Year Practice. Education tutor potential rating
26 Second Year Practice. School tutor potential rating
27 EPI Lie score (Year 1)
28 Second Year Practice. Staff expression of concern
29 Education Tutor's assessment of potential (Year 2)
30 Education Tutor's assessment of student as open/closed (Year 2)
31 EPI Extraversion score (Year 1)
32 EPI Neuroticism score (Year 1)
33 Manchester Scales. Naturalism in Education (Year 1)
34 Manchester Scales. Radicalism in Education (Year 1)
35 Manchester Scales. Tendermindedness in Education (Year 1)
36 RDI Primary Score Year 3
37 RDI Secondary Score Year 3
38 RDI Primary Score Year 2
39 RDI Secondary Score Year 2
40 RDI Primary Score Year 1(end)
41 RDI Secondary Score Year 1(end)
42 RDI Primary Score Year 1(start)
43 RDI Secondary Score Year 1(start)
44 Age
45 Social Class
46 Academic Achievement (A levels)

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3	Col 4	Col 5	Col 6	Col 7	Col 8	Col 9
1									
2	-2713								
3	6562	-2029							
4	5117	-1930	7380						
5	1183	-0494	3222	2134					
6	1753	-0432	4954	3828	7082				
7	2219	-1034	4498	2946	5955	5869			
8	1712	-0867	4358	3482	5938	5855	6469		
9	2807	-1113	5034	3697	7779	7402	8326	7738	
10	0230	-0673	1064	1494	-1180	-0235	-2739	-2343	-1866
11	0228	0889	0218	-0289	0710	-0473	0513	0022	0082
12	1469	-1929	0122	0064	1128	0558	1396	1757	2090
13	-0320	-1008	0183	0327	-1107	-0549	-0023	-0075	-0446
14	1903	-1201	1466	1663	0182	-0387	0279	0265	0444
15	-0440	-1221	-0212	-0305	-0562	0194	-0844	-1055	-0679
16	2648	-1323	3340	3877	0840	2184	0743	1210	1492
17	2591	-1837	3424	3290	0313	2204	1032	1285	1534
18	0308	-0868	2105	2846	0197	0866	1039	-0241	0830
19	1864	-0308	2110	2135	0691	1832	2601	1953	2396
20	1773	-0748	2011	2683	0916	1569	3132	1905	2903
21	0828	0329	1235	1617	0589	0619	1444	0518	1435
22	1847	0139	3788	3633	2391	2201	2888	2278	3568
23	3829	-0778	5011	4684	2298	3136	3715	3057	3755
24	3044	-0899	4166	3296	1946	2548	2835	3123	3300
25	2204	-0970	5257	5031	2151	3399	3841	4034	4145
26	3507	-0499	4987	4291	1736	2241	3260	2683	3265
27	0233	1132	-0850	-0669	0704	-0167	0647	0711	0713

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3	Col 4	Col 5	Col 6	Col 7	Col 8	Col 9
28	2719	0645	3503	3467	1989	1823	2695	2239	2950
29	3314	-0242	5668	5251	2835	3817	4293	4048	4978
30	3385	-0689	4324	6294	-0109	1897	1781	1369	2060
31	0220	-0266	1282	1244	0007	1113	-1163	-0728	-0548
32	-0550	0244	-0159	0080	0375	-0707	0744	-0685	0153
33	0260	-1385	0432	0891	-0454	-0263	0284	0317	0556
34	0285	-0666	-0333	0148	0134	-0339	0988	-0254	0422
35	0096	-1306	-0116	0238	0798	1068	-0308	0160	0555
36	2306	-3015	2225	2646	-0606	-0182	0145	-0562	-0341
37	2756	-3386	2535	2219	-1178	-0111	0062	-0523	0106
38	1444	-0920	0427	0206	-0015	0302	-0753	0426	0335
39	1809	-1438	1685	1095	-0374	-0380	0068	-0321	0401
40	1011	-1285	1090	0336	1179	1499	1313	1001	1583
41	1303	-1003	1329	0803	0715	0533	0634	0666	1036
42	1719	-0762	2387	1168	1017	1500	1380	1098	1904
43	0696	-0363	1869	0211	-0422	-0298	0792	-0156	0504
44	-0791	0402	-0738	-1126	-0093	0472	1388	0746	0646
45	-0914	0387	0192	-1043	0429	0317	0028	0316	0292
46	0245	0221	1266	0947	1042	0524	0992	0784	1327

Row	Col 10	Col 11	Col 12	Col 13	Col 14	Col 15	Col 16	Col 17	Col 18
11	0053								
12	-2038	-1838							
13	-0198	-0153	-0792						
14	-0446	-0549	-0294	3527					
15	0799	-0286	0414	6183	1131				
16	1308	0138	-1687	0547	1013	0439			

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 10	Col 11	Col 12	Col 13	Col 14	Col 15	Col 16	Col 17	Col 18
17	0903	−0117	−0946	0960	0533	0424	7993		
18	2611	−0828	−1124	1844	0860	1077	2989	3296	
19	0563	0516	0419	0177	−0281	−1622	1322	1918	3181
20	−0626	−0161	1083	0903	1130	−0614	2958	3235	5103
21	−0212	0597	−0249	1541	1843	0186	1769	1001	3111
22	0897	−0347	1710	−0291	−0305	−1902	0749	1395	1634
23	0241	0090	2063	−0237	−0159	−0537	0835	1423	1818
24	1366	0468	2031	−0794	0185	−0685	0660	1226	2299
25	1534	0326	0175	0236	0840	−0441	2392	2805	2440
26	2315	0296	0993	0275	0682	0324	2629	2703	3171
27	−1188	−1088	4581	−1714	−1260	−0980	−0958	−1791	−0826
28	0279	1214	0841	−0700	0300	−1200	−0096	−0143	1544
29	1118	−0697	0757	0087	0427	−1143	1780	2400	3287
30	2177	−0169	−0503	0387	0887	−0161	2927	3251	3734
31	7089	0428	−1142	0343	0479	0577	1988	1402	2275
32	−0299	6753	−2660	0410	−0787	0289	−0549	−0270	0237
33	−0439	−0340	−1227	3308	3558	2999	1376	1755	1185
34	0480	−0463	−1643	0972	4846	1061	−0041	−0520	0077
35	0303	−0571	0133	3853	3396	6455	0380	−0400	0053
36	1514	0560	−1112	4262	4422	2964	2352	2353	1963
37	0508	−0088	−0327	4783	4697	3034	0619	0951	0684
38	0127	0540	0365	1039	1156	1261	1090	0743	−1005
39	−0034	0030	−0098	3373	3449	2265	0055	0636	1016
40	0153	−0527	−0132	3202	2357	3388	1689	2033	2456
41	−0141	−0552	0604	3455	3142	2803	0375	1026	1200
42	0135	0554	−0721	2594	3381	2387	−0466	−0444	0690

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 10	Col 11	Col 12	Col 13	Col 14	Col 15	Col 16	Col 17	Col 18
43	-0737	0165	-0226	3032	2827	2638	-1296	-0399	-0023
44	-2324	-0471	0147	0498	0622	-0219	-1567	-1103	-1303
45	0148	-0225	0467	0213	0948	0181	-0518	-0020	1108
46	0443	-1047	0192	0268	0198	0101	0615	0128	1113

Row	Col 19	Col 20	Col 21	Col 22	Col 23	Col 24	Col 25	Col 26	Col 27
20	3540								
21	1356	6067							
22	2971	1315	0418						
23	2575	1834	0102	6409					
24	2054	2684	1304	5308	6543				
25	2653	1973	-0016	5998	7589	6083			
26	2725	2588	0555	4665	5820	7260	6477		
27	-1189	-0104	-1083	-0615	-0008	0375	-0973	-0474	
28	1649	2994	3774	4443	4808	5892	3194	4593	0180
29	2988	3620	1853	6031	7244	5638	6930	5653	-0335
30	2211	2916	2946	3978	4881	4391	4930	4984	-1140
31	0240	-0216	-0144	0046	0179	0807	1656	1808	-1327
32	0125	-0039	1140	-0481	-0798	-0915	-0791	-1086	-2197
33	-0073	1551	1935	-0585	-0292	-0181	0604	0129	-2197
34	-0009	-0013	1669	-1261	-1606	-0928	-0415	-0064	-1037
35	-1425	-0196	0863	-1422	-0910	-0017	-0330	-0474	-0475
36	0523	1090	0369	-1135	0415	0171	0827	1763	-2322
37	1092	1119	1270	-0507	0543	0142	1076	0326	-2763
38	-0612	0558	0539	-0303	0274	-0282	0062	-0455	-0366
39	-1210	0597	1077	-0133	0682	0294	0595	0391	-2364

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 19	Col 20	Col 21	Col 22	Col 23	Col 24	Col 25	Col 26	Col 27
40	-0403	1394	1172	-0049	-0259	0543	0691	0524	-1140
41	-0815	1116	1764	0726	0422	0344	0423	-0120	-1931
42	-0945	0674	1522	-0584	0042	0396	0818	-0140	-1668
43	-0418	0698	2084	-0100	-0071	0253	0269	-0195	-2481
44	0848	-0568	-1818	0180	0692	0659	-0772	-0550	0045
45	1142	-0601	-0787	-0482	-1018	-1349	0149	-0498	0564
46	-0368	1761	0425	0026	0942	1359	0331	0849	0245

Row	Col 28	Col 29	Col 30	Col 31	Col 32	Col 33	Col 34	Col 35	Col 36
29	4059								
30	4210	5966							
31	-0261	0789	1933						
32	1008	-1523	0255	-0620					
33	-0178	-0029	1793	0975	-0949				
34	-0209	-0422	0945	0127	0245	3050			
35	-0966	-0853	-0270	0834	-1504	4884	2121		
36	-0590	-0011	2461	2290	0894	3155	2857	2133	
37	-0330	-0203	1359	0912	0256	3517	3172	2924	7245
38	-0595	0392	0404	1513	-0423	1236	2352	1030	2552
39	0042	-0023	1131	0221	0674	2921	3599	2748	4825
40	-0243	0109	1967	1337	-0173	3320	2561	2783	5287
41	0494	0219	1833	0861	-0211	3414	3532	3684	4290
42	0122	1072	1584	0652	1063	3504	3552	2453	3094
43	1203	-0414	0606	-0114	1172	3447	3202	3082	1689
44	0623	-1297	-1460	-2579	-0449	0375	0356	-0325	1014
45	1569	0119	-1702	0083	-0539	0017	1215	0009	0285
46	1533	1231	1345	-0597	-1382	0199	-0065	0369	0543

Correlation Matrix 3 (cont..)

Row	Col 37	Col 38	Col 39	Col 40	Col 41	Col 42	Col 43	Col 44	Col 45
38	2516								
39	6990	1986							
40	4647	3121	4645						
41	5812	3016	6788	7544					
42	3777	2632	3851	4358	3505				
43	4686	1236	5108	3159	5034	5604			
44	0594	0824	0029	-1509	-0823	0294	0623		
45	0326	0417	0338	-0267	-0949	0191	0388	0343	
46	-0966	1002	0842	1604	0202	0348	-1765	-2492	-2099

Appendix 2

Interview Schedules
(pp 494 - 504)

Letter to Students
(p 505)

Appendix 2

INTERVIEW SAMPLE SCHEDULES

Note: a. The Schedules were drawn up before the sample entered college on the basis of the theoretical considerations in Chapter 3. During the three years a few additional questions were added (marked with an asterisk in the schedule) but the areas for investigation in each interview remained basically those conceived at the start of the research.

        b. The questions were asked of all students, but the characteristic of the interview was free ranging discussion.

Term 1

Interview 1.1

1. "Putting at ease" questions/conversation (home, school, vacation jobs).

2. Why did you wish to teach?

3. When did you decide to teach?

4. How long do you think you will teach? (explore commitment).

5. Can you think of any person, or groups of people, who have influenced your decision to take up teaching?

6. Why did you choose this College?

7. Have you formed any general impressions of the College since coming here?

8. What do you expect from the College? (try to explore specific expectations as well as broad - probe).

9. What do you remember of your interview?

Interview 1.2

1. What differences do you find between college and school (or work, etc)?

2. Have you been surprised at anything that has happened since you came to college? (probe role expectations).

3. What are your general impressions now of
   - the Education Course? (Does she "know" clubs = Education?)
   - Main Course?
   - Introductory Course?

4. How much contact do you have with
    - Staff?
    - other students? } explore nature of this contact

5. Have you been influenced in any particular way since coming
   to College by
    - Staff?
    - other students? } try to explore re teaching -
    - others? } but follow other leads

6. (If not taken up in 5 or 6) How much contact do you have
   with 2nd/3rd Years? Nature? Influence?

7. Do you feel the College has a distinctive atmosphere? (Has
   she made a general appreciation?)

*8. Has the strength of your commitment to teaching changed since
    coming to College?

*9. How do you feel about the practice of corporal punishment?

10. (If time) What are you expecting from next term's **Group
    Study** (Teaching Practice)?

Term 2

Interview 2.1 (School Practice)

1. Tell me your impressions of the children in your group/
   school/class.

2. How much preparation did you do
    - before Group Study?
    - each evening/weekend?

3. Did you enjoy Group Study?
    - Why?
    - Why not?

4. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected
   and what happened?
    - Why?
    - Why not?

5. Can you describe what you think you learned about teaching
   during this practice
   (probe - from children
          - **from staff**
          - from other students
          - from teacher(s))

6. How much contact did you have with Tutors during the practice?
   (Probe what she thought tutors would do; what they did do).

7. How do other students feel about Group Study?

*8. Did you miss any part of the practice?

9. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?

*10. Has your strength of commitment to teaching changed as a result of Group Study?

*11. How do you feel about corporal punishment? (probe any change since last interview).

Interview 2.2

1. How did you spend today (yesterday/Friday)?

2. Do you think the college has a distinctive atmosphere/ethos? If so, how would you describe the general college ethos/ atmosphere?

3. What specific pieces of work have you to do (outstanding) at the moment? When do you have to give them in?

4. What do you think will happen if you don't give in this/these pieces of work?

5. Have you ever "clashed" with a tutor? (had a disagreement with/ been remonstrated with by).
   - Can you describe it?
   - How do you feel about it now?
   - Do you know how the tutor feels about it? What do you think he/she has done/will do about it?

*6. How do other students feel about lateness for lectures?
   - Club notes? (probe what she thinks will happen as reward/ punishment).

7. Here is a list of tutors in the College. Go through the list and tell me who you "know" and who you "know well". (Give definition - Know = what does he do/have some contact with; Know well = take a problem to/have a good deal of contact).

8. (If time) If you went back to your old school (or "a school" if felt appropriate) and were asked to talk for five or ten minutes to a group of sixth formers about teaching, and about your experience in this College in particular, what would you say? (probe for values).

Term 3

Interview 3.1

1. Did you enjoy (are you enjoying) the Suffolk teaching practice?
   - Why?
   - Why not?

2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected and what you found?

3. What did the School (teacher, Head) seem to think the College should be doing
   - to prepare you for the practice?
   - to help you doing the practice?

4. How often were you visited by a tutor? What did he/she do? Do you think you had sufficient help from College? (probe).

5. What do you think you learned about teaching?
   (probe - from children
          - from tutors
          - from teacher(s)
          - from students)

6. How did/do other students feel about the Suffolk practice?

7. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?

*8. Were you away from school for any part of the practice?

*9. How do you feel now about corporal punishment?

*10. What are your views on the teaching practice file?

*11. (If time) How much did/do you see of other students during the practice? (probe - role of "paired" student).

Interview 3.2

1. What work have you outstanding at the moment?
   - How important do you consider it to be?
   - How valuable has been pieces of work you have done since in College? (expand "pieces of work" to include all experiences).

2. What work do you think you should be doing? - now/next year.

3. Are there distinctive groupings of students in College? (probe Education/Main Course/Hostel/Cliques/Coffee - ask for descriptions).

4. Here is a list of College staff.
   - How many of them do you "know"/"know well" (give definitions)
   - Have any of them had much/any influence on you? In what way? (probe - knowledge: academic/pedagogic
                                  - attitudes: teaching/general
                                  - skills: teaching)

5. What have you enjoyed most in this first year?

6. What have you enjoyed least in this first year?

*7. Would you alter the First Year Course? How?

*8. Do you think you have changed much during the year? (personally/ **professionally**). **How much of this is due to College?**

*9. How frank do you feel you and other students are in Education Groups?

Term 4

Interview 4.1

1. How strongly committed to teaching do you now feel? (probe change).

2. What pieces of work have you outstanding?

3. What do you think will happen if you do not do them?

4. Do you feel you have done a very good (good/particularly good for yourself) piece of work - written/school practice/ discussion - during your time in College?
   - Was it "rewarded"?
   - Did you expect it to be rewarded? How?

5. How do other students feel about rewards/punishments in College? (if possible, probe what she sees as the sanction system).

*6. In the group of students you most go around with - how much discussion is there of the College Course? College staff?

7. How much contact do you have with First Year students? Do they ask you about the College Course and/or College staff?

*8. Do your friends in College influence your attitude to teaching? How? (children, discipline, subjects).

Interview 4.2

1. Why did you choose Middle/First Year Group?

2. How important do you think is contribution to discussion in Education group? Is your contribution commented on by the tutor? by other students? Does everyone in your group contribute?

3. Do students continue their education discussions over meals/ coffee/evening? How does student discussion compare with discussion in Education Groups?

4. Have you disagreed with a tutor? (on what? - any feelings about consequences?)

5. Do you think there is a "college line" on
    - children?
    - teaching?
    - teaching practice?

6. Do other students think there is a "college line" on these matters?

7. How hard do you work? (probe - how she selects <u>what</u> to work at). Do other students work hard?

*8. Has your attitude to corporal punishment by teachers changed since coming to College?

Term 5

Interview 5.1

1. Are you enjoying (did you enjoy) the second year practice?
    - why?
    - why not?

2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected and what you found?

3. How often were you visited by a Tutor? What did he/she do? Did you think you had sufficient help from College? (probe).

4. What was the attitude of the School (Head, teacher(s)) towards College? Did the school seem to expect that College should have prepared you in specific ways for the practice? (probe nature of criticism if any).

5. What do you think you learned about teaching on this practice?
    (probe - from children?
            - from tutors?
            - from teacher(s)?
            - from other students?)

6. What/who was the major source of help to you on the practice? In what way(s)?

*7. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?

*8. Did you miss any part of the practice?

9. Has your commitment to teaching changed as a result of the practice?

*10. How do you feel now about corporal punishment?

Interview 5.2

1. How did you spend yesterday and today? (The last 2 days). (Probe: typicality).

2. How many tutors have you spoken to (or have spoken to you) in the past 2 **days**? In what circumstances?

3. What student groups (not timetabled) have you taken part in over the past 2 days?

4. How strong do you think is the "corporate life" of College? (hint at: strength of student clubs and activities; loyalty to College; esprit de corps; sense of community; sense of college identity). Probe: nature of student groups and sense of corporate loyalty.

5. Are you aware of any particular student groupings within the College? How would you describe them? (probe: day/resident; Main course; Education; hostel; coffee; club).

6. How favourably do you think the students generally regard the staff? (probe any reasons for answer).

*7. Do you feel there are some things you cannot discuss easily with staff?

Term 6

Interview 6.1

1. Can you tell me how you think you are being assessed in College?

2. What comments have you to make on the method of assessment in College?

3. Do the students in general feel strongly about assessment of
   - teaching?
   - written work?

4. Do you know any students who have left College? Do you know why they left?

5. How committed do you now feel to teaching as a career? (probe change).

6. What pieces of college written work have been most important to you?

7. Are you a student member of a teachers union? (follow up with what does she see as the purpose of teachers unions).

8. Does being a teacher mean there are certain things you cannot do? (probe constraints on non-school behaviour).

*9. Has anything been discussed in Education (or other parts of the course) recently on which you felt you could not say what you really believed?

*10. Have you made any new friends among other students this year?

Interview 6.2

1. Looking back over your two years in College can you tell me
    what you consider to be
    - the most valuable part of course? Why?
    - the least valuable part of course? Why?

2. What would you change in the course if you could?

3. How much help has College been to you so far as a preparation
    for teaching?

4. What specific contribution to learning the teacher's role has
    been made by these parts of the course:-
        Education (and Club work)
        Main Course   probe details
        Part III courses (curriculum)   if possible
        Introductory Course

5. Who has helped you most this year?

6. Here is a list of College staff: Who do you know/know well?
    (definition)

*7. Do you think you have changed in your attitudes to teaching
    more this year than in your first year?

*8. How do you now feel about corporal punishment?

Term 7

Note: It was originally hoped to interview students twice during
this term. In the event it proved impossible because of the demands
of the ten-week final school practice on the students and the demands
upon the investigator of taking up a new post some sixty miles away
from the College. It is felt that even if the investigator had been
at the College full-time it would have proved exceptionally difficult
to arrange two interviews because of the pressures the students felt
themselves to be under. However, each student was seen once during
the term. Originally two schedules had been prepared for this term.
The one given below represents a conflation of those two. All
discussions centred around the school practice.

Interview 7.1.

1. Are you enjoying school practice?
    - Why?
    - Why not?

2. Can you pinpoint any differences between what you expected and
    what you found?

3. How often are you visited by a College Tutor? Do you consider
    you are getting sufficient help from College?

4. How committed do you now feel towards teaching?

5. What do you think you have learned about teaching?
   (probe - from children
   - from tutors
   - **from teacher(s)**
   - from other students)

6. Who/What is the major source of help to you on the practice?

7. What is the attitude of the Head (or teacher) towards College? (probe: does the school comment adversely/**favourably**/ not at all on College?)

*8. How do you feel now about corporal punishment?

*9. Do you think you are in a difficult (or very difficult) **situation on this practice?**

10. Has this practice changed your view of the age level you **wish** to teach?

11. Would you prefer to have a longer or a shorter practice?

12. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?

13. How valuable do you find keeping your school practice **file**?

14. Have you missed any part of the practice?

Term 8

Interview 8.1

1. Looking back on your Final Practice
   - what stands out most in your mind?
   - what did you learn in any major way about
     - teachers?
     - children?
     - teaching?
   - did it change your views on corporal punishment?
   - would you wish to return to the school?
   - how valuable was College preparation?
   - in relation to other practices - which most important?

2. How would you describe the general atmosphere of College?

3. Do you think there is a particular set of college values by which your performance in the classroom/and on paper/and in groups is assessed?

4. Have you any experience of (friends in) other colleges? How does this college compare in your view?

5. What do you consider the job of an Education Tutor to be?
    A Main Course Tutor?

6. What work have you outstanding at the moment? What would
    happen if you did not do it?

Interview 8.2

1. What groups do you belong to in College? (probe formal and
    informal).

2. What feelings of loyalty do you feel towards each group?
    (i.e. will you miss it? Do you feel any sense of allegiance?)

3. Do you feel these (this) group(s) exerting pressure on you in
    any way? (probe particularly on informal groups).

4. Are you aware of any particular groupings of students in
    College? If so, can you describe them?

5. Do you feel you could have worked much harder on the Course?

6. Do you feel your efforts have been generally recognised by
    College? Do you expect some sort of public acknowledgement?

*7. How would you describe the intellectual climate of college?

8. Can you think of anything happening this term in an Education
    Group where you have felt that you couldn't honestly state
    your own opinions? (probe).

*9. If you were considering an issue like corporal punishment,
    would there be a difference between what you would write in
    an essay, what you would say in the Education Group, what
    you would say to a tutor in a tutorial, and what you would say
    to your friends?

Interview 8.3

Note: This interview was unplanned at the start of the investigation.
It was found possible in Term 8 to arrange a third interview for just
over half the sample. This took the form of following up points from
Interviews 8.1 and 8.2 together with the following two areas:-

*1. Here is a list of College Staff. How many do you know?
    Know well? (give definition).

*2. What do you consider you have learned about teaching from
    College as against from School Practice?

Term 9

Interview 9.1 - Final Interview

1. How committed do you feel towards a career as a teacher? (probe nature of commitment).

2. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?

3. Who has been of major help to you over the past three years as a preparation for entering full-time teaching? (probe individuals - groups).

*4. Which teaching practice has been of most importance for you? Why?

5. Which parts of the College course have been of most value to you? Of least value?

6. What changes would you make in the three year College course?

*7. Do you feel you have changed significantly in the past three years
   - as a person?
   - in your attitudes to education and teaching?

*8. (If answer to 7 is Yes) When in the course do you consider the most significant change to have taken place? (probe).

9. How strongly do you think you have been influenced by the College?

10. Do you feel there is a "College line" or a "College style" relating to teaching (i.e. certain ways of behaving in College and School which show the existence of an underlying set of values to guide behaviour). If so, can you describe what you see as that "style" and those values. (probe/prompt for children, curriculum).

<u>Letter to First Year Students selected for Interview Sample</u>

Dear

I am writing to ask if you would be prepared to help me with a piece of research I am undertaking under the direction of Professor D. M. Lee of the University of London Institute of Education.

The research is concerned with students' experience of the College course and it would probably involve you in meeting me for a half-hour interview once or twice a term.

You will probably wish to know more details about the research and your own involvement. Could you come to a meeting in my study (2nd floor) at 1.30 p.m. on .... when I will be very happy to give you further information. If you cannot attend the meeting, could you kindly drop a note in my pigeonhole.

I would emphasise that the interviews, etc., will be entirely confidential and is in no way part of the College course.

I do hope you will feel you are able to help me over this request.

Yours sincerely,

D. R. Gibson

Note: A similar letter was sent to those second year students invited to join the interview sample.

Appendix 3

Questionnaires etc. completed in this study

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

It would be appreciated if you could give the following information:-

1. NAME ....

2. DATE OF BIRTH ....

INSTRUCTIONS

A number of statements are given overleaf which have particular reference to the job of a teacher.

You are invited to place a mark (✓) in the appropriate box to show how strongly you agree or disagree with the statements from the point of view of

        a) A Primary School Teacher (children aged 5-11 years)

        b) A Secondary School Teacher (children aged 11 and over)

i.e. TWO replies for each statement.

Please reply according to what you feel SHOULD be the case, even if you are aware that at times this may not correspond with current practice.

Sections of the box are as follows:-

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

There is no "right" or "wrong" answer for any question; your replies will be considered merely as an indication of your agreement or disagreement with certain points of view on debatable problems.

1. A teacher's MAIN responsibility should be to teach subjects (English, Maths., Music, History, etc.)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

2. A teacher's MAIN responsibility should be to act as a sort of "substitute parent" to the pupils in the class.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

3. Boys and girls are best taught separately.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

4. A teacher should use the comparison of one child's work with that of another as a method of motivation.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

5. A teacher should try to ensure that in her classroom all pupils are working on the same subject or topic.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

6. A teacher should make up her own syllabus of what she will teach.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

7. A teacher should group children by ability, putting "slow-learners with "slow-learners" for academic subjects.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

8. A teacher should allow pupils at times to act upon what she thinks are wrong decisions on their part.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

9. A teacher should know HOW to teach, i.e. a good knowledge of the methods and principles of teaching, rather than having a very good knowledge of one particular subject.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

10. A teacher should be prepared to visit parents in their homes.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

11. A teacher's task is mainly to arrange the classroom environment, then stand back to let the pupils learn from their surroundings.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

12. A teacher should insist on all pupils wearing school uniform.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

13. A teacher should prefer her pupils to acquire a broad understanding of a number of subjects rather than a detailed knowledge of one or two subjects.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

14. A teacher should mark ALL the work done by the pupils in her class.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

15. A teacher is most effective in a class where all the pupils are about the same age.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

16. A teacher should, in her classroom, operate some scheme of marks, stars, etc. for the award of a cup, badge, privilege, etc.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

17. A teacher should take an active part in the life of the local community (by joining a local club, organisation, etc.)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

18. "Education in breadth is preferable to education in depth".

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

19. A teacher should keep her subject separate and distinct in the pupils' minds from other subjects taught in school.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

20. A teacher should allow pupils to discover "right" and "wrong" (behaviour and attitudes) for themselves.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

21. A teacher should have a good knowledge of child development.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

22. A teacher should regularly publish a list of marks showing a rank order of her pupils.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

23. A teacher should teach pupils to obey orders at once and without question.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

24. A teacher's out of school activities should be largely connected with youth work, sport, etc.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

25. A teacher should be prepared to give Sex Instruction.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

26. A teacher should attempt to control pupils' dress and behaviour out of school.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

27. A teacher should encourage parents to visit the school.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

28. A teacher should allow older pupils more privilege than younger.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

29. A teacher should allow pupils to choose other children with whom they wish to work in class.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

30. A teacher should invite visitors into the school from outside to talk to the pupils about their (the visitors') work, interests, etc.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

31. A teacher should praise pupils' work frequently.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

32. A teacher should treat all pupils alike in rewarding and punishing.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

33. A teacher should be able to teach a number of subjects quite well.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

34. A teacher should be allowed to use corporal punishment.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Primary Teacher					
Secondary Teacher					

Survey of Opinions about Education

constructed by

R. A. C. Oliver, University of Manchester

You are invited to give your opinions about a number of educational
questions which are set out in the following pages. As the questions
are matters of opinion, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers: you
will be asked to choose the answer you prefer from a number of
alternatives. Please answer every question. There is no time limit,
but you are advised not to spend a long time considering each question.
Space is available on the back of the answer-sheet for you to use if
you want to add anything to the answers you have given.

Please give your own frank opinion. Answer the answer-sheet only
after writing your name, etc. on it.

PART 1

A number of debatable opinions about education are expressed in the
following statements. You are asked to indicate whether on the whole
you agree or disagree with each of these opinions. Five alternative
answers are suggested - STRONGLY AGREE, AGREE, NO OPINION, DISAGREE
STRONGLY DISAGREE, and on the answer-sheet there are five boxes
corresponding to these answers for each question. Please indicate
your own attitude by placing an X in the appropriate box on the answer-
sheet. Be sure to indicate in one of these five ways your opinion
about each of these statements. Should you wish to qualify the answers
you have given, you will find a space in which you may write on the
back of the answer-sheet.

1. The time to begin reading lessons is when the children feel the
    need for them.
2. Direct moral instruction does little to improve children's
    characters.
3. History should make children familiar with the great figures of the
    past.
4. Schools should teach Social Studies rather than History or
    Geography.
5. Naturalness is more important than good manners in children.
6. Character training is impossible if there is no final standard
    of right or wrong.
7. You cannot expect children to write good English unless they have
    a good foundation in grammar.
8. The teacher should not stand in the way of a child's efforts to
    learn in his own fashion.

PART II

You are asked to give your opinion about a number of changes in
education which have been suggested. You will probably feel that some
of the changes would be desirable and that others would be undesirable.
Some of you may not feel able to express an opinion about one way or
the other. Five alternative answers are offered: VERY DESIRABLE,
RATHER DESIRABLE, NO OPINION, RATHER UNDESIRABLE and VERY UNDESIRABLE,
and for each question five corresponding boxes are provided on the
answer-sheet. Please consider each of the changes mentioned, and

indicate your opinion of it by placing an X in the appropriate box
on the answer-sheet. Please be sure to indicate in one of these five
ways your opinion about each of the changes mentioned. Should you wish
to qualify the answers you have given, you will find space in which
you may write on the back of the answer-sheet.

1. Fewer free school meals.
2. The raising of the school leaving age to 16.
3. More education for international understanding.
4. Increased expenditure on adult education.
5. School courses in parenthood.
6. Bigger allowances for play material in primary schools.
7. Comprehensive schools to be the normal form of secondary education.
8. More nursery schools.
9. A higher proportion of the national income to be spent on education.
10. Smaller classes in the primary school.
11. Less corporal punishment in schools.

PART III

Below are four reasons which might be given for the teaching of English
Language in schools. You may feel that better reasons than any of these
might be given but please consider only the four reasons given here.
Some of these you may feel are better than others. Some you may feel
are not good at all. Five alternative opinions about each of the
reasons are given - VERY GOOD, GOOD, FAIRLY GOOD, NO OPINION, NOT GOOD.
Corresponding boxes are provided on the answer-sheet. Not that the
five possible ways of expressing your opinion are not exactly the same
as in PARTS I and II.

1. Reasons for the teaching of English Language in schools:
   (a) It helps children to express themselves with freedom and
       fluency.
   (b) It cultivates enjoyment in the use of language.
   (c) A person who uses English incorrectly is handicapped in
       his career.
   (d) Children must acquire proficiency in spelling, punctuation
       and grammar.

When you have indicated your opinion about the reasons for teaching
English Language in schools, you will find various reasons which might
be given for teaching other subjects stated below. Please indicate
in a similar way what you feel about each of the reasons given.

2. Reasons for teaching science:
   (a) The child's sense of wonder is a good starting-point for
       the development of his interests.
   (b) The progress of industry demands workers equipped with
       scientific techniques.
   (c) The study of science is satisfying to one's intellectual
       curiosity.
   (d) A scientific training offers good prospects for a career.

3. Education for international understanding may be approached in the
   following four ways. Please indicate as before how good you feel
   each to be.

   (a) Respect for one's own country is the best foundation for
       one's attitude to other countries.

    (b) A study of international affairs should show which countries
        are our friends.

    (c) Contact between the people of different countries makes them
        feel they are alike at heart.

    (d) Knowledge of the achievements of other countries engenders
        respect for them.

4. Reasons for Religious Instruction:

    (a) It develops a sense of spiritual values.

    (b) The knowledge of a loving God meets a deep-felt need in
        children.

    (c) It instils a sense of duty.

    (d) It helps to keep children from wrong-doing.

5. Reasons for excluding propaganda from schools:

    (a) It is better to aim at sound knowledge and a fair-minded
        attitude.

    (b) Pupils should be free to form their own opinions.

    (c) Propaganda might get into the wrong hands.

    (d) Instruction in one's duties to the state should come later.

6. The problem of comics. It is often said that some comics are
harmful to children, and a number of ways of dealing with the
problem have been suggested. Assume that some comics may be harmful,
and indicate as before how good you feel each of these suggestions
to be.

    (a) Parents should not allow their children to read such comics.

    (b) Try to cultivate interest in other kinds of reading matter.

    (c) The sale of harmful comics should be prohibited.

    (d) See that children can get the better comics.

7. Reasons for the training of teachers:

    (a) A teacher must acquire efficient techniques of teaching his
        subject.

    (b) A teacher must know how to control children.

    (c) A teacher must learn to understand children's needs.

    (d) A teacher must understand how to develop children's interest
        in their studies.

8. Corporal punishment. The majority of teachers are not in favour of
the prohibition of corporal punishment in schools. Here are some
of the arguments in favour of its retention. Indicate as before
how good you feel each of these particular arguments to be.

    (a) Some children will not respond to any other form of discipline.

    (b) No other type of punishment is over so quickly or leaves so
        little resentment.

    (c) Corporal punishment is an emergency measure to be followed by
        more constructive treatment.

    (d) The attitude of society to corporal punishment can only be
        altered gradually.

9. Reasons justifying the cost of special schools. It costs much more
to educate handicapped children, such as the educationally sub-
normal, in special schools than it does to educate normal children
in ordinary schools. Here are some of the reasons why the cost of

special schools is thought to be justified. Indicate as before how good you feel each of these reasons to be.

    (a) It is only fair that a child unfortunate enough to suffer from a handicap should be compensated by special educational treatment.

    (b) Handicapped children, like other children, should have the education their individual needs require.

    (c) Handicapped children can be very troublesome in ordinary schools.

    (d) The training provided may prevent the handicapped from becoming a charge upon society later.

10. Some arguments in favour of secondary technical education have been as follows. Please indicate as before how good you feel each of these arguments to be.

    (a) A technical school training gives a boy or girl a good start in the competition for jobs.

    (b) With some children the best approach to general education is through their technical interests.

    (c) Technical education is a good investment for an industrial country.

    (d) His future work is naturally one of the main interests of an adolescent.

If you wish to add to the answers you have given, please use the space provided on the back of the answer-sheet.

Third Year Questionnaire (3YQ)

You have spent getting on for three years in college. The questions below ask you to think about this experience, and to say how you feel about it at this moment of time.

Please answer either by ticking the appropriate response(s) or as the question asks.

	Please answer here
1. How much have you enjoyed your three years at College?	A great deal Quite a lot A moderate amount A little Not at all
2. Over the past three years how much do you think you have changed as a person?	A great deal Quite a lot A moderate amount A little Not at all
3a. Over the past three years how much do you feel your attitudes towards teaching have changed?	A great deal Quite a lot A moderate amount A little Not at all
3b. If your attitude to teaching has changed at least a moderate amount, how much do you feel that College has been responsible for this change?	A great deal Quite a lot A moderate amount A little Not at all
4. When do you feel that your most important learning about the role of the teacher happened?	Before you came to college? In the first year of college? In the second year of college? In the third year of college? Steadily throughout the course?
5. List in order of importance to you the most significant experiences in learning the role of the teacher in school (you may wish to award "equal" placing):	Teaching practices Education lectures and discussions Club work Main courses Other college courses Informal discussion with other students

Third Year Questionnaire   cont...

6. List, in order of importance, the groups of people you consider to have had most influence on you in learning the role of the teacher in school (you may wish to award "equal" placing):	Education tutors
	Main course tutors
	Teachers and heads
	  in schools
	Other students
	Boyfriends/husbands
	Others (please
	  specify)

7. How easy do you find it to think of yourself as a teacher?	Very easy
	Easy
	Some uncertainty
	  but moderate con-
	  fidence
	Difficult
	Very difficult

8. How do you now feel towards teaching as a career?	Strongly committed Committed Moderately committed Weakly committed Not at all committed
9. Do you feel that the preparation you have received in college to help you carry out the role of the teacher has been:	Very good help? Good help? Moderate help? Poor help? Very poor help?

Eysenck Personality Inventory

by

H.J. Eysenck and Sybil B.G. Eysenck

Personality Questionnaire

Form A

NAME .... AGE .... SEX ....

OCCUPATION ....

Instructions

Here are some questions regarding the way you behave, feel and act. After each question is a space for answering "YES" or "NO".

Try to decide whether "YES" or "NO" represents your usual way of acting or feeling. Then put a cross in the circle under the column headed "YES" or "NO". Work quickly, and don't spend too much time over any question; we want your first reaction, not a long-drawn out thought process. The whole questionnaire shouldn't take more than a few minutes. Be sure not to omit any questions.

Now turn the page over and go ahead. Work quickly, and remember to answer every question. There are no right or wrong answers, and this isn't a test of intelligence or ability, but simple a measure of the way you behave.

YES   NO

1. Do you often long for excitement?

2. Do you often need understanding friends to cheer you up?

3. Are you usually carefree?

4. Do you find it very hard to take no for an answer?

5. Do you stop and think things over before doing anything?

6. If you say you will do something do you always keep your promise, no matter how inconvenient it might be to do so?

7. Does your mood often go up and down?

8. Do you generally do and say things quickly without stopping to think?

9. Do you ever feel "just miserable" for no good reason?

10. Would you do almost anything for a dare?

11. Do you suddenly feel shy when you want to talk to an attractive stranger?

12. Once in a while do you lose your temper and get angry?

13. Do you often do things on the spur of the moment?

14. Do you often worry about things you should not have done or said?

15. Generally, do you prefer reading to meeting people?

16. Are your feelings rather easily hurt?

17. Do you like going out a lot?

18. Do you occasionally have thoughts and ideas that you would not like other people to know about?

19. Are you sometimes bubbling over with energy and sometimes very sluggish?

20. Do you prefer to have few but special friends?

21. Do you daydream a lot?

22. When people shout at you, do you shout back?

23. Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?

24. Are all your habits good and desirable ones?

25. Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a gay party?

26. Would you call yourself tense or "highly strung"?

27. Do other people think of you as being very lively?

28. After you have done something important, do you often come away feeling you could have done better?

29. Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people?

30. Do you sometimes gossip?

31. Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep?

32. If there is something you want to know about, would you rather look it up in a book than talk to someone about it?

33. Do you get palpitations or thumping in your heart?

34. Do you like the kind of work that you need to pay close attention to?

35. Do you get attacks of shaking or trembling?

36. Would you always declare everything at the customs, even if you knew that you could never be found out?

37. Do you hate being with a crowd who play jokes on one another?

38. Are you an irritable person?

39. Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly?

40. Do you worry about awful things that might happen?

41. Are you slow and unhurried in the way you move?

42. Have you ever been late for an appointment or work?

43. Do you have many nightmares?

44. Do you like talking to people so much that you never miss a chance of talking to a stranger?

45. Are you troubled by aches and pains?

46. Would you be very unhappy if you could not see lots of people most of the time?

YES NO

47. Would you call yourself a nervous person?

48. Of all the people you know, are there some whom you definitely do not like?

49. Would you say that you were fairly self-confident?

50. Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or your work?

51. Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party?

52. Are you troubled with feelings of inferiority?

53. Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party?

54. Do you sometimes talk about things you know little about?

55. Do you worry about your health?

56. Do you like playing pranks on others?

57. Do you suffer from sleeplessness?

PLEASE CHECK TO SEE THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS

College Environment Index

Colleges and Universities differ from one another in many ways. We are interested especially in the general atmosphere as this is perceived by the student body.

You are asked to take as realistic a view as possible and to answer as truthfully as possible about your own College, as you see it. Our interest is in the total picture perceived by different students and by groups of students.

Your answers will be treated as confidential and will not be disclosed to the College.

What to do

There are 100 statements in this booklet about College life.
You are to mark them TRUE or FALSE,
When you think a statement is generally characteristic of **your College, write T (for true).**
When you think a statement is generally not characteristic of **the College, write F (for false).**

YOU MUST ANSWER EVERY ITEM
Work rapidly, going through the entire list of statements as quickly as you can.

1. Students here really get excited at an athletic contest.
2. There are a great many facilities and opportunities here for individual creative activity.
3. The emphasis on the responsibility of educated people to give leadership is very strong in this college.
4. Quite a few members of the staff of this college have had varied and unusual careers.
5. The values most stressed here by staff are open-mindedness and objectivity.
6. Most of the lecturers are very thorough teachers who really probe into the fundamentals of their subjects.
7. The history and traditions of the college are strongly emphasised.
8. There is a student loan fund which is very helpful for minor emergencies.
9. Students frequently study or prepare for examinations together.
10. There isn't an awful lot to do here apart from attending classes and studying.
11. Students get so absorbed in various activities that they often lose all sense of time or personal comfort.
12. In college discussions, essays and exams, the main emphasis is on breadth of understanding, perspective and individual judgment.
13. A good deal of enthusiasm and support is aroused by fund drives for Red Cross, refugee aid, and other charitable causes.
14. The teaching staff and administration are seldom joked about maliciously or criticised in student conversations.
15. Individually "tailored" courses of an advanced nature are available for specially qualified students in this college.
16. Lecturers clearly explain the goals and purpose of their courses.
17. This college has an excellent reputation which is well-deserved.
18. No one is expected to suffer in silence if some regulation happens to create a personal hardship.
19. There is a great deal of borrowing and sharing among the students.

20. The competition for marks is quite intense here.
21. **Students set high standards of achievement for themselves.**
22. Students here are encouraged to be independent and individualistic.
23. **Tutors encourage students to think about taking up unusual** aspects of teaching, e.g. handicapped children, socially **disadvantaged children, etc.**
24. Students are seldom kept waiting when they have appointments **with members of staff.**
25. Long, serious intellectual discussions are common amongst the **students here.**
26. Most courses require intensive study and preparation out of **class.**
27. The leaving ceremony for third year students is a pretty moving **and memorable event.**
28. Books and articles dealing with psychological problems or personal values are widely read **and discussed.**
29. Students often help one another with their work.
30. **Students commonly study during the week-ends, even when they** might be expected to relax.
31. **Discussions get quite heated here, with a lot of display of** feeling.
32. **The expression of strong personal belief or conviction is quite** acceptable here.
33. **Students here learn** that they are not only expected to develop ideals but also to express them in action.
34. **The staff of this college have a very objective and well-based** view of each student's achievement and understanding.
35. **Most students have a great interest in organised academic** discussions in subjects which may not form part of their regular curriculum.
36. Most courses are very well organised and **progress systematically from week to week.**
37. Students exert considerable pressure on one another to **live up to the expected codes of conduct.**
38. Most members of staff are liberal in interpreting regulations **and treat violations with understanding and tolerance.**
39. Student parties are colourful and lively.
40. Most students get extremely tense here, **especially during** exam. periods.
41. Students put a lot of energy into everything they do - in class and out.
42. The students' right to personal privacy is respected here and adequate provision is made for it.
43. Many students here develop a strong sense of responsibility about their role in contemporary social and political life.
44. Most of the lecturers here are interested in students' personal problems.
45. Students are encouraged to continue studying and take extra courses after leaving college.
46. The lecturers really push the students' capacity to the limits.
47. I would recommend this college above others to a friend or **close** relation without reservation.
48. Students are encouraged to criticise the standards and methods of teaching by college staff.
49. It's easy to get a group together for card games, singing, going to the cinema, etc.
50. In most courses marks lists are posted up on the notice-board.

51. People around here seem to thrive on difficulty - the tougher things get the harder they work.
52. A well reasoned essay will be given a high mark here even though its viewpoint is opposed to the lecturer's.
53. The college regards training people for service to the community as one of its major responsibilities.
54. Lecturers often provoke arguments in class, often against themselves - the livelier the better.
55. The college offers opportunities for hearing about recent significant advances in scientific knowledge.
56. Most courses are a real intellectual challenge.
57. The common characteristics of students here is an intense loyalty to their college.
58. The psychology courses deal in a practical and helpful way with problems of personal adjustment and human relations.
59. In many courses there are projects or assignments which call for group work.
60. Students spend a long time planning their future careers and talking about the kind of conditions of work to be expected.
61. Many students go in for holiday activities of an unconventional kind - camping abroad, mountain climbing, visits to the States, etc.
62. No one needs to be afraid of expressing extreme or unpopular viewpoints in this college.
63. There are courses which involve field trips to slum areas, welfare agencies, and similar contacts with underprivileged people.
64. The lecturers go out of their way to help you here if you are known to be in difficulty.
65. When students get together they frequently talk about trends in are, music or the theatre.
66. Assignments are usually clear and specific, making it easy for students to plan their studies effectively.
67. Students are conscientious about taking good care of college property.
68. Students are frequently reminded to take preventive measures against illness.
69. Many student activities of an informal kind are unplanned and spontaneous.
70. Many students here worry about their future prospects.
71. There are many opportunities for students to get together for extra-curricular activities.
72. The college religious teaching tends to emphasise the value of acting on personal conviction rather than the acceptance of tradition.
73. Students are encouraged to give a lead in working for social reforms in their local community.
74. Individual tutorials and pastoral care by tutors are a feature of this college.
75. The library has collections of paintings and gramophone records on loan which circulate widely among the students.
76. Most students follow a systematic schedule for studying and recreation.
77. Old students are always pleased to discover that few things have changed since their time.
78. People here, in general, show great consideration for, and tolerance of each other.

79. There are quite a number of student organisations actively involved in college or community affairs.
80. Students who are given an adverse comment on their work really strain themselves to earn a better report.
81. Many students in this college participate in various ways (in Scouts, youth clubs, voluntary groups, etc.) in working with children during holiday periods.
82. Most students dress and act in this college according to their own tastes and belief.
83. Students in this college are actively concerned about international affairs.
84. Careful reasoning and clear logic, rather than personal likes and dislikes of lecturers, are used as a basis of grading student papers in this college.
85. To most students here, music and art are to be studied as well as experienced.
86. In most classes, the presentation of material is well planned and illustrated.
87. The main college events call out a lot of enthusiasm and support from students and staff.
88. In most classes there is a good deal of joking and laughing.
89. Students spend a lot of time together in common rooms, snack bars and in one another's rooms.
90. A substantial number of the students here take sedatives or tranquillising pills round about exam. times.
91. A controversial speaker always stirs up a lot of student discussion.
92. Students are expected to work out the details of their own study programme in their own way.
93. National elections generate a lot of strong feeling in the college.
94. Channels for expressing student's complaints are readily available.
95. Students who work hard for the fun of it are likely to be regarded as fairly typical here.
96. Members of staff put a lot of energy and enthusiasm into their teaching.
97. Many senior students consider it their duty to help new students adjust to college life.
98. When students do not like an administrative decision, they really work to get it changed.
99. It is easy to obtain student speakers for clubs or meetings.
100. Frequent tests are a feature of this college.

<u>Classroom Observation Schedule</u>

(Used during final Teaching Practice. See Chapter 7)

Could you kindly complete this sheet at the end of your observation of the student's teaching.

<u>NAME OF STUDENT</u> .... If in Secondary School,
                                         Age of Class   ....
<u>DATE OF VISIT</u>   ....
<u>NATURE OF LESSON</u> (just a word - e.g. 'French',
                      'Activity', 'Story')   ....

<u>OBSERVATIONS</u>

From your impressions, could you circle the words below to describe your feelings about what you saw of the student:

1. <u>Use of Praise</u> - Did she praise the children:
   frequently? fairly regularly? a moderate amount? rarely?
   practically never?

2. <u>"Contact" with children</u> - Did you feel her relationship with the
   <u>children was:</u>
   very good? good? average? poor? very poor?

3. <u>Choice allowed to children</u> - How much choice did she seem to be
   <u>allowing the children:</u>
   a great deal? quite a lot? a moderate amount? little choice?
   no choice?

4. <u>Choice of friendship grouping</u> - Did she allow children to work
   <u>together:</u>
   a great deal? quite a lot? a moderate amount? rarely? never?

5. <u>How actively do you think she tried to link the school work with</u>
   <u>the local environment, homes, the outside world, etc:</u>
   a great deal? quite a lot? a moderate amount? little? not at all?

6. <u>How much do you think the children were learning worthwhile things:</u>
   a great deal? quite a lot? a reasonable amount? only a little?
   nothing at all?

7. <u>Would you describe her approach generally as "authoritarian" or</u>
   <u>"democratic"?</u>
   Very authoritarian authoritarian a mixture democratic very
   democratic

8. <u>Flexibility in the student's planning and organisation and classroom</u>
   <u>behaviour - How capable does she seem to be in adapting her teaching</u>
   <u>to particular circumstances which arise:</u>
   Too flexible? flexible? a moderate amount? inflexible? very
   inflexible?

9. <u>Involvement with children</u> - Did student appear to be:

   Very actively involved? involved? moderately involved? uninvolved?
   very uninvolved?

10. <u>Amount of "finding out", "experimentation" on part of children - How</u>
    <u>much "finding out" did she seem to be allowing for?</u>
    A great deal? quite a lot? a moderate amount? little? none?

11. How much do you think she uses stars or marks or badges etc., to try to motivate:
A great deal? quite a lot? a moderate amount? rarely? never?

12. Lesson assessment - Do you consider her performance on this lesson to be:
Very good? good? about average? below average? very poor?

13. General assessment as a teacher - Looking to the future, do you consider her to be:
Very promising? promising? average? below average? very poor?

14. Do you consider the circumstances (children, teacher, etc.) under which she is working to be:
Very difficult? difficult? about average? easy? very easy?

If you have nay other observations you wish to make, please write on back of form.

Letter to Education Tutors

(completed by Education tutors at the end of first, second and third year)

Dear

      I would be most grateful if you could once again help me with my research. Could you, in the spaces below, please rate your .... students on TWO counts:

A. How you feel they are likely to turn out as teachers

          A = Very good/very promising, etc.
          B = Good/above average/promising
          C = Average/satisfactory
          D = Below average/weak/needs help
          E = Very poor/will need to change a lot to "make the grade"

B. How "open" or "closed" you feel them to be towards new ideas in education, educational experiments, children's behaviour, etc.

    i.e. - "flexible" rather than "rigid"
       - capacity generally to see a number of alternatives rather than just one
       - able to examine beliefs and procedures CRITICALLY rather than accepting them ritualistically or habitually.

        5 = Very "open"
        4 = "Open"
        3 = Not displaying either tendency in a marked degree
        2 = "Closed"
        1 = Very "closed"

Many thanks indeed for your help.

               Yours sincerely,

Name	A. How likely to turn out as teachers	B. How "open" or "closed"
1.	......	......
2.	......	......
3.	......	......
etc		

Appendix 3

Response Rates to Questionnaires, etc.

Questionnaire	Sample	No	% Response	Date
RDI (Pilot)	Year 3(P)	84		12/67
RDI (Test)	Year 3(P)	53	100	2/68
RDI (Retest)	Year 3(P)	53	100	3/68
RDI	Year 1(L)	126	100	10/68
RDI	Year 1(L)	124	100	7/69
RDI	Year 2(L)	116	100	7/70
RDI	Year 3(L)	105	96	6/71
RDI	Year 3(LTP)	69	100	9/70
RDI	Year 3(LTP)	69	100	12/70
RDI	Non-students	68	100	9/68
RDI	Non-students	33	48	6/71
RDI	Staff	31	91	5/70
MSOE	Year 1(L)	126	100	10/68
MSOE	Year 3(L)	105	96	6/71
3YQ	Year 3(L)	105	96	6/71
EPI	Year 1(L)	126	100	10/68
EPI	Year 3(L)	105	96	6/71
CEI	Year 3(L)	105	96	6/71
COS	Year 3(LTP)	37 (usable)	54	9-12/70
TRS	Years 1/3(L)	All	100	6/69-6/71

Key   a) Questionnaire titles on preceding page

       b) P = Pre-longitudinal sample third year students
         L = Longitudinal sample
     LTP = Longitudinal sample: teaching practice sample

Note In addition a sample of the longitudinal cohort was
       interviewed regularly throughout the three years.
       Full details of composition and frequency of inter-
       views are on pages 300-304.

Appendix 4

Role Definition Instrument Scores

Longitudinal Sample Years 1, 2 and 3,
and Non Students
(pp 531-533)

College Environment Index Scores

Longitudinal Sample Scores
(p 534)

Scores on 34 item Role Definition Instrument

Final Longitudinal Sample   n=105

| | First Year (start) | | | | First Year (end) | | | |
| | Primary | | Secondary | | Primary | | Secondary | |
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
1	3.606	1.147	2.532	1.127	3.550	1.032	2.789	1.139
2	3.394	1.037	2.156	0.904	3.009	0.995	2.321	0.792
3	4.422	0.628	3.716	1.098	4.440	0.645	4.009	0.957
4	3.862	1.126	3.706	1.149	3.908	0.986	3.807	1.014
5	3.523	1.059	2.982	1.054	4.055	0.758	3.514	0.968
6	3.752	0.830	2.899	1.080	3.743	0.798	3.110	0.916
7	2.945	1.177	2.413	1.011	3.349	1.109	2.917	1.107
8	3.312	0.978	3.752	0.852	3.743	0.810	3.835	0.752
9	4.587	0.548	4.055	1.121	4.440	0.673	3.844	1.002
10	3.817	0.873	3.688	0.978	3.963	0.849	3.844	0.863
11	3.119	1.176	2.550	0.957	3.009	1.118	2.560	0.976
12	3.578	1.048	2.826	1.169	4.156	0.735	3.459	1.183
13	4.257	0.834	3.706	1.133	4.349	0.843	3.807	0.866
14	1.835	0.855	2.239	1.162	2.376	1.153	2.440	1.142
15	2.495	1.077	2.339	0.993	3.101	1.097	2.413	0.863
16	1.982	1.009	3.064	1.091	2.908	1.167	3.512	1.006
17	3.294	0.926	3.459	1.005	3.349	0.985	3.330	1.001
18	3.945	0.901	2.982	1.063	3.862	0.947	3.394	0.991
19	3.945	0.970	3.798	1.104	4.349	0.672	4.083	0.894
20	3.092	1.068	3.495	1.033	3.183	1.047	3.512	0.920
21	4.642	0.536	4.587	0.548	4.532	0.570	4.486	0.587
22	3.879	1.105	3.615	1.193	4.202	0.825	4.018	1.009
23	2.734	1.042	3.018	1.194	3.147	1.061	3.248	1.011
24	2.404	0.806	2.541	0.928	2.220	0.809	2.275	0.859
25	3.587	0.863	4.202	0.717	3.917	0.883	4.110	0.786
26	4.028	0.947	3.963	1.088	4.046	0.865	4.083	0.851
27	4.394	0.770	4.404	0.783	4.385	0.607	4.330	0.667
28	2.908	1.093	1.202	1.070	3.330	0.963	2.890	1.149
29	3.624	0.921	3.321	0.999	3.578	0.820	3.450	0.799
30	3.853	0.826	4.495	0.547	4.183	0.669	4.569	0.516
31	4.128	0.771	3.679	0.912	3.771	0.789	3.440	0.787
32	4.284	1.001	4.239	1.053	3.991	1.067	4.009	1.041
33	4.321	0.559	3.321	0.980	4.211	0.579	3.560	0.897
34	3.807	1.093	3.706	1.133	3.826	1.070	3.725	1.004
Total	121.156	8.536	113.651	9.505	126.183	8.870	118.294	9.827

Scores on 34 item Role Definition Instrument   cont...

| | Second Year (end) | | | | Third Year (end) | | | |
| | Primary | | Secondary | | Primary | | Secondary | |
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
1	3.807	0.976	2.697	1.023	3.752	1.081	2.945	1.026
2	2.817	0.964	2.257	0.712	2.927	1.095	2.303	0.844
3	4.376	0.650	3.972	0.907	4.459	0.553	4.083	0.840
4	4.211	0.851	4.064	0.864	4.119	0.977	3.862	0.986
5	4.303	0.601	3.642	0.948	4.349	0.534	3.881	0.813
6	3.661	0.841	2.743	0.907	3.624	0.848	2.835	0.898
7	3.881	0.847	3.083	1.073	3.853	0.901	3.266	1.103
8	3.651	0.750	3.890	0.629	3.771	0.857	3.936	0.761
9	4.339	0.656	3.606	1.080	4.294	0.671	3.697	0.928
10	3.963	0.793	3.853	0.803	3.899	0.827	3.817	0.841
11	2.725	1.088	2.248	0.862	2.532	1.110	2.138	0.810
12	4.248	0.683	3.688	1.016	3.991	0.799	3.385	1.096
13	4.413	0.656	3.725	0.901	4.339	0.513	3.661	0.852
14	2.440	1.031	2.606	1.030	2.532	1.143	2.569	1.066
15	3.138	0.976	2.440	0.787	3.174	1.053	2.550	0.855
16	3.183	1.047	3.339	0.905	3.147	1.112	3.376	0.931
17	3.257	1.004	3.294	1.065	3.174	1.035	3.183	1.056
18	3.927	0.690	3.202	0.880	4.165	0.553	3.404	0.934
19	4.321	0.706	4.028	0.928	4.385	0.508	4.165	0.714
20	2.945	0.921	3.110	0.996	2.945	1.035	3.147	0.970
21	4.578	0.514	4.495	0.571	4.514	0.502	4.468	0.501
22	4.358	0.714	4.147	0.911	4.257	0.738	4.211	0.734
23	3.367	0.949	3.523	0.968	3.404	1.010	3.587	0.945
24	2.138	0.763	2.174	0.780	2.202	0.814	2.211	0.840
25	3.917	0.747	3.991	0.766	3.789	0.794	3.844	0.796
26	4.156	0.772	4.147	0.848	4.147	0.803	4.211	0.759
27	4.550	0.536	4.440	0.584	4.275	0.826	4.275	0.815
28	3.183	0.925	2.734	1.033	3.119	0.960	2.793	0.970
29	3.532	0.845	3.550	0.787	3.752	0.784	3.651	0.762
30	4.248	0.669	4.569	0.516	4.295	0.585	4.413	0.548
31	3.881	0.813	3.679	0.838	3.982	0.745	3.817	0.818
32	3.991	0.995	3.954	0.975	3.945	0.989	3.963	0.971
33	4.083	0.654	3.560	0.907	4.183	0.512	3.716	0.829
34	3.817	1.011	3.862	0.928	3.697	1.014	3.716	0.963
Total	127.404	7.620	118.312	8.386	126.872	9.037	119.083	9.716

Scores on 34 item Role Definition Instrument   cont...

| | Non-students (n=68) (start) | | | | Non-students (n=33) (end) | | | |
| | Primary | | Secondary | | Primary | | Secondary | |
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD
1	2.574	1.150	1.779	0.878	3.061	1.088	1.909	0.765
2	2.824	1.221	1.882	0.955	2.970	1.075	1.879	0.857
3	4.029	0.977	3.676	1.376	4.182	0.882	3.788	1.341
4	3.868	0.945	3.971	0.930	3.939	0.966	3.939	0.998
5	2.824	1.105	2.868	0.929	3.030	1.104	2.939	0.933
6	3.015	1.178	2.441	1.111	3.273	1.126	2.485	1.093
7	2.794	1.241	2.368	1.105	3.061	1.144	2.455	1.003
8	2.912	1.218	3.529	1.113	2.879	1.083	3.758	0.792
9	4.353	0.686	3.632	1.303	4.273	0.801	3.545	1.325
10	3.456	1.165	3.235	1.148	3.636	0.994	3.273	1.039
11	2.779	1.337	2.176	0.913	2.788	1.139	2.242	0.830
12	3.618	1.120	3.029	1.233	3.788	1.083	2.939	1.368
13	4.324	0.701	3.662	1.074	4.333	0.645	3.667	0.990
14	2.147	0.868	2.368	1.145	2.333	0.990	2.606	1.171
15	2.265	0.924	2.206	0.939	2.212	0.820	2.061	0.827
16	2.485	1.252	3.368	1.078	2.303	1.185	3.364	0.994
17	3.235	0.948	3.250	1.098	3.364	0.822	3.485	0.906
18	4.162	0.725	3.191	1.149	4.212	0.650	3.152	1.228
19	3.559	1.262	3.662	1.241	3.970	1.132	4.061	1.171
20	2.603	1.053	3.044	1.152	2.758	0.969	3.303	1.045
21	4.456	0.502	4.265	0.661	4.545	0.506	4.242	0.663
22	3.691	1.123	3.868	0.845	3.606	1.059	3.879	0.781
23	2.926	1.297	3.206	1.356	3.242	1.251	3.515	1.278
24	2.324	0.969	2.309	0.918	2.485	0.906	2.455	0.833
25	3.397	1.108	3.765	1.081	3.424	1.119	3.909	1.042
26	4.265	0.987	4.353	0.877	4.364	0.895	4.485	0.834
27	4.485	0.503	4.368	0.751	4.435	0.508	4.394	0.704
28	2.721	0.912	2.221	0.912	2.818	0.950	2.333	1.109
29	3.132	0.879	2.926	0.935	3.212	0.927	2.909	1.011
30	3.838	0.908	4.397	0.650	3.788	0.927	4.333	0.736
31	4.000	0.623	3.485	0.763	3.939	0.556	3.273	0.761
32	3.941	1.006	4.059	1.035	3.939	1.171	4.030	1.159
33	3.956	0.781	3.441	1.056	4.030	0.728	3.364	1.055
34	2.559	1.098	2.794	1.073	2.879	1.193	3.091	1.156
Total	113.515	11.777	108.794	9.591	117.121	8.623	111.061	8.896

College Environment Index

Item Scores

(105 students completed the CEI: Score represents number
of students reporting item as true)

Item No.	Score	Item No.	Score	Item No.	Score
1	0	41	20	81	77
2	56	42	70	82	107
3	31	43	56	83	21
4	28	44	93	84	87
5	82	45	37	85	28
6	29	46	14	86	50
7	15	47	60	87	46
8	25	48	63	88	68
9	53	49	72	89	109
10	56	50	0	90	24
11	11	51	28	91	61
12	99	52	81	92	98
13	16	53	81	93	32
14	33	54	41	94	36
15	26	55	25	95	10
16	18	56	10	96	59
17	39	57	18	97	54
18	99	58	41	98	80
19	90	59	85	99	29
20	2	60	56	100	1
21	34	61	82		
22	101	62	72		
23	27	63	59		
24	52	64	95		
25	27	65	53		
26	42	66	40		
27	12	67	69		
28	24	68	14		
29	81	69	65		
30	32	70	66		
31	41	71	40		
32	91	72	67		
33	99	73	32		
34	77	74	90		
35	16	75	20		
36	33	76	18		
37	17	77	34		
38	96	78	86		
39	58	79	38		
40	49	80	45		

Appendix 5

A note on the BMD Computer Programmes

Appendix 5

A note on the BMD Biomedical Computer Programmes

Throughout the investigation, data has been tabulated and analysed using the BMD set of computer programmes prepared by Dixon (1968). This set was selected on the advice of Dr.B.Baughan, Lecturer in Computing at the University of London Institute of Education. The IBM 360 of University College and the CDC 6600 of the University of London are both programmed for the BMD set and were used by the investigator over the period of the research.

The BMD manual represents a set of statistical programmes used for data description and analysis. Originally developed for medical research, each programme is in the form of a complete package. Transgeneration facilities built into each programme enabled RDI total scores to be calculated and analysed from item data.

The two programmes used extensively were:

BMD 02D   Correlation with Transgeneration

BMD 07D   Description of strata with histograms with one way analysis of variance

The computational procedure for programme BMD 02D is given on page 537 following. An example of the printout for programme BMD 07D is shown on page 538.

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