SOME FACTORS IN THE PROFESSIONAL SOCIALIZATION OF TRAINEE TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

There has been much discussion in the sociological literature as to
the relative importance of different influences that impinge upon
recruits undergoing professional socialization. Merton et. al. (1957),
see faculties of professional training institutions as being very
influential, whereas Quarantelli et. al. (1964), see this group as
relatively less so, and instead, see recruits taking 'different paths'
through professional school and being subject to a variety of influences.
Few writers however, deal with the problem of why some groups in the
training situation are important to different trainees and others are not.

It is the aim of this thesis to find out what conceptions of their
future roles recruits bring with them to the training situation, why they
find different groups in this situation important to them, and what
changes these initial conceptions undergo. Students being prepared for
teaching careers were selected as the research case.

It was assumed that recruits entering training would be fairly
indiscriminate, holding diffuse, idealistic conceptions of their future
roles. Such occupational role conceptions (or occupational self concepts
as we called them), it was further assumed, determined which groups would
become important to them (their reference groups).

It was further hypothesised that exposure to the realities of their
occupation, (in this case, teaching practice) would cause a change in
recruits' occupational self conceptions, and thus, their choice of
reference groups. Thus recruits completing their course will have more
specific and realistic occupational self concepts, be more discriminating,

chose different reference groups, and evaluate their practice experiences

differently, than those just beginning their training course.

A sample of 112 trainee teachers at the University of British Columbia

Faculty of Education were selected, of whom 57 were in their first year and

55 in their final year of training. The time factor prevented a

longitudinal study from being conducted, thus beginning and completing

teachers were compared, and from this, inferences made about possible processes

of change.

Data were gathered by a questionnaire designed to -

a). determine which reference groups were influential to trainees.

b). find students' evaluations and perceptions of their experiences during

training.

c). discover what occupational self concepts trainees held by the use of

an attitude scale.

The results obtained showed, that contrary to our predictions, beginning

trainees did not have a more diffuse conception of their occupational role

than completing trainees. A possible explanation for this was put forward

in terms of differential familiarity with the statements of educational

philosophy that made up the attitude scale. Neither, it was found, were

completing teachers less idealistic than beginners, nor did they positively

evaluate teaching practice to a much greater degree than the latter.

The failure of these predictions were explained by differential interaction

patterns which acted as 'insulating' factors against the experiences of

teaching practice. The two predictions that were supported were that

beginning trainees would be less discriminating than completing trainees,

and that occupational self concepts were an important determinant of what

reference group a trainee chose.

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SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL SOCIALIZATION

Studies of professional socialization often picture the process in fairly similar ways; new recruits enter the professional school with vague, unformed, often idealistic conceptions of their future occupational roles. Transformation of the recruits into professionals holding appropriate values and self conceptions is then achieved by faculty members serving as significant role models or reference groups for the new recruits. Other studies, after assuming such a monolithic socialization process does occur, concentrate on how adequately this process prepares the individual for actual performance in his social role.[1]

In a recent article by Quarantelli et. al. (1964)[2] the assumptions underlying the above approach are pointed out by the authors:

1. The recruits are seen as not collectively visualizing themselves in the same way as they are visualized by the persons training them.

2. These recruits do not hold already the appropriate set of professional values and attitudes.

3. That the faculties of professional schools are directly and primarily influential in changing the perception of recruits in these matters.

These assumptions predispose investigators to use such concepts as 'significant others' or 'reference groups' to explain any change in values or perceptions among recruits. Such concepts are often considered as explanatory in themselves, and the above processes are assumed to be working, without any investigation as to whether or not this is so. Sherif (1953)[3] has said of reference groups, that the concept "is becoming a magic term to explain anything and everything concerning

group relations". Hyman (1960)[4] comments, "invoking the concept when our methods do not establish that a reference group is operative, and determining some outcome is not magic". More recently, Couch and Murray (1964)[5] say of reference groups, "They have been most frequently employed in a general or global fashion to interpret observed behaviour or changes in attitudes; few attempts have been made to translate the concepts into empirical measures of human relationships".

What would happen if we were to operate on different assumptions from the ones outlined above? We would need perhaps different explanatory concepts, or more probably, a more refined usage of existing ones. Evidence that the above assumptions are not true exists. Quarantelli in the article mentioned, tested these assumptions and concluded "Freshmen (dental) students did not need to be socialized to new norms and standards of a non technical sort. Sophomores (the same students a year later) generally maintained their predental school values and beliefs, but when they changed, they manifested non-faculty perspectives. Thus, at best, faculty members were not significant others, being unimportant either for attitudes and perceptions held or changed".[6] This evidence suggests that a different set of assumptions concerning professional education might be put forward. For instance, it might be more realistic to assume:

1. Recruits enter professional school with different perspectives, some similar to the faculty, some widely different.

2. That during the course of training, some students will maintain their original perspectives, others might change, but this does not have to be in the direction of faculty perspectives.

3. This would imply the existence of different influences that impinge on the students before and during their training, of which faculty influence is one but by no means the most important.

Quarantelli suggests as an alternate approach, viewing students "as moving in and through differentiated subsystems rather than being socialized to a common core of professional values and beliefs. Instead of viewing the socialization process as an across the board, either-or type of phenomenon simultaneously affecting all students, the process might be analyzed in more differentiated terms and seen as involving the concurrent existence of multiple but different paths through professional school".[7]

This points to certain essential considerations in any study of professional socialization.

1. Whether or not to work with existing concepts and refine them, or search for new ones. I would prefer to do the former and establish a more specific delineation of the processes involving the concepts of reference groups and significant others.

2. To then determine which reference groups a student has at his disposal. The range of choice is not difficult to show as it is determined by the nature of the occupational role and the context in which training occurs.

3. Finally to determine which reference group a student refers to and why.

This latter consideration will constitute a main part of the project. It is also the area which seems least developed and most confusing in the field of reference group 'theory'. Shibutani (1955)[8] says that the

problem is that of selecting the perspective for defining the situation which people chose, "In Mead's terminology, which generalized others' role is to be taken?". Jahoda (1959)[9] in referring to a number of experimental investigations of conformity which use the concept, says, "In general these findings raise the question as to the conditions under which <u>different</u> reference groups become factors in determining opinions. As far as I know, this central question of reference group theory has not yet been tackled in research. As a rule the concept is used as if the individual had only one group with whom he shared norms, namely the one built into the research design." Zetterberg (1957)[10] says, "It becomes an important question - to spell out in specific hypotheses the factors which determine a person's reference group. This is a task in which social theory so far has not been successful".

This therefore will be the research strategy:

a) To work with existing concepts of reference groups. (It has been noted in the literature that the concept of reference group has been defined and used in different ways; e.g. Shibutani (1955) and Kelly (1952)[11]). I shall use the term to mean "the group whose norms of evaluation are used when an actor formulates his self concept" Zetterberg (1957)[12].

b) To delineate possible reference groups that the individual has at his disposal.

c) To suggest the conditions under which one reference group rather than another is chosen.

If we assume that the first two points above can be easily dealt with, what hypotheses can we suggest concerning the criteria of choice in

the third area? The literature on this point is not at all clear, and very undeveloped, but it is important to consider what clues it might give us in attacking the problem.

Cartwright (1951)[13] says, "in attempts to change attitudes, values, or behaviour, the more relevant they are to the basis of <u>attraction</u> to the group, the greater will be the influence the group can exert on them". Festinger (1954)[14] notes that "Anything which increases the <u>importance</u> of the group as a general reference or comparison will increase the pressure towards uniformity. Thus a variable like <u>strength of attraction</u> to the group, since it determines to some extent how important the group is in the <u>life</u> of the person, will increase the pressure towards uniformity when there are discrepancies of opinion". Shibutani (1955)[15] says that which people are chosen, and which of those chosen have greater significance, vary with the person's <u>attraction</u> and <u>sentiments</u> and summing up small group research arrives at the hypothesis, 'a person tends to comply with the norms of the group he finds more <u>attractive</u>'.

Here therefore, we have the variable of <u>attraction</u> as determining choice. These studies are important as they point to a person's motivation and commitment, in other words, what they bring to the situation. What is lacking however is why some groups are more attractive than others. As has been suggested this can be answered in terms of a person's goals; others however have answered this in other ways: Turner (1956)[16] says, "in the literature, the desire to be accepted is depicted as the mechanism that leads to the adoption of values and perspectives of the reference group". But again we have to ask why is a person attracted to membership of one group rather than another? Jackson (1959)[17] asks, that

given a person is attracted to membership, what are the <u>sources</u> of
attraction for different types of persons and groups? He answers this in
saying that attraction to membership is directly related to magnitude of
a person's <u>social worth</u>, (i.e. how is he objectively valued by others).
Again this does not answer why social worth from one group is valued more
than that from another. A similar study by Couch and Murray (1964)[18]
related choice of significant others to evaluation received. They found
no relationship occurred, except among those groups existing under
conditions of <u>low</u> surveillance and <u>diffuse</u> role prescriptions.

A final lead that can be mentioned is that by Merton (1957)[19] who
asked "What is the status of theory and fact about the conditions and
processes making for the choice of some rather than other membership
groups as normative and comparative frames of reference?" He quotes
Turner (1955)[20] who inquired into the distinctive reference groups selected
as frames of reference for differing kinds of values, and found that
distinct groups were chosen. Merton comments, "Consideration of
different reference groups for different norms and values is rising to the
level of studied sociological attention". Here again our attention is
drawn towards what a person brings with him to the situation, in this
case reference groups are chosen to bolster values an individual <u>already</u>
holds.

Where then are we left in attempting to discover the criteria on
which different reference groups are selected? I would suggest on the
basis of the literature, that two things have to be taken into
consideration. These are similar to what Kelman (1961)[21] calls the
antecedents of identification. Identification has been said to be the

mechanism underlying socialization, it has however not been further
specified. It is hoped that the following will make the concept somewhat
clearer. The considerations therefore to be taken into account in
explaining identification with one reference group rather than another
are:

1) A person's _motivational_ _system_ which will explain why some groups are
more _attractive_ than others and hence more influential. This takes
account of what a person brings to the situation in terms of his goals,
values and ambitions. For purposes of explaining professional
socialization, I suggest what will be important here is the _initial_
professional or _occupational_ _self_ _concept_ of the trainee, i.e. the type
of professional he feels he wants to be, or how he intends initially to
play his role.

2) The _power_ and _sanctions_ different socializing agents have at their
command. These would take the form of: (a) direct sanctions in terms of
removal from the institution or through withholding symbolic rewards (marks,
references, etc.) that would affect the individual in terms of his
progress through the formal system. The trainee would thus have to
balance the rewards and costs of playing the role his way in the face of
alternative definitions of others who are significant in terms of the
institutional structure. I would suggest that the costs are not too
great as few trainees will try out their role boundaries to such an extent
that raw power of the above sort is brought to bear on them. What usually
happens is the following; although the institution might define for him
whom he must take into account, it does not necessarily follow that the
trainee will pay more than lip service to this. Rather he makes a

situational adjustment and puts his own ideas aside momentarily until more propitious times. (Of course this does not apply to all trainees, many of whom, probably the majority, are quite happy to follow the dictates of the institution). Of those however whose commitment is very strong, such situational adjustments may be less than satisfactory. For these people there will be less of a discrepancy between verbal attitudes and overt acts, and somehow they will have to balance out both personal and institutional pressures. No doubt there will be many techniques for doing this. It seems unlikely that there will be direct confrontations (the individuals will more likely 'leave the field' when pressures are that great) but rather the employment of certain 'avoidance techniques' i.e. not putting oneself in situations where conflict is likely to ensue e.g. interacting with selected people. (one's significant others or those people not perceived as 'threats'). In this way there will be no abandoning of commitment but rather the protecting of those attitudes and preconceptions that are highly valued and strongly held.

(b) A more indirect source of power, and one that we shall especially be concerned with, as it bears upon choice of reference groups, is the power an individual or group has through occupying or playing roles in a way that the trainee considers <u>attractive</u> and desires for himself. As Kelman says, "in identification the agent's power is based on his attractiveness". In consideration, 1) we have suggested that the source of this attraction lies in the trainees initial professional self conception, i.e. what he brings to the situation is the type of professional he wants to be or thinks he will become. Thus he seeks out individuals and groups that compare to this and these become his reference groups as significant

others who give social support to his self conceptions. These groups and individuals therefore have the power in that they influence the trainee by withholding or dispensing rewards in terms of favourable evaluation. Indeed, Kelman[22] defines as identification the process when "an individual adopts the behaviour from another person or group because this behaviour is associated with a <u>satisfying</u> <u>self-defining</u> relationship to this person or group".

Identification therefore is associated with gaining or maintaining a satisfying self-defining relationship, that is 'a role relationship that forms part of the person's self image.' Accepting influence through identification, then, is a way of establishing or maintaining the desired relationship to the other, and the <u>self-definition</u> that is anchored in this relationship. Underlying this identification we have suggested are (1) Individuals' self-definitions in terms of their values and ambitions, (2) Selection of reference groups in terms of these definitions in order to gain social support for them and because of their attractiveness in the person's scheme of ambitions.

We are now in a position to illustrate more specifically the process of professional socialization:

a) Individuals beginning professional training will have certain notions (however crude) of the type of professional they want to be. In terms of the training institution therefore we have two types of persons:

    i. Those whose initial self-conceptions are similar to those of the training staff.

    ii. Those whose initial self-conceptions are different from those of

the training staff.

b) These notions will determine what others they will find significant, or what reference groups they will seek out to give these notions social support. Thus broadly, trainees will either use as reference groups:

    i.   Certain members of the faculty or the faculty as a whole.

    ii.   Individuals or groups outside the training situation.

c) These reference groups have power in that: 1) they support an individual's professional self-conception, and as long as he values this, they reward him in terms of maintaining this identity, and 2) they can change a person's attitudes and preconceptions by the penalties they have at their disposal. Once an individual is drawn to a group (whether he becomes a member of that group or not) and that group is supportive, then that group has power to change attitudes and preconceptions by virtue of the place it has in that individual's social world e.g. a reference group can be chosen because it supports cognitions or values A, B and C. The group, however is likely to also subscribe to cognitions and values D, E and F, hence the individual is likely to take these on also (for reasons of ostracism, value congruency etc.). We have also mentioned a more direct case of change through sanctions. This is where an institution can define which groups must be attended to (so that these become significant) and these groups use institutional power and support to change individuals' values.

What must be considered next is how far these self-conceptions that an individual enters with are maintained or changed throughout the course

of his training, and what the processes of stability and change are likely to entail.

There exists quite a body of evidence which suggests that recruits to professions have an idealized notion of their future roles. Speaking of medical students, Hughes (1955)[23] says of the medical role, "... the medical aspirant's conceptions of all these things are somewhat simpler than the reality, that they may be distorted and stereotyped as among lay people. Medical education becomes, then, the learning of the more complicated reality on all these fronts". Quarantelli in his study of dental students found this initial conception of the work to be similar; freshmen were less discriminating and selective than the faculty in the area of nontechnical values and also held a greater variety of values and beliefs about their occupations. This he says is in line with what Hughes states, "that professional education generally involves the replacement of gross and stereotyped self-images by more subtle, complex, and sophisticated perceptions of the professional role. Freshmen strongly emphasized the more idealistic and rare kinds of activities."[24]

This study is concerned with a sample of trainee teachers in a training situation. The training institution is a system of social relationships which shape the neophyte's role conceptions and his attitudes and values concerning himself, colleagues and clients. Charters (1963)[25] says that research conducted from the framework of role learning on the teacher induction process is small, and our knowledge mainly comes from studies of other professions.

As he says, "When teacher training is conceived as a period of role leaning, it is similar to the socialization of the young child with the same social mechanisms, identification, internalization of expectations, reformulation of self concepts etc. Socialization occurs through interaction with significant others and since the pattern of the interaction of students are different, the variation results in different kinds of teachers emerging from the same institution." Teacher training institutions he says, "have not yet been studied from this perspective." Some approaches have been made however and these must be considered.

An early study by Waggenschein (1950)[26] suggests that views of the occupation held by training institutions and practising teachers are very different and that beginning teachers experience a 'reality shock' when preconceived ideas fail to compare with actuality. Rabinowitz (1960)[27] asked how attitudes shaped in the training institutions fared in the classroom and on the basis of a study concluded, "In three years teachers became less concerned with pupil freedom and more concerned with establishing a stable orderly classroom, in which academic standards received a prominent position". This he suggests is due to the eroding of favourable attitudes built up in college and the realistic adaptation to the demands of classroom life. Biddle et. al. (1962)[28] studied ideas held about the role of teachers among trainee teachers, non-education students and actual teachers. He found that education students wanted teachers to allow more pupil freedom than did the other two groups. "This finding (he says) of distortion of norms and expectations held by education students in favour of pupil freedom is the most surprising one in the whole study." Education students, he said were more idealistic

in approving more pupil freedom but he continues, "the processes of teacher education will gradually shift the norms and expectations held by education students toward a more realistic outlook". Such idealism he attributes to either, a) idealistic faculty members, b) idealistic pictures students hold of the job which determined their career choice, or c) use of idealism as a protective device during the time he is unable to experience the rewards of professional participation.

Berlin (1958)[29] says that many teachers "hold themselves to expectations that are unrealistic, expectations that can be a source of dissatisfaction and constraint in the classroom". The cause of these expectations he says lies in their professional preparation." The student teacher's ideas of how a good teacher should behave and feel reflect his instructors ideas... (and) schools of education pay little attention to difficulties, strains and burdens of classroom teaching. Professors emphasize the elements of good discipline in the classroom but, professors rarely, if ever talk about the feelings of the teacher who is confronted with problems of discipline."

In terms of the theoretical position adopted, what can be said about the effects of exposure to the realities of the role? "Reality" shows that a trainee's initial occupational self-image, that is, the way he intends to play his future role, will not allow for adequate performance in that role. Thus what he wants to be, and what in fact it is realistically possible to be (in situations where the role is to be performed), may be completely different from each other. The trainee is shown that clinging to the initial self-concept can only bring him conflict, thus pressures

to reformulate his self-concept in terms that will not allow its survival in the actual situation in which it is performed, are great.

With a change in self-perception goes a change in the reference group that gave it support. The change will be toward a reference group that now supports the reformulated self-concept; as Kelman[30] says "A response adopted through identification will be abandoned if it is no longer perceived as a path towards the maintainence or establishment of a satisfying self-defining relationship."

Confrontation with reality does not always change an individual's self concept however, or the way he has decided to play his role. A person may rationalize away such reality as being atypical, or claim that this is not the 'really real'. Again his commitment to his original ideas may be so great that despite the promise of future conflict, he still clings closely to his ideas. Thus we do not claim a monolithic movement from ideal to real perceptions of occupational roles in the socialization process.

Self-concepts are related to values, that is, a person wants to become what he does because he believes this is the correct way in which to play a role. If an occupational self-concept is how a person sees himself in an occupational role, and a role is the cluster of prescriptive expectations, then this self-concept will be related to occupational values. Education has a philosophy which considers what a teacher ought or ought not to do. This philosophy permeates the occupational values and sets a range and limits to the teaching role that are often more specific than many other occupational roles. Thus we can see the teaching role in terms of various educational philosophies and values. For the purpose of this

study, two bodies of educational values will be seen broadly to exist today, so that two opposite role types of teachers are presented to trainees. It is in choosing one or the other type and its associated values that the trainee formulates his initial occupational self-concept.

These attitudes have been termed "progressive" and "traditional" by Kerlinger (1958)[31] and will be taken to constitute the ingredients of initial occupational self-concepts. Thus recruits who hold initial idealized self-concepts will be more likely to hold 'progressive' educational values and recruits who hold more realistic initial self concepts will be more likely to hold 'traditional' educational values. As it has been suggested, people seek out reference groups in terms of the self-concepts they hold, each type of recruit will seek out reference groups that support either set of educational values or are perceived as supporting these. What groups are these likely to be?

It will be assumed that progressive educational values will be held by those whose concern is intellectual, that is, primarily the faculties of educational training institutions. Such people will be concerned with more abstract and philosophical issues about education than with the practical nature of the occupation. Thus these groups will be used as reference groups by trainees with ideal self-concepts. Also let us note, trainees often have idealized notions about some of their own school teachers and might possibly use these as points of reference. Traditional educational values are more action-oriented and serve more directly as guides to behaviour in the actual situation than do the former values. Thus trainees with initial realistic self concepts will seek as reference groups those who espouse these beliefs. Such groups are likely to be

teachers who are actually teaching or teacher trainees who are in the later stages of their training. (Note: I am interested in what values and self-conceptions trainees bring to the situation, not how they came to hold these values and concepts).

A MODEL FOR THE PROFESSIONAL SOCIALIZATION OF TRAINEE TEACHERS

More specifically then, using Quarantelli's reformulation of the process of professional socialization, certain assumptions have been made which allow us to put forward a picture of the process that is more complex than is usually considered to be the case.

It seems reasonable to suppose that trainees beginning professional training are more likely to have a diffuse conception of their future occupational role. That is, as a group, they will hold a heterogeneity of occupational role definitions.

They are also likely to hold unique or stereotyped views about their future occupation, for example, being unaware of differences that exist between different groups within the occupation, using their lay assumptions to characterize various groups, and generally being unsophisticated about how in fact the profession functions.

They also hold certain idealistic notions about their future roles which arises mainly from: a). Recruitment policies of professions which tend to glamorize certain of their functions and to give less emphasis to the mundane elements that also characterize them, b). The fact that for the trainee, the choice of occupation comprises one of the most important decisions he has made so far during his life. A person's occupation is one of the most important criteria of what social status he will be assigned and thus an integral part of his social identity. Thus there are pressures to justify the choice of one's profession which again is accomplished by emphasizing the idealistic elements of the job to the detriment of those features of it which are less glamorous. Therefore,

although the range or variety of ideas a trainee has about his future role will be quite wide, the composition of these ideas will be predominantly idealistic.

It should be noted that what is being suggested is that the <u>majority</u> of trainees beginning professional training share these characteristics, not all of them. Bearing in mind Quarantelli's findings, we should expect a proportion to hold specific ideas concerning their future roles, to be more sophisticated about certain aspects of their occupation, and to be more realistic than idealistic in their conceptions of the occupational role.

No matter what the range or type of conception a trainee holds, it is further assumed that <u>all</u> entrants to a profession do bring with them <u>some</u> ideas about the way they think they are going to play their future roles. These ideas have been called "initial occupational self-concepts". Although these may be vague and often erroneous, all trainees for any occupation will bring to the training situation such self-concepts.

It was further proposed that these initial occupational self-concepts were an important determinant of the reference group a trainee chose. Also these self-conceptions could be usefully seen as falling along an idealistic/realistic dimension so that trainees with idealistic occupational self-concepts would choose 'idealistic' reference groups, or those groups which share or were perceived as sharing similar conceptions of the occupational role. The same thing, i.e. their choice of reference groups, of course would operate for trainees with realistic occupational self-conceptions.

Beginning trainees being more idealistically orientated would hold predominantly idealistic occupational self-concepts and choose predominantly idealistic reference groups. Reasons were given (pages 14 and 15) for assuming that the faculty would be the most important idealistic reference group chosen. It was noted that not all beginning trainees would be idealistically orientated, thus this would allow us to take into consideration Quarantelli's second point that faculty are not as important a factor in professional socialization as has previously been assumed. If initial occupational self-concepts determine reference groups chosen, and among beginning trainees, a proportion hold already realistic conceptions of their future roles, then they will choose reference groups other than faculty.

The process of professional socialization was envisaged as comprising a change in occupational self-concepts. Pressures for this would occur whenever a trainee had the opportunity of trying out his future role in a realistic situation. One important source of such pressure was in training programs that allowed actual experience of playing the role.

Such an exposure is exposure to the realities of the occupation, or at least to some of them. For trainees holding idealistic occupational self-concepts, this experience would tend to show that such a self-concept is not viable in the real life situation, that as well as rewards, the occupation has certain definite costs.

What occurs therefore is a reformulation of a trainee's initial occupational self-concept to take account of this additional knowledge. He becomes less diffuse about what roles or role styles are possible, becomes more sophisticated as he 'learns the ropes' and finds out how the

occupation actually functions, and finally loses a great deal of his

idealism as all these realities are taken into consideration. The

process can be summed up by saying that what occurs is an idealistic

occupational self-concept being replaced by a realistic one.

Furthermore, as occupational self-concepts determine reference groups

chosen, a change in such self-concepts involves a change in reference

groups. As the change is conceived primarily as being from idealistic

self-concepts to realistic ones, then there is a change in reference

groups chosen away from those which are idealistic or perceived to be so,

to those which are, or are perceived to be realistically orientated. Thus

faculty becomes less important as a point of reference. This again is

consistent with Quarantelli's assertion that faculty is less important

than has often been assumed. In the case of the group of beginning

trainees who already hold realistic self-conceptions and who it is assumed

chose realistic reference groups already, we can expect that the training

experience makes for the maintenance or strengthening of these conceptions.

Thus there will be a greater _range_ of occupational self-concepts

among beginning trainees (i.e. as a group they will hold more diffuse

conceptions) and proportionally more of this group will hold idealistic

conceptions of their roles, than among trainees completing their

professional training who will, as a group, have less of a range or variety

of conceptions (i.e. they will be more specific about their roles) and

be proportionally more realistically orientated. Likewise, beginning

trainees will choose predominantly idealistic reference groups in

comparison with completing trainees who will predominantly choose realistic

reference groups. Also, completing teachers will discriminate more about groups within their profession than will beginning trainees. Such a picture of change is also consistent with Quarantelli's idea of "different paths" through professional school to expect a number of trainees not to have changed. It is not suggested that completing trainees will be a homogeneous group, only that in comparison with beginning trainees, they will proportionally hold more realistic self concepts than idealistic ones.

HYPOTHESES

It is the aim of this thesis to see whether the model presented is correct and secondly, whether the assumptions adopted concerning the socialization process adequately explains the facts in a specific situation, the training of teachers. On the basis of the above discussion therefore, certain hypotheses will be put forward and tested.

Firstly, concerning the effect of socialization experiences on the specificity of role conceptions we can propose.

Hypothesis A

Among trainee teachers, those just beginning their training course will have more diffuse concepts of the teacher's role than trainees completing their training course.

That is, in the range of ideas of what a teacher should or should not do, in their ideas of what a teacher's expectations and obligations are, trainees beginning their course, as a group, will be characterized by a heterogeneity of role definitions as compared to those completing their training course.

Hypothesis B

Among trainee teachers, those just beginning their training course will be less discriminating about certain features of their occupation than will those trainees completing their course.

That is, in two selected features, a) the perception of differences between two important groups met in their training experience and b) the attribution of certain views to the faculty, trainees just beginning their course will hold different views to those completing their course, such

that the former will be less aware of the different points of view held
by relevant reference groups in the educational sphere. No assumption is
being made that one group's perceptions will be more 'correct' than the
other, the emphasis is on characteristic differences rather than veracity.

Hypothesis C

Among trainee teachers, the initial occupational self conceptions held
will determine choice of reference groups. This means that those with
idealistic occupational self concepts will more often seek as reference
groups those who share, or are perceived as sharing, the same conceptions
concerning their future roles, and likewise for those who hold realistic
occupational self conceptions.

Such occupational self concepts undergo transformation due to the
opportunity of playing and testing out such role conceptions in realistic
situations. Such situations are represented by the practice teaching part
of the training program which is fairly continuous throughout. Thus
we can predict a change in self conceptions. This would be a change in
the distribution of self conceptions along the idealistic-realistic
continuum among different groups at different stages of the training
program so that we might expect-

Hypothesis D

Among trainee teachers, those who are completing their training course
will tend to hold predominantly realistic occupational self concepts,
whilst those beginning their training course will tend to hold predominantly
idealistic occupational self concepts.

An important place has been given to the experience of practice
teaching in the life of the trainee teacher. If this is true, then we may

propose -

Hypothesis E

Among trainee teachers, those <u>completing</u> their training course will consider the practice teaching program as a more important part of the course than will those just <u>beginning</u> their course.

Throughout the study, the following conventions will be used. Trainees just <u>beginning</u> their training course will be designated as B teachers. Trainees <u>completing</u> their training course will be designated as C teachers.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

As it was not possible to conduct a longitudinal study, use was made of the following assumptions: Those completing their training were assumed to have been similar in the conception and specificity of the teaching role that they <u>first</u> held, with those <u>now</u> beginning training. Also that those beginning training would come to have conceptions similar to those now completing training. Such an assumption seems reasonable in that, as far as could be ascertained a) admission procedures remained fairly similar b) the same type of person presented themselves for training, and c) the training program remained essentially the same.

Thus the sample consisted of two groups drawn from trainees currently enrolled in the Faculty of Education at the University of British Columbia, those in their first year of education training (B teachers) and those completing their training after five years (C teachers). This gave a sample of 112. Of those in their first year, a sample of 57 was obtained of which 51 were females and 6 male, the median age of this group being 19. Of those in their final year, a sample of 55 was obtained of whom 41 were male and 14 were female; the median age of this group being 24 years.*

It must be noted however, that the use of the term 'sample' here is not the same as the conventional use of the term in social research i.e.

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*In the examination of the data no great differences on the major variables were found when broken down by sex. Hence no tables are included in which there is classification by this factor.

it was not a systematic random sample such that every case had a known
and equal probability of being-selected. This unfortunately was impossible
to do due to administrative difficulties, hence though the term 'sample'
is used for convenience in this study, it means a group of subjects
chosen by means that were haphazard when compared to conventional sampling
techniques.

The data were gathered by means of a questionnaire designed in four
parts (Appendix 1). The first part elicited relevant background material
from subjects such as age and sex; the second part attempted to measure
the first major variable, the reference group or groups a person used;
the third section attempted to discover the subject's perceptions of
different groups and also his perceptions of how far his ideas on education
had changed; the final section of the questionnaire attempted to measure
the subject's occupational self-concept by means of a series of attitude
statements with which he was asked to agree or disagree. Questionnaires
were similar for both groups in all respects except for section three,
this for B teachers being anticipatory and for C teachers retrospective
(Appendix 2).

Criteria for Measuring Major Variables

1. Reference Groups:

It was assumed that there were five main groups who would act as
points of reference for trainee teachers; other education students,
education faculty, teachers met during teaching practice, their own
school teachers, and professional teachers known. Of the last four, it
was assumed that education faculty and their own teachers would tend to
exert a more idealistic influence on trainees, whilst teachers met in

practice and other professional teachers would tend to exert a predominantly realistic attitude toward the teacher's role. It might seem inconsistent to place 'own teachers' and 'teachers met in practice' in opposite categories. However, the assumption that 'own teachers' would exert an idealistic influence rested on the fact that many studies show that a person's own schoolteacher often played an important part in motivating them to enter the profession. Hence it is reasonable to assume that these people would stress the idealistic aspects of the job rather than the realistic.

Assigning reference groups:

A. Use was made of responses to questions 7, 8, 9, 13 and 14 in assigning reference groups. First of all, it was noted which groups were mentioned in the extreme positive positions on questions 7 and 9, and reference groups were taken as that group or groups mentioned as very important in their evaluations to the subject and also those that he considered to be very influential.

B. In the case of two groups being marked down in these categories, recourse was taken to examining the response to question 8 which asked a subject to rank different groups in the order of their usefulness as examples to him. This generally ascertained which of the two groups mentioned in questions 7 or 9 was the most important.

C. Where the two different groups were mentioned in question 7 and 9, the same procedure was used with responses to question 8 to provide the chosen group.

D. When (rarely) different groups were mentioned in answers to each of questions 7, 8 and 9, the answers to questions 13 and 14 which

asked who a subject saw as holding similar and dissimilar views on education to him, were used to determine reference groups.

It might be argued that evaluation, usefulness of examples, and influence are different things, and that using them to determine a person's reference group is erroneous. However there was a great deal of consistency in subjects' answers to these questions, resulting in only 19 cases out of 112 having answers so contradictory that it was impossible to assign a reference group or groups to them by this procedure. A measure of this consistency is to compare the answers of each one of the above questions with all the others. An idea of the consistency that is obtained therefore can be seen (Appendix 4).

2. Occupational Self Concept:

To measure how a trainee perceives his role, an attitude scale was established (Appendix 3) along a continuum of idealism to realism. The items on the scale were taken from a study by Kerlinger (1956)[32] who used them as items on a Q sort. Not all items were chosen, only 10 from a list of 80. Those chosen were those which seemed to the writer to discriminate best between idealism and realism. Kerlinger's aim was to study the consistency with which people held attitudes toward education and he took 'progressive' (idealistic) and 'traditional' (realistic) statements from a whole range of educational writings. He was able to prove that such clusters of attitudes existed but he does not mention which statements he found to discriminate best.

Subjects were offered five responses to each of the ten questions, from strongly agree to strongly disagree, those answers denoting idealistic attitudes scoring high whilst those denoting realistic attitudes

scored low. This gave a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 5 for each question which resulted in a scale from 10 to 50 with a mid-point of 30. Thus subjects scoring 30 and over were taken as having an idealistic occupational self-concept, and those scoring under 30 a realistic occupational self-concept.

A measure of the heterogeneity of occupational self-concepts was taken to be the standard deviation of the scores of both groups of teachers on the attitude scale. Thus the more specific the concept, the smaller the standard deviation.

RESULTS

Hypothesis A

Expected result:

Among trainee teachers, those just beginning their training course
(B teachers) will have a more diffuse conception of the teacher's role
than those trainees completing their training course (C teachers).

Actual result:

The standard deviations of each groups' score on the attitude scale were
compared with the following results:

B teachers had a standard deviation of 3.99

C teachers had a standard deviation of 4.74

Thus the hypothesis failed to be supported.

Hypothesis B

Expected result:

Among trainee teachers, those just beginning their training course (B
teachers) will be less discriminating about certain features of their
occupation than will those trainees completing their courses (C teachers).

Actual results:

Question 12 asked how far trainees thought that the faculty and the
teachers whom they met on practice teaching shared the same views on
education. The results are summarized below, Table I.

Table I

Comparison of Faculty and Practice Teachers by Stage of Training

Perception	B Teachers No.	%	C Teachers No.	%
As Sharing Similar Views	39	69.6	17	31.4
As Differing Quite Significantly	17	30.3	34	62.9
As Completely Different	0	0.0	3	5.5

$$n = 110 \qquad x^2 = 16.69 \qquad p < .001$$

B teachers see predominantly no difference between the views held by faculty and practice teachers whilst C teachers see a great deal of difference between them.

Question 11 asked how realistic or idealistic they thought the faculty were. Table II summarizes the results obtained.

Table II

Perception of Education Faculty by Stage of Training

Perception of Faculty as:	B Teachers No.	%	C Teachers No.	%
Too Idealistic*	22	38.5	27	49.0
Sufficiently Realistic*	35	61.4	28	50.9

$$n = 112 \qquad x^2 = 1.73 \qquad p < .20$$

*(Categories 1 and 2 in question 11 have been combined into the category 'Too idealistic' in the table, and categories 3 and 4 in the question into 'Sufficiently realistic' in the table).

B teachers on the whole see faculty as being sufficiently realistic. C teachers however are less generous in their views and tend more to see the faculty as being too idealistic than do C teachers.

Hence, in two important features of their occupation, the comparison of
two important groups within this occupation, and the attribution of
certain views to faculty, B teachers do seem to share different views
than C teachers.

It is important to note here however, that in inferring from these
results that B teachers are less discriminating than C teachers, we are
assuming that practice teachers are·in fact realistic and faculty in fact
idealistic. Thus a greater proportion of B teachers seeing faculty as
'sufficiently realistic' than C teachers, only means our inference is
true if the above assumption is likewise.

Hypothesis C

Expected Result:

Among trainee teachers, the occupation self-concepts that are held
determines which reference groups are chosen.

Actual Results:

Results are summarized in the following tables and show the hypothesis
to be well supported.

Table III

Reference Group Chosen by Occupational Self-Concept

Occupational Self Concept	Type of Reference Group Chosen	
	Idealistic	Realistic
Idealistic	31	16
Realistic	10	36

n = 93 (19 unclassifiable subjects) $x^2 = 17.2$ $p < .001$

When broken down by stage of training the relationship is again shown.

Table IV

Reference Group Chosen by Occupational Self-Concept and Stage of Training

| | Type of Reference Group Chosen | | | |
| | Idealistic | | Realistic | |
Occupational Self Concept	B Teachers	C Teachers	B Teachers	C Teachers
Idealistic	15	16	9	7
Realistic	8	2	19	17

n = 93

And again, further evidence is forthcoming when answers to question 13 are analyzed. Here trainees were asked with what groups they felt they shared similar ideas on education.

Table V

Groups Perceived as Similar by Occupational Self-Concept

B Teachers

Groups Perceived as Similar	Idealistic	Realistic
Other Students	32.1%	34.4%
Faculty	28.5	6.8
Practice Teachers	25.0	34.4
Own Teachers	7.1	13.7
Other Teachers	7.1	10.3

n = 57

C Teachers

Groups Perceived as Similar	Idealistic	Realistic
Other Students	21.8%	43.4%
Faculty	40.6	0.0
Practice Teachers	12.5	30.4
Own Teachers	6.2	4.3
Other Teachers	9.3	13.0
No Answer	9.3	8.6

n = 55

In the case of the realists among B and C teachers, the group they see
themselves most similar to (apart from other students in the case of C
teachers) are practice teachers, as we might expect (assuming practice
teachers to be realistic influences). In the case of idealists among
both B and C teachers, for C teachers the relation between self concept
and reference group is quite marked (over 40% see themselves as similar
in their views to faculty who we assumed to be the most idealistic
influence). However, for idealists among B teachers, the distinction is
less clear, with equal numbers of this group (almost) stating that they
see themselves as most similar to both practice teachers and faculty
(after their peers).

Hypothesis D

Expected result:

Among trainee teachers, those who are completing their training course
(C teachers) will tend to hold predominantly realistic occupational self
concepts whilst those just beginning their training course (B teachers)
will tend to hold predominantly idealistic occupational self concepts.

Actual results:

The results are summed up in the following table and show that the
hypothesis is not supported.

Table VI

Occupational Self Concept by Stage of Training

Stage of Training	Occupational Self-Concept	
	Idealistic	Realistic
B Teachers	28 (49.1%)	29 (50.9%)
C Teachers	32 (58.2%)	23 (41.8%)

n = 112

50.9% of B teachers were idealistically orientated compared with 58.2% among C teachers whilst 49.1% of B teachers were realistically orientated compared to 41.8% among C teachers. In all cases therefore, results went in the opposite direction to the prediction.

Hypothesis E

Expected result:

Among trainee teachers, those completing their training course (C teachers) will consider the practice teaching program as a more important part of the course than will those just beginning their course (B teachers).

Actual results:

The following tables show the above hypothesis is only slightly supported.

Table VII

Features of the Course Considered as the most Important Source
of Future Help by B Teachers

Item	Number	Percent
Methods Courses	20	35.1
Academic Courses	6	10.5
Interview with Faculty Members	1	1.7
Practice Teaching	30	52.6
Other	0	0.0

n = 57

Table VIII

Things Considered most Important about Their Training

Course by C Teachers

Item	Number	Percent
Methods Courses	4	7.2
Academic Courses	11	20.0
Interviews with Faculty Members	0	0.0
Seminars	2	3.6
Practice Teaching Program	38	69.0

n = 55

Thus 69.0% of C teachers see the practice teaching program as most important as compared with 52.6% of B teachers.

Summary of Results

The data just presented offer support for two of the five hypotheses tested, viz.: Hypothesis B, that B teachers will be less discriminating about certain features of their occupation than will C teachers, and Hypothesis C, that occupational self concepts held are an important determinant of which reference groups are chosen by trainees.

With respect to the latter, however, it should be noted that when using respondents perceptions of the similarity of their views to others as an index of significant reference groups, we found that idealists among the B teachers tended to see their views as similar to those of several groups, including those we assumed to be 'realistic' in orientation.

Hypothesis E, that C teachers will evaluate practice teaching more highly than B teachers, received very slight support.

The remaining two hypotheses were not supported by our data, viz.: Hypothesis A, that B teachers would have a more diffuse conception of their future occupational role than C teachers, and Hypothesis D, that C teachers would hold predominantly realistic occupational self concepts whereas B teachers would be predominantly idealistic.

DISCUSSION

Certain contradictory and inconsistent results were found among our data. For instance, B teachers did not have a more diffuse conception of their future role than C teachers; also C teachers did not have predominantly realistic occupational self conceptions. These findings and others will form the basis of the following discussion.

Why should B teachers hold less of a variety of ideas about their future occupational roles than C teachers? The difference between both groups was not very great, but nonetheless, the distinction expected failed to appear. One possible reason could be the following.

The scale items were made up from statements of educational philosophy which were assumed to be common. However, while they might be well known to C teachers, they may be relatively unknown to B teachers who had yet to have much exposure to such philosophy. B teachers therefore could have a more homogenous image of the teacher's role because they are _less_ likely to know about competing ideological positions whereas C teachers are more heterogeneous because once they know about them, they choose one side or the other. Thus they might emphasize where they wished to be placed by knowledge of what the scale measured which thus determined their choice of their responses.

Perhaps the most important prediction that failed to be supported by the data was that of hypothesis E which stated that B teachers, would be more idealistically orientated than C teachers and vice versa.

One reason for this could have been prior experience of teaching. It was proposed that the catalyst of change was the opportunity of playing

one's future role in a realistic situation. Thus if a significant proportion of B teachers had had prior experience of teaching before beginning their training course, then this would account for their being relatively less idealistic than C teachers or at least, not as idealistic as was predicted. Analysis of questions 4 and 5 however showed that for the sample as a whole, very few subjects had had experience of teaching before they began their training course. Thus such experience cannot be considered a cause of the results obtained.

A second point concerns the certainty of decision or commitment to the way one intends to teach. It was predicted that fewer B teachers would be decided on the way they intended to play their future occupational roles than would C teachers who had reached the end of their course and who shortly would be practising teachers.

Certainty of decision may be an important consideration in explaining the failure of the prediction under hypothesis D. It might be for instance, that the predicted change is occurring but has yet to have come to fruition i.e. there is a "transitional" stage between reformulation of self concepts (that would be consistent with the findings of heterogeneous role definitions among C teachers). If this is the case, then we would expect that idealists among C teachers would make up a greater proportion of those who are undecided among this group. Tables IX and X show that B teachers are, as predicted, more undecided about how they intend to teach than C teachers. It is surprising however to find such a large number of C teachers still undecided. This gives us the opportunity to test the "transitional" hypothesis above.

Table IX

Certainty of Decision on Intended Teaching Style

(B Teachers)

Decision	Number	Percent	Grouped
Quite Definite	8	14.0	35.0%
Fairly Certain	12	21.0	
Not Yet Decided	33	57.8	64.8%
Don't Know	4	7.0	

n = 57

Table X

Time of Decision on Intended Teaching Style

(C Teachers)

Time of Decision	Number	Percent
Before 5th Year	17	31
During 5th Year	22	40
Undecided	16	29

n = 55

However, breaking the data down, we see from Tables XI and XII that it is the realists among both groups who are slightly more undecided. For C teachers it appears that realists take longer to make up their minds. However the differences between idealists and realists in this group are very small. Thus there is no support for the "transitional" hypothesis.

Table XI

Certainty of Decision on Intended Teaching Style by

Occupational Self Concept (B Teachers)

Occupational Self Concept	Certainty of Decision[*]	
	Fairly Certain	Not Yet Decided
Idealist	11 (39.2%)	17 (60.8%)
Realist	9 (31.0%)	20 (69.0%)

n = 57

[*]The categories 'I am quite definite' and 'I am fairly certain' in question 15B have been combined into 'Fairly Certain' in the table. Likewise the categories 'I have not yet decided but have some definite ideas' and 'I don't know' in the question, have been combined into 'Not Yet Decided' in the table.

Table XII

Time of Decision on Intended Teaching Style by

Occupational Self Concept (C Teachers)

Occupational Self Concept	Time of Decision		
	Before 5th Year	During 5th Year	Undecided
Idealist	13 (40.6%)	13 (40.6%)	6 (18.7%)
Realist	8 (34.7%)	8 (34.7%)	7 (30.4%)

n = 55

When we come to consider the extent of change reported by C teachers, not only do we find that all of this group has changed their ideas on how to teach since beginning the course, (Table XIII), but it is the realists in this group who state they have changed the most (Table XIV), 78.2% as against 65.5%.

Table XIII

Amount of Change in Ideas on Teaching Style Among C Teachers

Amount	Number	Percent
A Great Deal	16	29.0
Quite A Lot	23	41.8
Somewhat	16	29.0
Not At All	0	0.0

n = 55

Table XIV

Amount of Change Reported by Occupational Self Concept

among C Teachers

Amount of Change	Occupational Self Concept	
	Idealist	Realist
A Great Deal	11 (34.3%)	5 (21.7%)
Quite A Lot	10 (31.2%)	13 (56.5%)
Somewhat	11 (34.3%)	5 (21.7%)
Not At All	0	0

n = 55

Unfortunately a serious omission of this study was the failure to ask those who were asked about change, what it was that they had in fact changed from. This makes it difficult to explain away the negative results of hypothesis D as reported change for instance might be along a different continuum than idealism/realism. As extent of change tells us little without being able to specify 'change from what', it becomes

necessary to try and work out what the original situation among C

teachers was assuming that statements of change do in fact refer to

idealistic and realistic conceptions of occupational roles.

Combining the above table so that we get the numbers in each group

who have changed a little and changed a lot, we get the following:

Table XIV A

Combination of Table XIV - (Time 2)

Amount of Change	Occupational Self Concept Idealist	Realist
Changed A Lot	21 (65.6%)	18 (78.2%)
Changed A Little	11 (34.3%)	5 (21.8%)

n = 55

This is the picture at the present. To get an idea of the original

situation, let us assume that those who now state they have changed a

lot were in the opposite categories in the original situation (e.g.

present realists were idealists before change), whilst those who now

state they have changed a little have stayed where they were. This gives

us a rough picture of the original situation; thus before any change had

occurred, the situation would approximate Table XV below.

Table XV

Amount of Change by Occupational Self Concept:

Theoretical Initial Position (Time 1)

Amount of Change	Occupational Self Concept Idealist	Realist
Changed A Lot	18 (62.0%)	21 (80.7%)
Changed A Little	11 (38.0%)	5 (19.3%)

n = 55

From the table, the distributions suggest that it is not only the realists who have changed more, but in comparison with the present picture, the change is predominantly from realism to idealism and not vice versa as predicted. Also as it is the initial realists who have changed more we assume they have changed in an idealistic direction.

If the majority of C teachers have changed their ideas on how to teach, it might be fruitful to see what these changes are attributed to. We would for instance, in accordance with our hypothesis, expect a greater proportion of realists to attribute change to the effect of teaching practice than would idealists.

From Table XVI, however, even though this is seen as the most important thing to have caused change, there seems little difference in the number of realists and idealists who state this.

Nor is there any difference of note in the evaluations of different parts of the training course by realists and idealists among C teachers (Table XVII).

Table XVI

Causes of Change in Ideas on How to Teach by Occupational

Self Concept (C Teachers)

Cause of Change	Idealists		Realists	
Conversations with Faculty	2	6.2%	0	0.0%
Discussions with Other Students	2	6.2	2	8.6
Lectures and Seminars	5	15.6	2	8.6
Observation of Practice Teachers	2	6.2	1	4.3
Conversations with Practice Teachers	2	6.2	3	13.0
Own Experiences of Teaching	19	59.3	15	65.2

n = 55

Table XVII

Things Considered most Important about the Training Course by Occupational

Self Concept (C Teachers)

Item	Occupational Self Concept			
	Idealists		Realists	
Methods Courses	2	6.2%	2	8.6%
Academic Courses	7	21.8	4	17.3
Interviews with Faculty	0	0.0	0	0.0
Seminars	2	6.2	0	0.0
Practice Teaching Program	21	65.6	17	73.9

n = 55

Thus, if experiences during teaching practice change the majority of
C teacher's ideas no matter what self-concepts they hold, and since we
are assuming that the influence of such practice teaching would be
toward more realistic definitions of the teacher's role, we still are left
with explaining why such a proportion of C teachers show a change toward
more idealistic conceptions.

Sofar, our model has assumed that influences on self-concepts would
come from the effects of teaching practice, and that counter influences
would be insignificant. However, when we look directly at groups who
trainees state will (or we can assume, have) influenced them, (Question
9), we see some interesting facts, (Table XVIII).

First of all, the amount of influence admitted by B teachers is
greater than that for C teachers. Secondly, approximately similar
proportions of idealists and realists among both B and C teachers

Table XVIII

Sources of Influence by Occupational Self Concept

(B Teachers)

Influence Group	Idealists			Realists		
	Very Influ.	Of Some Influ.	Of No Influ.	Very Influ.	Of Some Influ.	Of No Influ.
Other Students	7.1%	46.4%	46.4%	3.4%	41.3%	55.1%
Faculty	60.7	32.1	7.1	44.8	51.7	3.4
Practice Teachers	42.8	57.1	0.0	48.2	37.9	10.3
Own Teachers	28.5	46.4	25.0	13.7	62.0	20.6
Teachers Known	28.5	39.2	32.1	17.2	56.8	20.6

n = 57

(C Teachers)

Influence Group	Very Influ.	Of Some Influ.	Of No Influ.	Very Influ.	Of Some Influ.	Of No Influ.
Other Students	3.1%	53.1%	43.7%	0.0%	60.8%	39.1%
Faculty	43.7	46.8	9.3	21.7	69.5	8.6
Practice Teachers	34.3	56.2	9.3	39.1	60.8	0.0
Own Teachers	15.6	56.2	28.1	8.6	69.5	21.7
Teachers Known	18.7	53.1	28.1	17.2	43.3	39.1

n = 55

attribute influence to practice teachers. This is consistent for B
teachers, as in their first year of education they take mainly
academic courses outside the Department of Education. Their education
training consists of one period of practice teaching per week and one large
seminar from the education faculty. Hence their contact with education
faculty is limited, and significant interaction more likely to be with

teachers met on practice, (this is supported in Table XX). It is similarly consistent for C teachers who, it will be remembered, stated practice teaching as most important to them on their views of teaching.

Thirdly, we can note, an overall greater admission of influence by idealists than by realists, and fourthly, the most salient point for the following argument, a higher proportion of idealists among both B and C teachers attribute influence to the faculty than do realists. Hence faculty still remain influential for idealists among C teachers, and we can assume that teaching practice and its hypothesized effects are nullified by faculty influence which, as it were, insulates the idealists from 'reality shock'. Some support for this is presented in the following table which further analyzes responses to question 11.

Table XIX

Perception of Faculty by Occupational Self Concept

(C Teachers)

Occupational Self Concept	Faculty Seen as too Idealistic		Faculty Seen as Sufficiently Realistic	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Idealistic	14	43.7	18	56.2
Realistic	13	56.5	10	43.4

n = 55

Idealists tend to attribute positive views to faculty, (i.e., see them as sufficiently realistic) more than do realists (who tend to see them as too idealistic). The differences are small but suggestive.

To continue this argument, we will introduce another set of tables from responses to question 6, which attempted to delineate interaction patterns among trainee teachers.

Looking at these patterns, there seems to be little difference between the amount and recipient of both B and C teacher's interaction.

Table XX

Interaction Profiles of Trainee Teachers

B Teachers

Group	Amount of Interaction		
	A Great Deal	Sometimes	Never
Other Students	29.8%	63.2%	7.0%
Faculty	1.7	59.7	38.5
Practice Teachers	15.9	78.8	5.2
Own Teachers	7.0	50.9	42.0
Teachers Known	3.4	68.3	28.0

n = 57

C Teachers

Group	A Great Deal	Sometimes	Never
Other Students	34.5%	63.5%	1.8%
Faculty	7.2	70.9	21.8
Practice Teachers	9.0	89.0	1.8
Own Teachers	1.8	50.8	47.2
Teachers Known	7.2	74.4	18.1

n = 55

When however, the interaction pattern of idealists and realists are analyzed, there does appear to be a significant difference between these groups among C teachers which does not appear so markedly among B teachers. (Tables XXI below).

Table XXI

Interaction Profiles by Occupational Self Concept

B Teachers

Group	Occupational Self Concept					
	Idealistic			Realistic		
	Interaction			Interaction		
	Great Deal	Sometimes	Never	Great Deal	Sometimes	Never
Other Students	32.1%	57.1%	10.7%	27.5%	68.9%	3.4%
Faculty	3.5	67.8	28.5	0.0	51.7	48.2
Practice Teachers	10.7	85.7	3.5	20.6	72.4	6.8
Own Teachers	3.5	50.0	46.4	10.3	48.2	41.3
Teachers Known	3.5	67.8	28.5	3.4	68.9	24.1

n = 57

C Teachers

Group	Great Deal	Sometimes	Never	Great Deal	Sometimes	Never
Other Students	45.4%	23.6%	30.9%	29.0%	12.7%	58.1%
Faculty	10.9	41.8	47.2	1.8	34.5	63.6
Practice Teachers	38.1	29.0	32.7	21.8	20.0	58.1
Own Teachers	9.0	34.5	56.3	1.8	30.9	67.2
Teachers Known	20.0	36.3	43.6	5.4	30.9	63.6

n = 55

Realists among C teachers have considerably _less_ interaction with each group than do idealists. Thus, those who maintain realistic occupational self concepts or come to hold them, have significantly less

interaction with other people engaged in education than do those who maintain their idealism or who come to hold idealistic occupational self concepts.

We can summarize sofar therefore, and say, that among C teachers, those remaining realists or changing to realism, and those staying idealist or changing to idealism, are similar in that a large proportion of them attribute change in self-concepts to practice teaching experiences.

But, realists differ from idealists in that, a) faculty influence them less, and b) their overall interaction is less (with faculty especially).

Thus both subgroups among C teachers give greatest attention to teaching practice as a catalyst of change but differ in the attribution of influences to different groups and in their interaction patterns. The same evidently is true for B teachers but the differences are not so great.

How therefore can such differences between both subgroups of C teachers be used to explain away the failure of our prediction under hypothesis D?

What is the effect of this interaction? Why should it be an important factor in the teaching situation? One theory that seems to explain the situation quite adequately is that of Festinger (1957)[33]. Festinger's, Theory of Cognitive Dissonance, states, "that an individual strives for consistency within himself e.g. opinions and attitudes tend to exist in clusters that are internally consistent. Should inconsistency (or dissonance) occur, the ensuing psychological discomfort will motivate attempts to reduce such dissonance. Such dissonance occurs

when one's cognitions or beliefs about oneself are met with realities
of actual situations. There are many ways of reducing dissonance,
in general they are, a) changing one or more of the cognitive elements
involved in dissonant relations; b) decreasing the importance of the
elements involved in the dissonant relations, and c) by adding new
cognitive elements that are consonant with already existing cognitions."

It is this last mode of reduction that is important for our
discussion. Brehm and Cohen (1962)[34] talk about what they call the
"Boomerang Effect," and say dissonance theory states the following --
"First of all, let us suppose that dissonance has been aroused in regard
to some cognition A, without specification of what that cognition might
be. We know that the dissonance could be reduced by a change in that
cognition so that it no longer followed from that element or cluster of
elements, and we also know that cognition A will have some resistance
to that change. Suppose then, that A's resistance is great because the
actual events to which it corresponds cannot be changed and because
its meaning is ambiguous. When such conditions exist, the reduction or
elimination of dissonance will certainly depend on other modes of reduction,
such as change in the elements with which A is dissonant or the
addition of consonant elements. It is the latter mode, the addition of
consonant elements, that is of interest here, for it is through the
addition of elements that we may have a negative effect.

When cognitions A and B are dissonant with each other and are
highly resistant to change, a remaining mode of dissonance reduction is
through the addition of elements consonant either with A or with B. In

this way, the proportion of relevant cognitions which are dissonant is reduced.

The conditions we have specified provide the possibility of a negative reaction. That is, whenever a person is exposed to cognitions dissonant with ones already held, and these various cognitions are highly resistant to change, then the individual may resort to bolstering the cognition he _first_ held. If the initially held cognition were a persuasive communication discrepant with his attitude, then his bolstering of the initial attitude would be termed 'boomerang' attitude change."

They continue, "We have seen by now that the typical model for effecting attitude change has been the presentation of a communication containing information, arguments, appeals and so on, designed to produce change in the recipient in a given direction. While this paradigm might be understood in a variety of ways, one possible way is in terms of dissonance theory .... the dissonance theory approach suggests a set of factors which can produce not only the intended shift in influence, but also just the opposite, that is a boomerang change in attitude."[35]

Thus it can be suggested that the pattern and nature of interaction provide a _source_ of consonant elements for an individual in a dissonant situation. In terms of self concepts, Backman et. al. (1963)[36] say an individual achieves congruency, "When S perceives his behaviour and that of O as implying definitions of self, congruent with relevant aspects of his self-concept."[37] Should factors in a situation threaten this congruency, then he attempts to actively structure his relationships with others so as to achieve and maintain congruency. They say he will do this

in the following way, "He <u>selectively</u> interacts with other persons, preferring those who treat him in a manner <u>congruent</u> with his self concept, and avoiding those who do not. Similarly, he selectively evaluates others, depending upon their attitudes towards him.... Thus he maximizes the effect of congruent actions and minimizes the effect of incongruent actions on his self concept."[38] The hypothesis they bring forward to test, states, "The greater the number of significant other persons who are perceived to define an aspect of an individual's self concept congruently, the more resistant to change is that aspect of self." When tested the hypothesis was supported.

Thus in terms of the situation we are investigating, we may see teaching practice as presenting a set of dissonant cognitions that cannot be changed. Thus to reduce dissonance, a trainee must seek other modes of reduction. He cannot change the elements in the situation, or decrease their importance, but he can add consonant elements. One such way of doing this is to seek out others whose definitions of the situation or interpretations of experience provide additional elements consonant with the perspective he already holds. Such selective interaction therefore, we suggest, is an important mitigating factor in the effects of teaching practice on a trainee.

SUMMARY

It is clear that the results of this thesis provide a picture somewhat at variance with the model assumed. Trainee teachers enter their training period with a range of occupational self concepts not very much different from those completing their training. They differ however in their perceptions of two aspects of the training situation, B teachers seeing relatively less difference between the two major groups of socializers in the training situation than C teachers, and also attributing a different set of characteristics to faculty than do C teachers.

In any year, a trainee's occupational self-concept determines his choice of reference groups. It is also significant in who is influential to him. B teachers admit to greater influence than C teachers, although both groups have similar proportions attributing their greatest influence to practice teachers. The most important difference lies in the idealists among both B and C teachers who attribute more influence to the faculty than do realists.

The practice teaching program is evaluated slightly higher among C teachers than B teachers and it is this experience that is stated to have been the major course of changes in attitude in the former group no matter what self concept is held.

All C teachers have changed, yet the direction of change is opposite to what was predicted. Over time, teachers seem to maintain or increase their idealism. This is the major source of variance with the adopted model.

Why should this be so? Analyzing the data on C teachers it was found that, a) of nearly a third who stated they were undecided on how they intended to teach, the largest proportion were realists. If change was predominantly from idealism to realism we might expect that it would be the idealists who were less decided, i.e., in a 'transitional' stage, b) As to who changed the most, again it was the realists who were found to have done so. From what it was that they changed was difficult to work out, but some rough estimate was calculated which suggested the predominant direction of change was from realism to idealism. As stated before, it was experiences during teaching practice that caused the change. This was what was predicted but the nature of the change differed. It was postulated that counterbalancing influences existed in the training situation that worked to cause this. No attempt was made to discover what a trainee's actual experiences were during teaching practice however.

One striking finding was a difference in interaction patterns between idealists and realists among C teachers. Realists had less interaction in general with the groups mentioned than did idealists. Hence this fact, along with the data on influence was used to support our explanation for the failure of our prediction about change. The importance of interaction was brought out by relating it to Festinger's Theory of Cognitive Dissonance which put more succinctly our reasoning about insulating factors in the training situation.

FOOTNOTES

1. Cf. Robert K. Merton, George Reader and Patricia M. Kendall, The Student Physician, Cambridge, Mass. Harvard University Press 1957, and Ida H. Simpson, Patterns of Socialization into Professions: The Case of Student Nurses, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, New York, 1960.

2. Enrico L. Quarantelli, Margaret Helfrich and Daniel Yutsy, "Faculty and Student Perception in a Professional School", Sociology and Social Research, 49.1., October 1964, pp. 32-45.

3. Mustafer Sherif, "The Concept of Reference Groups in Human Relations", in M. Sherif and M. O. Wilson (eds.), Group Relations at the Crossroads, New York, Harpers, 1953, pp. 203-31.

4. Herbert Hyman, "Reflections on Reference Groups", Public Opinion Quarterly, 24.3. Fall, 1960, pp. 383-96.

5. Carl J. Couch and J. S. Murray, "Significant Others and Evaluations", Sociometry, 27.4. December 1964, pp. 502-09.

6. Quarantelli et. al., op. cit., p. 41.

7. Ibid., p. 43.

8. Tamotsu Shibutani, "Reference Groups as Perspectives", American Journal of Sociology, 60 (May 1955) pp. 562-69.

9. Marie Jahoda, "Conformity and Independence: A Psychological Analysis", Human Relations, 12.2., May 1959, pp. 99-120.

10. Hans L. Zetterburg, "Compliant Actions", Acta Sociologica, Volume 2, 1957, pp. 179-201.

11. Harold H. Kelly, "Two Functions of Reference Groups", in Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley (eds.) Readings in Social Psychology, New York, Holt, 1952, pp. 410-14. Shibutani, op. cit.

12. Zetterburg, op. cit., p. 188.

13. Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People", Psychological Review, 4.4. November 1951, pp. 381-92.

14. Leon Festinger, "Informal Social Communication", Psychological Review, 57. 1950, pp. 271-82.

15. Shibutani, op. cit., p. 568.

16. Ralph Turner, "Role Taking, Role Standpoint and Reference Group Behaviour", American Journal of Sociology, 65., January 1956, pp. 316-28.

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20. Ralph Turner, "The Reference Groups of Future-orientated Men", Social Forces, 34.2. December 1955, pp. 130-36.

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22. H. C. Kelman, op. cit., p. 456.

23. Everett C. Hughes, "The Making of a Physician", in Men and their Work, Glencoe, Ill., Free Press, 1955, Chapter 9, pp. 116-30.

24. E. Quarantelli et. al., op. cit., p. 35.

25. W. W. Charters, "The Social Background of Teaching", in N. L. Gage (ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching, Chicago, Rand McNally, 1963, pp. 715-813.

26. Miriam Waggenschein, "Reality Shock: A Study of Beginning Elementary School Teachers", Unpublished masters dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950.

27. I. Rabinowitz, "Teaching Experience and Teachers' Attitudes", Elementary School Journal, 60. March 1960, pp. 313-19.

28. Bruce J. Biddle, J. Paschal Twyman and Earl F. Rankin, Jr., "The Role of the Teacher and Occupational Choice", School Review, 70.2. Summer 1962, pp. 191-206.

29. I. N. Berlin, "Teachers' Self Expectations: How Realistic are They?", School Review, LXVI, 2., Summer 1958, pp. 134-44.

30. H. C. Kelman, op. cit., p. 462.

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36. C. W. Backman, P. F. Secord and J. R. Pierce, "Resistance to Change
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Others", Sociometry, 26., March 1963, pp. 102-11.

37. Ibid., pp. 103-104.

38. Ibid., p. 104.

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APPENDIX I

THE QUESTIONNAIRE, ANSWERED BY B AND C TEACHERS

We would be obliged if you would complete this questionnaire concerning certain views you have about teaching. Your answers will be kept completely confidential; we are not interested in individual answers, but in analyzing the aggregate of answers we obtain. Do not therefore put your names on. May we thank you in advance for your cooperation.

1. What is your age next birthday? ____

2. Are you male or female? M ___ F ____

3. For what type of school are you training?

                        Elementary ____

                        Secondary ____

                        Other (specify) _____

4. Did you have any experience of teaching before beginning your teacher training course?

                        Yes ____

                        No ____

5. If you did have any such experience, for how long did you teach and in what type of school? Yrs ___ Mths ___
                                         Type _____

6. How often, with the following people, do you or have you discussed what it is like to be a teacher?

	A great deal	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Other Education Students				
Education Faculty				
Teachers you met on Practice				
One of your own School teachers				
Teachers you know				
Others (specify)				

The next four questions are designed to find out actually how you intend to teach and who you consider important as examples and influences. We do not want to know how you think you ought to teach or who you think you ought to take into consideration, but your own views on these questions.

7. How important to you are the following in their evaluation of you as a future teacher? (Check for each one.)

	Very Important	Quite Important	Of Some Importance	Of No Importance
Other Education Students				
Education Faculty				
Teachers you met on Practice				
One of your own School Teachers				
Teachers you know				
Others (specify)				

8. Rank numerically (1,2,3 etc.) those of the following whose opinions, advice or example you think will be the most useful to you when you begin teaching

Other education students ____

Education Faculty ____

Teachers you met on practice ____

One of your own school teachers ____

Teachers you know ____

Others (specify) _____

9. How much influence to you think the following will have on the way you will teach in the classroom? (Check for each one.)

	Very Influential	Of Some Influence	Of little or no Influence

Other Education Students

Education Faculty

Teachers you met on practice

Your own schoolteachers

Teachers you know

Others (specify)

10. State briefly why some people are more influential to you in their opinions and examples of how to teach than others.

11. It is sometimes said, that on the whole, education faculty members have little appreciation of the problems teachers actually face, that their approach is too academic and unconcerned with the day to day problems a teacher meets in the classroom. With which one of the following statements do you agree with the most?

    1. I think education faculty are too detached from reality.

    2. I think they have some but not enough understanding of problems teachers face.

    3. I think they have sufficient understanding.

    4. I think they have an entirely realistic outlook.

12. How far do you think the teachers you have come into contact with during teaching practice share views on teaching with education faculty members?

    They share fairly similar views _____

    They differ quite significantly _____

    They are completely different _____

13. With whose views on education and teaching do your own views most closely resemble?

        Other education students   _____

        Education faculty   _____

        Teachers you met on practice   _____

        Your own school teachers   _____

        Teachers you know   _____

        Others (specify)   _____

14. With whose views on education and teaching do your own views most differ?

        Other education students   _____

        Education faculty   _____

        Teachers you met on practice   _____

        Your own school teachers   _____

        Teachers you know   _____

        Others (specify)   _____

APPENDIX II

QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY B TEACHERS ONLY

15B. How far have you made up your mind the way that you eventually intend to teach?

      I am quite definite   _____

      I am fairly certain   _____

      I have not quite decided but have some
      definite ideas   _____

      I don't know yet   _____

16B. What three of the following aspects of your course do you think will help you the most in becoming a teacher? (Rank 1,2,3 in order of importance.)

      1. Methods courses   _____

      2. Academic courses   _____

      3. Practice teaching program   _____

      4. Interviews with faculty members   _____

      5. Discussions with other education Students   _____

      6. Reading in the library   _____

      7. Others (specify)   _____

QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY C TEACHERS ONLY

15. At what time would you say you had definitely made up your mind on the way in which you intended to teach? (Check one).

      Before beginning the courses   _____

      During your 1st year of training   _____
        "   "   2nd " "   "   _____
        "   "   3rd " "   "   _____
        "   "   4th " "   "   _____
        "   "   5th " "   "   _____

      I have still to yet make up my mind   _____

16. How far have your <u>ideas</u> <u>on</u> <u>how</u> <u>to</u> <u>teach</u> <u>changed</u> since you began your training course?

       A great deal   _____

       Quite a lot   _____

       Somewhat   _____

       Not at all   _____

17. If you have changed your ideas at all, what would you say was the most important thing to have caused this?

       Conversations with faculty members   _____

       Discussions with other education students   _____

       Lectures and seminars   _____

       Observation of teaching during practice   _____

       Conversations with teachers during practice _____

       Your own experience of teaching during
       Practice   _____

       Other (specify)   _____

18. Rank (1,2,3) in order of importance the three things you considered most useful about your training course.

       Methods courses   _____

       Academic courses   _____

       Practice teaching program   _____

       Interviews with faculty members   _____

       Seminars   _____

       Reading in the library   _____

APPENDIX III

THE ATTITUDE QUESTIONS USED TO MEASURE OCCUPATIONAL SELF CONCEPTS

QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY B AND C TEACHERS

With regard to how you intend to teach, how far would you agree or disagree with the following statements?
Again what we want to know is how you yourself intend to teach, your true attitudes and feelings, not how you think teachers ought to teach or how you think you ought to answer.

A. Children need and should have more supervision and discipline than they usually get.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

B. Knowledge and subject matter themselves are not so important as learning to solve problems.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

C. Teachers should not have to be concerned with pupils getting along with each other; they have enough to do teaching their own subjects.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

D. Children should be taught that all problems should be subjected to criticism and objective scrutiny, including religious, economic, moral and social problems.

    Strongly agree   _____

    Agree   _____

    Don't know   _____

    Disagree   _____

    Strongly disagree   _____

E. One of the big difficulties with modern schools is that discipline is often sacrificed to the interests of children.

    Strongly agree   _____

    Agree   _____

    Don't know   _____

    Disagree   _____

    Strongly disagree   _____

F. The goals of education should be dictated by the child's interests and needs, as well as the larger demands of society.

    Strongly agree   _____

    Agree   _____

    Don't know   _____

    Disagree   _____

    Strongly disagree   _____

G. Good teachers maintain a certain distance between themselves and their pupils.

    Strongly agree   _____

    Agree   _____

    Don't know   _____

    Disagree   _____

    Strongly disagree.   _____

H. Children should be allowed more freedom than they usually get in the execution of learning activities.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

I. The best teachers are those who set as their primary goals the building of good feelings and relationships in the classroom.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

J. Children should be taught a problem solving approach and this approach should pervade all subject matter and teaching.

       Strongly agree   _____

       Agree   _____

       Don't know   _____

       Disagree   _____

       Strongly disagree   _____

APPENDIX IV

Table I

Comparison of groups chosen as very important in their evaluation (question 7) with groups stated as being very influential (question 9).

Question 7   Question 9

	Other Students	Faculty	Practice Teachers	Own Teachers	Teachers Known
Other Students	2	-	1	-	-
Faculty	1	41	4	7	4
Practice Teachers	2	8	44	5	9
Own Teachers	1	1	1	2	1
Teachers Known	1	1	-	-	9

n (number of responses) = 145

Table II

Comparison of groups chosen as very important in their evaluation (question 7) with groups chosen as useful as examples (question 8).

Question 7   Question 8

	Other Students	Faculty	Practice Teachers	Own Teachers	Teachers Known
Other Students	2	-	2	-	1
Faculty	-	35	1	3	1
Practice Teachers	-	3	38	4	6
Own Teachers	-	1	-	3	1
Teachers Known	-	1	-	1	6

n = 109