AN ALTERNATIVE SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY: PRELIMINARY STUDY

By

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ABSTRACT

AN ALTERNATIVE SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY: PRELIMINARY STUDY

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The study was an attempt to identify and generally describe the freshmen and sophomore students actively enrolled in an alternative secondary teacher education program at Michigan State University.

Purpose of the study was to describe the characteristics of the students who have opted for an alternative preparatory program so as to provide antecedent information for future evaluation purposes associated with the program.

The population description included basic personal characteristics, prior work experiences, level of professional commitment (career plans), attitudes toward education and teaching, personality, degrees of openness/closedness of belief systems and attitudes/perceptions of program and staff at Michigan State University. A total of 139 persons completed various instruments which included:

Kerlinger Education Scale VI, the Rokeach, the Cattell 16 P. F., a Personal Background Questionnaire and an Attitude/Perception Scale.

Procedures utilized for tabulation of data included analysis of variance, correlation matrix, cumulative scores, frequency, percent, and Helmert contrasts. The Hoyt Reliability and a factor analysis were conducted for one instrument, the Attitude/Perception Scale, designed by the author. Unless otherwise noted, the .05 level of probability was

adopted as the criterion of significance.

Population studied ranged from under 18 to over 22 years of age. Of these, 103 were female and 36 were male respondents, two of whom were married. Less than 10% were representative of ethnic minorities. Most lived in standard metropolitan and/or suburban communities.

Eighty percent or more of the students had entered MSU having had prior volunteer-type experiences; between 75-80% of the students had also had prior paid work and other leadership-building experiences.

Interest in becoming a middle or high school teacher ranged from passive to very interested. Interest in becoming a teacher was initially high, but as the student projected him/herself into the future role of teaching, the degree of interest (commitment) decreased. Between 31% and 39% of the students did not perceive themselves remaining in teaching.

In decreasing levels of support, other students were rated as most often helpful, followed by teaching faculty, graduate assistants, University College faculty, and dorm advisors. Review of high factor loaded items on the A/P Scale indicated that students generally perceived the university staff as competent, personally interested in their well-being, and generally available as a resource person. These attitudes, therefore, affect their decision to remain at Michigan State University.

Within the context of one administration of the Cattell 16 P. F., students were found to be much like other college students of the same age range.

Students were found to be neither extremely progressive nor traditional in their attitudes toward education; they closely approximate other college students nationwide.

Sixty percent or more of the students tended to score on the openminded end of the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. Students were neither extremely open or closed in their belief systems; they were comparable to other students nationwide.

Helmert Contrasts to test three hypothesis imply that the groups were essentially alike (freshmen versus sophomore). These contrasts lend additional support to earlier generalizations drawn from the data analysis.

The following findings were drawn from the data:

1. SEPP students are not significantly different with respect to their attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, basic personality characteristics, and socio-economic backgrounds from the non-SEPP students.

2. Both SEPP and non-SEPP students are not significantly different from other college-age students natiowide with respect to their attitudes, beliefs, basic personality characteristics.

3. Both SEPP and non-SEPP students are similar to other practicing teachers described in the literature in terms of their socio economic backgrounds.

4. SEPP students do not appear to have the degree of commitment to becoming and staying a teacher to the same degree as do the non-SEPP students.

5. SEPP and non-SEPP students generally perceive the university community to be helpful to them. Students studied chose to stay at Michigan State University partially for this reason.

Thirty-four recommendations for additional consideration were

provided. These recommendations address additional antecedent information as well as program considerations. Basis for the recommendations was drawn from both the data analyzed and the literature reviewed.

FOREWORD

Typically, secondary teacher education programs have followed a standard format in most public and private colleges and universities. The student undertakes a substantive content major in a discipline such as English, Social Studies, or Physical Education; and one or more minors in "content" fields. The candidate then undertakes basic professional courses in such areas as Educational Psychology, Learning Theory, Principles of Secondary Education as well as a general methods course in Secondary Education. Following is a special methods course in the teaching of his/her major subject and a term of student teaching.

There are existent few alternative approaches to that described. One of those is the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University.

In this study the alternative program was described and the participants were investigated to determine whether or not they differed significantly from those students concurrently enrolled in the traditional preservice program at Michigan State University.

The purpose of the study was to identify antecedent characteristics of the program participants which might be useful in at least two major considerations:

1. The development of selection criteria for preservice programs, and

2. The development of baseline data which might be utilized for additional research purposes, including descriptive and evaluative studies.

It was my privilege to work closely with the Director of the program, his graduate assistants and instructor, and with the students themselves. Their cooperation has helped make this study possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Grateful appreciation is extended to Dr. Samuel S. Corl whose patience, confidence and insight helped make a difficult task easier. As chairman of the doctoral guidance committee, his encouragement has been invaluable.

A special note of thanks is directed to Dr. Peter G. Haines and Dr. John Schweitzer whose standards of excellence and integrity constantly imposed necessary quality restraints on the development of the study.

Additional thanks to both Dr. Charles A. Blackman and Dr. Daniel H. Kruger whose expertise, encouragement, and constructive criticism contributed to the study. To each of these committee members, my especial thanks.

To an unnamed group of "significant others," my heartfelt appreciation. The ommission of their names is only as it can be, for each is significant in a separate and distinct manner, perhaps unknown to them.

To yet another unnamed group who share all, or part, of my life space, my deepest gratitude for their faith and confidence.

Finally, to those who know me well, and who will understand because they do, "many thanks" and "via con dios."

Carol A. Norris

February, 1976

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INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Large numbers of persons interested in teaching in the secondary schools of our nation enroll annually in a college-degree program of teacher preparation. That program traditionally incorporates both a subject matter and professional sequence accompanied by a student teaching experience, and cumulating with the award of a bachelors degree. Certification to teach is an integral and assumed part of the program. There are, however, those individuals who for reasons best known to themselves may opt for an alternative experience, providing such experience is available.

At Michigan State University an alternative secondary education preservice program has been inaugurated and is now entering its third school year. Since the program has had no formal evaluation, it was deemed beneficial to the teacher education program that more be known about the antecedent characteristics of those persons now preparing for secondary certification via the alternative program. Items needing scrutiny include their receptivity to ideas, analysis of preservice, basic personal characteristics, factors affecting their choice of teaching as a career, their degree of professional commitment, their perceptions of the alternative program and other information.

Statement of the Problem

This study was an attempt to identify and generally describe the freshman and sophomore students who were actively enrolled in an alternative secondary teacher education program at Michigan State University up to and including the winter term of 1975 (ending March, 1975).

The study did not include students who had participated in the program, but were no longer active participants. Those students for whom only partial information was available were also excluded from the study.

Description of the population of this study included (1) basic personal socio-economic characteristics, such as age, marital status, family income, (2) degree of professional commitment, and (3) basic personality characteristics. Other phases of the study dealt with (1) attitudes and perceptions of the program participants toward Michigan State University in general, These factors are described as openness or closedness of belief system and degrees of traditionalism or progressivism.

Overview of the Study

The study concentrated on a description of these students currently enrolled in the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University during the school year 1974-1975. These students are described and compared to other students at Michigan State University as well as nationally by utilizing data drawn from three documents, the 16 P. F., the Rokeach, and the Kerlinger Education Scale VI. Students were additionally described through information gathered via the Attitude/ Perception Scale and a Personal Background Questionnaire.

The intent of the study was to describe the students to the extent that the information could be utilized as preliminary or antecedent information in further studies, particularly of an evaluative nature.

The study design was formulated utilizing the Stake Model as a guide. The Model is further described within Chapter 1. Emphasis is centered on the descriptive data portion of the Model in which the "intended antecedents" become the basis for comparison with "observed antecedents", which are, in turn, reference points for "transactions" and "outcome" descriptions.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Rising student costs and social demands have caused some teacher education institutions to reevaluate their programs. As a result, efforts are being made in some quarters to substantially alter the nature of teacher education. One such effort includes work being done at Michigan State University through the Secondary Education Pilot Program. The program includes beginning to work with the preservice student at the freshman level and throughout his/her preservice program, rather than at the junior-senior level as is typical of most, if not all, preservice programs. The program, as described by the Director, represents a significant departure from the usual secondary teacher education program found in American colleges and universities. While the traditional professional program usually consists of four courses; educational psychology, methods, student teaching and social foundations, this program spreads the same credit load over four years such that a student

who enrolls as an entering freshman partakes of some segment of his professional development every term in residence (See Figure 1).

Significant elements of the alternative program are a heavy emphasis on field based components of a variety of types, comprising a minimum of nearly 900 hours of professional contact with students as opposed to the usual average of about 400 hours, the advisement and support for personal growth of students during the four-year undergraduate program, and the opportunity to test out career choices much earlier than is usually the case.

The types of experience under the direction of college personnel include weekend camping laboratories with adolescent and college young people, teacher aide positions in schools, camp and recreation placement during summers, teaching skills laboratories, leadership training in week-long concentrated laboratory settings, student teaching and regular instructional settings.

The program arises out of basic humanistic and perceptual psychology and philosophy, but also attempts to integrate the behavioral sciences into the curriculum, creating a "confluent" model of personal, academic and professional growth. Entry and exit behaviors are not standard to the program, but individual to the student, however carefully specified and identified for each person in the program. Students are also involved in continual integration of academic learning and professional application through the modules of experience each term, and through the advisement of individual students and small groups. In many cases students are encouraged to take responsibility for sections

Figure I: A Comparison of SEPP and the Regular Teacher Education Program at Michigan State University

Year	Term	Course or Program Module Regular Program	Clinical	Cr.	Course or Program Module SEPP	Clinical	Cr.
	F	None			Intro. to Sec. Education		1
Fr.	W	None			Personal Dimensions of Secondary Teaching	x22	2
	S	None			Secondary Youth Culture	x48	2
	Summer	None			Elective Field Experience[1]	x120	
	F	None			Adolescent Educ. Psych.		2
Soph.	W	None			Workshops in Secondary Ed.	X*var.	2
	S	None[2]			Alternative School Organiz.	x40	1
	F	Sometime this year students usually elect The Indiv. & the School	x[3] 20	5	Leadership Training Wrshp. Teaching Skills Lab.	x100 x40	4
Jr.	W				Interpersonal Relations Lab: The Third World Adolescent	x48	1
	S				Clinical Internship	x400	10

Year	Term	Course of Program Module Regular Program	Clinical	Cr.	Course or Program Module	Clinical	Cr.
	F	Teaching Methods	x*var	5	Educ. Activities Wkshp.	x*var	2
Sr.	W	Student Teaching	x400	15	Subject Area Methods	x*var	2
	S	School and Society	x*var	5	Social Found. of Educ.		1

* If chosen by Student

[1] Either during year or during summer, see description

[2] Some students elect The Individual and the School as early as the Sophomore Year.

[3] A portion is laboratory setting

TOTAL CLINICAL HOURS:

Regular Program..... 420 minimum
SEPP..... 818 minimum

Source: Secondary Education Pilot Program: Focus on the Program (Student Handbook). p. 14, 1974.

of the program, and have an integral part in evaluation and revision of program segments.

Additionally the program is conceived as providing for internal renewal and experience for students as they are utilized as student advisors, group leaders, staff persons and counselors. Such positions are made available to students as they are deemed ready for them by the professional staff.

Specific program components are additionally described in detail in Appendix A.

The program involves students from all academic major fields who enter the university as freshmen with an educational career in mind.

One purpose of the study was to describe the characteristics of the students who have opted for an alternative preparatory program. In attempting such description, antecedent information can be made available as baseline material for future program planning and evaluation, particularly in individual student counseling with respect to career choice.

Description of antecedent information can answer such basic questions as:

1. What are the personality characteristics of the alternative preservice student?

2. Are there wide variances in family background of these students?

3. Are the alternative teacher education students traditional or progressive in their attitudes toward education?

4. Do the teacher education students differ in their degree of openness or closedness of belief systems?

5. In terms of career choice, does the alternative teacher education student have a long-term commitment to becoming a teacher?

6. Does the alternative teacher education student view the university preservice program/personnel as having been helpful to them?

The study addresses a description of characteristics of teacher education students enrolled in an alternative program. These characteristics are drawn from five areas:

1. Personality
2. Socio-economic background
3. Attitudes toward education and the teacher education program
4. Openness/closedness of belief system
5. Career choice

This study represents an attempt to address the question of whether or not an alternative teacher education program provides a forum which encourages better understanding of oneself as a potential teacher, and the clarification of career options.

The study will focus on attitudes toward education and Mighigan State University. These attitudes are reflected through the characteristics of flexibility or dogmatism, openness or closedness of belief system, and attitudes/perceptions of Michigan State University.

The conceptual model from which the study was designed was that specified in the SEPP proposal to the Michigan State University Curriculum Committee.[1]

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[1]Samuel S. Corl, "The Professional Education of High School and Junior High School Teachers at Michigan State University: A Proposal" (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1972), p. 12. (Mimeographed.)

By utilizing a historical case method study approach, the Stake Model was proposed as appropriate for use in evaluating the experimental program. Antecedent information was described as including the general goals and objectives of the program as well as the nature of the student population involved.

Thus, a second major purpose of the study was to provide antecedent information on the nature of the student population involved in the SEPP program so as to fulfill the early requirement for that information within the context of the Stake Model and within the context of the proposed SEPP evaluation. For descriptive purposes, an antecedent is any condition existing prior to the teaching and learning experience. Therefore, previous experience, levels of interest and entering states (background) of the student are a portion of the antecedent information properly used within the Stake Model. Interest in the Model and in the student population studied is confined to the antecedent aspects, rather than to the transactions or outcomes as described by Stake in Figure 2, Description and Judgment Matrix,[2] and Figure 3, Processing of Descriptive Data[3] which follows.

Assumptions on Which Study is Based

The basic assumptions underlying this research were: (1) Teacher educators are interested in providing the best possible program, within recognized limits, to each individual. (2) Information from the study is capable of inspiring further inquiry related to alternative and

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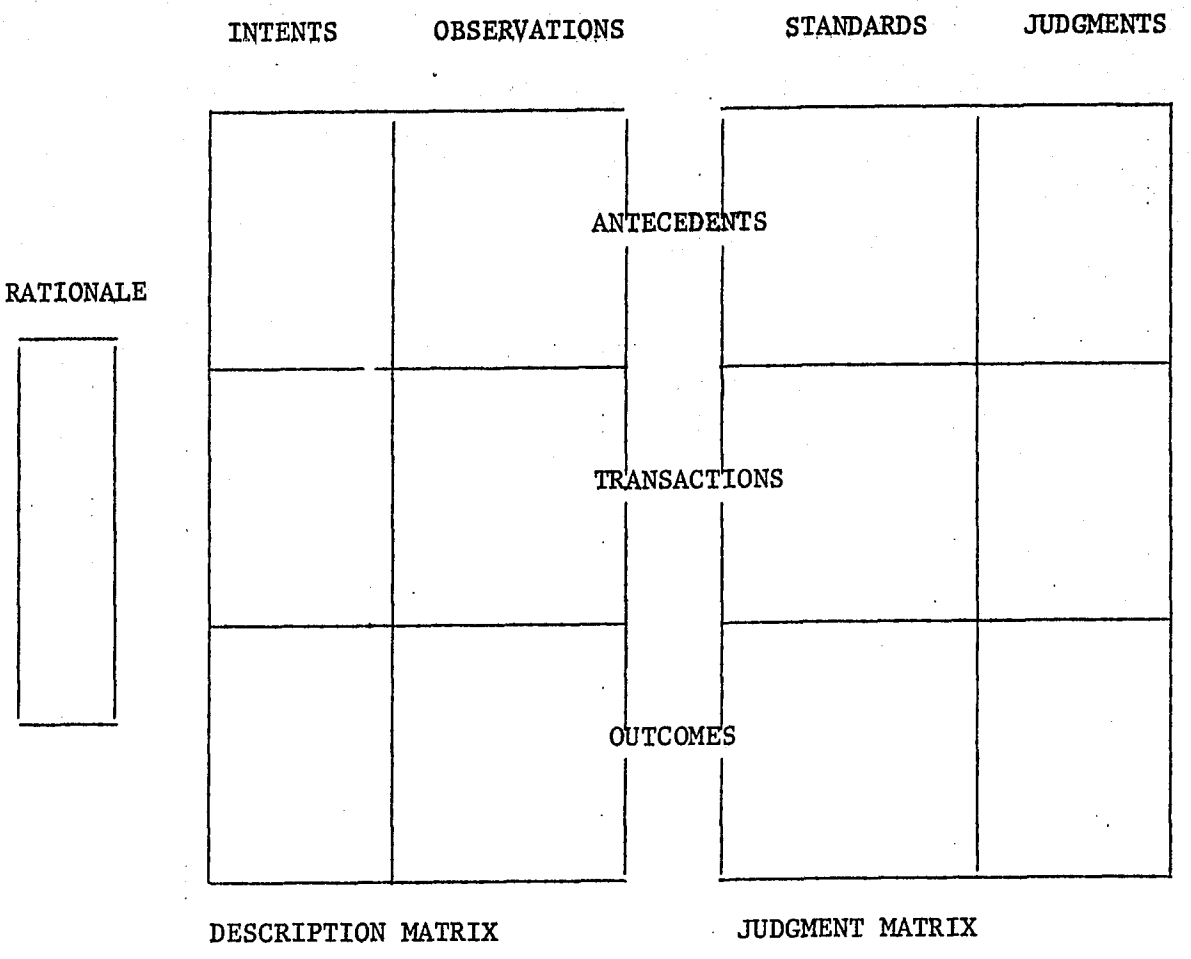
[2]Robert E. Stake, "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation," The Record (Teachers College), 5:523-540, April, 1967.

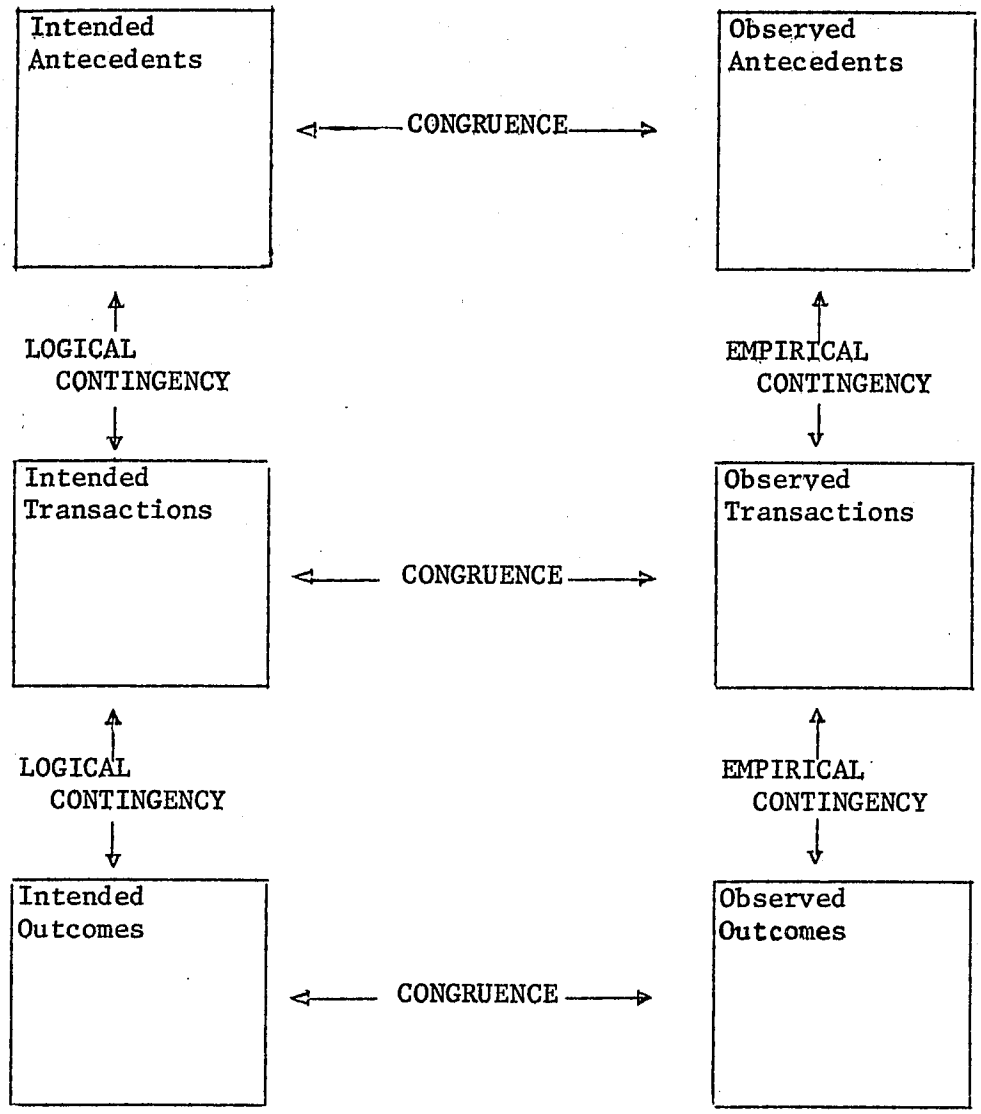
[3]Stake, p. 531.

Figure 2: A Layout of Statements and Data to be Collected by the Evaluator of an Educational Program



Source: Stake, Robert M., "Countenance of Educational Evaluation"

Figure 3; A Representation of the Processing of Descriptive Data



Source: Stake, Robert M., "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation."

traditional secondary teacher preparation programs. (3) The teaching profession, particularly teacher educators, are interested in providing functional teacher preparation programs, including alternatives. (4) An on-going process of program assessment and evaluation can be conducted when objective participant information is available as a beginning point (baseline reference). (5) The number of college students seeking certification to teach at the secondary level will continue to grow, or at least hold its present level. (6) The alternative teacher education program at Michigan State University will continue to receive the support of the University administration thereby assuring the graduation of its first class in 1976. (7) Information gathered in study is capable of identifying the characteristics of preservice students opting for an alternative program at Michigan State University.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

American society is characterized by increasing sophistication in technology, population concentration in metropolitan centers, challenges to traditional customs, values, and family structures, expanded specialization of the labor force, increased international perspectives, and direct influence by the mass media. These characteristics bring to sharp focus the need for improved performance by teachers if education is to play some significant role in coping with these factors. As teacher education evaluates and responds to society's demands, a very important topic is the manner in which the re-direction of teacher education occurs.

The training of teachers as professionals and as persons aware of themselves in the role of teaching can be described as both an affective and cognitive process. At an affective level, Combs[4] describes in the latter publication the basic concepts in the process of becoming a teacher in the following ways:

1. The production of an effective teacher is a highly personal matter, dependent primarily upon the development of an appropriate system of beliefs.
2. The production of an effective teacher must be regarded as a problem in becoming.
3. The process of becoming must start from security and acceptance.
4. Effective teacher education must concentrate its efforts upon meanings rather than behavior.
5. If sensitivity and empathy are prime characteristics of effective helpers, and if behavior is the product of perception, teacher preparation programs must shift their main concerns from objectivity to subjectivity.

Such "basic concepts" of this type are not necessarily new; they represent re-statements of traditionally held positions on the enculturation or socialization portion of the traditional teacher education program.

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[4]A. W. Combs, "Educational Accountability: Beyond Behavioral Objectives" (Gainesville, Florida, University of Florida: Center for Humanistic Education, 1972). (Mimeographed.); see also A. W. Combs, "Some Basic Concepts for Teacher Education," Journal of Teacher Education, 23:12-15, Fall, 1972.

Newton and Watson[5] suggest that such statements of the output of a teacher education program in terms of beliefs, becoming, security and acceptance, meanings and subjectivity, characterize an enterprise in which neither input nor output has been accurately described. The intervening experiences in the process generally have little if any theoretical or empirical support, they argue.

Even though the 1972 Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education[6] found that the public puts most of the blame for a child doing poorly in school upon the child's home rather than upon the teacher or the school, the media, journals, and various taxpayer committees continue to demand increased fiscal and scholastic accountability in education. This demand, coupled with the suggested criticism of Comb's description of the process of becoming a teacher, has resulted in the movement to performance-based teacher education.[7] The emphasis in such a program is on demonstrated product or output. The teacher training institution is held accountable for producing able teachers, capable of demonstrating their ability to promote desirable learning, or to exhibit

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[5]David E. Newton and F. G. Watson, The Research on Science Education Survey (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, 1968).

[6]George H. Gallup, "Fourth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitude Toward Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 54:33-46, September, 1972.

[7]S. Elam, Performance-based Teacher Education: What is the State of Art? (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1971); see also S. Elam, A Resume of Performance-based Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1972).

behaviors known to promote it. Emphasis is on the essential tasks of teaching--more readily defined as cognitive and psychomotor activities within CBTE programs.

Regardless of stated polarized positions with respect to affective or cognitively-based teacher education, there is a continuing need to identify where efforts are being made to substantially alter the nature of the teacher education program, in either or both directions.

Equally important is the need to identify how such alternative preservice programs can help students in making mature decisions to remain in and/or leave the professional program. There is the possibility that prospective teacher candidates need to be provided preservice alternatives which would enable them to perceive and assess their own potentials, without "closing out" other early career options.

Such a preservice program would meet an objective specified by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education which recommended that universities/colleges:

- develop a program model for teacher training which non-directively enables the student to evaluate his own goals, values, assets, and liabilities (and)
- provide an atmosphere for evaluation of goals in both an intellectual and affective mode.[8]

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[8]Donald P. Cottrell, National Policy for the Improvement of the Quality of Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1970), pp. 18-20.

Passow[9] felt that there was conclusive evidence that a teacher's social origin affects his attitudes. Social origin may be closely linked with self-concept development; yet opportunities for development of positive self-concept, coupled with other "traditional" preservice program activities, are not found in the usual preservice teacher education program. Social origin and self-concept development has correlation with attitudes potentially carried into the school setting.

The preservice teacher's attitude toward education and toward the teacher education program also has correlation with attitudes potentially carried into the school setting.[10]

Marvin Brottman[11] succinctly graphs the continuing lag in teacher education, socio-economic, and education practices. Efforts to alter the direction of teacher education (to make up for the 50-year lag) have emerged; some of these incorporate Brottman's suggestion that the personal needs of the prospective teacher are necessary additions to the training process. One such effort is that of the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University.

Toffler's Future Shock[12] was a startling reminder of what many people already knew, but were too busy trying to keep up with the

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[9]Harry A. Passow, "Diminishing Teacher Prejudice," The Inner City Classroom: Teacher Behaviors, ed. Robert D. Strom (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1966), pp. 93-110.

[10]Passow.

[11]Marvin A. Brottman, "Social Needs and Teacher Training: A Historical Survey" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois; April 15-19, 1974.

[12]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Random House, Inc., 1970).

accelerating rate of change to consider in depth. That is, that many "facts" learned yesterday are brought into serious question today and may be discarded as outdated fiction tomorrow.

Townsend suggests that it has been prognosticated that in the future teachers will spend more time:

1. diagnosing individual student differences
2. analyzing learning difficulties and aptitudes of the students
3. prescribing and developing instructional materials and techniques for students as individuals rather than leading a class of students through a maze of fleeting facts in lock-step precision.[13]

If this is true, it appears reasonable to suggest that teacher education programs need to significantly alter both content and sequence. This is not to reject the traditional topics for preservice teachers such as curriculum development, educational psychology, learning theory, evaluation procedures, instructional techniques, general and specific methods, etc. It suggests, instead, that the topics be taught in relationship to the viable "real world" of the secondary school teacher. By capturing the opportunities of the times (demand for accountability, search for relevance, need for curriculum research) the teacher education program can move into contiguity with today's secondary schools. Courses, topics, and concepts can be examined and evaluated by the preservice teacher in the crucible of the present day classroom. Such an attempt at the program level would represent a substantive alternative within the teacher education program.

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[13]Ronald D. Townsend, "Competency, Cooperation and Change," Proceedings of the National Science Educator's Meeting in Chicago, Illinois (Washington, D.C.: June, 1973), p. 44. (Mimeographed.)

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Given the circumstance that each teacher training institution supports a philosophical position of the "value" of the preservice program, there are several possible alternatives by which such activities may occur. One is in the traditional teacher education program, as we know it, in which a student follows a sequence of courses, has a student teaching experience, and is then graduated and certified to teach.

Another approach is to provide alternatives to the traditional program. The Secondary Education Pilot Program, in its second year at Michigan State University, is an alternative preservice program. Formal research has not been conducted on the program. Thus, objective information is lacking which might be used eventually to quantify the relative merit of the program compared to the traditional program operating simultaneously at Michigan State University.

As in any innovative and/or alternative educational endeavor, there is a need to identify successful program components before they become part of a permanent program. Modifications may be restructured, if necessary, prior to continuing with original components of the program. Such restructuring can be made possible by the utilization of quantitative data which attempts to deal with some of the characteristics of the students in the alternative program and their perceptions of the program.

Analysis of the first and second year students presently in the alternative program is a necessity. It is necessary as a beginning point in a longitudinal study to identify, if, in fact, the personalized,

experiential nature of the program makes it a viable alternative teacher education program.

Through an analysis of the personal, educational and occupational characteristics of the participants, it may be possible to determine a profile of preservice teacher education candidate characteristics and the relationship of these characteristics to perceptions/attitudes toward education and teaching as an occupational choice. In turn, such information can be used to establish selection criteria, should program planners so desire.

Finally, through an analysis of the student self-concepts, perceptions of the program, and attitudes toward teaching, preservice university instructors will be in a position to evaluate the effectiveness of both the traditional and the alternative program as perceived by the learner. The University staff, curriculum committee, and other interested parties may be provided data on which decisions may be based affecting either or both programs.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study may be limited for the following reasons:

1. An individual's tendency toward conservatism or progressivism as measured by the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, is one of several methods of assessing such attitudes. The conservatism or progressivism exhibited by a person is only one of many potential factors influencing attitudes toward education.

2. The Secondary Education Pilot Program students are members of that group primarily on the basis of self-selection processes. The

invitation to learn about the alternative program and to participate in it was extended to all incoming freshmen who had declared initial interest in becoming secondary teachers. As in any new or exemplary endeavor, there is the possibility that "first group" participants may suffer from Hawthorne effect. Then, the reader is cautioned that such phenomena may be operational.

3. The non-Secondary Education Pilot Program students generally have not had formal "education" courses during their first four terms at Michigan State University. These students spend their time primarily in University College courses; i.e. American Thought and Language, humanities, natural sciences, and social sciences. Conversely, Secondary Education Pilot Program students are involved in formal "education" courses as part of the alternative program beginning at the freshman level. They are, therefore, receiving a different type of experience than the non-Secondary Education Pilot Program students.

4. The Secondary Education Pilot Program and non-Secondary Education Pilot Program students were not under the supervision of the investigator. Thus, certain aspects of the document administration was also not under the control of the researcher. Use of a "volunteer method" of participation implies certain population losses from those students initially contacted for participation in the study.

5. The researcher's absence during some portions of the data collection could contribute to differences in response and levels of cooperation on the part of some of the participants.

6. The total number of possible volunteer population from the regular teacher education program is an unknown "n". The various classes

were notified formally through the instructor and students were asked to volunteer their time. The internal criteria of initially "having enrolled at Michigan State University in the Fall of 1973" was imposed, thereby automatically eliminating transfer students, or late entrants to the traditional secondary education professional sequence. An additional criteria of "having the intent to teach at the secondary education level" was also imposed on those who volunteered to respond. Those preparing for elementary education were discouraged from responding.

7. Items in the Attitudes Perceptions Questionnaire have limited comparability to other such self-constructed questionnaires. They represent "unique" items for which no pre-existing validity/reliability data exists. The questionnaire should not be considered as valid beyond the context of this study and the limited information it provides on student-held perceptions of Michigan State University. As with self-constructed questionnaires generally, there is the danger that the items may be too limited or too general in perspective, and thus, should be read with some caution. Finally, readers should be aware that one item in the original data gathering instrument necessitated scoring in reverse order; a second item was omitted from the findings because it was not distinguishable as a firmly positive or negative statement. (Reliability/validity information is provided in Chapter 3.)

8. The use of the Rokeach Scale as a measure of an individual's tendency toward dogmatism or openness could be challenged. There is the possibility that there may be other methods of assesing these tendencies. Also, this writer recognizes that the dogmatism or openness exhibited by a person is only one of many factors influencing attitudes toward teaching and toward education.

9. The 1973-74 entering Secondary Education Pilot Program students have had the benefit of a full three or more terms at Michigan State University as members of the alternative preservice program. In like manner, the regular teacher education students have had comparable exposure to the traditional preservice program. As such, there is some danger that changes over time may have already occurred in their perceptions of the preservice program, attitude toward teaching, self-concept, attitude toward the program, or degree of interest in becoming and staying a teacher. The possibility of maturation and history affecting at least this portion of data should not be ignored and should caution generalizations drawn from the study.

10. Data collection was completed during a time frame spanning two terms (20 weeks) at Michigan State University. There is, therefore, the possibility that demographic data particularly may be distorted because of history and maturation. There is a need to be aware of the additional consideration of the economic condition in the State of Michigan during the time in which the study was completed. Such factors as high unemployment in the automotive industry particularly, and high unemployment nationwide generally, can account for some distortion of socio-economic information on family background. This cautionary note can serve to remind the reader that there may be skewed information as a result of economic conditions moreso than as a result of possible "faking" of such information by respondents.

11. Generalizations drawn from the study should be limited to the population sampled, or cautiously applied to educational institutions and populations which closely resemble those included in this investigation and having an alternative as well as traditional secondary teacher

education program comparable in nature to that of the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University.

12. The population of this study are students enrolled at Michigan State University and are primarily Michigan residents. The results, therefore, are probably not as applicable to residents from other areas having markedly different socio-economic or subcultural makeup such as the deep South, Eastern or Western seaboards, or remote states, sucha s Hawaii and Alaska.

13. Use of the Cattell 16 P. F. has been limited to one administration of Form A, in spite of recommendations of the test producers that two forms be utilized. There is the possibility then that one might question the reliability and validity of the findings in the personality area. Conversely, if one assumes that administration of the form is intended only to produce antecedent information, then this limitation and possible criticism may be invalid.

14. The director of the study is also the Director of the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University. While every attempt has been made to eliminate biases, there is the remote possibility that personal involvement may influence perception. This writer does not believe that to be the case, but wishes to alert the reader to the inherent possible criticism of dual involvement.

15. While the Director of the Secondary Education Pilot Program has remained constant, there have been rotating staff affiliations. These include graduate assistants, volunteer staff and full-time university staff. Possible adverse and/or positive relationships arising from this aspect of program operation have not been assessed, particularly as they relate to the Secondary Education Pilot Program

students' attitude toward the alternative teacher education program. Changing staff patterns may affect student responses on the Attitude Perceptions Scale particularly.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Secondary Education Pilot Program - an alternative preservice secondary teacher education program sponsored and approved by the Department of Secondary Education and Curriculum and the University administration at Michigan State University. This is a four-year program in its second year of implementation at the time of the study.

SEPP - an acrynonm for the Secondary Education Pilot Program.

SEPP student - Group 1 (S1), Group 2 (S2) - any student entering Michigan State University in 1973-74 or 1974-75 school year who has declared and been admitted into a regular program in secondary teacher education. Students may be from any discipline and must meet the additional criteria of "interested in becoming a teacher; interested in participating in the SEPP program" on a volunteer and currently active basis.

Non-SEPP student - any student entering Michigan State University in the 1973-74 school year who has declared and been admitted into a program in secondary teacher education. These students are enrolled in the first course of the professional sequence but they are not enrolled in the pilot program. They may be from any discipline.

Traditional Preservice Program - A university approved preservice teacher preparation program in which students undertake formal classroom instruction, coupled with student teaching experience, as part of their

bachelor's degree requirement. Award of the degree is simultaneous with certification to teach in a specific subject area and grade level.

Alternative Program - used to identify any deviation from the traditional preserivce program previously defined.

Self-concept - used to identify the personal view or evaluation one makes of himself/herself with respect to a variety of factors including, but not limited to self-worth and self-satisfaction.

Attitude toward the program - the view one holds as to the relative merit/worth of the preservice experience.

Attitude toward teaching - the expressed view one holds as to the nature and function of teaching, the role of the teacher, and the occupational expectations of teaching. It represents a statement of philosophic and personal perspective.

Openness/Closedness of belief system - polarized positions representing how an individual receives or is unwilling to receive communication and/or information which might affect decisions or actions.

Traditional/Progressive - polarized positions representing how an individual perceives the role and function of the school and the teacher. An attitude toward education generally.

Positive - on a scale of +3 -3 any response appearing on the plus side will be considered as positive response or attitude. Degrees of positive may thus, range from +3 to +1; negative represents -3 to -1.

Attitude/Perceptions Scale - a 29 item measure scored on a Likert type scale, designed to measure a student's attitude and perception of the university staff and teacher education program at Michigan State University.

A/P Scale - an acrynonm for the Attitude/Perceptions Scale.

GENERALIZABILITY

Since the sample was from within a specified population, it can be concluded that the findings will hold for a large proportion of secondary education preservice students, especially those enrolled at Michigan State University.

The concepts utilized in the pilot program are not unique; rather it is the point at which these concepts and experiences are presented. How students perceive the program and its effect on their career plans may be useful to administrators of other alternative teacher education programs.

It may be possible to utilize the student information to develop pre-program entrance criteria, for either or both of the teacher education programs at Michigan State University. It is possible that such information would also prove useful to other teacher training institutions wishing to develop entrance criteria for their teacher education programs.

It would be appropriate to use the data to solicit philosophical and personal support for teacher education programs which utilize alternative strategies and delivery modes; it could be appropriately utilized to solicit institutional financial support for other alternative educational approaches. It would be appropriate eventually to use the data to answer cost-based requests for information by other interested persons or groups, (such as legislatures, parents, and/or community) who support the function of higher education in general, and secondary teacher education specifically.

SUMMARY

Within this chapter a point of departure is developed, as well as a frame of reference for the latter portions of the study. This section, along with the review of the related research in Chapter 2 and the research procedures outlined in Chapter 3, should serve to help make more meaningful the presentation and analysis of the data in Chapter 4. The summary and recommendations found in Chapter 5 should also be more meaningful.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

The review of related research was preceded by development of minimal criteria to provide a frame of reference. The following qualitative and quantitative guidelines were established:

1. A real effort to concentrate on materials written within the last decade would be made. Such emphasis did not remove the possibility of other materials. The emphasis provided direction based on the rapidity of change in our social and educational practices, rather than historical emphasis, per se.

2. Materials dealing with selected topics were chosen at the expense of certain other perspectives. Social origins of teachers, status of the teaching profession, attitudes toward education and teaching, evaluation strategies, and self-concept (personality) theory, and alternative teacher education programs were major categorical items chosen for review.

3. Selected studies are reported in the literature and, wherever possible, are cited in relation to comparable research design. Thus, emphasis is placed on descriptive, rather than experimental, design. Wherever possible studies consisting of questionnaires of doubtful reliability and validity are not reported.

4. Other relevant research findings are mentioned, when appropriate, in subsequent chapters. The review provided in Chapter 2 concentrates on the focus listed in Item 1 above.

5. Writings from the fields of teaching-learning theory, and history of teacher education may be utilized, but are not given primary consideration.

6. Research and writings emphasizing vocational theory were included in the review of the literature. Research exists pointing to reasons and motivations for or against choosing teaching as a career and as a profession. This study, dealing with a population that appears to have chosen teaching, therefore, is appropriately concerned with theoretical concepts of vocational development and career choices.

7. Literature and research reports dealing with alternative teacher education programs were reviewed. Such review is intended to indicate the nature and extent of current modification efforts in the teacher education program. Thus, literature dealing with the on-going functions of teacher education is minimal. Emphasis on alternative teacher education programs is provided. Consideration is given to both elementary and secondary alternative teacher education programs, with emphasis on secondary preservice programs.

8. Finally, topics considered appropriate for the research review include criticism of teacher education and considerations in the selection of students entering the preservice program.

Thus, the reader is aware of the wide range of possible topics involved in the review of literature. The criteria for selection centers around the basic premise that participants in an alternative teacher education program can be described effectively to the extent that the program described meets the needs of that teacher-in-preparation to function potentially in his or her role in a social institution.

A prospective of the complexity of the teaching role is provided through a review of literature. Additionally, the literature review provides insight for clarification and understanding of the instrumentation described in Chapter 3 and findings and conclusions described in Chapters 4 and 5, respectively.

PART 1: TEACHER EDUCATION

An Overview

Early efforts in teacher education concentrated on preparation of teachers concerned with the teaching of content. Ensuing teacher education efforts did give some attention to methods, but still emphasized the subjects then taught in the schools.

During the last seventy years more attention has been focused on subjects which are or should be taught, to teaching methods, and to experiences which enable prospective teachers to try out teaching procedures which they have been taught (or as they are learned).

Brottman, in reviewing teacher preparation and social demands, concluded that ". . . a lack of concern for and awareness of the effects on children of their teacher has existed since 1790 and little real modification in teacher training to respond to that lack of concern has occurred since 1900."[1] Selected "milestones" since the turn of the century give some perspective of the current state of teacher education and rationale for Brottman's criticism.

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[1]Marvin A. Brottman, "Social Needs and Teacher Training: A Historical Survey" (paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois, April 15-19, 1974), p. 1.

Teacher training in state universities began at the University of Indiana in 1853,[2] but legislative, financial, and community support for such institutions was slow to develop.

By 1900 more than 30 states had passed compulsory school attendance laws, mostly in the North and West. The passage of these laws necessitated diversification of curricula so that the variety of needs of children could be met. Heterogeneous populations required teachers who were prepared to deal with a heterogeneous curriculum as well.

The normal school as an institution devoted to the preparation of teachers gained public support because, as according to one observer, "it was abundantly evident that former students and graduates of these schools were better teachers than those educated elsewhere."[3]

By the mid-1800's the American Normal School Association had recommended a two-year program with emphasis on observation and on "Theory and Practice of Teaching."[4] The development of "practice teaching" was not without criticism. Critics suggested that teachers should

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[2]U.S. Office of Education, Department of Interior, Teacher Training, Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, No. 9, Vol. II, Pt. III (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 12.

[3]Charles A. Harper, A Century of Public Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939), p. 97.

[4]U.S. Office of Education, Report of the Commissioner of Education (1888-1889), Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1889), pp. 294-295.

be sensitive to children's needs, as well as expected to present subject matter adequately. Practice teaching did not appear to emphasize both equally.

Two activities began late in the 19th Century which were to have long-range effects on the preparation of teachers---a demand for teacher certification and the rise of regional accrediting agencies.

Just prior to the 20th Century, early stages of industrial and corporate growth and concentrations of wealth heralded the age of early reform in both social and educational circles. New ways of looking at children and society were the result of various reform movements.

Experimental learning emerged as proposed by Dewey, Thorndike, Terman, Cattell and others in the field of educational measurement; the behaviorists gave way to the field psychologists in the 1940's. Finally, Freud's psychoanalytic theory and the social psychology of Mead were forerunners to the concept of learning and teaching in the home and in the school as closely related to each other. The total life experience became a focal point of needed change.

Given these social/psychological forces, teacher-training changed. The curriculum in the mid-19th Century included a year each of psychology, pedagogy, observation, and practice teaching. These criteria were the result of a recommendation from the Commission on Normal Schools that the same schools be used for classroom observations and practice teaching purposes.[5] The preparation of teachers encouraged emphasis on the child rather than the subject matter to be taught.

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[5]National Education Association, Report of the Commission on Normal Schools, Proceedings of the National Education Association (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1899), pp. 836-888.

The decline of normal schools and rise of four-year colleges lead to increased emphasis on academic preparation of teachers. In 1920 there were 137 state normal colleges and only 46 teachers colleges in the United States, but by 1952 there were only a few normal schools and over 200 teachers colleges.[6]

At the same time, land-grant colleges and universities were increasing their offerings in professional preparation. In a 1930 survey of 44 land-grant colleges, 36 institutions listed required professional courses.[7] It is important to note that there were no formal provisions for the preparation of teachers in normal schools, teacher colleges, and/or land-grant institutions at that time.

In a more contemporary setting America continued to have problems in teacher preparation. Russia's launching of the Sputnik satellite marked an end of the interest in social adjustment and introduced a period of concern with basic content. This concern was reflected in the introduction of federal support for preparation of teachers. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 had early impact on teacher preparation. Subsequent legislation, including the Economic Opportunity Act (1964), the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) and the Education Professions Development Act (1967), all had professional preparation provisions. Amendments to these Acts continue today to support teacher education.

The 1960's was accompanied by growing dissatisfaction with common school curricula. The assumption that flexibility of teaching practice

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[6]Brottman, p. 12.

[7]U.S. Office of Education, Department of Interior, p. 126.

might result from flexible teacher training practices became a popular belief. Getzels and Jackson[8] identified many studies made of students in the process of becoming a teacher. In the late 1960's, teacher education institutions directed attention to the total process of becoming a teacher.

Brottman concludes that:

> teacher training curricula in the past 25 years have exhibited their greatest lag in how they respond to the educational needs of the prospective teachers. With the exception of those experimental programs supported by federal funds or foundation grants, teacher preparation programs are largely unchanged from what they were 25 years ago and only slightly different from what they were 50 years ago.[9]

Current trends in the teacher education curriculum are scattered and disorganized. Perhaps the most easily identified is that of Performance Based Teacher Education (PBTE) which has resulted primarily because of pressure from students, parent and community groups. In the late 1960's the USOE funded ten elementary education models utilizing PBTE.[10] Since that time, the PBTE movement has expanded into secondary teacher education as well. Whether or not it will have long-range effects on teacher education remains to be seen. Yet, it represents one viable alternative currently in practice. Other alternatives will be discussed in a later portion of this chapter.

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[8]Jacob W. Getzels and Philip W. Jackson, "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), pp. 506-582.

[9]Brottman, p. 19.

[10]Joel Burdin and Kalipoee Lanzilloti, eds., A Reader's Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Repairing Elementary Teachers, ERIC Clearinghouse of Teacher Education and AACTE, ERIC Document ED 084 217, September, 1969.

The Professional Sequence: Tradition and Options

The basic structure of almost all secondary education degree programs is one of four years of academic instruction, while the student studies a selected field in some depth, a broader range of other more diverse academic areas, and a few skill courses.[11] This collection of academic activities is to produce a liberally educated person with special competence in a particular academic area. The award of a bachelor's degree usually signifies completion of the process. Swick and Lamb succintly point out one of the dilemmas with this process; that is, that:

> it should be pointed out that contact (i.e., student teaching) without previous knowledge input, value clarification and development, and a sequential introduction to the practicum setting can be as useless as having been provided adequate information without being provided an arena for applying that information.[12]

Because of segmentation in the American educational process, students seldom, if ever, get into stride. They often are not allowed to "lengthen out." University teachers, some argue, appear to expect students to be what they haven't been given the time or the direction to become. Bayley states that "this is blatant fraud."[13]

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[11] Bartholomew, J. Ciampa, Sensitization Locus Model for Teacher Education: A Proposal (Springvale, Maine: Nasson College, 1972), pp. 1-12.

[12] Kevin J. Swick and Morris L. Lamb, Development of Positive Racial Attitudes, Knowledges, and Activities in Pre-Service Social Studies Teachers (Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University, College of Education, 1972), p. 4.

[13] David H. Bayley, "The Empitness of Curriculum Reform," Journal of Higher Education, 28:594, October, 1972.

Yet, Conant presents a different perspective in stating that "far too many students intending to become teachers enter college without sufficient academic preparation."[14] Thus, selective criteria and strengthened pre-university experiences are encouraged. Once admitted, Conant suggests that the preparation of teachers ought to include a three-stage process of student teaching, induction, and in-service, comparable to that proposed by Austin.[15] The thesis that the undergraduate student is immature and inexperienced leads Conant to conclude that "foundation" activities (pre-professional orientation) should occur during the undergraduate courses because "only after experience as a responsible teacher is a person in a position to understand the significance of much of the material that should be presented in such (other, inservice) courses."[16]

There are those who contend that much of what is accomplished in the teacher preparation professional sequence is redundant and noncontributory to the student's growth. They advocate a change in teacher education curriculum design on this basis.

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[14]James Bryant Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 251-252.

[15]Mary C. Austin, "Evaluating the Effectiveness of University Programs for Teacher Education" (paper presented at the 47th International Reading Association World Congress on Reading, Vienna, Austria, August 12-14, 1974). (ERIC No. ED 095 499).

[16]Conant, p. 256.

Combs,[17] for instance, suggests that a great deal of college teaching violates the principle of "active" learning; that it becomes a passive endeavor for most students. Bayley states that:

> Curriculum reform (in higher education) is insubstantial, superficial, and so profoundly safe because it perpetuates rather than overthrows the most deeply rooted assumption in American higher education; namely, that education consists primarily in providing young men and women with knowledge. Learning is achieved, according to unspoken dogma, by students' exposure to subject matter. . . the search by faculties for the perfect and enduring curriculum is like the search for the philosopher's stone. . . .[18]

The reality that teacher preparation is multi-dimensional, and therefore, continuous is given as rationale in support of an integrated professional sequence. Renshaw[19] supports a teacher education program described as an "ongoing continuum." Other noted writers, such as Combs[20] and Rogers[21] have made suggestions for substantial change in teacher education curriculum, based on theories of both teaching and learning. Their suggestions have been generally well-received by the education community and are reflected in the growing number of persons who lend support to and have established various teacher education alternatives. These include the PBTE program noted earlier and the five year program advocated by Schueler who argues that:

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[17] A. W. Combs, The Professional Education of Teachers: A Percept-View of Teacher Prepartion (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965).

[18] Bayley, p. 592.

[19] P. A. Renshaw, "A Flexibile Curriculum for Teacher Education," The Education of Teachers in Britain, ed. D. E. Lomax (London: Wiley, 1972).

[20] Combs

[21] C. R. Rogers, Freedom to Learn (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969).

> if there is any rationale at all underlying the five-year training requirement leading toward permanent certification it is the necessity for a coordinated continuous training that will build teacher competence gradually through planned, coordinated, graded experience and integrated study with the help and supervision of professionals.[22]

Orlosky and Smith[23] reviewed various governance models in higher education. In a follow-through study Smith, Cohen and Pearl reviewed teacher education generally. They concluded:

> Education is beyond repair! What is needed is radical reform. This reform is to include the nature of the schooling process, the systems which control educational policy, and the institutions which prepare persons to be teachers.[24]

These critics of teacher education concur that many inadequacies and failures in education generally rest in particular inadequacies and failures in teacher education.

Austin[25] reviewed ten models for teacher preparation and suggested that cybernetic principles of task analysis and instrument analysis be used in evaluating teacher education programs. Included in her suggestions was the need to establish standards which novice

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[22]Herbert Schueler, Teacher Education: A Collection of Fragments or a Unified Whole? A Position Paper, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, ERIC Document ED 092 517, February, 1974, p. 12.

[23]Donald Orlosky and B. Othanel Smith, "Educational Change: Its Origins and Characteristics," Phi Delta Kappan, 53:412-414, March, 1972.

[24]B. Othanel Smith, Saul B. Cohen and Arthur Pearl, Teachers for The Real World, Report of the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 3.

[25]Austin.

teachers would be expected to meet, and the provision that these standards be communicated to the preservice programs. Recommendations also included the concept that the validity of a teacher education program is determined by the performance of teachers in the classroom.

Finally, Camplese and Hale[26] provide another view (that of the PBTE proponent) emphasizing the need to improve the preservice program by improving the students' "perceptive" skills prior to full-time teaching. They described student teachers trained in a CBTE program compared to student teachers trained in a traditional lecture-discussion program. Their analyses indicated that student teachers trained in CBTE programs used more positive reinforcement, less aversive stimuli and evoked more student talk than did student teachers trained in a traditional program.

Both of these writers' materials are within the context of a PBTE framework: both stressed the need for reform and establishment of criteria and/or alternative methodologies in strengthening the teacher education program.

The Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers recently published a symposium report. The report lends support to the criticisms of professional education and the five-year approach, and states that:

> The professional aspect of training of teachers needs to be centered in the schools and controlled by them as a 'technical training' comparable in some ways to industrial training. The role of higher education in the education of teachers should be to provide a good

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[26]Donald A. Camplese and Robert E. Hale, Assessing the Effectiveness of a Mastery Teacher Education Program, U.S., Educational Research Information Center, ERIC Document ED 095 503, January, 1975.

general or liberal education in the first three years of college. School-based professional training should be offered in the fourth and possibly fifth years.[27]

Clark and Marker[28] report that there are several continuing flaws in the institution of teacher education. These flaws impede change, in their estimation, and to ignore them encourages perpetuation of mediocrity in the field. Thus, there are proponents who actively support the thesis that both pre-and in-service responsibility should be vested in local education agencies, rather than in the university setting.

Faxon and others reported on a proposed teacher-center to be utilized for both pre- and inservice education, Project CREATE.[29] The project would be jointly administered by the local education agency and university personnel. The Collaborative Resources for Educational Alternatives for Teacher Education plan contains components common to other such plans; that is, a teacher center which would actively develop professional programs which span a wide variety of preservice and practicing teacher's needs. Evaluation procedures for the attainment of each objective for the center were identified.

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[27]Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers, Education for 1984 and After: A Symposium of Deans of Education and Leaders in Institutions Educating Teachers, eds., Paul A. Olsen, Larry Freeman and James Bowman (Lincoln, Nebraska: The Commission, 1971), p. 232.

[28]David L. Clark and Gerald W. Marker, The Institutionalization of Teacher Education, Teacher Education Forum Series, Vol. 2, No. 19 (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Educational Personnel Development and Indiana University, 1974).

[29]Donna D. Faxon and others, Collaborative Resources for Educational Alternatives for Teacher Education (CREATE) (Gainesville, Florida: Alachua County Schools and Florida University, College of Education, August, 1974). (ERIC No. ED 096 308).

Other writers support the thesis that continued efforts should be made to improve upon the existing teacher education function within the more traditional university setting.

In most instances educational change is and has been a continual, cumbersome process. Contributing factors include various governance models in higher education, the organizational placement of teacher education in the college or university as an undergraduate program, and the power relationships of critics and reformers.

Summary of Teacher Education

Teacher education in most institutions follows the academic tradition of non-professional higher education; that is, a separation of undergraduate and graduate programs. This is not necessarily in the best interests of the preservice student, many contend.

This contention is the result of many conflicting forces. The primary source appears to be in the placement and the fragmentation of the teacher education curriculum as it relates to the development of the prospective teacher. The student's development may be characterized as fragmented in the same manner as are the courses within the professional sequence in the traditional program. That is, to the degree that courses remain separate and distinct specialized interests of the mentors, the student perceives a fragmented professional attitude. Schueler suggests that "a sequential teacher education program should not be the sum but the product of its parts, but with each element not added to but integrated into the whole."[30]

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[30]Schueler, p. 11.

To that end Bayley suggests that when the course reshuffling charade is ended, reform in colleges and universities will place strenuous demands on teaching staffs; that they would need to perform differently in several respects, including no longer "giving" courses, but rather creating courses in relation to the field of inquiry and the individual student capacities.[31]

Through restructing of courses and curriculum, education would begin to be seen as learning a craft. Thus, as is true of all crafts, practice improves one's skill. Practice is undertaken not to demonstrate proficiency, but to show what needs to be done in order to improve. Given such an attitude, it is possible to no longer think in terms of a capstone "practice teaching" experience. Instead, one can develop a preservice program which incorporates the best of learning/teaching theory by providing continuous opportunities for "practice experience."

Student Teaching

Combs views learning as an active process, requiring the learner to invest personal commitment. One way to assist the aspiring teacher in discovering meaning for what he learns in the classroom is to participate in field experiences. In most teacher education programs this often means a one-semester trial run "student teaching" experience. Combs suggests that "an infinitely more effective approach is to become involved in on-going field experiences that span the entire professional program."[32]

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[31] Bayley, pp. 596-600.

[32] Combs, p. 57.

Schueler supports the thesis of broad level field experience by taking the position that "theory and practice should be academically separate, but integrated particularly in the realistic setting of schools, pupils, communities."[33] The field experiences should be pursued intensively, with a minimum of the equivalent of two semesters, according to Schueler.

The Forty-Seventh Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching states that ". . . since generalizations grow from a series of experiences rather than the other way around, teacher education should apply such sound principles of learning theory to its own preparation. . . ."[34] The statement supports the Combs and Schueler positions and suggest it is reasonable to include the development of attitudes and wider opportunities for practice in and investigation of the "real world of teaching" in a teacher education program.

There has been little, if any innovation in teacher education, particularly when taken from the perspective of experiential components. Studies of the relative merit of the student teaching experience indicate that few factors contributing to the development of skillful teachers are more important than first-hand contacts with young people. These contacts are provided by the student teaching experience in teacher education programs.[35]

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[33] Schueler, p. 18.

[34] _____, Internships in Teacher Education, Forty-Seventh Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching (Washington, D.C.: The Association for Student Teaching, 1968), p. 41.

[35] Florence B. Stratemeyer and Margaret Lindsey, Working with Student Teachers (New York: Teachers College Press, 1958), p. V.

Dean George E. Dickson, College of Education, The University of Toledo, writes in the Foreward to the 1967 Education Comment: On Student Teaching, "Friends and critics of teacher education are for it (student teaching) and consider it essential to any respectable teacher education program."[36]

One of the primary objectives of a teacher education program is to foster positive teacher-pupil attitudes among the prospective teachers. While studies such as that of Hart[37] indicate that such objectives can be accomplished successfully, some evidence indicates that the success of the student teaching experience may be questionable. Silberman[38] points out in Crisis in the Classroom that:

> Although student teaching is generally cited as the most valuable aspect of professional education, these beliefs do not provide a basis for complacency. In fact, student teaching, in some respects, may be doing more harm than good.

Peck and Tucker noted in the Second Handbook of Research on Teaching "There is ample and impressive testimony that student teaching tends to be the most practical and useful part of preservice education in the minds of prospective teachers."[39]

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[36]George E. Dickson, Education Comment: On Student Teaching (Toledo, Ohio: The University of Toledo, 1967), p. 4.

[37]J. E. Hart, "Attitudinal Change in Pre-Service Teacher Education" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Ball State University, 1968).

[38]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Vintage Books, 1971), p. 451.

[39]Robert F. Peck and James A Tucker, "Research on Teacher Education," Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. Robert M. W. Travers (Chicago: Rand McNally, Co., 1973), p. 967.

Thus, while students view the student teaching experience as a valuable component of the preservice program, other writers question its value. On the one hand its value goes almost unchallenged: "Student teaching is almost universally accepted as the most dynamic phase of teacher education."[40] Yet, little is known of the total influence the cooperating teacher exerts upon the student teacher. The cooperating teacher, whom most agree is the greatest one influence in shaping the attitudes, skills and ideas of a prospective teacher, "is the one factor in the teacher education program least likely to be under the influence or control of the teacher-training institutions."[41] Experience does appear to indicate the cooperating teacher has more influence on the student teacher than do the education professors with whom he has studied.

Hicks[42] and Price[43] support the thesis that cooperating teachers apparently have greatest impact on student teachers' attitudes and

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[40]National Education Association Commission of Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Who's in Charge Here? Fixing Responsibilities for Student Teaching, Discussion Paper (Washington, D.C.: The Commission, 1966), p. 1.

[41]_____, Report of the Classroom Teacher National Study Conference on the Role of the Classroom Teacher in the Student Teaching Program (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1970), pp. 1-2.

[42]E. Perry Hicks, "Changing the Role of the Cooperating Teacher," Journal of Teacher Education, 20:153-157, Summer, 1969.

[43]Robert David Price, "Relations Between Cooperating Teachers' and Student Teachers' Attitudes and Performance," Dissertation Abstracts, 31:2615, February, 1961.

behaviors. McEwin,[44] Mortenson,[45] and Uchiyoma and Lindgren[46] reported study results indicating that student teachers attitudes most often change in the direction of their cooperating teachers' attitude toward teaching and students. They found that verbal behavior in the classroom and degrees of openness/closedness moved in the same direction as the supervising teachers' attitudes, whether they became more positive or more negative. Given this information, education methods courses have encouraged potential teachers to hold positive attitudes toward students and teaching, to be democratic in the conduct of classroom interaction, and to be open-minded and flexible in interactions with students. Research evidence indicates that such attitudes and personality characteristics have a positive effect on pupil-teacher relationships. Ultimately they affect the achievement and attitudes of students. The influence of the preservice program methods courses on positive attitudes and openness appears to be altered by the student teaching experience.

Gage concluded after reviewing previous studies dealing with the traditional teacher education sequence and particularly the student teaching experiences that:

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[44]Tom McEwin, "Attitudinal Change of Students During Methods Courses and Student Teaching," Dissertation Abstracts, 29:169-170, October, 1968.

[45]Robert Albert Mortenson, "Student Teacher Attitudinal Changes," Dissertation Abstracts, 31:5912, April, 1971.

[46]Andy Uchiyoma and Henry Clay Lindgren, "Ideal Teacher Concepts; Attitude Shift After Practice Teaching," Psychological Reports, 28:470, May, 1971.

> . . . the teachers became less concerned with pupil freedom and more concerned with establishing a stable, orderly classroom. . . . (This) change was accompanied by a decline in the tendency to attribute pupil misbehavior to the teacher or the school.[47]

His statement provides support for proponents calling for an integrated professional course (i.e., Combs) rather than a compartmentalized approach to teacher education. MacDonald and Zaret[48] researched the effectiveness of the student teaching experience. Their conclusions cast doubt on the adequacy of current, typical student teaching programs.

Wilbur and Gooding[49] studied attitude changes as a function of type(s) of student teaching experiences. The study was designed to determine whether changes in perceptions of self, students, or teaching role did occur, what kinds of perceptual changes took place, and whether certain patterns of student teaching relate to particular perceptual changes. The discussion of their study stated that:

> Beyond confirming the majority of findings showing a strengthening of attitudes of discipline and teacher authority in the classroom, this research suggests that calls for reform in teacher education programs have been well founded,[50]

and that "the combined weight of negative evidence is becoming too great to ignore."[51]

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[47] W. W. Charters, Jr., "The Social Background of Teaching, Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, Company, 1963), pp. 750-751.

[48] J. B. MacDonald and E. Zaret, "Student Teaching: Benefit or Burden," Journal of Teacher Education, 22:51-58, June, 1973.

[49] Paul H. Wilbur and C. Thomas Gooding, "Attitude Changes in Student Teachdrs as a Function of Type of Student Teaching Experience" (paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Convention, New Orleans, Louisiana, March 1, 1973), pp. 1-7.

[50] Wilbur and Gooding, p. 6.

[51] Wilbur and Gooding, p. 7.

Swick and Lamb,[52] Butts,[53] Ulibarri,[54] and others have investigated model teacher training programs. Their studies, dealing with the preservice and/or inservice programs, emphasize the need for attitude-centered experiences in teacher development. Ciampa suggests that in any teacher education model our concern should be directly with the "effects that teachers thus trained will have upon their students."[55] There are numerous studies supporting this concern, including Rosenthal[56] and Henrickson[57] each of whom conducted studies verifying that teacher attitudes can be directly related to a child's success or failure in school. To the extent that the teacher's negative attitude affects the student and his achievement, it is necessary to identify contributing elements in the development of the teacher's attitude. Ideally, the teacher education sequence, including the practice teaching component, should contribute in a positive manner to the identification and modification of negative attitudes held by the preservice teacher.

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[52]Swick and Lamb.

[53]Donald P. Butts, Francis Howell Teachers Speak, An Evaluation of Issues for Experienced Teachers, Report Series No. 79 (Austin, Texas: Texas University, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1972).

[54]John E. Ulibarri, "Developing Positive Attitudes Among Ogden City School District Personnel Toward Minorities (unpublished Ed.S. Thesis, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, 1973).

[55]Ciampa, p. 2.

[56]Robert Rosenthal, "Self-fulfilling Prophecy," Psychology Today, 2:44-52, September, 1968.

[57]H. A. Henrickson, "Role of Teacher Attitude in Education of the Disadvantaged Child," Educational Leadership, 28:425-429, January, 1971.

That a teacher's self-perception, and, thus, role perception is of central concern is supported by Combs' thesis that good teachers feel basically adequate rather than inadequate,[58] and Garrison who concluded that "it is the older, more experienced teacher who views the teacher's role as that of one who is seen and not heard."[59] Whether or not the student teaching experience functions to enhance self-perception, positive attitude, and role clarification has been questioned. Research evidence suggests that these functions do not, in fact occur and that there is concrete rationale supporting a change in the traditional student teaching program.

Although much has been written about teacher roles (i.e., Wallen and Travers[60] and Biddle and Thomas[61]), studies centering on the relationship between the student's professional education and the potential inservice roles have been limited. Westwood[62] suggests that teacher training should provide a timeframe in which students develop their

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[58]Combs, pp. 88-89.

[59]Jesse Garrison, Self Concept and Teaching: An Exploration (Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, 1968), p. 8.

[60]N. E. Wallen and R. M. W. Travers, "Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods," Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), pp. 448-505.

[61]B. J. Biddle and E. J. Thomas, Role Theory: Concepts and Research (New York: Wiley, 1966).

[62]L. J. Westwood, "The Role of the Teacher I," Educational Research, 9:122-134, September, 1967a; see also L. J. Westwood, "The Role of the Teacher, II," Educational Research, 10:21-37, October, 1967b.

concept of the mature teacher's behavior. Grace[63] studied the changing role of the teacher and concluded that because of needed role changes teacher education institutions ought to provide greater information to potential teachers.

Self-Concept

Studies by Passmore[64] and other investigators have shown that specific classroom behavior of teachers (or studied teachers) are predictable from their self-concepts. Teachers with better, or "normal", self-concepts tend to receive higher ratings on classroom performance from students and supervisors than do teachers with deviant self-concept scores. Fitts[65] concluded that such findings might be expected and that individuals who hold a "realistic" self-picture generally function better in any vocation, teaching or other. Wilson cautions, however, that "there is, as yet, little evidence that teachers as a group may hold self-concepts that are identifiably different from self-concepts of non-teachers."[66]

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[63]G. R. Grace, "The Changing Role of the Teacher: Implications for Recruitment," Education for Teaching, 72:51-58, July, 1967.

[64]W. S. J. Passmore, "An Investigation of Relationship of Self Concept and Selected Personal Characteristics of Student Teachers to Success in Student Teaching" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas State University, 1970).

[65]H. W. Fitts, Manual for the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Nashville, Tenn.: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1965).

[66]John A. Wilson, Self Concept and Performance in Student Teaching, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 976 591, March, 1973, p. 7.

Wilson's study, which spanned a four-year period and scored both teachers and non-teachers concluded that "Students who have chosen to be teachers are more consistent and less conflicted in their view of self, or show less general maladjustment and neurotic tendencies than do non-teachers."[67] Scores for teachers remained relatively stable; non-teachers moved in a negative direction and changes occuring in the self-concept of the teaching group were in a positive direction.

The common thread in materials reviewed and studies reported is that of the need for reform, the resultant obvious (well-publicized) programmatic changes in the teacher education process, and the continuing demand for greater efforts at untangling conflicting priorities. The traditional preservice program including student teaching, appears not to have successfully prepared teachers for the real world of teaching. Other options currently in use attempt to remedy that situation by more clearly identifying the "competencies" and accompanying experiences needed to become an effective teacher. Various strategies have been identified and reported.

A wide variety of information exists on the student teaching and post-teaching experience, the most often-used measure of a successful preservice program. A purview of these studies provides some additional insights into the rationale supporting development of alternative teacher education experiences.

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[67] Wilson, p. 9.

Contemporary Criticisms of Teacher Education as Rationale for Change

In 1970 Denemark asked the question "What are the weaknesses in the education of American teachers which demand basic reform or threaten revolution?" The responses proposed were:

1. Inadequacies and irrelevance of much that presently constitutes the general studies or liberal education component.
2. The hostile academic atmosphere in which teacher education is conducted.
3. Lack of conceptual frameworks for teacher education.
4. Simplistic view of teaching and teacher education.
5. Inadequate interfacing of theoretical and practical study.
6. Continued acceptance of the single model, omnicapable teacher
7. Low selection and retention standards for teacher candidates.
8. Schedule rigidities and cumbersome procedures for curriculum change.
9. Absence of student opportunities for exploration and inquiry.
10. Schizophrenic role expectations for teacher education departments.[68]

His analysis is supported from various quarters and is typical of the variety of criticisms of teacher education generally; some of these criticisms are discussed in latter portions of this chapter in greater detail.

Questionnaires were sent to the 1972 graduates of the University of Wisconsin School of Education as part of a follow-up study. The study attempted to determine what teaching competencies the respondents felt they needed in the performance of their job. Respondents were asked to identify which topics or competencies were not adequately covered in their preservice preparation. Items falling into the category "necessary for teachers but not adequately taught in preparation program" included:

1. methods of dealing with the emotionally disturbed
2. methods of dealing with learning problems.

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[68]George W. Denemark, "Teacher Education: Repair, Reform or Revolution" Editorial, Educational Leadership, 26:1-2, March, 1970.

3. diagnosis of learning abilities.
4. methods of dealing with the mildly retarded.
5. the use of media and instructional equipment in the classroom.
6. the supervision of a classroom aide.
7. involvement in school-community relations.
8. conferences with parents.[69]

Studies such as the Wisconson effort clearly identify areas for practice opportunities and potential modification of the teacher education preservice program. In addition, they represent one form of evaluation of the program, ex post facto.

The University of Minnesota[70] investigated graduate students majoring in elementary education. The purpose of the study was to test the viability of utilizing a career typology as a method to evaluate teacher education programs. They concluded that the approach was viable, although the program was oriented to serve a single group of educators and tended to be less receptive to other groups of educators utilizing the program to further their career development. Studies such as this indicate that efforts are being made to more clearly define the career choices of students as they relate to program development in the university setting. Career development remains quite another realm.

Research in the area of preservice student wastage (one facet of career development) has been accomplished. Despite this research

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[69]Martin Haberman, What Teachers Wish They Had Been Taught: A Follow-up Study of Graduates of the School of Education, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 096 305, April, 1974.

[70]Jerome C. Harste, Program Evaluation in Teacher Education, Teacher Education Forum Series, Vol. 1 No. 4 (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, School of Education, April, 1973). (ERIC No. ED 096 263).

effort, university wastage rates remain constant at around 13 percent, while the colleges of education usually are around 10 percent. Heywood[71] pointed out in his report on student loss that, unfortunately from international comparisons, the greater the proportion of an age group that a country has in higher education, the greater the attrition rate. The United States is given as a prime example in which approximately half of the students fail to complete their college courses.

Malleson[72] concluded that the wastage in economic terms is great. In terms of human unhappiness it is also probably considerable. When we consider that most students are in the prime of life, enjoy high standards of physical and mental health, and that they have what appear to be wide opportunities, it seems surprising that studies of the problems that they face have proved to be necessary.

As part of a study designed to examine the relationships between personality, study methods and academic performance, Entwistle and Entwistle[73] administered a questionnaire relating to academic motivation to 139 university students and 118 college students. Their analysis of the data suggested that tests of personality, motivation and study methods might be used in guidance efforts in attempting to reduce student losses.

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[71]J. A. Heywood, "A Report on Student Wastage," University Quarterly, 25:189-237, May, 1971.

[72]N. B. Malleson, "Must Students Be Wasted, New Society, 32: 59-68, May, 1963.

[73]N. J. Entwistle and D. Entwistle, "The Relationship Between Personality, Study Methods and Academic Performance," British Journal of Educational Psychology, 40:131-132, March, 1970.

Explanation of student losses represented by large numbers who do not choose to remain in teacher preparation may, in part, be explained by several other related phenomena. Critics of teacher education programs focus on the lack of "relevance of present professional training to the daily work of teachers."[74] Larrimore, Musser and Sagan,[75] Cole and Musser,[76] and Labrecque and Ravitz,[77] in reporting on the development of an experimental program at the University of Kentucky support this criticism as a basic tenet leading to the development of an alternative program. Larrimore, Musser and Sagan[78] state that "The program developers felt teachers should be more practically oriented or real-world oriented." They continue that they "felt teachers should be more flexible and less judgmental and attuned to a wide range of

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[74]Kevin A. Ryan, A Plan for a New Type of Professional Training for a New Type of Teaching Staff, The Teacher and His Staff-Occasional Papers, No. 2 (Washington, D.C.: NCTEPS, National Education Association, February, 1968), p. 1.

[75]David L. Larrimore, Louise S. Musser, and Edgar L. Sagan, "Personality, Attitude, Professional Knowledge of Teachers in Experiential and Conventional Preparatory Programs" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 28, 1973).

[76]Henry P. Cole and Louise S. Musser, "Field Activities Selected by Preservice Teachers in Traditional and Experimental Programs" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 28, 1973).

[77]Richard Labrecque and Leonard Ravitz, Nova Ratio Studiorum: The Teacher as Enterpreneur" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 28, 1973).

[78]Larrimore, Musser and Sagan, p. 1.

differences in values and life styles," and finally, that "teachers should be more child-centered, more sensitive to children and their needs, and less content-centered."[79]

Andrews[80] theorized that an increasing number of direct experiences must be incorporated into the professional education sequence of teacher education. Such emphasis is necessitated by the growing complexity of preparing teachers to function effectively in a variety of roles and contexts. Student teaching experiences, it is hypothesized, are both too limited and too late. Mills states that:

> The inability of students to transfer theory into practice without opportunities to act in real situations and reflect upon the consequences of those actions---in other words to restructure experience---is a common problem recognized both by teacher educators and by teacher education students.[81]

It is possible to quantify and state what appear to be the qualities of a good teacher after he has had a chance to gain professional status. The crux of the issue, however, is to design programs which allow for the recognition of competence and effectiveness potential early enough in a teacher candidate's undergraduate academic training to allow for qualitative changes.

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[79]Larrimore, Musser and Sagan, p. 2.

[80]L. O. Andrews, "A Curriculum to Procure Career Teachers for the 1980's," Theory Into Practice, 6:236-245, December, 1967; see also B. Othanel Smith, Saul B. Cohen and Arthur Pearl.

[81]Patricia Mills, In Defense of the Practical: An Evaluation of Effects and Relationships in One Component of a Teacher Education Program, Report of an Evaluation Study of the Methods Experience Project (MEP) (Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green State University, 1972), p. 3.

Super and Crites[82] report that there are tests of aptitude for teaching. These are designed to improve the selection of students of education and have been developed by the New York State Department of Education and the Psychological Service Center of George Washington University. Custom-built tests of so-called teaching aptitude have also been developed and published by the University of Wisconsin and the University of California at Los Angeles. These two institutions have developed batteries of standard tests in attempting to strengthen their preservice program selection procedures. Beyond formal testing, another method of assisting students to make early career decisions is to provide experiences which stress practicum and other experiential involvement of potential teachers with the children they will teach. The burden for such activities would be on the preservice teachers and would, therefore, place professors of teacher education in the forefront, providing them the opportunity to have greater impact on the preservice student prior to his student teaching experience. This would be consistent with the position taken by Combs, Conant, and others previously noted; it would provide a vehicle through which possible reported negative results of the student teaching experience might be avoided.

ALTERNATIVE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Bell reviewed secondary school science teacher education in an attempt to determine what direction it was taking. He concluded that:

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[82]Donald E. Super and John O. Crites, Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means or Psychological Tests (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1962), p. 371.

> . . . students entering teaching are often not committed to the profession until after student teaching, after which large numbers drop out at least temporarily. If students could be charged with the responsibility of providing their own relevance, their own early field experience and generating some of their own training to enhance their capabilities, those that accepted the challenge could provide the momemtum necessary to provide the level of competition necessary to make an impact nationally. . . . The needs for the 1970's and 1980's are for science teacher preparation programs which turn out professionals who are both highly trained . . . and highly skilled in the pedagogical sciences.[83]

This is the intent of most alternative teacher education programs generally. Some of these will be described briefly.

In addition to the two previously mentioned alternative approaches to preservice teacher education (PBTE and teacher centers), other alternative programs are conducted in various parts of the United States. The components, character, and purpose of these programs differ somewhat from the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University. A review of some of these programs is provided in this portion of the literature, in addition to specific information on SEPP.

Trueblood presented a review of the preprofessional teacher aide program at Pennsylvania State. The program is not an alternative program in a purse sense; rather, it is an example of attempts to provide early field experiences as one means of strengthening the teacher education program.[84]

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[83]Paul E. Bell, "Both . . . And," (paper presented at the joint meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching and Association for the Education of Teachers in Science and ERIC Information Analysis Center for Science, Mathematics and Environmental Education, Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University, March, 1974), pp. 9-10. (ERIC No. ED 084 473).

[84]Cecil R. Trueblood, "Description of Penn State's Preprofessional Teacher Aide Program," Progress Report No. 1 (University Park, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State University, October, 1972). (Mimeographed.)

One important criteria, not often considered, is that of the new sequences of experiences in teacher education which are being made available. In a sense these efforts also represent "alternatives" to the traditional teacher educati n program. Thus, the development of instructional modules and the use of audio-tutorial styles in use at Purdue, Cornell, and Toledo are representative alternative experiences.

Competency Based Instruction, previously noted at the College of New York (CUNY), are also in use in many colleges and universities in the United States. These programs include the use of computer assisted instruction and microteaching, among other things.

The University of Iowa has been concentrating its preservice efforts at recruitment activities in an effort to upgrade its teacher education program by emphasizing career decision factors and attempts at role descriptions.[85]

The programs and strategies briefly noted here are not alternative programs per se. They are, though, important beginning steps in the development of alternative preservice program design.

Gould reports of the Cooperative Teacher Education Project at the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.[86] The project began in 1971 as an informal teacher education cooperative effort between the University and High School District 214 in Arlington Heights, Illinois.

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[85] Intermediate Science Curriculum Study Teacher's Module: Role of the Student (Morriston, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Company, 1972).

[86] Orvin Gould, The Cooperative Teacher Education Project: Preservice Outcomes (paper presented at the 47th Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, Chicago, Illinois, April, 1974). (ERIC No. ED 092 363).

The purpose of the CTEP program initially was to provide "a program that allows teachers to define and develop personal strengths, values, and teaching styles while gaining professional competencies appropriate to the realities of the schools."[87]

Students from the University of Illinois and/or Northern Illinois University may elect the program as an alternative over the traditional preservice program. All professional credits with the exception of educational psychology are offered under the auspices of the program.

The program is basically operated through subject area groupings, but some components of the program are interdisciplinary in nature (i.e., human relations, institutional studies). Program components include mini-teaching, observation, extended teaching (eight weeks or longer), subject seminars, human relations, professional evaluation and miscellaneous activities. These miscellaneous activities include team teaching, student representatives on the CTEP Planning Committee and working in unique educational settings not ordinarily a part of the traditional school day program.

Program planning is the shared responsibility of the university, public schools, and teacher candidates. Personnel from the public schools assume the tasks of supervision and instruction of the candidates.

Program components include faculty advising to small groups, student contracts and self-evaluation, faculty and/or student sponsored workshops, tutorial assignments, microteaching, quest projects conducted either as individual or team efforts, visits to community agencies and special schools and various student services to the project.

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[87]Orvin Gould, p. 2.

There was no additional or special funding for the Project; it was asumed as a regular part of the teaching assignment of the participating faculty.

Subject area coordinators and building coordinators are released from a portion of their regular teaching day to provide input. Released time is provided by the universities by means of certificated "interns" who are masters degree candidates holding appointments as teaching assistants at one of the two universities.

The candidates participate in the Cooperative Teacher Education Project for a period of 18 weeks. Following participation in the project, the candidates are certified to teach.

The NOVA Project in Secondary Teacher Education at California State University, San Diego, is another alternative teacher education program. Initiated in 1970, the program enrolls students for two semesters. During that time the students pattern of experiences are determined by a 30-week cycle which identifies campus activities (including microteaching sessions), field visits, directed teaching and seminar activities.

Crum and McCoy report that the Nova model:

> . . . features a continuously developing pattern of school and community experiences. It maximizes a team approach with an emphasis on joint planning by faculty and students, flexibility in the use of time and presentation of content, varied and intensive field experiences, and a continuity running through both semesters of the project.[88]

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[88]Clyde Crum and Leone McCoy, The NOVA Project in Secondary Teacher Education, 1970-1973 (San Diego, California: California State University, 1973), p. 4. (ERIC No. ED 084 261).

Students may elect the program (as second semester seniors or as graduates) as an alternative over the traditional sequence. Successful participation in the project satisfies requirements in psychological and social foundations, directed participation, student teaching, and a seminar in general methods.

In a manner comparable to the Cooperative Teacher Education Project at Urbana, the Nova Project also interfaces school and community experiences. It focuses on a team approach in which faculty, students, and local school personnel are co-members. Joint planning and evaluation and extended field work are characteristic of the Project efforts.

Of the programs or strategies noted, the efforts at the University of Illinois, Urbana, have been particularly well documented. Gould[89] reported that several studies were completed, including job-taking characteristics, self-concept of the students, teaching behavior, client satisfaction with the CTEP model, and assessment of beliefs and attitudes regarding education. In addition, CTEP components, such as mini-teaching, have been studied.

Findings from these various studies indicate, among other things, that there are different job-taking patterns, that CTEP candidates begin the program with a greater tendency toward self-actualization but with a greater discrepancy between their concept of self-actual and self-ideal. Conventional students attributed most of their attainment to either student teaching or to a "gestalt" of experiences. CTEP

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[89]Orvin Gould, p. 5.

candidates gave greatest overall value to the extended teaching component but also saw other components as having particular value for attaining specific goals.[90]

Another study assessed the beliefs and attitudes toward teaching by use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and a survey questionnaire titled "Beliefs about Education," specially designed for the evaluation. Gould reports that the study found that ". . . the effects of the CTEP program were about as debilitating as in more conventional programs. Altruism and idealism seemed to dissipate over the CTEP experience, perhaps in favor of a more realistic outlook."[91]

With respect to beliefs regarding education, there had also been a "tempering effect of reality exposure."[92]

Finally, studies have been conducted utilizing structured interviews. Results indicate that room for improvement exists, that persons having limited input opportunities often view the program negatively, and the employers generally were supportive of the CTEP graduates. On the debit side, the graduates were sometimes judged short in pedagogical techniques (methods) and in discipline.

Alternative programs in elementary education are existant; the most easily recognized one is that of Combs at the University of Florida. The program is described in detail by Blume[93] but can be summarized as follows:

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[90]Orvin Gould, p. 7.

[91]Orvin Gould, p. 8.

[92]Orvin Gould, p. 9.

[93]Robert Blume, "Humanizing Teacher Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 23:411-415, March, 1971.

The New Elementary Program at the University of Florida is an alternative teacher education program from which its first students graduated in 1970. Development of the program was based on research on the perceptual organization of teachers and other members of the "helping" professions. After review of the research studies completed, Combs and Wass concluded that the results "show significant differences between the perceptual organization and effective and ineffective teachers."[94]

The New Elementary Program attempts to produce teachers who have learned to use themselves effectively as instruments to carry out their functions as educators. Six major principles underlie the program; these include:

1. The Self as Instrument Concept (self becoming)
2. Maximum Flexibility
3. Close relationship of didactic instruction and practical experience
4. Responsibility and individualization
5. Relation of learning to need
6. Reasonable cost of operation.[95]

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[94]Arthur W. Combs and Hannelore Wass, A Follow-up Study of On-the-Job Behavior of Elementary Teachers Trained in an Innovative and a Traditional Program of Teacher Preparation, Final Report, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Region Four, Project No. 2-3-208, Grant No. OEG 4-72-0016 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, February, 1973), p. 1.

[95]Combs and Wass, p. 1.

Thus, the program is intended to encouarge maximum personal growth, early internship experiences, acceptance of responsibility by the student for his own learning, exposure of information only after the "need to know" has been expressed, and a high level of self direction and personal discovery of effective modes of teaching. It was begun in January, 1969, with 90 randomly selected beginning students enrolled in elementary education. In this respect it is somewhat different that other programs noted thus far---students were selected rather than electing to participate initially. The program operates within existing staff and operating expense allocations.

No government or private funding except for a $1,000 grant by the American Federation of Teachers has been utilized. The initial grant, according to Combs, was to make it possible "to conduct a pilot comparison study between a sample of experimental and control students. These findings constitute the first and only "hard" data available on the New Elementary Program."[96]

The philosophy undergirding the program is expressed by Combs' statement that:

> Teachers are asked to be facilitators rather than controllers, helpers rather than directors. The concept of teachers as makers, forcers, molders, or coercers is no longer regarded as the ideal role for teachers, a position firmly buttressed by evidence from research. Such shifts in our thinking made the act of teaching a process of ministering to student growth rather than a process of control and management of student behavior.[97]

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[96] Combs and Wass, p. 2.

[97] Arthur W. Combs, Educational Accountability- Beyond Behavioral Objectives (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972), p. 35.

The New Elementary Program has components comparable to those identified in various other alternative programs. Broadened field experiences, mini-teaching activities, small group seminars, and other such strategies are all utilized. The program is a two-semester (one-year) duration. It is not comparable to the SEPP for that reason, as well as the fact that it is designed for elementary teachers-in-preparation rather than secondary education students.

One aspect of the Program which may differentiate it from other efforts is that its implementation was preceded by extensive research which was then used to formulate a theoretical position for teacher education. The program is now being subjected to follow-up research to determine its effectiveness.

Another preservice program for elementary school teachers is one conducted between the Norfolk City School and Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia. It was begun in February, 1971. The program is a cooperative one, similar to that of CTEP at the University of Illinois, Urbana.

Wise, Sacks and Haggerty state that the objective of the program is "to closely involve associates."[98] The program is designed to relate experiences directly to language arts, reading, and general curriculum of the elementary school.

Areas for study include incorporation of traditional preservice professional requirements; that is, history and philosophy of education, school and classroom organization; introduction to Language Arts,

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[98]Pauline K. Wise, Annabel L. Sacks, and Katherine T. Haggerty, A Cooperative Program in Teacher Education (Norfolk, Virginia: Old Dominion University, November, 1971), p. 4. (ERIC No. ED 075 361).

Language Readiness, Language/Experience, Developmental Reading and skill units in Language Arts. Content areas in social studies, science, and mathematics are included in the study requirements, as well as methods of teaching, word attack skills and evaluation.[99]

The strategies employed in accomplishing the 130-hour program include many of those previously described. Tapes, field observation, lecture/discussion series, demonstrations, seminars, etc., are all utilized. Students are expected to spend 26 hours in the elementary schools, 30 hours in seminars and 76 hours in large-group activities. Voluntary participation in supplementary workshops is another option.

Evaluation techniques utilized include written examinations and/or grades on papers and projects, demonstration of competency in certain areas, approved optional activities and informal evaluation by cooperating teachers. Based on evaluation efforts, the program developers concluded that the results showed an increase of desirable attitudes in students.[100]

No supplemental funds are provided for the program in which three faculty members schedule six hours a week each for interim planning, schedule revision, evaluation, and student conferences. The same faculty members are present during the seventy-nine hours of large-group activities, regardless of who conducts the class.

The College of Education at Bowling Green State University provides an alternative elementary teacher education program, in addition

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[99]Wise, Sacks and Haggerty, pp. 6-14.

[100]Wise, Sacks and Haggerty, p. 26.

to those previously discussed. Titled the "Methods Experience Project," and begun in 1971, the project incorporates a component whereby students may enroll in and complete all of their methods courses during one quarter. In that time three days a week are spent in participating schools. The remaining two days of the school week students return to campus for regularly scheduled classes with each of their methods instructors. These include both subject methods and general methods.

The program, described by Mills[101] includes university faculty members who provide a liason function with the public school classrooms during the week. In addition, they function as observers of the students' teaching behaviors and aid students in coping with unique teaching-learning situations. Finally, they function to enable the student to become proficient in a particular area of instruction.

The program, encompassing one semester, utilizes discussion groups, mini-teaching and field observation in addition to the more formalized student teaching experience. No additional funds or staff are made available for the Project.

An evaluation study has been completed of students in the project, with the following results reported by Mills:

1. The MEP students reflect both greater situational and personal role conflicts than the control students;
2. MEP students have personalities that are better suited for teaching than the control students, and
3. No differences in teaching behavior exist among students, although the MEP students develop a more positive attitude toward teaching than did the control students, . . . some of which may be attributed to the influence of the change exhibited within the MEP group.[102]

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[101] Mills.

[102] Mills, pp. 7-10.

Another study by Marso and Reed[103] indicated that ratings of student teachers by their university supervisors, cooperating teachers, and principals were significantly higher for students who had been engaged in the Methods Experience Project than for students who had followed the traditional methods course sequence.

Mills suggests that:

> . . . it seems reasonable to conclude that the MEP groups were subjected to a degree of reality shock not experienced by the Campus group. If this is the case, many students might well be expected to demonstrate less effective teaching behavior and less positive teaching attitudes following such exposure. But such early initiation into the reality of teaching might also enable these subjects to avoid the deleterious effects which are often associated with the first years of full-time teaching and permit them more ably to cope with and profit from subsequent experiences. It could concurrently encourage self-selection out of the profession. . . .[104]

The Secondary Education Pilot Program, endorsed by the University Curriculum Committee at Michigan State University, is an alternative secondary teacher education program.[105] It attempts to address development of student coping skills to better understand and function in today's schools. Thus, the program emphasizes content designed to enhance

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[103]Ronald N. Marso and Robert L. Reed, "A Study of the Instructional Skills and Abilities of BGSU Elementary Education Majors and Graduates as Perceived by Principals, First-Year Teachers, Student Teachers, and Cooperating and Supervising Teachers," (Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green State University, College of Education, February 1972). (Mimeographed.)

[104]Mills, p. 14.

[105]Carol A. Norris, Summary of discussions and review of the proposal to the University Curriculum Committee. All information following represents personal notes.

understanding of the school in society, awareness and acceptance of the diversity of today's adolescent, instructional strategies and utilization of multi-media, working with heterogeneous student groups, integration of learning theory with practice, and coping with dissident youth and violence in the schools.

It attempts to integrate self, subject-matter competency and professional development into a four-year sequential whole. Students are encouraged to merge personal teaching and interaction styles with a philosophy of education.

The program is best characterized as a four-year program requiring an extensive field work component. It provides a different approach to the professional sequence and provides students with an early option to leave teaching and/or the program.

The instructional mode is multi-dimensional, having common characteristics with other alternative secondary education programs previously described, including PBTE components and teacher/student-paced instruction.

The program has several unique features including beginning voluntary involvement at the freshmen level, a pass/no pass grading system is used for student contact hours, which also begin and continue through the four years of the program. The credits for field experiences still meet the 30 credit-hours necessary for graduation and certification in Michigan. Weekend and other leadership and teaching skills laboratories accompany the nearly 820 hours of corresponding clinical experience which is required of program participants. By comparison, the regular teacher education program requires 420 hours.

Special seminars are conducted which include "mindbenders"--a series of voluntary professional reading/discussion experiences. Volunteer university personnel donate their time to conduct the discussions.

No additional funds, other than regular university support, are made available for costs of administering the program. One associate professor, Dr. Samuel S. Corl, and one instructor, Mrs. Paula Stein, are the current staff. In addition, part-time services of at least one graduate assistant, Mr. Dennis Pataniczek are made available.

The program, implemented in the Fall Term, 1972, is currently in its second year of operation and has admitted 168 students. That number has since been reduced to 148 because of withdrawals and/or transfers.

The program represents a significantly different alternative than any of those previously reviewed. There are no other comparable secondary preservice programs in operation that this researcher has been able to find.

Information evaluations have been completed via student feedback sheets and university staff comments, as well as comments from field service participating local educational agency and/or other resource persons. No formal evaluations have been conducted on the Secondary Education Pilot Program, per se. Neither have there been any formal evaluative efforts with respect to the student population in SEPP up to this point in time.

The alternative program at Michigan State University, conceived and under the direction of Dr. Samuel S. Corl, was previously described

described in Figure 1, Chapter 1. Critical components of the alternative program include the introduction of both professional sequence items and field contact experiences beginning with the freshman year. By this process, students graduating from the program will have accumulated nearly twice as much clinical experience as those graduating from the traditional preservice program.

Bridging the isolated approach of secondary versus elementary alternative models is one provided by the Lyndon State College, Lyndonville, Vermont. Initiated in 1972, the program is a partnership between the Newport-Derby School District and the College. Wells[106] describes the program as field-based, designed for those students who indicate that they wish to pursue a professional career in education. The stated objectives are to:

1. assist the student in obtaining the necessary information and first-hand experience to make an intelligent career decision concerning the teaching profession;
2. enable the student to make tentative decisions as to which level and in what capacity he wishes to gain competency in the teaching profession; and
3. assist the education department in deciding which students to accept as majors.[107]

At the same time that the student is enrolled in introductory education courses at the college, he/she participates in the field component serving as a teacher aide at all levels of elementary and secondary education.

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[106]Doris M. Wells, "Exploratory Field Experience in Education" (Lyndonville, Vermont; Lyndon State College, November, 1973). (Mimeographed nomination presented for the 1974 AACTE Distinguished Achievement Award.) (ERIC No. ED 085 383).

[107]Wells, p. 4.

Other program components include having the students attend specially designed courses titled "American Education," "Educational Psychology-Human Development," and "Education Workshop."[108]

The program is not a voluntary one---all sophomores planning to follow the elementary education program are required to spend one full semester (16 weeks) enrolled in the field component. Secondary education majors are invited, but not required to participate.

One unique aspect of the program is that the course titled "American Education" is "team taught" in the public school setting. The college instructor and representatives of the local school system comprise the team. School administrators, board members, teachers, lawyers, staff personnel, and State Department members act as consultants. Special workshops are presented on subject matter, materials, and equipment. Students prepare a design plan for their sixteen-week experiences in observation and teacher aide. They may choose from a minimum of two weeks each in a primary, intermediate, and junior high school. Optional choices include kindergarten, high school, and special education at all levels.

The program costs are part of the regular budget of the Education Department. Additional costs for the program include approximately $400 travel expense for the college supervisor and $7,000 for for contracted bus service to transport the students. Local educational personnel donate their services in exchange for the help they receive from the students as aides.[109]

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[108]Wells, p. 4.

[109]Wells, p. 3

Oral and written evaluations have been conducted by the students, the administrative staff, teachers, and college personnel. Wells states that "a positive conclusive evaluation of this program cannot be ascertained until the first group of students is graduated and teaching."[110]

Finally, the reader is alerted to one other aspect of the program. That is, that the College is also currently experimenting with a field-based program for juniors in which they participate in the public schools two half-days a week. As in the case of the sophomores, these students develop their design for the sixteen-week experience, carry out the plan, and evaluate the results. The junior program is in connection with the integrated methodology course, Teaching Process, and Reading Foundations.

Summary, Part I

The history of teacher education has been characterized generally by the development of programs based on numbers of students rather than on the improvement of the processes by which they are educated. Smith[111] concluded that teacher education programs during the last seventy years developed mainly on the basis of an increased knowledge of general psychological principles, an inadequate understanding gained from the practical experiences of teachers, and the growth of studies in the

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[110] Wells, p. 3.

[111] Smith, Cohen and Pearl; see also B. O. Smith and others, Research in Teacher Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971).

social sciences and philosophy. American studies supporting many of Smith's conclusions on teacher education have also been surveyed by Barr,[112] Gage,[113] and Biddle and Ellena.[114]

Societies demand for well-educated teachers has another effect upon teacher education development. This demand may be interpreted as a function of several variables, including the national birthrate, the population age distribution, technological developments, social/economic constraints, and so forth. Little is known of the costs and benefits of training an "educator". Still less is known in a quantitative sense of the private and social rates of return on teacher education. As such more cost/benefit information becomes available, it also may influence the direction of teacher education.

In spite of comprehensive surveys, we still have a serious lack of dependable knowledge upon which to base our training procedures. Consideration of questions concerning the demand for, preparation of, and supply of efficient teachers will likely continue. There is every likelihood, also, that continued questioning of the nature, function and practice in teacher education will be discussed.

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[112] A. S. Barr and others, "Report of the Committee on the Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness," Review of Educational Research, 22:238-263, March, 1952; see also A. S. Barr and others, "Wisconsin Studies of Measurement of Teacher Effectiveness: A Summary of Investigations," Journal of Experimental Education, 30:5-156, May, 1961.

[113] N. L. Gage, ed., Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966).

[114] B. J. Biddle and W. J. Ellena, Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964).

PART 2: TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Good, in the Dictionary of Education, defined a profession as ". . . an occupation usually involving relatively long and specialized preparation on the level of higher education and governed by its own code of ethics."[115]

In attempting to define whether or not teaching is a profession, Tyler[116] applied six criterion drawn from the writings of Abraham Flexner. The criterion included intellectuality, learned, practical object, communicability, organization, and motivation. She concluded that:

> The teaching act requires professional status because it is basic to providing a quality education for all who attend our schools and colleges. If the teaching act is to be excellently executed, the teacher must be intellectual, learned, and altruistically motivated. And the teacher must have been adequately educated and carefully selected by professional peers.
>
> However, if we evaluate teachers and the teaching act as it is now being executed, we can only conclude that teaching does not completely meet the criteria set forth by Flexner.[117]

Her conclusions are supported by others who describe the "profession" in terms of size as well as of function.

The size of the teaching profession is such that numerically it resembles other occupational groups including nurses or "shop" assistants,

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[115] Carter V. Good, ed., Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1945), p. 415.

[116] Louis L. Tyler, "Is Teaching a Profession?", Controversy in American Education: An Anthology of Crucial Issues, ed. Harold Full (New York: Macmillan Company, 1967), pp. 324-333.

[117] Tyler, pp. 332-333.

rather than smaller exclusive professional groups. Etzioni[118] classified teaching in the same category as nursing and social work; he regards these occupational groupings as "semi-professions."

Semi-professions are characterized by members who are trained within a relatively short period and acquire less specialized bodies of knowledge (in direct contrast to Good's definition). Thus, Etzioni believes they maintain a lower status and weaker authority than smaller, specialized professional groups.

Others contend that this is not the case, and that as the profession (education) continues to develop it will expect rigorous study of the theory and practice of education.[119] Thus, they contend, it is in fact a profession.

Hanna[120] examined the interrelationship between teachers and their work, in an attempt to determine whether "dedication," which is often assumed to be characteristic of professional occupations, actually existed for that group of teachers studied.

His study findings include the following statements:

> Teaching, however, appears to be a marginal profession in that
> a. the teacher does not directly control the working conditions of his group.
> b. controls are imposed on the teacher's dispersion of specialized knowledge and skills.

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[118] A. Etzioni, ed., The Semi-Professions and Their Organization (New York: The Free Press, 1969).

[119] R. Gould, "The Teaching Profession," The Education of Teachers in Britain, ed. D. E. Lomax (London: Wiley, 1972).

[120] Charles Clifford Hanna, Teaching as a "Central Life Interest" of Metropolitan Secondary Teachers (St. Paul, Minn.: University of Minnesota, 1972). (ERIC No. ED 088 838).

c. he does not control nor determine the qualifications of those who enter his work group.
d. his life is largely controlled by a board possessing little of his specialized training or knowledge.
e. his license to deviate from lay conduct is seriously limited, and
f. the teacher receives limited deference from the larger society. . . . He (the teacher) will tend to view the school as a means to acquire ends to participate in non-school interactions which have more social value for him than does teaching.[121]

Based on the results of his study, Hanna concluded that "the global and complete dedication of self to work assumed to be characteristic of professional occupations does not exist for the secondary school teachers studied."[122]

Others describe the profession as included in the "helping" professions,[123] most often characterized by nurses and ministers and other such occupational groupings. As such, the use of the term "helping" professions may be legitimate in this writers perspective, but does not necessarily clarify the issue of "professional" or "semi-professional" when used as a referrant to those involved in the occupational endeavor.

Social Origins of Teachers

That teaching is virtually monopolized by persons of middle-class origin is perhaps overstating the case. Charters concluded after exhaustive review that:

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[121]Hanna, p. 4.

[122]Hanna, p. 8.

[123]A. W. Combs, Florida Studies in the Helping Professions, Monograph: Social Services No. 37 (Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida, 1969).

> Available research suggests that there may be variation from one type of community or school system to another, and a number of the surveys of teacher origin going back to the early 1900's shows that a small but significant proportion of teachers came from the working class. It may be correct to conclude that the teaching occupation draws heavily upon the middle ranges of the American social class structure: the lowest and highest classes are (generally) under-represented in the profession.[124]

Austin and Biscontini surveyed the career plans of black and other non-white college graduates through a three-part study. Their report presents analysis of 1965 and 1970 post-senior year plans based on data collected by the American Council of Education (ACE). Through the Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) each year's entering freshman class at over 300 institutions of higher education fill out questionnaires about their backgrounds, achievements, interests and goals. A sample of the same students is followed up four years later. The data are representative of the nation as a whole because of the elaborate sampling and weighting procedures used. Some of the findings reported include:

1. The 1965 and 1970 non-white college graduates differed with respect to their career choices.
2. The 1970 non-white graduates choices of occupations (careers) were closer to their white classmates.
3. Business choices became increasingly popular among non-white graduates.

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[124]Charters, p. 721.

4. College teaching showed substantial gains among both black men and women.
5. Elementary and secondary teaching dropped as a choice for black men.[125]

The study, published in 1973, is significant as it reiterates the drop in the number of persons electing to enter education as a career choice; it is also significant as additional data with respect to the nature of the educational occupational group, which, in terms of social origin, consists of proportionately more white than black males and more females in general.

Cain surveyed Alabama youth four years after high school using a path analytic model which included mother's and father's education, breadwinner's occupation, residence, amount of significance to others' influence, occupational aspiration, educational attainment, and occupational attainment. Eighty-seven males and sixty-seven females were contacted. Major results were that 38 percent of the variance for males and 26 percent for females was explained by the model; that the breadwinner's occupation contributed most heavily for males and occupation aspiration for females; that the model was more applicable to migrant than non-migrant males; and that home environment factors and personal value commitments were important.[126] This data indicates that there is a

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[125]Helen S. Austin and Ann S. Biscontini, Career Plans of Black and Other Non-White College Graduates (Bethlehem, Pennsylvania: College Placement Council, 1973).

[126]Janice Sofge Cain, "The Path to Occupational Attainment: A Study of Northeast Alabama Youth Four Years After High School" (unpublished Master's thesis, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama, 1973), p. 80.

direct correlation between family background (social origin) and the aspirations of the youth of that family. Students surveyed were comparable in age to those students included in this study.

In 1911, Coffman reported that 52 percent of the nation's teachers derived from farm families.[127] Of Coffman's teachers, 26 percent had fathers whom he classified as "artisans" and "laborers" and 22 percent had fathers who were professionals, businessmen, and public officials.[128] Thirty years later Greenhoe conducted a national survey of teachers which showed 18 percent whose fathers were day-laborers.[129] In mid-1950, 29 percent of a group of Detroit teachers studied had fathers in unskilled or semiskilled labor occupations, a proportion especially pronounced among the younger teachers in the group.[130]

Kenen[131] concluded that teachers having white- or blue-collar expectations are a function of both the prior family background and the

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[127]L. D. Coffman, The Social Composition of the Teaching Population, Research Bulletin No. 41 (New York: Teachers College, 1911), p. 74.

[128]Coffman, p. 76.

[129]Florence Greenhoe, The Community Contacts and Participation of Teachers (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941), p. 17.

[130]W. Wattenberg, "Social Origins of Teachers - A Northern Industrial City," The Teacher's Role in American Society, ed. L. J. Stiles (New York: Harper, 1957), pp. 13-22.

[131]Regina H. Kenen, "Teacher Morale as a Function of Teachers' Occupational Expectations for Their Students and Attitudes Toward Higher Education" (Trenton, New Jersey: Trenton State College and Columbia University, 1971). (Mimeographed.)

socialization and awareness functions of the teacher education program. Her study of 382 elementary and secondary English teachers investigated the orientation of the teachers and found that orientation appears to have a direct bearing on attitude toward teaching and feelings of success as a teacher. Teachers holding white-collar expectations for their male students reported that their jobs were more rewarding than did teachers holding blue-collar expectations.

Legatt[132] concluded that since the teaching profession is much larger than other more exclusive professional groups, it was perhaps inevitable that its members generally were of modest social class origin. Yet, this could change significantly if patterns of recruitment were to change. For example, it might be ironic if at a time when increasing numbers of working class children are staying in school longer to have the proportion of teachers recruited from this class begin to decline. Such a position is that proposed by Kelsall and Kelsall.[132] Kelsall's position is not unrealistic when matched against what is known of current educational patterns in the United States.

The 1970 Census Report, N. 8, dealt with the educational status of the population. Information gleaned from the 1970 census and reported indicate that:

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[132] T. Legatt, "Social Class Origins of Teachers," Professions and Professionalization, ed. B Jackson (Cambridge; University Press, 1970), pp. 155-177.

[133] R. K. Kelsall and H. M. Kelsall, The School Teacher in England and the United States (London: Pergamon Press, 1969).

1. more Americans than ever before are going to school;
2. Americans are starting school at an earlier age and staying in school longer;
3. for the first time, the average American adult has completed high school;
4. people who live in urban areas have a higher level of education than do those in rural areas;
5. although a higher percentage of Non-Spanish finish high school than do black students, these minorities are closing the gap; and
6. there is a definite relationship between level of education and the kinds of jobs people hold and how much they are paid.[134]

These statistics are borne out in other comparable research or information reports.

Charters reports that data on the occupation of teachers' fathers go back as early as 1911.[135] Studies on occupational background have primarily surveyed teachers-in-training, not teachers on the job. For this reason Charters states that:

> . . . generalizing from such data to the teaching population at large is hazardous. Such generalization is not the intent of this data, but is pertinent when viewed from the following perspective: substantially less than 100 percent of the preservice students enter teaching, a fact which introduces the possibility of unknown bias.[136]

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[134]Bureau of the Census (DOC), We The Americans: Our Education, 1970 Census Report, No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, June, 1973), pp. 1-16.

[135]Charters, p. 720.

[136]Charters, p. 720.

Studies do exist demonstrating important differences among types of colleges and the background characteristics of their students. Teacher-trainees in the small teacher colleges, for instance, are more likely to come from agricultural and laboring families than are teacher-trainees in liberal arts colleges or the larger universities.[137]

Regardless of the social origin of teachers, with relatively few exceptions those who have prepared to teach have been exposed to a socializing process. The liberalizing experience of four years of college education is, in part, explained by the very nature of the growth of teacher preparation programs noted in an earlier portion of this chapter. The result of needed manpower in the field of education, coupled with the growth of certification requirements, has contributed to the general upgrading of the teacher's professional preparation via the college or university experience.

The NEA Research Division reports that six out of every seven beginning teachers in the fall of 1954 were college graduates.[138] By comparison, in 1931 only one-third of the public school teachers had four years of college education.[139] It appears that in the intervening twenty years the certification requirement of a bachelor's degree had been firmly established within the "profession."

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[137]C. McGuire and G. D. White, "Social Origins of Teachers in Texas," The Teachers Role in American Society, ed. S. J. Stiles (New York: Harper, 1957), pp. 23-41.

[138]National Education Association, Research Division, First-Year Teachers in 1954-55, NEA Research Bulletin No. 1 (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1956).

[139]E. S. Evenden, G. C. Gamble and H. G. Blue, Teacher Personnel in the United States, Office of Education Bulletin No. 10, Vol. 2 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Interior, 1933).

With respect to the physical description of the teaching group, certain patterns emerge. These include such statements as that provided by Charters[140] who, after drawing upon information from the NEA and several research studies concluded that:

> The model American teacher, in the late 1950's, was a married woman between the ages of 46 and 55 years of age, representing approximately 19 percent of the total occupational group. . . . The older models of the typical teacher include characteristics such as predominantly college educated, native-born, Protestant, white, middle-aged, married females of middle-class, and possibly rural or small-town origin.[141]

These models, it should be noted, were based on the occupational group in the 1950's and does not necessarily represent people now preparing to teach. They do provide some common frame of reference, though.

These statements are not meant to imply that there are no males in the occupational group. Rather, they exhibit an emerging characteristic of the occupational group; that is, that the married woman in teaching is a recent phenomenon and that male teachers are predominantly young while female teachers are more often middle-aged. This characteristic is likely to undergo gradual change as normal attrition/retirement rates are balanced with the general population trends. Potentially, the number of unmarried, young women will become proportionately larger than older married women.

Teaching as a Career - Occupational Choice

Many, including this writer, believe that from the perspective of the potential teacher; consideration of one's career plan is a critical and practical consideration---a "valuing process." The professional

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[140] Charters, pp. 718-719.

[141] Charters, p. 719.

half-life of the typical graduate of a teacher education program is two years. Many do not plan long careers of teaching, for Walberg and others state that "after the year of the baccalaureate for those who begin teaching, only half will remain in teaching for more than two years, a quarter for more than four years, and an eighth for more than six years. . . ."[142]

Such dropout statistics suggest that teacher education programs serve one of several functions; that is, the program may prepare persons for entry into other more satisfying and/or rewarding occupations. It may encourage persons to continue in a program in spite of a realization during or following the student teaching experience that their occupational choice is not a personally rewarding one. It may function to encourage students to continue in preparation for a career for which they are not suited.

Walberg's statement was supported by a more recent publication titled Analysis of the Educational Personnel System: IV Teacher Turnover. Keller suggested that surplus teachers would get jobs in different fields and that "although these people might well have been teaching if they had graduated ten years ago, two years later a third of them would have quit or been dismissed."[143]

While there were extreme shortages of teachers in the early 1960's, this is no longer the case. Past termination rates have varied from 6 to 11 percent over the last 15 years,[144] but it is unlikely that

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[142]Herbert J. Walberg and others, "Personality-Role Confict and Self-Conception in Urban Teachers," School Review, 76:41, March, 1968.

[143]Emmett B. Keller, Analysis of the Educational Personnel System: IV Teacher Turnover (Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, 1973).

[144]Keller, p. 24.

there will be sharp increases in terminations during the 1970's. Falling school enrollments, larger numbers of young people entering the profession (teacher market), and protective arrangements of working teachers contribute to this likelihood. These considerations led Keller to conclude that "it will be more efficient to retrain those currently teaching than to train new college students," and that "one possibility with a surplus market is to try to influence which groups remain in and which leave the teaching profession."[145]

Anderson[146] surveyed 34 students who had returned to Michigan State University to complete certification requirements following award of a non-teaching degree. His study found that the majority of the population either had held high job aspirations or had held no job aspirations while undergraduates. Six of the 34 persons saw secondary teaching as a long-range vocational goal. The majority of the population were not highly successful in previous college and vocational endeavors, saw the secondary certification program as a means of entering fields other than classroom teaching, and were searching for some vocational direction which would satisfy unmet personal needs. His study lends support to the information cited earlier with respect to:

1. the lack of career planning of those entering secondary education
2. the teacher education program as a function of some other career choice.

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[145]Keller, p. 25.

[146]Keith P. Anderson, "A Study of College Graduates Certifying for Secondary School Teaching" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965).

While the population surveyed is not comparable to the students in this study, the findings are useful. Among those proposed by Anderson were that selection criteria be established for entering preservice students, that laboratory or field experience in the schools probably should be required at the outset of the certification program, that programs be developed to more adequately meet the individual needs of entering students,[147] and that personal interviews be conducted of those intending to enter the program.[148]

Factors affecting teacher manpower trends have been extensively reviewed through a series of Rand Reports. These reports summarize the current status of high school graduates going to college and college graduates becoming and staying teachers. Among the items noted in the reports, the following are significant summarizations provided by Keller:

High School Graduates Going to College:

1. More aspirations and money among lower class. (Lower class people may have different career patterns than middle class people---e.g. they are less likely to stop teaching when they get married.)

2. Changing perception of the value of a degree. (For many jobs, certification is becoming more necessary, but technological unemployment and a strong decertification movement could reduce the perceived value of going to school, or of certain majors.)

3. Counterculture (other escapes from home are now possible).

4. Draft, GI Bill (their termination will reduce the number of people in college, but only the one-fourth of new teachers who are men).

Teacher Firings:

1. Upgrade quality (or 'quality' as measured by advanced degrees).

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[147] Anderson, pp. 93-94.

[148] Anderson, p. 95.

2. Collective bargaining, strikes, and reprisals (the distinction between tenure and nontenure may be erased; flexibility in hiring special categories of teachers may continue to be difficult).

3. Attacks on tenure.

Demand for Teachers

1. Changes in education's share of government money. (This could rise through the growth of teachers as a political force, the Serrano decision, or money given to ghetto schools as a palliative for continued segregation. It could fall by the unpopularity of schools and property taxes, or by the growth of private schools).

2. Fertility rates.

3. New methods (teacher's aides, technology, and voucher and other experiments may lead to radical changes in student-teacher ratios).

4. Changes in age of school attendance (nursery school, day care, earlier or later end of mandatory attendance, end of any mandatory attendance).

5. Decline or collapse of parochial schools.[149]

Potential teacher demand may be created by early retirements, part-time teaching provisions, or reducing teaching load as one ages. These considerations potentially impact on the information base the potential teacher utilizes in making the decision to enter a preservice program. Gage suggests that:

> Social and cultural forces impinge upon occupants of the teacher status, and thereby upon the teaching-learning process, in two distinct ways: by determining who engages in the teaching occupation and by affecting directly those persons so engaged.[150]

Thus, the "low prestige" often attributed to the teaching occupation, for example, may discourage certain people from entering or

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[149]Keller, pp. 27-28.

[150]Gage, p. 717.

remaining in the profession; it may demoralize or otherwise reduce the attitudes and/or efficiency of those who choose to remain in the profession.

Once the decision has been made to become and stay a teacher, certain descriptors are readily available as noted earlier.

The Nature of Interests in Occupational Choice

When a person states a like or dislike of something, he/she is considered to have "specific interest," or expressed interest. Expressed interest is "the verbal profession of interest in an object, activity, task, or occupation."[151]

Specified interests appear to vary with the maturity of the individual. Super and Crites report that at least four studies have shown that expressions of interest in an occupation are contingent on the manner in which the question of interest is phrased.[152] Since questions may be stated to elicit information from one of three perspectives, the degree of realism of preferences varies with the question asked. Questions may be stated in terms of expectations, preferences, and/or fantasies.

Bordin[153] considers inventoried interests as reflection of a self-concept, and proposed the thesis that in answering an interest inventory a person is guided by his self-concept and by his occupation

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[151]E. S. Bordin, "A Theory of Vocational Interests as Dynamic Phenomena," Educational Psychological Measurement, 3:49-66, 59, April, 1943.

[152]Super and Crites, p. 378.

[153]Bordin, p. 53.

stereotypes. Thus, a student who sees himself as a teacher, would answer an interest question as he believes a teacher would. The self-concept then matches the stereotype.

Super and Crites suggest instead that:

> . . . in answering the questions in an interest inventory an individual records a series of self-perceptions, which in turn are summated by the scoring scale in such a way as to reveal the similarity or dissimilarity of his self-concept to the self-concept which has been found to be characteristic of persons in the cccupation being scored.[154]

Theories of occupational interest are useful in reviewing antecedent characteristics of a population. To the extent that these theories are utilized in formal occupational interest inventories, they have no bearing on the description of the study population. But, to the extent that the theories are inherent in a general discussion of teacher-trainee statements of occupational interest they are applicable. Research in the field of occupational interest appears to verify several basic constructs, including:

1. Interest patterns are related to degree of general intelligence.

2. Attitudes such as liberalism and social adjustment are related to interest patterns, even prior to occupational experiences. (This may also be true of values, which are presumably more deep-seated aspects of personality.)

2. Personality adjustment in the sense of feelings of adequacy and security has not been shown to be related to interest patterns, but social adjustment does appear to be.

4. Experiences such as courses in school and college, and staying in an occupation over a long period of time, appear to have no appreciable effect on inventoried interests, although the experiences of the first two years of college training in professional fields have been shown, perhaps because of the importance of the first real contact with a field, to have some effect on inventoried interests.

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[154]Super and Crites, pp. 407-408.

5. Those who leave a field of training while in college tend to undergo a decline of interest in that field after leaving, and those who change to a field tend to show some increase in related interests after they have made the change, but these changes are not on the whole very great.[155]

Thses constructs lead Super and Crites to conclude that "adequate theories of interest(s) must build on the findings concerning the relationship between general aptitude and interest, which implies that in some instances aptitude probably does come first."[156]

Nachman[157] and others have demonstrated causal relationships between values, temperament, personality traits and needs. Thus, in any attempt to describe expressed interests, per se, the fact of multiple causation, principles of interaction, and joint contributory factors of nature/nurture become operational.

Occupational Success

In an article written over thirty years ago, Stott[158] stressed the necessity to refine the concept of occupational success to recognize its limited value. Eleven years later, the same writer[159] after attempting to define occupational success in terms of five concepts, concluded that the word "success" had so many meanings that it had lost its value

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[155]Super and Crites, p. 409

[156]Super and Crites, p. 408.

[157]Barbara Nachman, "Childhood Experience and Vocational Choice in Law, Dentistry, and Social Work," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 7:243-250, February, 1960.

[158]M. B. Stott, "Occupational Success," Occupational Psychology, 13:126-140, February, 1939.

[159]M. B. Stott, "What Is Occupational Success?", Occupational Psychology, 24:195-112, November, 1950.

as a technical term and should be limited to description of the attainment of self-chosen goals. Davies[160] agreed that occupational success should be judged from a variety of standpoints, but stressed its emotional basis. He used success to refer to a pattern of attitudes built up towards a worker by himself and by those who judged his performance. Reeves[161] agreed that we do not need to seek unchallengeable criteria of occupational success. He suggested the use of limited criteria for a limited period of time.

Vernon[162] outlined the need for immediate, intermediate and long-term criteria of measures of "success." The comments of these occupational psychologists serve to suggest the serious problems encountered in any study of definition of occupational success.

Mitzel[163] points out that although we have seen more than half a century of research in the field of teacher education, no standards yet exist which are generally agreed as the criteria of successful teaching. He suggests that the task of identifying effective teachers is crucial

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[160] J. G. Davies, "What Is Occupational Success?", Occupational Psychology, 24:7-17, November, 1950.

[161] J. W. Reeves, "What Is Occupational Success?", Occupational Psychology, 24:153-159, November, 1950.

[162] P. E. Vernon, "The Criterion Problem in Selection and Guidance," Occupational Psychology, 39:93-99, May, 1965.

[163] M. E. Mitzel, "Teacher Effectvveness," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. C. W. Harris (3d ed., New York: Macmillan, 1960), pp. 102-103.

to teacher education, certification, selection, and promotion. Cope[164] argues that "since total research into teacher education in this country (Britain) has been so limited, it seems a pity that so much of it has concentrated on selection, evaluation, and prediction." She believes it is necessary to focus more attention on the objectives and processes of training. "The brutal fact is," she says, "that in spite of over 2,000 studies we have no objective criteria of what constitutes teacher competence." Her statement is comparable to similar thoughts in the United States.

Biddle and Ellena[165] draw attention to the cultural, social and physical influences which modify a teacher's performance. Attempts at evaluation of teacher success have been subjected to criticism, particularly since "success" is a relative term, not yet clearly defined and agreed upon by those in the profession. "Success", it is theorized, hinges on the criteria being used as measures of success; these criteria appear to be relative in nature and subject to modification because of internal/external forces.

Attempts to predict success in teaching, generally while in practice teaching as a student, by means of intelligence tests have met with the same lack of success as similar investigations of executives and salesmen. Seagoe[166] correlated success in practice teaching with

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[164]E. Cope, "School Experience and Student Learning," The Education of Teachers in Britain, ed. D. E. Lomax (London: Wiley, 1972), pp. 102-103.

[165]Biddle and Ellena.

[166]M. V. Seagoe, "Prognostic Tests and Teaching Success," Journal of Educational Research, 38:685-690, September, 1945.

scores on a variety of tests, including the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen. She found no relationship between measured intelligence and rated teaching performance. She did find some positive results in the area of personality.

Tests for the evaluation of preparedness have been developed by the Educational Testing Service. These tests, titled "National Teacher Examinations," are administered annually to candidates for teaching position wishing an objective record of mastery of subject matter. The test results may be made available to possible employers.[167]

Shile such tests may be useful in the identification of teachers and their probable teaching success, they have not been validated against criteria of success on the job. For this reason, Super and Crites conclude that "The numbers in studies (completed) are small and criteria of success need to be improved, before objective selection procedures can be considered adequate in this field."[168]

More interesting is their conclusion that ". . . as long as teaching remains an underpaid occupation with too few applicants for available positions there is not likely to be much pressure for the development of better selection methods, at least in most training institutions."[169]

While the number of applicants for positions has increased significantly since 1962 (the date of the revised text) the need for

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[167] Super and Crites, p. 372.

[168] Super and Crites, p. 372.

[169] Super and Crites, p. 373.

selection methods, and statements of "success" criteria, in this writer's opinion, remains necessary and valid considerations in any teacher education program.

Many countries employ various measures of academic performance to select students for courses of teacher training. If our main intention is to select students who will gain academic and, thus, assumedly occupational success, these may be appropriate procedures. It is possible, however, that concentrating on academic potential may lead to neglect of other talents of equal importance to success in teaching. Thus, using a wider view of human values, we might select students capable of making important contributions to later community life (beyond the college classroom). Such a perspective is given support by various writers, including Richards, Holland and Lutz.[170]

Self-Concept/Attitudes

A basic tenet of self-concept theory is that behavior, or performance, is a function of self-concept. If the teacher's self-concept has a direct relation to the student's performance, then the relationship of teacher self-concept to his own performance (role perception) and potential occupational success is especially important. Whatever behavior characteristics the preservice student may have, relates somewhat to his self-concept and his attitude toward teaching.

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[170] J. M. Richards, J. L. Holland, and S. W. Lutz, "Prediction of Student Accomplishment in College," Journal of Educational Psychology, 58:343-353, November, 1967.

Attitude has been defined by Thurstone in Edwards' Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction as ". . . the degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object."[171] A psychological object can be any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, ideal, or idea toward which people can differ with respect to positive or negative affect. Attitude can also be defined as positive or negative evaluations or emotional feelings. To the extent that behavior is a function of attitude, it is of central concern to the teacher education program.

The effects of negative attitudes toward students (ethnocentrism) are reflected in studied teachers' attempts to avoid teaching in inner-city schools.[172] Green[173] concluded that most school personnel are meeting with experiences in the teaching setting for which their training has not prepared them. His survey of ten major teacher training institutions showed that those institutions were not realistically facing the problem(s) of providing quality teachers for urban youth.

Ulibarri[174] came to the same conclusion in his study of attitudes toward minority groups.

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[171]Allen L. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, 1957), p. 13.

[172]Robert Rosenthal and L. Jacobson, Pygmalion in the Classroom (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968).

[173]Robert L. Green, Crisis in American Education: A Racial Dilemma, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 015 980, November, 1967.

[174]Ulibarri.

Dayton[175] reporting on teacher turnover on Pine Ridge Reservation during 1965-67, found that most (57 percent) resigned because of the administration, isolation, or for personal reasons. The majority of the teachers who left the profession were women, mainly for personal reasons, retirement, health, or marriage. Administration was the reason men list most often for leaving. The study showed that more than half of the vacancies were created by the teachers under 30 or over 50 and that approximately 41 percent of the new teachers, if they complete their first year, do not return for a second year. Such statistics as these are not as readily available for the "standard" secondary school, but do suggest that:

1. The average age of teachers, in BIA schools at least, is made up of those persons between the ages of 30 and 50, or 40 years of age (consistent with the average age cited earlier).
2. A large number of first-year teachers lack coping skills for unique teaching circumstances.

A longitudinal effort to improve the quality of instruction in urban schools has been carried on by the Mid-Continental Regional Educational Laboratory (McRel)[176] since 1962. A part of McRel's effort

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[175] Jerome L. Dayton, "Reasons Why Teachers Leave Bureau of Indian Affairs Schools on Pine Ridge Reservation" (unpublished Master's Project Paper, Northern State College, Aberdeen, South Dakota, July, 1971). (ERIC No. ED 084 046).

[176] Lowell A. Seymour and others, Mid-Continental Regional Educational Laboratory, Inc., Kansas City, Mo. (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, August, 1973). (ERIC No. ED 096 155).

included the Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Project which contains preservice and inservice training for teachers of minoirty group cultures. The project for pre and inservice teachers provided experience of a direct-contact type, thus giving continuity to the entire urban teaching experience.

The joining of pre and inservice training into a continuous effort to improve teacher attitudes and behaviors toward minority group children is a move in the direction of involving teachers in continuous analysis of their behaviors toward the children they will (or do) teach. Attitude and performance appear to be closely related.

Johada and Warren have pointed out that ". . . attitudes are related to, but to be distinguished from 'personality,' and related to, but to be distinguished from 'culture.' 'Personality' refers to the total organization of internal psychological functioning."[177] Thus, attitudes are much less global than is personality and may be considered as a person's disposition to react in certain ways towards classes of objects.

That deeply held ethnic-racial attitudes are difficult to change has been recognized and substantiated by various social and psychological research studies. Leacock[178] examined the social preparation of teachers of minority group children and presented a value development model for helping teachers to deal with the value differences they might have with minority group children.

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[177] M. Johada and N. Warren, Attitudes (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penquin Books, 1966), p. 64.

[178] Eleanor Burke Leacock, Teaching and Learning in City Schools (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1969).

Most of the programs and studies reported, thus far, focus on involving pre and inservice teachers in classroom and community situations which involve them with culturally different children and adults.

Studies like Mazor's[179] seem to indicate that education students' attitudes toward culturally different children are changed by experiential contact. Such studies must be read with caution. Nevertheless, these studies indicate that personal values may be of greater significance than self-concept or social origin per se when related to the general attitudes of the preservice teacher. The value position held by the preservice teacher, particularly within the timeframe prior to the student teaching experience, is one about which little information is available. What is available is most often reflected through demographic data on family background, self-concept and/or personality factors from which certain inferences as to "attitude" are made. Interaction studies of teachers, rather than of preservice students, are characteristic of this group of research efforts.

Information is lacking on the nature and extent of "coping" skills experiences provided to teachers-in-preparation. Various studies support the need for inclusion of these experiences in the preparatory program. The relationships between self-concept and development of "coping" skills are not clear but appear to be interwoven with attitudes and behavior patterns as a reflection of self-concept (personality).

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[179]Gilbert Mazor, "Attitude and Personality Change of Student Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth," The Journal of Educational Research, 63:116-120, November, 1969.

Ulibarri,[180] Green,[181] and Gould[182] support the contention that teacher education programs are not presently providing graduates who are able to cope with urban school problem(s). The thesis is that the life and educational experiences, particularly for potential teachers with middle-class values and attitudes, have kept them (teachers) isolated from the realities of life that exist in urban schools. They often lack exposure to the school setting and also to an expression of their own feelings about the culturally or ethnically different child. Such factors led Rosenthal and Jacobson to state that from the pupil-teacher relationship, ". . . his (the students) shortcoming may originate not in his different ethnic, cultural and economic background, but in his teachers response to that background."[183]

A teacher's response to a culturally different background is, in part, the result of his own cultural, socio-economic background; it is an expression of his value system. These attitudes may potentially contribute to the teacher's attitude toward the culturally or socio-economically different child; they may also function as a criteria in

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[180]Ulibarri.

[181]Gordon Green, "A Comparison of Attitudes, Values and Dogmatism of College Juniors and Seniors," Journal of Teacher Education, 23:343-347, Fall, 1972.

[182]Nathan Gould, "Concern for Attitudes and Behavior," Culture Shock, eds. Gerald Weinstein, and others (Albany, New York: Bureau of Inservice Education, Division of Teacher Education and Certification, State Department of Education, 1967), p. 18. (ERIC No. ED 012 734).

[183]Robert Rosenthal and L. Jacobson, "Teacher Expectations for the Disadvantaged," Scientific American, 218:19-23, February, 1968.

career choice and affect one's satisfaction with that choice. Job satisfaction and success are often contingent on value structures as they impact upon the pupil-teacher relationship. A study by Leslie, Lewin, and Wampler[184] found job satisfaction to be the main outcome of pre and post-service training with disadvantaged children by teacher education students. A resolution adopted by the National Education Association in May, 1965, states that the association should:

> Promote and conduct recruitment activities, working with teacher training institutions in revising teacher preparation requirements to include training in intergroup relations and in the skills and attitudes necessary for teachers working with children of differing economic, racial, and ethnic backgrounds.[185]

Personality

Personality may be defined from a global viewpoint, with respect to interaction analysis, and/or as a pattern of traits or ways of reacting to external stimuli. These concepts of personality as a patterning of traits is reflected in various so-called "personality" tests. Approaches to the relationships between personality and temperament traits as related to school or work success or satisfaction, have generally followed one of two patterns:

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[184]Larry Leslie, Joel Levin and David Wampler, "The Effect of Pre-Service Experience With the Disadvantaged on First Year Teachers in Disadvantaged Schools," Education and Urban Society, 3:398-414, August, 1971.

[185]National Education Association, Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities, 1965, Report of the Second National NEA Conference on Civil and Human Rights in Education, May 10-11, 1965 (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1965), p. 21. (ERIC No. ED 019 351).

1. Clinical analysis

2. Psychometric appraisal

Review of these two patterns led Super and Crites to conclude that:

> One reason for the lack of adequate objective evidence on the vocational and educational significance of personality traits is that students of vocational and educational adjustment have generally been interested not in vocations or in education, but in management, aptitudes, or instruction, while student of personality have generally been interested, not in vocations or education, but in psychological theory or clinical diagnosis.[186]

Trends in the development of personality measures appear to lean toward projective devices. More recently there has been a trend in refining various inventory techniques. Low validity in early personality inventories has been cited as one reason for the refinement of these measures. "The improved personality inventories and biographical data blanks seem . . . to be better stopgaps while the subtler projective techniques are being objectified and validated."[187]

For purposes of this review, mention is made of personality measures only to point to the apparent shortcoming of such measures. In addition, it is necessary to recall that personality is generally used as a generic term to include many subtopics previously discussed in greater detail (interest, self-concept, attitudes, social origin influences, etc.).

Personality diagnosis is used in vocational guidance and personnel work to "screen problem cases and to assist in the making of more effective adjustments."[188] Such a process has direct theoretical implications in the teacher education process, particularly in terms of encouraging/discouraging potential teachers into career pursuits.

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[186] Super and Crites, p. 516.

[187] Super and Crites, p. 579.

[188] Super and Crites, p. 518.

It is possible to relate in a sequential manner the various tenets and related research. The theory is that self-concept leads to behavior; behavior is expressed as personality tendencies, and behavior leads to or relates to student performance. Therefore, a teacher's self-concept affects performance of students he/she teaches in an indirect manner.

The development of positive self-concept can lead to effective teaching behavior potential. It can also lead to potential career decision satisfactions which may be reflected through actual teaching performance and classroom interaction.

PART 3: REVIEW OF LITERATURE - EVALUATION

Descriptive research, intended to provide information on the process of change, can provide an identification of focus. This is accomplished through evaluation which may be of a formal or informal nature. The literature of evaluation may be characterized generally as dealing with the following types of evaluation: process, product, decision-making or judgmental, objective or result-oriented, formative or summative, institutional or non-institutional.

Evaluation may be based on such factors as the success of former students, existing programs versus projected needs (what is against what ought to be) staff competencies and facilities, curricular offerings, and results (student outcomes), and community or social values.

The critical reader is invited to recall that descriptive research involves the collection of data for the purpose of describing conditions

as they exist (status research).[189] It makes no attempt to establish cause-effect relationships when particularly compared to evaluative research, which does attempt assessment and valuing statements (appropriate or inappropriateness). The selected review of evaluation literature, therefore, places particular emphasis on evaluation models with recognition that it is the descriptive portion of the model which initially interests this researcher.

Stufflebeam and Hall[190] developed an evaluation model called CIPP (context, input, process, product). His model is primarily designed to delineate, obtain, and provide useful information for judging decision alternatives in the four decision types identified.

Tyler[191] developed an evaluation model as the result of an eight-year study. The primary intent of his model is to compare student performance with behavioral stated outcomes: it is, therefore, built on pre-specified criteria and closely related to performance objectives. The Tyler model is primarily a decision-making model, as is the Stufflebeam model.

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[189]Gilbert Sax, Empirical Foundations of Educational Research (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p. 288.

[190]Daniel Stufflebeam and F. Hall, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, Publishers, Inc., 1971).

[191]R. W. Tyler, "The Development of Instruments for Assessing Educational Progress," Phi Delta Kappan, 47:13-16, January, 1965.

Alkin[192] and his associates at the Center for the Study of Evaluation at UCLA, Los Angeles, California, see evaluation as a process of first identifying and then quantatifying or measuring the relationship between student input and educational outputs. Their design is concerned with determining the combination of mediating factors which maximize the educational outputs, given a constant financial input, and controlling for the effects of external systems. Alkin's model may be characterized as a macro-system for evaluation involving external systems interacting with the internal system (student and financial input and student-non-student output).

Starr and Dieffenderfer[193] developed an evaluation model for use with vocational education programs. It consists of three phases: system elements, evaluation, and program planning. The model uses student outcomes as a means of evaluating programs; that is, the "process" is evaluated by looking at the "product". The model was designed for the statewide evaluation of vocational education programs and its use, therefore, is limited in spite of its internal comprehensive approach.

Another administrative model (decision-making model) is that developed by Malcolm Provus.[194] The Provus "discrepancy model" is similar

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[192]Marvin C. Alkin, Towards an Evaluation Model: A Systems Approach, UCLA Center for the Study of Evaluation, Working Paper No. 4 (Los Angeles: UCLA, 1967). (ERIC No. ED 104 150).

[193]Harold Starr and Richard A. Diffenderfer, A System for Statewide Evaluation of Vocational Education (Columbus, Ohio: Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1972).

[194]Malcolm Provus, Discrepancy Evaluation for Education Program Improvement and Assessment (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Company, 1971).

to Stufflebeam's. It consists of criterion references designed to provide process and product as well as cost-benefit analyses. The discrepancy model is designed primarily for use with ongoing programs; it provides for continuous investigation.

Provus defines program evaluation as the process of: (1) defining program standards (2) determining whether a discrepancy exists between some aspects of program performance and the standards (proposed design) governing that aspect of the program (3) using discrepancy information either to change performance or to change program standards.

He is careful to state that although evaluation has to do with a discrepancy between performance and standard, one can never be certain the standard is right; it is always quite arbitrary.

These five models for evaluation are not unique in and of themselves. They are provided only as a frame of reference, from among many available, to point to the variations in evaluation formating and the purposes for which evaluations are conducted.

Consideration of one other model is pertinent to this brief review---the Stake model.[195] The issue, for Stake, is the potential contribution of formal evaluation to education. Stake, therefore, proposes a model of evaluation which addresses itself to several audiences including society spokesmen, subject matter specialists, parents, and students. His model is intended to describe and judge in a formal setting of inquiry and design. It is a global process rather than a closed theory. The model incorporates description of antecedent (prior to the process),

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[195]Robert E. Stake, "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation," The Record (Teachers College), 5:523-540, April, 1967.

transactions (applications of knowledge), and outcomes (final products); it contains both a descriptive and judgmental process as model components.

The Stake model requires a criteria of congruence and contingence. Within each element the intended and observed data is matched by congruence; it is also examined for contingence. Relationships are expressed within each component of the descriptive matrix. The judgment matrix consists of two cells including a (1) "standard" cell which may consist of relative or absolute standards, and a (2) judgmental cell from which the evaluator matches description against standards in an absolute comparison basis. From that comparison a judgment is made. The evaluative criteria is identified in the model solely in terms of the outcome compared to the standards selected.

Summary of Evaluation Models and Precepts

Educational evaluation demands both measurement and valuing. Measurement requires the use of a procedure to quantify and hold up against an arbitrary standard to provide an objective description. "Valuing" requires a procedure for assessing the objective description in terms of its worth to allow the objective data to be related to some basis of value and significance.

We evaluate, assumably, to make programs better and to make better policies within which we can orient these programs; evaluation is aimed at making specific decisions and/or taking specific actions. Evaluation is a service provided for decision-makers, it should serve to identify both the impact and the effectiveness of the education program. Most educational evaluation is concerned with comparisons. An evaluation is incomplete until what is is related to what is desired or intended. The

assessment of educational programs and services have at least three aspects: (1) information or data gathering, (2) evaluation and (3) planning. Evaluation, per se, implies determining what is important and weighing the status quo against identified values and aspirations. It represents the focal problem in a continuous assessment program. "Valuing" is a subjective rather than objective process.

Application of Evaluation Models to Teacher Education

Educational evaluation is expected to serve many different purposes and different publics. Yet, this writer has been unable to find specific information written relating evaluation models to an evaluation of a college or university teacher education curriculum. The implication in all of the materials reviewed is that such evaluation activities are applicable to elementary, secondary and, perhaps, post-secondary curriculum, but not necessarily appropriate to teacher education curriculum.

Nonetheless, in principle, any curriculum can be subject to an assessment or evaluation process.

If, as Schwab[196] has indicated, curriculum is the language of the practical, the curriculum planner and implementer is faced with the need to make choices. These choices are in problematic settings for which there are no valid or fully applicable theories. At best, only possible alternatives exist, each of which may be associated with a wide range of probable consequences.

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[196]Joseph J. Schwab, "The Practical: A Language for Curriculum," School Review, (78:1-23), November, 1969.

Evaluation, as an integral part of curriculum development in teacher education, must utilize the language of the practical. Within the context of any particular institution there are unique and distinct combinations of variables which need to be identified for the decision-maker.

A continuous search for observable, significant, and consistent review of what occurs under the direction of colleges of teacher education is one function of evaluative efforts. Another function is to determine within the complexity of design whether or not descriptive or experimental models are appropriate or even necessary to the study of the teacher education process.

Guba and Stufflebeam[197] suggest that evaluation, or the process of information gathering for decision-making purposes, must become as integral a part of curriculum as is instruction.

There have been increased efforts in program evaluation within the teacher education institutions in more recent years, particularly as related to the NCATE Standard, #5 - Evaluation.[198]

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[197] Egon G. Guba and Daniel L. Stufflebeam, "Evaluation: The Process of Stimulating, Aiding and Abetting Insightful Action," (an address delivered at the Second National Symposium for Professors of Educational Research, Boulder, Colorado, November 21, 1968). (Mimeographed.)

[198] A Brief Summary of Evaluation Efforts by Various Colleges and Universities Relative to NCATE Standard #5 - Evaluation (Washington, D.C.: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1972).

Mills suggests that:

> . . . findings from such [evaluation] studies are making it possible to map . . . the relationships between curriculum design and implementation, between process and product, in each of these institutional settings. These findings . . . are of value in suggesting potentially productive avenues of investigation for other institutions to consider in conceptualizing and modifying their own evaluation procedures.[199]

These will be discussed in Chapter 5, recommendations.

SUMMARY

The history of teacher education has been characterized as largely an emergent, but yet static function within the last seventy years. This is the result of many interrelated phenomena, including the variety of opinions existing with respect to the pupil-teacher relational process, the university as a socialization agent in the preparation of teachers, the continual controversy over the placement of the teacher education program within the college of education, and the reflective mode used in identifying teacher education (particularly preservice) needs.

These needs are most often determined on the basis of studies of practicing teachers, or teachers as they are practicing to teach via the student teaching experience. Most of the studies are within the context of the classroom as an interaction atmosphere in which multiple variables impact on the "success" of the teacher/pupil relationships and learning environment. To the extent that the teacher appears to have a stable self-concept, and is philosophically anchored, the classroom atmosphere is enhanced. To the extent that the teacher is dogmatic, closed-minded,

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[199] Mills, p. 2.

ethnocentric, and so forth, the classroom atmosphere is diminished in effectiveness and, therefore, in terms of student accomplishment.

Student teaching, as a learning-practicing activity has been severely criticized because of its late placement in the teacher education process. Many contend that it is an exercise in futility because it does not relate theory to practice. Thus, after considerable research, several alternative programs have been developed in both elementary and secondary teacher education programs.

Alternative teacher education programs, including one at Michigan State University heretofore not described, have been described in terms of program components, funding levels, and unique characteristics.

The question of whether or not teaching is, in fact, a profession was reviewed from the perspective of the occupational theorists as well as from the perspective of teachers in the "profession." While the issue of definition is not resolved, it serves as a basic reference throughout the remaining portions of the literature discussed.

Generic characteristics of the teacher as an occupational group are described in terms of family background, attitudes, commitment to the profession, and status of the profession. Brief reviews are given on items impacting on one's occupational choice, such as interest, aptitude, and career selection.

Finally, various evaluation models have been briefly described with particular emphasis on the Stake model. The Stake Model, particularly is reviewed as it has direct relationship as a potential model to be used in an evaluation of the Secondary Education Pilot Program at MSU.

The relationship of information reviewed in the literature provides a conceptual perspective from which to compare portions of the data which

follow in Chapter 4 and will be used to support recommendations in Chapter 5. The literature review provides a basic reference for findings and recommendations to be proposed in Chapter 5. Other supportive data is provided in Chapter 4, Findings.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Prior to data collection, the population was identified, instruments were selected for use in the study, dates were scheduled for administration of the instruments, and the necessary explanatory materials were prepared.

The purpose of this chapter is to present:

1. an identification of the population
2. the procedures utilized in the treatment of data
3. a description of a specially-constructed questionnaire developed for use in the study.

Identification of the Population

The population defined for the study included "any freshman or sophomore student currently admitted into and enrolled in the alternative secondary teacher education program (SEPP)." This definition excluded those students who had been accepted into the program but were no longer actively participating. Also excluded were those students who were actively participating in the Secondary Education Pilot Program, but for whom complete information was lacking. Thus, the definition included all those persons who took the following required steps:

1. Agreed, on invitation, to participate in the study.
2. Attended an orientation session and/or received personal instructions on how to complete the necessary instruments.

3. Completed the instruments in their entirety.

The population involved in the study consisted of first and second-year students enrolled at Michigan State University in an approved teacher education program.

Selection of the Population

Information about the population under study was obtained from the 1973 and 1974 computer printout from the Registrar's Office at Michigan State University of those students with declared majors in secondary education. Additional specific information was obtained from the official list of students enrolled in SEPP, provided by the Director of the Program, Dr. Samuel S. Corl.

Each student on the computer printout, which included those students enrolled in SEPP, was assigned an identifying number.

The instructor responsible for the beginning regular program course, Ed 200, "The Individual and the School," was contacted to gain his permission to contact students registered in the class and to ask their volunteer participation in the study. After securing his agreement, necessary room arrangements were made, materials prepared, announcements made in the classes and letters distributed (See Appendix B).

On a volunteer basis, and within the criteria of "enrolled at Michigan State University in Fall, 1973, and interested in teaching in a secondary education program" students volunteered and completed the instrumentation. The result of this effort netted 67 responses from students who were not part of the Secondary Education Pilot Program.

Data gathering procedure. The subjects chosen to respond to the instruments were contacted by mail. A first class letter was sent to the subjects requesting their participation and cooperation. The contents of the envelope were:

1. a letter of invitation (See Appendix C and D)
2. a return, stamped, self-addressed post card indicating ability or inability to attend the scheduled session(s) (See Appendix E)

After the initial mailing, a follow-up letter was sent to those who had not yet returned the post card indicating willingness to participate in the scheduled instrumentation session(s).

A second follow-up post card or telephone call(s) to those who had returned the post card and who were willing to participate in the scheduled instrumentation session(s) was accomplished. Students were asked to complete the following instruments:

1. Kerlinger Education VI Scale
2. Rokeach
3. A/P Scale (Appendix F)
4. Personal Background Questionnaire (Appendix G)
5. Cattell 16 P. F.

Continued efforts were made to contact SEPP students to complete their data sets (Appendix H). As a result, 65 Freshmen and 56 Sophomore SEPP students completed responses, bringing the N response for SEPP to 121, representing 74% of the SEPP population. Table 1 describes the total responses of the SEPP and NS groups.

Table 1

Number of Responses by SEPP and Non-SEPP Students
Based on Original Enrollees

Group "N"	Subgroup	No. Responses	% of Population
80**	SEPP 1	65	81
83	SEPP 2	56	67
Unknown	ED 200	67	Unknown
Totals			
100%		188	74

**Eighty-five freshmen were accepted in the SEPP; five of these never participated in the program nor in the study. Thus, the true N = 80.

A total of 143 variables were studied, utilizing five basic documents which included the Attitude/Perceptions Scale, the Kerlinger Scale VI, the Rokeach, the Cattell 16 P. F. and Personal Background Questionnaire. Average time needed by the students to complete the materials was approximately two hours with the 16 P. F. scheduled at a separate time, requiring an additional 45 minutes. This necessitated two sittings per person in order to complete the full data set.

The procedures utilized for responses to the various instruments included tabulation of responses in original form, developing raw scores, and conducting data transformations, where necessary, to make scores or personal data compatible to various pre-existing computer programs. Data was coded and punched on data processing cards for use with the various equipment and programs available at the Michigan State University Computer Laboratory.

Following this step, one item on the Attitude/Perception Scale (to be described in a latter portion of this Chapter) was reviewed and reverse scored.

Cumulative scores were developed for the Kerlinger, Rokeach, 16 P. F. and A/P Scale.

In cases where responses dealt with quantitative data, several statistical procedures were utilized for analysis purposes. Analysis of variance was used to analyze four of the instruments, including the Kerlinger Scale VI, the Rokeach, the Cattell 16 P. F. and the A/P Scores. This analysis provided means, standard deviations, and tests of signifcance for each item. The computer program provided an effective recording of the significance of difference among the three groups and within the various instruments. Unless otherwise noted, the 5 percent level of probability was adopted as the criterion of significance.

For purposes of exploring relationships, a correlation matrix was also utilized. A total of 61 variables were considered in the matrix. Other remaining variables were considered as demographic data and were treated in a contingency table expressed as frequency and percent of response. Chi-Squares were developed.

Helmert contrasts were used to test three hypotheses.

Finally, a Hoyt Reliability and factor analysis was conducted on the Attitude/Perceptions Scale. Results of these analyses will be reported in Chapter 4.

All data manipulation was accomplished using the Computer Services Center at Michigan State University.

Once data transformations had been completed, a trial printout was run. A visual survey was made of the complete computer printout;

all student data sets were reviewed. Any student having incomplete information as represented through items omitted on an instrument and/or a complete instrument missing were deleted from the study.

A total of 194 data sets were received, six of which were removed because the students were known to have withdrawn from Michigan State University. Following the visual review, the number of usable data sets was reduced to 139, distributed according to the information in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Summary of Response and Usable Responses By Population Groups

Subgroup	No. Returned N	%	Unusable N	%	Usable N	%
S1	65	100.0	17	26.1	48	73.8
S2	56	100.0	13	56.2	43	76.7
NS	67	100.0	19	28.3	48	71.6
Total	188		49		139	

Twenty-six percent of the data sets were unusable.

The remaining 139 usable data sets were utilized in the development of contingency tables, the Kerlinger and Rokeach raw score lists, and the various correlation matrix.

In 67 of the data sets, a second visual review indicated that one or two response items were missing within a particular instrument, the A/P scale. Thus, in accomplishing the Hoyt Reliability and factor analysis of this particular document, the 67 responses were removed,

giving a total of 121 responses considered for this portion of the data analysis only.

The final element of the data procedures involved the analysis and interpretation of the data, which is described and presented in Chapter 4.

DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

Withdrawing (Official "Drop") SEPP Students

The first year of the Secondary Education Pilot Program was characterized by the admittance of 83 students, each entering the program on a volunteer basis. The second year of the program there were a total of 85 students accepted in the program; five of these never participated.

At the time of the conclusion of the study (March, 1975) the following information was gathered as to the current enrollment status of the SEPP students.

1. Freshmen SEPP students: Six students had withdrawn from both SEPP and Michigan State University. One other student had withdrawn from SEPP, but not from Michigan State University. None of the six who withdrew are known to have transferred to other schools or to have continued schooling elsewhere. Students in this group had been enrolled at Michigan State University for two or less registration terms.

2. Sophomore SEPP students: Thirteen students had withdrawn from SEPP. Of that number, seven are known to have withdrawm from both SEPP and Michigan State University to continue their schooling elsewhere, including seminary, other Michigan universities (Western Michigan

University, Central Michigan University, University of Michigan), community college and/or other out-of-state universities (Drexel, Emerson University in Boston).

Of the thirteen withdrawing students, five remained at Michigan State University to continue their studies. One other student was married and withdrew from school, in addition to the seven others continuing their schooling elsewhere. The withdrawals from the sophomore SEPP class are represented in Table 3, with information on all SEPP students.

Table 3

Enrollment Status of Freshmen and Sophomore SEPP Students at Time of Conclusions of the Study (March, 1975)

Group	Entered	Withdrew/Program	Withdrew/School	% Remaining
SEPP 1	80	1	6	91.3
SEPP 2	83	5	8	84.3

(N = 163)

Finally, an additional five students had indicated to the Director of the Program that they might drop school for reasons including grades and finances. These potential "drops" were not confirmed at the time of the study as they would have officially withdrawn from school (MIchigan State University) and/or the program (SEPP) after the close of the Winter Term ending, March, 1975. These withdrawals would also have occurred past the study termination date.

The Attitude/Perception Scale (Appendix F)

During the preliminary review of literature on attitude scales for use in university settings, it was determined that there were a limited number of such scales available and considered appropriate to the study. A scale most nearly resembling what was desired was found in the College and University Environment Scale, (CUES) Second Edition, available from Educational Testing Service. The Scale is devised to measure seven areas including practicality of the environment, community awareness, propriety, campus morale, and quality of teaching and faculty-student relationships.[1]

Dressel states that "the instrument is a kind of polling device which summarizes students' opinion with regard to the existence or non-existence of certain characteristics on the campus."[2] There is no provision for computing individual scores on this particular instrument. Finally, the instrument is not recommended for use with college freshmen. Thus, it was not appropriate for several reasons.

One other consideration affected the decision to structure a scale for use in the study; that is, that CUES asks students to indicate whether or not the total college environment is characterized by certain statements contained within CUES. Alternate approaches to the same questions can be obtained by avoiding a perceptual approach as is used in CUES and, instead, structuring statements which are more objective in

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[1]Robert C. Pace, "College and University Environment Scales," Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook, ed. Oscar K. Buros (2d ed., Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1972), p. 106.

[2]Paul L. Dressel, "Review of CUES," Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook ed. Oscar K. Buros (2d ed., Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon ress, 1972), pp. 108-110.

nature. No such instrument was found to be available and which covered the range of topics desired. Thus, the decision was made to construct an instrument designed to determine the particular perceptions and attitudes of the students at Michigan State University.

Items contained in the Attitude/Perceptions Scale (A/P Scale) were developed on the basis of several criteria which included:

1. The statement was to be stated in a positive manner.
2. The content of the statement was to be representative of the total university, wherever possible, and was to place emphasis on the relation of the staff to the student.
3. The statement was to be representative of positive and/or negative reactions shown in the literature with respect to how former teacher education students "rated" their university experiences (not necessarily at Michigan State University but in some teacher education program).
4. The content of the statement was to be self-campus related, thereby providing the student with a personalized framework from which to respond to the statement(s) on a Likert-type scale.
5. The content was to include a supplemental statement in which to identify a) degree of commitment to becoming a teacher and b) prior experiences in areas related to becoming a teacher; that is, to identify volunteer, work and leadership experiences which might have some potential relation to the decision having been made to become a teacher.

Item Construction

Following a review of the literature, fifty items were constructed for potential use. These items were screened by a student panel for readability, sense of the statement, and so forth. Following the students review, various items were dropped or modified.

Thirty-five revised items were then given to a different student panel of five undergraduates and three graduate students. Each student was asked to complete the Scale, as proposed, and on a separate sheet to comment on any items or instructions for completion which were unclear. Tabulation of their responses created the need to rewrite fourteen items and to eliminate five items for consideration on the final scale. Thus, thirty items were included on the Attitude/Perceptions Scale.

An additional three items composed the section titled "Out of School Experiences;" four other items asked for information on "Education and Career Plans." Results of these two special sections are presented in Chapter 4.

Reliability

Following tabulation, coding, and keypunching of the student responses to the A/P Scale, one item was removed because positive or negative response could not be determined. On the remaining 29 items, Hoyt Reliability was accomplished to test for item reliability. Helmstadter explains the handling of observed score variance in the following manner:

> According to Hoyt's formulation, variation in the performance of an individual from item to item is not considered to be error at all. Rather, it is a real (non-error) difference, an intra-individual difference, and one which should not be involved in the estimation of reliability. That is, total variation observed is conceived to

be made up of three components: true interindividual differences; intraindividual differences (measured by item variance), and error interindividual differences.[3]

Three tests of item reliability were completed, utilizing the Computer Services Center at Michigan State University. Using all 188 original responses (which included respondents missing items on the total set of study questionnaires, but did not include any who had not completed the A/P Scale), a reliability factor of .92 was given.

Using a reduced response which removed students who had not completed all of the study questionnaires including the A/P Scale, a reliability factor of .83 was given. This group represented the N = 139 used in the study.

Finally, using a reduced response which removed students who had "skipped" any one item on the A/P Scale, (N = 121) a reliability factor of .85 was given. It is important to note that these three computer analyses were conducted on each item of the A/P Scale.

An additional cross-verification was accomplished utilizing the sum of the A/P Scale scores. The Hoyt reliability by sum of scores was .85. Thus, it appears that both item and sum of scores obtain reliability above the .80 level, using the Hoyt Reliability formula.

Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was also accomplished on the A/P Scale. Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum[4] suggest that for factor analysis interpretation

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[3]G. C. Helmstadter, Principles of Psychological Measurement (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964), pp. 73-74.

[4]Charles E. Osgood, George Suci and Percy Tannenbaum, Measurement of Meaning (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1957), pp. 204-206.

Table 4

Attitude/Perception Scale: Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix*
Compared to Mean and Standard Deviation

	Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Mean	S.D.
VAR01	Understand University Staff services	.17880	.00660	.73491*	4.5180	1.2473
VAR02	Use information provided by staff	.24010	.12216	.57663*	4.5468	1.2753
VAR06	Staff has time to help with problems	.27319	.60084*	.38868	4.5971	1.6184
VAR07	They maintain confidentiality	.07595	.50869*	.36208	5.2950	.9045
VAR08	Staff knowledgeable on educational information	.17197	.51147*	.28319	4.7986	1.5189
VAR09	Competent in subject matter areas	.19709	.31044	.45458*	4.8705	1.2208
VAR10	Staff provides university orientation	.09388	.37961*	.10492	4.5036	1.3480
VAR11	Fellow students get procedures information	.21037	.46241*	.05141	4.5683	1.2397
VAR17	Staff knows students as individuals	.68736*	.01170	.28366	5.1655	1.2999

Table 4 (continued)

Variable		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Mean	S.D.
VAR18	Accurate information provided	.64153*	.22555	.26063	4.0719	1.7596
VAR20	Time spent with staff helpful in program decision	.70755*	.20940	.25393	4.6547	1.3551
VAR21	Time spent with staff helpful in career decisions	.67200*	.25808	.13369	3.9065	1.4391
VAR24	Able to reach staff generally	.26888	.63848*	.13607	4.7266	1.4183
VAR25	Staff referrals are honored by fellow staff	.29523	.49309*	.00955	4.4460	1.3735
VAR27	University staff interested and attentive during conversations	.50604*	.35773	.21471	5.0719	1.3002
VAR28	Positive attitude because of good staff experiences	.66055*	.41374	.17494	4.4317	1.6421
VAR29	Stay at Michigan State University because of staff	.55041*	.45041	.11793	3.6906	1.8132

*High factor loaded items

Total N = 139

purposes a factor loading of .300 or above is considered as sufficient to include the item(s) as the underlying factor or construct. Twenty-nine items were considered in the Hoyt Reliability. Seventeen items, in Table 4, emerge as having high (.4 to .6) loadings. All 29 items are listed in Appendix I.

These factors indicate that the students perceive the university staff as competent, personally interested in their well-being, and generally available and helpful as a resource person. Thus, students have positive perceptions and, as a result, they are encouraged to remain at Michigan State University. Faculty and university staff are critical components affecting the students' attitude and decisions.

Tests for Validity/Reliability

The A/P Scale has had no additional tests for validity. One such method which could be employed would be that of securing a panel of experts to comment on the internal (content) validity. The panel would consist of other university staff, external to Michigan State University, whose combined opinions could verify or reject the validity of the statements on the A/P Scale. Such a procedure is that recommended by Ebel.[5] Since there is no other comparable scale, it would not be possible to comment on predictive validity.

Additional steps which could be taken to further test for reliability would be to conduct more comprehensive factor analysis of the 16 high-loaded items.

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[5]Robert L. Ebel, Essentials of Educational Measurement (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 363.

A correlation matrix of all items on the A/P Scale was completed. Overall correlation of items was .9916, indicating high correlation in the test items generally.

For purposes of this study, the A/P Scale is considered to have accomplished its original intent; that is, the Scale provides baseline information on the attitudes/perceptions held by students enrolled at Michigan State University with regard to Michigan State University staff and program. The staff was broadly defined to include any person officially employed by the University to provide services to students. The definition, therefore, included academic advisors, residence hall advisors, University College advisors, and graduate student instructors. Program included any course or series of courses which were part of the teacher education professional sequence.

Summary

This chapter presents an account of the processes and procedures utilized in the study from the time of its approval to the analysis of data. Also included is a description of the Attitude/Perceptions Scale and information on reliability/validity of the Scale. Responses to the Scale, in addition to the other instrumentation used in the study, are presented in Chapter 4, which follow.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of data collected via the Personal Background Questionnaire, the Cattell 16 P. F., the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, the Rokeach Scale and the A/P Scale by item and sum scores.

On the basis of the information reviewed and the findings presented certain implications for additional research are suggested and identified in Chapter 5 to follow.

Demographic Data SEPP and Non-SEPP

Within the instrument developed to collect demographic data, two cross-check questions were designed. Responses to these questions were not presented, since in both cases the student responses indicated consistency of information.

Table 5 presents basic educational and personal characteristics of the population groups. The population had an age range spanning under 18 to over 22, with the largest concentrations (frequency) in the 18-19 year old range.

The population is characterized by nearly 71% females in SEPP 1, 74% females in SEPP 2 and 79% females in non-SEPP. Overall percentages for the population combined are 74.1% female and 25.9% male, significant at the .01 level.

With respect to ethnic background, less than 7% of the population are of black, chicano, indian, oriental or some other minority group background.

Table 5

Summary of Demographic Data on Educational and Personal Characteristics by Population Groups

Item	SEPP 1 #	SEPP 1 %	SEPP 2 #	SEPP 2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Age							
19 - under	47	100.0	36	92.3	32	71.1	
20+	0	00.0	3	7.6	13	28.8	19.25**
Sex							
Male	14	29.1	11	25.5	11	22.9	
Female	34	70.8	32	74.4	37	79.0	0.50
Ethnic Background							
Anglo	41	93.1	41	97.6	45	93.7	
Other	3	6.8	1	2.3	3	6.2	1.08
Terms at MSU							
1-3 terms	47	97.9	1	2.3	18	40.0	
4 or more	1	2.0	42	97.6	27	60.0	84.90**
Terms in other public post-secondary							
1 term	8	72.7	12	92.3	14	73.6	
Two or more	3	27.2	1	7.6	5	26.3	1.99
Type school prior MSU							
Junior/comm. college	2	66.6	1	100.0	2	66.6	
University	1	33.3	0	00.0	1	33.3	9.45
Change in Major							
Yes	13	27.6	14	32.5	23	47.9	
No	34	72.3	29	57.4	25	52.0	4.50
Marital Status							
Married	--	---	--	---	--	---	
Single	48	100.0	43	100.0	48	100.0	0.00
Head of Household							
Yes	1	2.0	0	00.0	1	2.0	
No	47	97.9	42	100.0	47	97.9	1.57

**.01 level of significance

N = 139

As might be expected by the nature of the population studied, and the time span of the study (across two different terms), the number of terms at Michigan State University vary according to class standing. That is, the freshmen SEPP group (S1) had been in school 1-3 terms; the sophomore SEPP group (S2), 4 or 5 terms; the non-SEPP group (NS) predominantly 4 or 5 terms, with an additional 24% indicating attendance for two or three terms. These variations were significant at the .01 level.

The number of terms spent in public post-secondary schools other than Michigan State University is relatively small. A greater number of NS students have had experience of this nature than have students in either of the SEPP groups. More of the freshmen than sophomore SEPP students have attended some school other than Michigan State University.

There are more junior or community college transfers than university transfers. No technical schools are represented in the student responses. Of the total N, seven indicated experience in a specific type of post-secondary institution, yet seventeen indicated "time spent" in schools other than Michigan State University. The information appears to be inconsistent with respect to pre-Michigan State University educational experience.

When asked if they had changed majors since entering Michigan State University (not asked to identify the number of times they had changed) there were wide ranges of difference in the student response. For instance, only 27% of the S1 students had changed majors, compared to 32% of S2 and 47% of NS. Some of this difference can be accounted for by the very nature of the groupings; that is, both the S2 and NS students

had been in school at least two terms longer than the S1 students, as shown in Table 5. Since S2 and NS students most closely approximate one another in class standing, one might expect that they would be very close with respect to having changed majors. This is not the case since a larger percentage of the NS than the S2 students have changed majors.

None of the students participating in the study were married, yet two students considered themselves to be "heads of households."

Residential information is presented in Table 6. Residence was defined as the area/location at which one lived within the family structure. Thus, "home" was not considered to be the University campus; it was, instead, the place at which the "head of the household" resided. Students are from families living primarily in standard metropolitan and/or suburban communities. No more than 28% are from communities which might be classified as rural (less than 5,000 population).

If it is true that the average American family is composed of parents having 2.3 children, then both the SEPP and NS students are representative of the "typical" family size. Slightly more S2 students are from large families (7 or more members) than are S1 and NS students, A nearly equal number of NS students are also from rather large families. overall, 55-60% of the students are in families of five or more.

Eighty-five percent or more of the students are from families in which both parents are living at home. A small number of students are from homes in which there are single (11) or widowed parents (6). In these six instances there is the possibility of single/or dual income.

Less than 90% of the respondents are from families in which the place of residence has changed in the last year, suggesting a stable

Table 6

Summary of Demographic Data on Residential Characteristics by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Residential Location							
26,000 - more	20	42.5	20	47.6	23	49.9	
2,500 to 25,000	21	44.6	13	30.9	19	39.5	1.04
No. in immediate family Self excluded							
4 or less	20	41.6	19	44.1	18	39.1	
5 or more	28	58.3	24	55.8	28	60.8	0.25
Marital Status, Head of Household							
Other	5	11.1	6	4.2	6	12.7	
Married	40	88.8	36	85.7	41	87.2	0.20
Change Residence in Last Year							
Yes	4	8.3	4	9.3	2	4.1	
No	44	91.6	39	90.7	46	95.8	1.07
All Family/Same House							
Yes	33	68.7	27	62.7	30	62.5	
No	15	31.2	16	37.2	18	37.5	0.52
Family in Different House/Same County							
Yes	6	13.0	6	13.9	5	10.8	
No	40	86.9	37	86.0	41	89.9	0.21
Family in Different County/Same State							
Yes	10	21.2	12	28.5	12	26.6	
No	37	78.7	30	71.4	33	73.3	0.70
Family Members in Different State(s)							
Yes	5	10.8	4	9.3	11	23.9	
No	41	89.1	39	90.7	35	76.0	4.57

Table 6 (continued)

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Family Members Living Abroad							
Yes	0	00.0	1	2.3	2	4.3	
No	46	100.0	42	97.6	44	95.6	2.26

N = 139

df = 2

family relationship. Sixty-three percent or more of the respondents indicated that all of the family members are living in the same house.

Another 11-14% of the family members are living in different residences, but within the same county as the family unit. Twenty-one to twenty-eight percent of the family members reside in a different county, but within the same state as does the family unit. Table 6 also shows that the largest number of families affected by this type of living arrangement are within the S2 students. In all three respondent groups, the majority of the family unit members live within the same state and county area.

NS students have the largest number of family members (23%) living in a different state. Relatively few, by comparison, of the SEPP students have family members living in different states. Finally, less than 5% of the students' immediate family members are living abroad.

A summary of Table 6 indicates that residences have not changed significantly in the last year, more of the S1 students are from families in which everyone is living at home; family members tend more often than not to live at home; other family members are close by, primarily within state boundaries.

Table 7 is one in which the type of residence of the family unit is described. Nearly all of the families own their homes, most, if not all, of the residences are single family type. Most, if not all, of the families do not live in a condominium; they own their own homes and do not oonsider themselves as "renting." Only two family units reside in an apartment and/or live in a residential unit which is shared with a non-family member.

Table 7

Summary of Demographic Data on Residential Information Based on Head of Household by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	Ns #	Ns %	x^2
Own home							
Yes	45	95.7	39	92.8	47	97.9	
No	2	4.2	3	7.1	1	2.8	1.55
Single Family Residence							
Yes	45	95.7	4	97.6	48	100.0	
No	2	4.2	1	2.3	0	00.0	2.23
Condominium							
Yes	0	00.0	1	2.4	1	2.1	
No	48	100.0	40	97.5	46	97.8	1.95
Rental Home							
Yes	1	2.1	2	5.0	0	00.0	
No	46	97.8	38	95.0	47	100.0	2.8
Apartment							
Yes	2	4.1	0	00.0	0	00.0	
No	46	95.8	40	100.0	47	100.0	5.73
Shared Residence/ Non-family							
Yes	1	2.0	1	2.4	0	00.0	
No	47	97.9	40	97.5	47	100 0	1.90

N = 139

df = 2

The majority of the family units own their own homes, which are single family residences. They do not rent, nor do they generally live in condominiums or apartments. Neither do they share their home (i.e. with a "renter"). Table 8 summarizes employment, income and educational level of the head of household. Nine standard occupational categories were used to identify the type of employment of the head of the household. The table summarizes this information after collapsing cells.

Students perceive the head of the household (their parents) as being employed primarily in the professional and managerial classifications (50-59%). The remaining occupational classifications are clerical, sales, crafts, foreman and kindred workers. Because of collapsed cells, the table does not show that S1 students have more farming and crafts occupations represented; NS is higher in service workers than are S1 and S2 combined. There appear to be few basic differences between the groups with respect to parental occupations. Twenty students representing 14% of the participants did not respond to this question.

Family income is reported to be largely in the $15,000 to $24,000-plus range. Annual family incomes are all above $7,000 (as reported by the students). Of the S1 students, 66% did not report the household income; 13% of the S2 students and 33% of the NS students did not respond to this question.

A larger percentage of NS "heads of households" are in the $25,000 or above income ranges, with comparable occupational status indicated. Income ranges appear consistent with the occupations identified for the head of the household.

Table 8

Employment, Income and Education of Head of Household by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Type of Employment							
Professional/Mgrl.	21	50.0	22	59.4	21	52.5	
Other	21	49.9	15	40.5	19	47.5	0.75
Family Income, Excluding Partner							
$15,000 - 25,000+	18	40.9	22	55.0	26	57.7	
$9,999 - 14,999	22	50.0	14	35.0	17	37.7	2.68
Joint Parental Income* (Optional Response Item)							
$25,000 or more	3	25.0	3	37.5	2	18.1	
$8,500 - 24,999	9	74.9	5	62.5	9	81.8	0.90
Years School Completed by Head of Household							
1-5 years college	29	40.7	26	60.4	25	52.0	
1-4 years high school	18	37.5	15	34.8	21	43.7	0.86

N = 139

df = 2

*N = 31 of 139

When asked to identify "joint parental income" as optional information, 31 of 139 students chose to complete this question. Of those who completed the question, joint income significantly increased the family income. The largest increase upward was in an income range of $15,000 - $24,999. There was an increase upward within all three groups. Of those responding to this optional question, 39% were S1, 26% were S2; 35% were NS.

The number of years of schooling completed by the head of the household, appears to be consistent with other occupational information identified in the responses. More of the S2 students have parents who have completed college; more NS parents have completed college also. Because of collapsed cells, the table does not show that more of the S1 students have parents who have completed two years of college (14.5%) than do S2 (6.9%) and NS (2.0), respectively.

Student Experiences

A separate set of information was collected via the A/P Scale (Appendix F) dealing with student experiences prior to attending Michigan State University. Table 9 presents summaries of some of that information (other portions are reported later in this chapter).

When asked whether or not they had had volunteer experiences (i.e. candy striper) 80.8% of S1, 80.4% of S2 and 85.1% of NS students responded "yes", as shown in Table 5. In all groups, 80% or more of the students had had volunteer experience of some type prior to entering Michigan State University.

Nearly 81% of the S1 students entered Michigan State University with prior work experience for which they had been paid. This

Table 9

Number of Students Having Volunteer, Work, and Leadership Experiences Prior to Attending Michigan State University by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Volunteer Experience							
Yes	38	80.2	33	80.4	40	85.1	
No	9	19.1	8	19.5	7	14.8	0.41
Paid Work Experience							
Yes	38	80.8	31	75.6	37	78.7	
No	9	19.1	10	23.3	10	21.2	0.38
Leadership Experience							
Yes	40	86.9	31	77.5	38	80.8	
No	6	13.0	9	22.5	9	19.1	1.36

N = 139

df = 2

information would be consistent with the family background (income) given earlier, in which a larger percentage of the S1 students indicated that they were from middle income families, thus, perhaps, necessitating the student working for spending money. Nearly as many S2 and NS students also worked; slightly more NS students than S2 students had had such experience, 78.7% and 75.6%, respectively.

A larger number of S1 students (86.9%) had had leadership experiences (i.e. class officer) prior to entering Michigan State University than did S2 and NS students. Still, there were a large number of students who entered Michigan State University with such experiences, 77.5% and 80.8%, respectively, for S2 and NS students.

A summary of these responses confirms that a large number of students who entered Michigan State University did so with a variety of prior experiences, including volunteer, paid work, and leadership. S1 represents the highest percentages in all categories.

Table 10 presents summary information provided by the students with respect to some of their perceptions of "helpfulness" of the university community at Michigan State University. Students were asked to identify the degree to which certain staff and other people had been of help to them while in school. The S1 students, more than any other group, perceived the teaching faculty to be helpful (74.4%) as compared to S2 and NS students who rated them less helpful, 64.8% (S2) and 66.6% (NS). Those students indicating degrees of little or mildly helpful represented no more than 37% of any one group. Students perceived the teaching faculty to be more helpful than not, S1 having highest percentages.

Table 10

Perceptions of Degree of Helpfulness Provided by University Community by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Teaching Faculty Helpful							
Very Helpful - Helpful	35	74.4	27	64.8	32	66.6	
Little - Mildly Helpful	12	25.5	16	37.2	16	33.3	1.47
Univ. College Faculty Helpful							
Very - Mildly Helpful	24	52.1	22	51.1	27	57.4	
Little or No Help	22	47.8	21	48.8	20	42.5	0.42
Graduate Assts. Helpful							
Very - Mildly Helpful	28	60.8	23	53.5	28	59.5	
Little or No Help	18	39.1	20	46.5	19	40.4	0.07
Dorm. Advisors Helpful							
Mildly - Very Helpful	26	57.7	20	47.6	26	55.3	
Little or No Help	19	42.2	22	52.3	21	44.6	0.98
Other Students Helpful							
Very Helpful	26	54.1	29	67.4	27	57.4	
Helpful - No Help	22	45.8	14	32.5	20	42.5	1.78

N = 139

df = 2

The degree to which students perceived the University College faculty to be of help varied. While the students were nearly equally split between very to mildly helpful and little or of no help, they lean slightly in favor of the stronger side of the scale. Thus, 52% of S1, 51% of S2 and 57% of NS perceive the University Faculty to be somewhere between mildly and very helpful. The table does not show (because of collapsed cells) that 25% of S1, 27.9% of S2, and 34% of NS students indicated that the University College faculty was of no help to them.

When asked to identify the degree to which graduate assistants had been of help to them the students responded similarly to their perceptions of university faculty. Thus, 60% of S1, 53% of S2 and 59% of NS students ranked graduate assistants as between mildly and very helpful to them. Conversely, 39% of S1, 46% of S2 and 40% of NS students ranked graduate assistants as of little or no help to them. Within the NS group, 23% of the students indicated no help from graduate assistants, suggesting that they have had less "known to them" exposure to graduate assistants than have the SEPP students generally. This may be accounted for by the very nature of the program in which they are enrolled. It is important to note that the question was not structured along program (alternative vs. regular) lines. Rather, it was structured along total university services provided by various personnel.

When asked to identify the degree to which dorm advisors were helpful, more S1 (57.5%) and NS (55.3%) than S2 (47.6%) responded positively. Students more often ranked dorm advisors as helpful, mildly helpful, or of little help, rather than at the extreme scale points of very or no help. Because of collapsed cells, this information does not

clearly show in the table. In addition, S2 and NS more often ranked dorm advisors as of no help, 28% and 29%, respectively, compared to only 20% of the S1 students who ranked dorm advisors likewise. S1 perceived dorm advisors as helpful.

Students in all three groups perceive other students as being particularly helpful to them. A total of 54% of S1, 67% of S2 and 57% of NS students ranked other students as very helpful. The remaining students ranked fellow students as between helpful or of no help. Because of collapsed cells, though, the table does not show that in only two cases did students perceive other students as of no help. The two indicating no help on the scaled response were from the NS group.

One can state with relative confidence that, in spite of minimal differences in degree, the students generally perceive the teaching faculty, University College faculty, graduate assistants, dorm advisors, and fellow students as being mildly to very helpful to them as shown in Table 10. In a few cases no help was indicated on the scaled responses. Still, when compared to the higher frequencies within the other cells, the "no help" response ranged from zero to 29%. Thus, at least 70% or more of the students perceived each of the other groups as being helpful in some degree, ranging from very helpful to mildly helpful.

Career Plans (Interest/Commitment to Teaching)

A series of questions dealing with the career plans of the S1, S2 and NS students were designed. Table 11 presents responses to the question "To what degree are you interested in becoming a middle or high school teacher?" In response, 65% of S1, 90% of S2 and 58% of NS

Table 11

Summary of Degree of Interest (Career Plans) by Population Groups

Item	S1 #	S1 %	S2 #	S2 %	NS #	NS %	x^2
Degree of interest in becoming middle/H.S. teacher							
Very interested	31	65.9	38	90.4	28	58.3	
Interested - no Interest	16	34.0	4	9.5	20	41.6	12.05**
Degree of committment to teach, 3 yrs. hence							
High	31	70.4	33	80.4	25	69.4	
Medium to Low	13	29.5	8	19.5	11	30.5	1.56
Degree of committment to teach, 5 yrs. hence							
High	27	61.3	26	63.4	26	68.4	
Medium to Low	17	39.6	15	36.5	12	31.5	0.47

N = 139

df = 2

**Significant at .01 level p 0.01

students responded on the positive side of the scaled response with very interested. Because of collapsed cells, the reader would be unable to determine that no S1 or S2 students responded with degrees of only slight or no interest, while seven NS students did so. Of all the students, the S2 group appears to have the strongest degree of interest in <u>becoming</u> a teacher.

The degree of commitment to teaching three years hence was positive for S1, S2 and NS students, who responded with high interest/commitment at 70%, 80% and 69%, respectively. Degree of interest/commitment five years hence drops considerably, particularly for the S2 students. The percentage of change in commitment from three years hence to five years hence reduces 17% for S2 students, compared to 9% for S1 and only a 1% drop for NS. Thus, a comparison of the responses indicate that of the three groups of students, the NS students have a greater commitment to becoming and remaining a teacher five years hence than do the S1 or S2 students.

A summary of the responses suggests that for those NS students who have changed majors, once the change has been made a personal commitment had also been made to become and remain a teacher. This does not suggest that the S1 or S2 students do not intend to do so also, but it does suggest that they may not have the same degree of commitment as do the NS. Viewed from another perspective, the fact that 31% to 39% of the students do not "see" themselves in teaching in five years hence suggests that they would be consistent with the national averages--they would not have graduated until at least two of those five years had passed. Having graduated, they might enter and remain in teaching.

Assuming that they were able to secure teaching positions, they would have left them within three or less years, if only on the basis of their expressed interest at this point in time and irregardless of other external factors unaccounted for in the present.

Summary of Demographic Information

The series of tables presented thus far demonstrate that the population groups are no different in family background, nor with respect to future plans, than what has been true traditionally in teacher education. As a potential group of teachers, the population would fit nicely into the "mold" of demographic or personal background characteristics used to describe the "current" teaching population generally as reviewed in the literature. Minimal differences do emerge, but essentially there is little difference between the three groups. One exception to this is in terms of the S1 and NS groups. In several particular instances these two groups appear to be more alike than do the S2 and NS groups who should, on the basis of class standing, more closely approximate one another.

Cattell 16 P. F.

Specific items in the 16 P. F. were obtained by raw score sums, which were then converted to a sten scale (standard ten) and translated on an individual profile sheet. The Profile shows variations in degrees of tendency within 16 personality characteristics.

Table 12 summarizes all student scores on the 16 P. F. An examination of these mean scores and standard deviations indicate that with respect to:

Table 12

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for S1, S2 and NS on 16 P. F. Scores Compared to College Student Norms

Factor	S1 Mean	S1 SD	S2 Mean	S2 SD	NS Mean	NS SD	National Norms for College Students Mean	National Norms for College Students SD
A - Reserved, outgoing	10.93	2.95	10.52	3.07	11.00	2.09	10.93	3.45
B - Less, More intelligent	8.93	1.89	8.72	1.57	8.88	1.63	8.83	1.89
C - Affected by feelings, Emotionally stable	15.54	3.62	14.93	3.27	15.11	3.90	15.23	3.90
E - Humble, assertive	12.41	3.85	13.06	4.00	12.27	4.31	12.93	4.36
F - Sober, happy-go-lucky	15.39	4.24	16.58	4.53	15.97	4.69	16.63	4.42
G - Expedient, conscientious	13.66	3.42	11.95	3.49	12.00	3.31	11.88	3.72
H - Shy, venturesome	14.14	4.75	14.62	4.99	13.90	5.48	13.58	5.79
I - Tough, tender-minded	12.97	3.75	12.93	3.14	13.74	3.27	11.67*	4.20
L - Trusting, suspicious	8.20	2.90	8.04	2.62	7.74	3.34	8.38	3.38
M - Practical, imaginative	13.20	3.23	12.62	3.16	14.06	3.31	12.81	3.60
N - Forthright, shrewd	8.87	2.62	9.47	2.67	9.20	2.62	8.75	2.80
O - Placid, apprenehsive	10.37	3.92	11.37	3.50	11.00	3.23	10.70	3.89
Q_1 - Conservative, Experimenting	8.02	3.96	8.06	2.55	8.37	2.50	9.15*	3.41
Q_2 - Group, Self-sufficient	10.41	3.60	10.08	2.99	10.16	3.13	10.08	3.68
Q_3 - Undisciplined self-conflict; controlled	12.16	3.17	11.75	2.84	11.53	3.52	11.70	3.28
Q_4 - Relaxed, tense	13.83	5.71	14.29	4.09	13.72	5.42	13.43	4.81

N = 139 *Significant variation between S1, S2, NS and College Student Mean
Source: Tabular Supplement (Form A + B College Student Norms), 16 P. F., p. 14.

1. Factor A (Reserved - Outgoing) - means are consistent with the college norms; standard deviations are slightly lower for the study population.

2. Factor B (Less Intelligent - More Intelligent) - both mean and standard deviation are consistent with college norms.

3. Factor C (Affected by Feelings - Emotionally Stable) - mean and standard deviation are consistent with college norms.

4. Factor E (Humble - Assertive) - mean is consistent with the college norm; standard deviation is slightly lower than the norm.

5. Factor F (Sober - Happy-go-lucky) - mean for the study population is lower than college norms; standard deviation, though, is consistent with the norm table.

6. Factor G (Expedient - Conscientious) - mean is higher than the college norm; standard deviation is slightly lower.

7. Factor H (Shy - Venturesome) - mean is slightly higher than the college norm; standard deviation is lower than the college norms.

8. Factor I (Tough-minded - Tender-minded) - mean is significantly higher than the corresponding college norms; standard deviation is lower than the college norms. Implications of this factor will be discussed in greater detail following the summary of mean and standard deviations for each item on the 16 P. F.

9. Factor L (Trusting - Suspicious) - both the mean and the standard deviations are lower in the study population than those of the college norms. These are not construed as significant differences.

10. Factor M (Practical - Imaginative) - two if the means are higher than the college norm; standard deviation is slightly lower.

11. Factor N (Forthright - Shrewd) - mean scores for the study population are slightly higher than that of other college students; standard deviation is consistent with the college norms.

12. Factor O (Placid - Apprehensive) - mean is somewhat higher than college norms; standard deviation is consistent with the college norms.

13. Factor Q_1 - (Conservative - Experimenting) - mean scores for the study population are nearly 1.00 lower for the study population when compared to the college norms; standard deviation is consistent with the norm tables. Implications for this factor will be discussed at a later point.

14. Factor Q_2 - (Group-dependent - Self-sufficient) - means are consistent with the norm table; standard deviation is slightly lower for the study population.

15. Factor Q_3 - (Undisciplined Self-conflict - Controlled) - mean scores for the study population, as well as standard deviations, are consistent with the college student norms.

16. Factor Q_4 - (Relaxed - Tense) - means for the study population are slightly higher than college norms; two of the standard deviations are also higher. These are not considered to be strongly significant variations, though.

Interpretation of Factor Score Mean and Standard Deviations

With the exception of two factors reported, the S1, S2 and NS groups appear to be no different than other college students nationwide

as reported by the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing.[1] The two factors noted are significant in several respects. They are as follows:

1. Factor I (Tough-minded - Tender-minded). High scores in this scale indicate tendencies on the part of those persons to be tender-minded, feminine, day-dreaming, artistic or fastidious in nature. Such persons are sometimes demanding of attention and help, impatient, dependent, and/or impractical. They generally dislike crude people and rough occupations and tend to slow up group performanee, and to upset group morale by unrealistic fussiness. These general descriptions are summarized as "dependent, over-protected, sensitive."[2]

Table 13 presents further analysis of Factor I by subgroup scores which were 12.97, 12.93 and 13.74 for S1, S2, and NS, respectively.

By comparison, the national college norms for males and females on Form A of the 16 P. F., Factor I, are placed at 11.67.[3] Thus, while both SEPP groups are higher than the college norm, the non-SEPP group is twice as high. This would indicate that the non-SEPP group has greater tendencies toward tender-mindedness than do either of the SEPP groups. In terms of personality, the high mean scores also indicate that the students in this study at Michigan State University may be artistic,

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[1]Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, Norms for the 16 P. F., Form A and B (1967-68 Editions), Tabular Supplement No. 1 (Champaign, Illinois: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1973), p. 24.

[2]Raymond B. Cattell and Herbert W. Eber, Manual for Forms A and B Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire: "The 16 PF" Young Adults and Adults (Champaign, Illinois: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1962), p. 15.

Table 13

Comparisons of S1, S2 and NS Responses to Factor I (Tough - Tender Minded) With Mean and Standard Deviation of Other College Students

	Study Population			College
	S1	S2	NS	Norms
Mean	12.97	12.93	13.74	11.67
S.D.	4.73	4.22	4.37	4.20

N = 139

sensitive, feminime, and/or dependent personality types. The tendency of all three groups to be at a higher level of tender-mindedness lends credence to the probability that these persons who have chosen teaching as an occupation have done so because it is consistent with their general makeup to select an occupation which is classified as "non-rough."

2. Factor Q_1 (Conservative - Experimenting) - Low scores on this Factor indicate tendencies of a person to be confident in what he/she has been taught to believe. They accept the "tried and true," despite inconsistencies, when something else might be better. Because of a cautious and compromising nature in regard to new ideas, they tend to oppose and postpone change. They are inclined to go along with tradition, be more conservative in religion and politics, and tend not to be interested in analytical "intellectual" thought. Such persons would be characterized as less inclined to experiment in life generally, and to be less tolerant of inconvenience and change. They are generally described as "respecting established ideas; tolerant of traditional difficulties."[4]

Table 14 presents additional subgroup mean score information which was 8.02, 8.06 and 8.37 for S1, S2 and NS respectively.

By comparison, national college norms are reported at 9.15[5] mean score. The lower mean scores reported for students in this study indicate that they appear to have higher tendencies toward conservatism than do other college students.

Within the three groups, the non-SEPP students tend to be more conservative than do the S1 or S2 students.

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[4]Cattell and Eber, p. 17.

[5]Cattell and Eber, p. 17.

Table 14

Comparisons for S1, S2 and NS Responses to Factor Q_1 (Conservative - Experimenting) With Mean and Standard Deviations for Other College Students

	Study Population			College
	S1	S2	NS	Norms
Mean	8.02	8.06	7.37	9.15
S.D.	4.77	4.23	4.36	3.41

N = 139

Other Findings Unique to
16 P. F. Mean Scores

Although the overall mean scores for the 16 P. F. are consistent with college norms reported earlier, with the two exceptions noted, there are some internal mean subgroup scores which warranted review. Review of subgroup mean scores revealed the following:

1. Within Factor E (Humble - Assertive), both the S1 and NS groups are below the mean.

2. Within Factor F (Sober - Happy-go-lucky), the S1 group is within .3 of being 1.0 below college norms.

3. Within Factor G (Expedient - Conscientious) the S1 group is within .2 of being a full 2.0 over college norms. This would indicate a strong degree of tendency toward exactness, responsibility, or persevering natures on the part of the freshmen SEPP students. Persons having these tendences are "usually conscientious and moralistic, and . . . prefers hard-working people to witty companions."[6] This higher level scoring implies that the S1 group is, perhaps, more conscientious than are members of the S2 or NS groups.

Within Factor H (Shy - Venturesome) the S2 group is 1.1 higher in mean score than the college norm. This indicated a strong degree of tendency on the part of the sophomore SEPP group to be socialbe, spontaneous, and willing to "try new things." These tendencies may be generally described as "socially-bold, uninhibited, spontaneous"[7] with dislike of occupations with personal contacts and preference for one or two close friends over large groups. Such characteristics would lend credence to the possibility of a "Hawthorne effect" group existant by the very nature of the alternative teacher education program's newness.

The S1 group is also higher (.6) than the comparable college norm which would provide additional support for "Hawthorne effect" possibilities within the Secondary Education Pilot Program participants generally.

4. Within Factor L (Trusting - Suspicious) the NS group is somewhat below the college norm (.64). Tendencies to score lower in this factor imply that this group of students are freer of jealous tendencies, un-competitive, and more concerned about other people than are the S1 or S2 groups. There is the distinct possibility that the NS students are team workers moreso than are the other students in the study (S1, S2). This is not to imply that the SEPP students generally are not good team members, or that they are not concerned about other people. When compared to other college students, they are. When compared to NS students enrolled at Michigan State University, S1, S2 are not as typical of other college students as are non-SEPP students with respect to group orientation.

5. Within Factor M (Practical - Imaginative) the non-SEPP students are 1.25 higher than the college norms. When compared to college norms, the NS students at Michigan State University may be characterized as being more "imaginative, wrapped up in inner urgencies, careless of practical matters, (and) Bohemian."[8]

S1 students are .39 higher and S2 students most closely resemble the college man in this personality factor. Thus, NS and S1 students tend to be more Bohemian, self-motivated, imaginatively-creative, and oblivious of particular people and physical realities than do the S2

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[8]Cattell and Eber, p. 16.

students. The S2 students, conversely, appear to be more concerned over detail, anxious to do the right things, and attentive to practical matters, but not in any significant degree when compared to other college students generally.

6. Within Factor N (Forthright - Shrewd) S2 (followed by NS) students have mean scores higher than the college norms. This implies that these sophomore SEPP (S2) students are more worldly, experienced, and may be unsentimental in approaching situations. This would be consistent with the information contained within the analysis of Factor M (above).

7. Within Factor Q_3 (Undisciplined Self-Conflict - Controlled) S2 and NS students most closely resemble other college students. S1 students score .46 higher than other college students generally. This implies that they tend to be more self-sufficient and resourceful than the other groups, but "not necessarily dominant in his (their) relations with others."[9] In this respect there is some relationship between scores on Factor Q_3 and Factor E, previously discussed.

8. Within Factor Q_4 (Relaxed - Tense) the S2 students are .8 above college norms. This implies that the Sophomore SEPP students tend to be "tense, excitable, restless, fretful, impatient . . . (and) often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive." Such tendencies would be consistent with Factor H (Shy - Venturesome) to the extent that in this factor the S2 group appears uninhibited and have strong tendencies to try new things. Inactivity would be consistent with venturesomeness.

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[9]Cattell and Eber, p. 18.

On the basis of these findings, it becomes more readily apparent that the S2 and NS students resemble each other in many respects. However, in terms of personality, they are also very much like SI. (S1 students appear to have some personality differences when compared to the S2 students.) No consistent overall general pattern emerges.

In relation to college norms, the population studied is comparable to other college students nationwide. Personality factors do not differ significantly among the groups.

Kerlinger A (Progressivism) and Kerlinger B (Traditionalism) Scale - Student Scores

The Kerlinger Education Scale VI measures a trait, not a "pure state." As such, it is an indicator of one's tendency toward one or another attitude or viewpoint. The viewpoints are labeled as "progressivism" or "traditionalism" within the Scale items.

Table 15 provides frequency distributions for student scores on the Kerlinger A (Progressivism) Scale for S1, S2 and NS. As a group the students were slightly progressive in their response patterns, since the lower the score, the higher the degree of progressivism. Mean scores were 6.50, 6.27, and 5.94 respectively for these groups, as shown in Table 16. Standard deviations were 1.49, 1.87, and 1.24 respectively. These means and standard deviations are consistent with national norms for comparable groups.

That students in this study who are enrolled at Michigan State University tend to be slightly traditional is demonstrated by Table 17, Frequency Distribution for Kerlinger B Scores. The lower the score obtained on the Scale the higher the degree of traditionalism represented.

Table 15

Frequency Distribution of Kerlinger A Scores for S1, S2, NS (Progressivism)

Range	S1 Frequency	%	S2 Frequency	%	NS Frequency	%
85- 94	1	.02	2	.04	0	.00
95-104	5	.10	6	.13	2	.04
105-114	14	.29	10	.23	9	.18
115-124	8	.16	4	.09	15	.31
125-134	13	.27	10	.23	10	.20
135-144	5	.10	3	.06	9	.18
145-154	0	.00	8	.18	3	.06
155-164	2	.04	0	.00	0	.00

N = 139

Table 16

Comparisons for S1, S2 and NS Mean and Standard Deviations on Kerlinger "A" (Progressivism) Scores with Mean and Standard Deviation of College Students' Norm

	Study Population			College
	S1	S2	NS	Norms*
Mean	6.50	6.27	5.94	5.51
S.D.	1.49	1.87	1.24	.705

N = 139

*Source: Table 6, Kerlinger Education Scale VI.

Table 17

Frequency Distribution of Kerlinger B Scores for S1, S2, NS (Traditionalism)

Range	S1 Frequency	%	S2 Frequency	%	NS Frequency	%
35- 44	0	.00	1	.02	0	.00
45- 54	0	.00	3	.06	0	.00
55- 64	3	.06	1	.02	1	.08
65- 74	1	.02	2	.04	7	.14
75- 84	6	.12	6	.13	4	.08
85- 94	13	.27	12	.27	9	.18
95-104	10	.20	8	.18	16	.33
105-114	10	.20	6	.13	7	.14
115-124	4	.08	2	.04	2	.04
125-134	1	.02	2	.04	2	.04

N = 139

Mean scores were 5.35, 4.59 and 4.47 for S1, S2 and NS respectively; standard deviations were 1.55, 1.80, and 1.49 respectively as shown in Table 18. Thirty-three of the S1 students (.68%), thirty-three of the S2 students (.76%) and thirty-seven of the NS students (.77%) scored in ranges which encompassed or were lower than the mean. The students as a whole were almost neutral with respect to tendencies toward traditionalism.

Information from the table supports that provided in Table 15, in which students were shown to have slight tendencies toward Progressivism.

The students studied at Michigan State University are not significantly different than other college students nationwide.

Rokeach Student Scores

The Rokeach is an othogonal scale measuring degree of openness/closedness of belief system. Thus, student scores do not represent expressions of purely "open" or "closed" belief systems.

Student responses on the Rokeach "Dogmatism" Scale, are shown in Table 19. To interpret the scores, it is important to note that the patterning is just the reverse of the Kerlinger A or B; that is, the higher the score, the lower the degree of dogmatism or closedness of belief system. Mean score for S1 students was 6.50 and the standard deviation was 1.31. Mean scores for S2 and NS students were 6.28 and 6.17 respectively with standard deviations of 1.31, 1.15 and 1.50, respectively. Both mean and standard deviation are consistent with national norms for comparable student groups, as shown in Table 20.

Table 18

Comparisons for S1, S2 and NS Mean and Standard Deviations on Kerlinger "B" (Traditionalism) Scores With Mean and Standard Deviation of College Students' Norms

	Study Population			College
	S1	S2	NS	Norms*
Mean	5.35	4.59	4.47	4.13
S.D.	1.55	1.80	1.49	.85

N = 139

*Source: Table 6, Kerlinger Education Scale VI.

Table 19

Frequency Distribution of Rokeach Scores for S1, S2, NS

Range	S1 Frequency	%	S2 Frequency	%	NS Frequency	%
20 - 29	0	.00	0	.00	2	.04
20 - 39	1	.08	3	.06	0	.00
40 - 49	6	.12	3	.06	2	.04
50 - 59	15	.31	11	.25	17	.35
60 - 69	10	.20	16	.37	14	.29
70 - 79	10	.20	8	.18	3	.06
80 - 89	5	.10	1	.02	7	.14
90 - 99	1	.02	1	.02	1	.02

N = 139

Table 20

Comparisons of S1, S2 and NS Mean and Standard Deviation on Rokeach Scale with Mean and Standard Deviation of College Student Norms

	Study Population			College
	S1	S2	NS	Norms*
Mean	6.50	6.28	6.17	6.50
S.D.	1.31	1.15	1.50	1.31

N = 139

*Source: The Nature of Human Values, 1967-73, Manual.

Analysis of the data suggests that the students (60% or more) tend to lean toward the open-minded end of the scale. This information would support information provided in Tables 15 and 17 in which students were shown to be generally progressive in their attitudes toward education. Progressiveness would be consistent with openness of belief system. When compared to other college students nationwide, students studied at Michigan State University are not significantly different.

A/P Scale, Item and Sum
Means and Standard Deviation

Table 21 presents mean and standard deviations for item and sum scores on the A/P Scale. An examination of the mean for the A/P items revealed that three items had means of 5.0 or over; 21 items had means of 4.0 or over; four items had means of 3.0 or over; one item had a mean of 2.9. The A/P Scale sum scoresmean was 3.77. Standard deviations, with the exception of one, were all between 1.0 and 1.7. One score, item 7, had a standard deviation of .90. The standard deviation for the A/P Sum Scale was 1.8, as shown in Table 21. It appears that there was internal consistency in what was being measured. (The overall correlation between items was .9916 in Hoyt Reliability). No significant differences were found when examining separate S1, S2, NS mean and standard deviation tables. Overall, students scored positively and within comparable ranges. Positive response in appropriately interpreted as students perceiving university staff, advisors, etc. as generally helpful, knowledgeable, and interested in their general well-being. Positive response is also interpreted as reason for feeling pleased with Michigan State University as a setting in which to pursue completion of a degree.

Table 21

A/P Score Item and Sum Score, Mean and Standard Deviation for S1, S2, NS Groups Combined

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	4.61	1.19
2	4.58	1.22
3	4.31	1.46
4	4.62	1.43
5	4.82	1.42
6	4.56	1.61
7	5.35	.90
8	4.87	1.48
9	4.85	1.24
10	4.56	1.28
11	4.63	1.19
12	4.85	1.05
13	4.22	1.36
14	4.30	1.57
15	3.42	1.71
16	4.28	1.35
17	5.18	1.23
18	4.09	1.75
19	4.42	1.52
20	4.66	1.31
21	3.93	1.42
22	3.69	1.51
23	3.36	1.54
24	4.71	1.39
25	4.44	1.40
26	2.93	1.40
27	5.05	1.29
28	4.53	1.59
29	4.21	1.37
Sum	3.77	1.80

N = 139

Helmert Contrasts

Helmert Contrasts were conducted testing three hypothesis: the grand mean of all three groups, the average of NS versus the average of S1 and S2, and S1 versus S2.

Data used for the contrasts included responses to four instruments which were the Cattell 16 P. F., the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, the Rokeach, and the A/P Scale. Results of the tests are shown in two tables, Table 22 and Table 23. The results of these tests indicates that the S1, S2 and NS students are more alike than different from each other. In effect, the population studied is a homeogenous group, since the tests imply that they are statistically not significant.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

Information contained in Chapter 4 was presented from data generated by five instruments, the Cattell 16 P. F., the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, the Rokeach Scale, the A/P Scale, and the Personal Background Questionnaire.

Descriptive data on the characteristics of the preservice students at Michigan State University is provided in terms of social origin, prior experiences (work, leadership, and volunteer), and degrees of commitment to becoming and/or staying a middle or high school teacher.

Analysis of personality factors, attitudes toward education and the teacher education program, and degrees of openness/closedness of belief systems is provided.

The implications of this information, coupled with a consideration of the review of the literature, provide basic reference for findings and recommendations to be found in Chapter 5, which follows.

Table 22

Helmert Contrast for S1, S2, NS Responses To Kerlinger (A and B), Rokeach and A/P Scale Sum

Hypothesis	F-Ratio	Probability
Grand Mean S1, S2, NS	5935.4279	.0001
NS vs. S1, S2	.7208	.5792
S1 vs. S2	.5805	.6773

N = 139

df = 4

Table 23

Helmert Contrast for S1, S2 and NS Responses to Cattell 16 P. F.

Hypothesis	F-Ratio	Probability
Grand Mean S1, S2, NS	2074.8916	.0001
NS vs. S1, S2	.9695	.4941
S1 vs. S2	.7101	.7793

N = 139

df = 16

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Drawing from information presented in preceding chapters, this Chapter represents an attempt to bring together crucial and central elements of the study findings. A summary of the study will be presented with some general conclusions formulated as a result of data collected. Finally, some recommendations for further study, research, deliberation, and possible action will be presented.

SUMMARY

Statement of the Problem

The study was an attempt to identify and generally describe the freshmen and sophomore students who were actively enrolled in an alternative secondary teacher education program at Michigan State University up to and including the Winter Term of 1975 (ending March, 1975).

Purpose of the Study

One purpose of the study was to describe the characteristics of the students who have opted for an alternative preparatory program.

A second major purpose of the study was to provide antecedent information on the nature of the student population involved in the Secondary Education Pilot Program, SEPP, at Michigan State University. Provision of such information was desirable to fulfill an early requirement of the approved alternative program; that is, to use the Stake Model for an evaluation of the program. In order to utilize the

Stake Model it is necessary to obtain antecedent information on the population to be studied. This information, in turn, becomes baseline information for other components of the Model which involve further description and judgment.

Study Design

This study was designed to identify and describe those students who were actively enrolled in an alternative secondary teacher education program at Michigan State University during the Winter and Spring Term, 1974-75. The population description included 1) basic personal characteristics such as age, marital status, type of family residence, and prior work experiences; 2) level of professional commitment (career plans) 3) attitudes toward education and teaching; 4) personality factors; 5) degrees of openness/closedness of belief systems and 5) attitudes/perceptions of program and staff at Michigan State University.

Other facets of the study were to deal with 1) other factors influencing the decision to become and remain in teaching and 2) differences between the alternative teacher education student and the regular student, if any.

Population in the Study

Population in the study included three groups. They were S1, students who enrolled in the alternative program in the Fall Term, 1973; S2, students who enrolled in the alternative program in the Fall Term, 1974; and NS, students who enrolled in the Fall Term, 1973, and who most closely resembled the S1, S2 students because of an interest in becoming a secondary teacher.

A total of 139 persons, meeting the criteria established, were asked to complete various documents designed to garner quantitative data.

Instrumentation and Data Analysis

Five instruments were completed by participants. These included the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, the Rokeach, the A/P Scale, the Cattell 16 P. F., and the Personal Background Questionnaire. A total of 143 variables were studied. The procedures utilized for tabulation of data included analysis of variance, correlation matrix, cumulative scores, frequency, percent, and Helmert Contrasts. The Hoyt Reliability and a factor analysis were conducted for one instrument, the A/P Scale.

Unless otherwise noted, the .05 level of probability was adopted as the criterion of significance.

All data manipulation was accomplished using the Computer Services Center at Michigan State University.

Assumptions

The study was based on several assumptions:

1. The number of students wishing to complete teacher education programs will continue to grow, or at least remain static, while the number of positions available following graduation are limited when placed in context of current supply-demand information.

2. Teacher educators, the program director, and other University personnel are interested in providing quality programs via an alternative and/or a regular preparatory program. In addition, and as a result of such commitment, they are interested in obtaining information useful in

evaluating the programs and in determining the direction of the curriculum.

3. The alternative teacher education program, SEPP, will continue to receive administrative support, thereby assuring the graduation of its first class in 1977.

4. To the extent that a program prepares students to function effectively in their future roles, it is possible to identify and therefore "value" characteristics of the program contributing to student successes. Conversely, it is possible to identify those program components which may, in fact, not meet student needs and structure or restructure the program accordingly.

5. For the study to be of value it must have the capability of inspiring further research, particularly of a longitudinal and more comprehensive nature. Both descriptive and evaluational studies related to the program described and the participants in that program would serve to make the preliminary data more meaningful.

Limitations

The following limitations were seen as bearing upon this particular study:

1. The relationship of certain personnel, this researcher included, to the alternative teacher education program participants might in an indirect manner affect the quality and objectivity of the research or of the student perceptions generally.

2. The researcher's position, or absentee position, as related to the population studied could affect the response patterns of the students. Use of a volunteer method has inherent weaknesses also which were stated as limitations in the study.

3. Students enrolled at Michigan State University may be typical or atypical of other students currently enrolled in other teacher preparation programs, particularly with respect to unique geographical areas of the United States having markedly different socio-economic or sub-cultural make-up. In this respect no effort was made to determine whether or not students at Michigan State University are like or unlike students in other teacher education programs.

4. To be of maximum value, certain instruments necessitate separate and distinct administration procedures. Additionally, the selection of such instruments may be subject to question -- in particular, the Attitude/Perceptions Scale. While various procedures were used to determine, as much as possible, the validity and reliability of the A/P Scale, it remains a tentative measurement device subject to further validation and testing.

5. The timeframe in which the study was conducted could indirectly influence some of the data collected. Wherever possible, these influences have been identified in reporting the data.

6. That the possibility of a Hawthorne effect could exist was given, as well as the possibility of population differences within the SEPP group and between the SEPP and non-SEPP groups. Such factors as the length of time in school (class standing) and the different levels of exposure to the professional sequence between freshmen and sophomore SEPP students as a result of that time difference was seen as a limitation.

Closely allied to this consideration was the additional consideration that the non-SEPP students were an unknown "n" and represented a group most closely approximating at least a portion of the SEPP students.

7. Changes over time resulting from both history and general maturation of the population was seen as a limitation. Particularly, the time span of the study (covering two school terms) was seen as a limiting and contributing factor to the possibility of these changes.

8. Economic considerations were viewed as a possible limitation of the study data, particularly in terms of unemployment generally. Information by the respondents was perceived to be a factor of general economic conditions moreso than as the result of possible faking on such information.

Personal Information

The population ranged in age from under 18 to over 22 years. Of these, 103 were female and 36 were male respondents, equally distributed among the various subgroups, S1, S2 and NS. Two of the students were married, and two considered themselves to be "heads of households" suggesting independence from the family unit. These students were from the NS and S1 groups. Eleven of the SEPP students were from single-parent homes compared to six of the non-SEPP from similar homes.

Ethnic backgrounds were primarily caucasian, with less than 10% of the SEPP group and 6% of the NS group representing other ethnic minorities. They were from homes located primarily in standard metropolitan and/or suburban communities in which the family size approximated that of the "average" American family having 2.3 children.

Where the families live is stable as evidenced by 90 - 95% of the students indicating no change of residence within the last year's time. Thirty-three S1 students indicated that all of the family members lived at home, representing 68.7% of that group and the largest percentage of

the three groups. NS students, followed by S1 and S2 in that order, had the larger percent of family members living outside the home state, 23.9%.

Fewer of the S2 students (92.8%) are from families owning their own homes than are the S1 (95.7%) or NS students (97.9%). All live in single-family residences and none rent or live in apartments or condominiums.

Three S1 and three NS students had attended other post-secondary public institutions; one S2 student had also done so. The number of terms spent in other schools included 8, S1; 12, S2; and 14, NS students. Of these students 3 S1, 1 S2 and 5 NS students had spent one or more terms in another school. None of these students had attended a trade or technical school.

The majority of the population were from homes in which the head of the household was employed in a professional or managerial occupation, fifty-nine percent of S2, forty-six percent of S1, and fifty-two percent of NS students respectively. So-called lower occupational classifications were more predominant in the NS group (24%) than in either of the SEPP groups which were between 16 and 17% in membership. Service occupations such as sales and clerical were more predominant within the S1 students (14%) than in the S2 students (10.8%) or NS students (10%).

Consistent with the occupational information of the head of the household, the income ranges and number of years of schooling completed for the head of the household was higher within the S2 group, whose parent(s) had completed high school or two years of college as represented by 42%; S2 parents had completed high school or two years of

college as represented by 34.8%; NS students' parents were represented by 43.7%.

Family incomes for the population range from a minimum of $7,000 to $25,000 or more annual, as reported by the students. Since only 31 students identified this set of information, it was not considered as a completely valid descriptor of population characteristics. In general, the income ranges tend toward the $15-25,000 range, distributed among 58.3% of S1, 62.5% of S2 and 54.5% of NS students. A larger number of S2 students appear to be from families who had an annual income which exceeded $15,000. By comparison, 37.5% of the S2 students were from families having an annual income of $25,000 or more. These represented 12% more than S1 and 19% more than NS students who reported family incomes within the same range.

Eighty percent of the SEPP students had entered Michigan State University having had prior volunteer-type experiences, compared to eighty-five percent non-SEPP with similar experiences.

Between 75% and 80% of the SEPP students (S2, S1 respectively) had had prior paid work experience, compared to 78.7% of the NS students.

Finally, in terms of leadership experiences, 9.4% more of the S1 students than S2 students had entered MSU with such experiences. While 80% of the non-SEPP students had comparable experience, an average of 80% of the SEPP students (S1, S2 combined) also had had leadership-building experiences and opportunities.

Taken overall, the SEPP students were not significantly different than those students who were enrolled in the regular teacher education program. As a group the SEPP students had internal differences which suggested that (1) the freshmen SEPP were from homes having lower annual

income than sophomore SEPP students, (2) the freshmen SEPP were from homes in which the head of the household had had less formal education and were employed in occupations consistent with the educational level attained than did the sophomore SEPP students, whose incomes and occupational levels were in the higher ranges, and (3) that the freshmen SEPP students were from larger family units living in smaller residential areas than were the sophomore SEPP students.

SEPP and non-SEPP students have had comparable leadership, work and volunteer experiences; at least 75% or more have had all of these experiences.

Career Plans

Thirteen freshmen and fourteen sophomore SEPP students indicated a change in majors since entering MSU, compared to twenty-three NS students who had also done so. Conversely, 34 freshmen, and 29 sophomore SEPP students had not changed majors, compared to 25 non-SEPP students who had. Whether or not change of majors was associated in any way with a move into education, as compared to a change of majors per se, was not established.

Interest in becoming a middle or high school teacher ranged from passive (1, S1; 2, NS) to very interested (31, S1; 38, S2; and 28, NS). Ninety percent of the S2 students reported that they were very interested in becoming a teacher; sixty-five percent of the freshmen SEPP students were very interested and fifty-eight percent of the NS students were very interested. None of the S2 students indicated a scaled response of less than either "very" or "interested."

Within the population S2 students had the highest rate of response

with respect to holding career plans three years hence as still a high interest item (80%). The degree of interest three years hence was rated as high by 31 S1; 33 S2 and 25 NS students. Sixteen percent of the NS group rated their interest as medium, compared to twenty-two percent of S1 and nineteen percent of S2 students who responded in like manner.

Degree of commitment to becoming and staying a teacher five years hence was consistent among the groups when ranked as high interest. The S1 group responded high interest levels for 61% of the group; S2 responses represented 63% and NS responses represented 68% of the group having high degrees of interest. Freshmen SEPP students ranked five-year interest as medium in 25% of their responses. This compared to 31% for sophomore SEPP and 15.7% for NS students. Low levels of interest were expressed by six students in S1, representing 14.6%, two students in S2 representing 4.8% and six students in NS, representing 15.7%. In terms of long-term interest in becoming and staying as a teacher five years hence, more sophomore SEPP students indicate a long-term interest than do either the S1 or NS students.

When viewed collectively, the SEPP students expressed a high interest in becoming a teacher three years hence at a rate 6% greater than did the non-SEPP students. Four percent more of the SEPP students indicated a medium interest three years hence than did the non-SEPP students. Low interest was expressed as 7% greater by non-SEPP students than SEPP students. These comparisons did not remain constant when analyzed in terms of interest five years hence.

Six percent of the non-SEPP students indicated a higher degree of interest five years hence than did SEPP students. Thirteen percent more

expressed medium interest five years hence in the SEPP group than did the non-SEPP group. Low interest was expressed as 6& greater by non-SEPP students than by SEPP students.

High degrees of interest in both three and five years hence were expressed by SEPP students at a rate 6% greater than those expressed by non-SEPP students. Medium degrees of interest in both three and five years hence were expressed by SEPP students at a rate of 4% and 13% respectively greater than those expressed by non-SEPP students. Low degrees of interest were expressed by 7% more non-SEPP than SEPP students with respect to three years hence and by 6% more non-SEPP than SEPP students with respect to five years hence. These data suggest that although the non-SEPP students had changed majors moreso than SEPP students had, there was a greater degree of commitment over the long term on the part of the non-SEPP students. Interest in becoming a teacher remained high for both SEPP and non-SEPP groups initially, but as the student projected him/herself into the future role of teaching the degree of interest (commitment) decreased. High degrees of interest dropped by 13% within the SEPP group when contrasting three and five years hence. Medium degrees of interest dropped by 7% within the SEPP group when contrasting three and five years hence. Non-SEPP responses, contrasting three and five years hence, were not changed significantly, as demonstrated by a 1% movement notation. Non-SEPP students were more commited over time to becoming and staying teachers than were the SEPP students. (Within the SEPP group, the S2 subgroup accounted for the highest percentage of downward change.) Between 31% and 39% of the students do not perceive themselves in teaching five years hence.

Attitude/Perceptions

The Attitude/Perceptions Scale, scored on a Likert type scale, was analyzed for item and sum score reliability as reported in Chapter 3. Using only the A/P Scale sum scores, S1 students were found to have mean scores of 127.37; S2 students were found to have mean scores of 125.48. Non-SEPP students were found to have mean scores of 127.33. Standard deviations were 26.32, 22.04, and 20.78 for S1, S2 and NS groups respectively. F ratio was 2.11 which was not significant at the .05 level. (D. F. 2, N = 139). The A/P Scale sum score mean was 3.77 overall, indicating internal consistency of student responses overall and tending toward the positive side of the scale of one to five.

There were no significant differences between the SEPP and non-SEPP students and the way in which they perceived the university staff/ program at MSU. The S1 students were closer to the NS students' attitude than they were to the S2 students', but, the difference was not significant. Both groups viewed the program alike -- in a high positive direction.

Eighty to eighty-five percent of the SEPP and non-SEPP students perceived fellow students to have been helpful or very helpful to them. In decreasing order S1, S2 and NS students perceived teaching faculty to have been helpful or very helpful, 73%, 62%, and 66% respectively. Next group who were ranked as helpful or very helpful were the graduate assistants, who were ranked as helpful or very helpful by 51% of the S1 students, but only by 30% of the S2 students. NS students ranked graduate assistants as 40% helpful or very helpful. On an average, both SEPP and non-SEPP groups perceived graduate assistants as helpful or very helpful. Stated differently, 60% of both groups viewed graduate assistants as of mildly to of no help. Within groups, S1 and NS students

perceived graduate assistants in a more positive manner than did S2 students.

Thirty percent of the S1 students and forty-six percent of the S2 students perceived University College faculty to have been helpful or very helpful, compared to forty percent of the NS students who responded in like manner. Overall, the SEPP and non-SEPP groups were not significantly different in their perception of the helpfulness of the University College faculty.

Of the S1 students, 35% perceived dorm advisors as helpful or very helpful. Students in the S2 group rated in like manner -- 35% indicated that dorm advisors were helpful or very helpful. This contrasts with only 29% of the NS students having these same perceptions.

Overall group perceptions of helpfulness were not significantly different between SEPP and non-SEPP students.

In decreasing level of support, other students were rated as most often helpful, followed by teaching faculty, graduate assistants, University College faculty, and dorm advisors. There were no significant differences between groups nor between their ranking of the various specific university-employed persons.

These support levels were reflected in at least one specific item within the A/P Scale, number 29, which read "My decision to stay at MSU is, in part, because of the university staff." This particular statement was one which appeared among those listed having high factor loadings and reported in Chapter 3.

Review of the high factor loaded items indicated that the students generally perceived the university staff as competent, personally interested in their well-being, and generally available as a resource

person. These attitudes, therefore, affect their decision to remain at Michigan State University.

Personality Factors

Analysis of the 16 P. F. response data indicated that both means and standard deviations were generally consistent with college norms reported, with the exception of two factors, Factor I (Tough-Tenderminded) and Factor Q1 (Conservative-Experimenting). Within Factor I the groups were 1.46 higher than the mean and .81 lower than the reported standard deviations. Table , Chapter , provides specific means for Factor I.

Within Factor Q1 the mean for all groups combined was 1.0 lower than the national norms for comparable populations; the standard deviation was consistent with the norms. Within the groups, the NS students tended to be more conservative than the SEPP students. Both groups tend toward conservatism, as defined in the context of the 16 P. F. item. These tendencies were supported in a separate document, the Kerlinger Education Scale VI, reported in a later portion of this Chapter.

Two other factors note mention, Factor H (Shy-Venturesome) and Fa- tor M (Practical-Imaginative). Within Factor H, the S2 students were 1.1 higher in mean scores than other college students; S1 respondents were .6 higher than the norm. The factor characterizes respondents as sociable, spontaneous, and "willing to try new things." Such tendencies would lend support to the possibility of a Hawthorne effect, stated as a possible limitation in the study.

Within Factor M (Practical-Imaginative) the S2 students were higher in their tendencies toward concern with detail and tendencies toward anxiousness to do the "right things."

Considered overall, the S2 and NS students resemble each other in many respects and are comparable to other college students. In other respects, the NS students were found to also resemble S1 students. S1 Students had some personality differences when compared to S2. When the SEPP groups are combined and considered as if they were one group, they were much like the NS students. Both groups approximate other college students of the same age range. These statements, it must be recalled, are made within the context of one administration of the 16 P. F., rather than two administrations which are considered to be more reliable. As antecedent information, the preliminary profile is assumed to be valid.

Attitudes Toward Education

The Kerlinger Education Scale VI was used to measure attitudes toward education. This instrument necessitated interpretations based on the construct that the lower the score the higher the degree of traditionalism/progressivism. Kerlinger A scores reported tendencies toward traditionalism.

Both SEPP and non-SEPP groups were higher than the means reported by Kerlinger, scoring 6.50, 6.27, and 5.94 respectively for S1, S2 and NS. Their higher mean scores for A items can be explained by the dating of the norm tables (1963), as well as by the general increase in maturation of students today.

Tendencies toward progressivism were reflected by mean scores of 5.35, 4.59, and 4.47 for S1, S2 and NS students respectively. In all cases these mean scores were within ranges encompassing or lower than the mean scores for college age students as reported by Kerlinger.

Taken overall, both the SEPP and non-SEPP students are neutral

with respect to tendencies toward traditionalism. They are neither extremely progressive nor traditional -- "middle of the roaders" essentially. They closely approximate other college students nationwide. This should not be construed to mean that there were not extremes represented by certain individual scores, for there were.

Openness/closedness of Belief System

The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale was used to measure openness/closedness of belief system. The instrument necessitated interpretations based on the construct that the higher the score the lower the degree of dogmatism or closedness of belief system was expressed in the responses. Mean scores of 6.50, 6.28, and 6.17 were reported for S1, S2 and NS respectively. Sixty percent or more of the students tended to score on the openminded end of the scale, but not at extremes of the scale. The information supported the neutrality expressed on the Kerlinger A and B subscores. Neither the SEPP nor the non-SEPP students were extremely open or closed in their belief systems. They were comparable to other students nationwide.

Helmert Contrasts

Additional tests were conducted by utilizing Helmert Contrasts to test three hypothesis: the grand mean; NS versus S1 and S2; and S1 versus S2. Results of the contrasts imply that the three groups were essentially alike. These contrasts lend additional support to some of the generalizations drawn from data analysis and described in earlier portions of this Chapter.

FINDINGS

This study, descriptive and exploratory in nature, has not purported to be hypothesis testing; neither has it been designed to produce unquestionable conclusions for the most part. The intent was to provide descriptive data from which baseline information could be developed and further researched. The potential of hypothesis generating was not limited, rather it was perceived to be optimal and applicable to both processes and products of the teacher education program.

This is not to suggest that firm findings cannot be drawn from the data. Such findings should be considered as generalizations from which hypothesis for further study may generate.

In summary, the data suggest that the following findings may be drawn:

1. SEPP students are not significantly different from non-SEPP students with respect to their attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, basic personality characteristics, and socio-economic backgrounds.

2. Both SEPP and non-SEPP students are not significantly different from other college-age students nationwide with respect to their attitudes, beliefs, and basic personality characteristics.

3. Both SEPP and non-SEPP students are similar to other practicing teachers described in the literature in terms of their socio-economic backgrounds.

4. SEPP students do not appear to have the degree of commitment to becoming and staying a teacher to the same degree as do the non-SEPP students.

5. SEPP and non-SEPP students generally perceive the university

community to be helpful to them. Students studied chose to stay at Michigan State University partially for this reason.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Additional information should be gathered with respect to attitudes toward education, particularly in terms of entering students. Early identification of these attitudes may provide a framework from which to address pre-program entrance criteria, individual conferences, group discussions, and dialogue on the nature, function, and philosophies of education. It may also serve as a reference point in a total program evaluation.

2. Further research, particularly of a follow-up nature, could be undertaken to review the SEPP program participants to determine what, if any, changes in attitude toward teaching and education occur.

3. For purposes of additional research, additional information should be gathered on the perceptions students have toward the University College faculty, since it is this group with whom these freshmen and sophomore students spend a large percentage of their time. When between 25-35% of 139 students indicate little or no help on a scaled response, one is pressed to ask the question "why?" It would be incumbent on the university to pursue gathering additional data as to why students have these perceptions.

4. A follow-up longitudinal study should be conducted to monitor the career paths of those students who will be graduating from the SEPP program in 1977. Of particular interest should be the question of

whether or not these students enter and remain in teaching beyond two years after graduation.

5. With respect to tendencies toward traditionalism/progressivism, is there the possibility that students choose the alternative program because they are, in fact, somewhat progressive or is there something in their basic personality which simply makes them want to try something new? Having a differentiation between these two possibilities could enhance the function of the program. Additional research should be completed in this area.

6. Further research, particularly of a follow-up nature, should be undertaken to review within the next two years of program participation to determine what, if any, changes in openness/closedness of belief system occur, particularly since attitudes, beliefs, basic personality characteristics and socio-economic background values are potentially carried into the classroom by the very nature of the act of teaching as an interaction art.

7. Data from this study indicates that there is some relationship between openness/closedness of belief system and tendency toward traditionalism/progressivism. It is recommended that the program administrators and staff pursue this relationship as it relates to development of very personalized and particular human transactions. Since some of the SEPP students will be participating in a "student teaching" component of one type or another, it is recommended that monitoring of interaction styles be conducted. Content analysis of the recommendations by the cooperating teacher could provide other insights on the attitude of the SEPP students, as well as on their receptivity to new ideas.

8. In the selection process the ratio of male to female, caucasian to non-caucasian should be a program consideration. The fact that the student initially elects to enter the program should not deter the program administrators and staff from attempting to encourage minority groups' participation. Expansion of public information efforts is recommended to include both notification within the university and outside the university wherever possible. This is not to suggest that the alternative program should become a recruiting vehicle for the university preservice program. It should, instead, encourage a vehicle which represents an open alternative in every sense of the word, available to those students who are interested and qualify on their own merit.

9. As in any new enterprise, one must walk before running. Thus, through a carefully constructed evaluation plan, the step by step process can be followed, validated, modified and expanded. It is recommended that such a process be implemented, that evaluation components be identified, and that data collection efforts begin in an orderly, sequential manner. Information gathered from evaluation and monitoring reports may be of use to the program administrators and staff, the university Curriculum Committee, and the participating students as well. One such model reviewed in the literature, the Stake Model, appears to be appropriate to the process. It is recommended that remaining components within the model be identified and that evaluative research begin.

10. Certain patterns emerge with respect to the drop out rates of undergraduate students nationally. Additional specific information is available on the number of students within SEPP who have left either the program or the university setting. Attempts should be made to continue

to validate what happens to those students who have chosen, or chose to leave the program prior to graduation. Research into this area could be of benefit to the program administrator and the university in general, particularly as one quantifies the holding power of SEPP as part of an evaluative effort.

11. Little appears to be known of the relationship of volunteer, work, and leadership experiences and the manner in which they affect the decision to become a teacher. More importantly, little is known as to whether or not these experiences tend to encourage one to become a teacher as a function of some other goal, i. e. administration in education, as an avocation closely allied to other primary interests (art and artists, music and musicians, business and business enterprise, language and linguistics, English and professional writing, etc.). Additional research in this widely unexplored functional concept is recommended.

12. The literature suggests that work, leadership, and volunteer experiences each contribute in a unique manner to the enhancement of self, the creation of interest, and/or meeting of certain felt needs. Such student experiences should be identified prior to entry into a teacher education program, if for no other reason than that of identifying those students who may have spent time in association with youngsters similar to those they wish to teach. They then could be expected to enter the program having some conception (right or wrong) of the characteristics of that potential group. These pre-conceived notions, then, could also be expanded upon and/or modified through various program experiences. Experience could also be used as a program entrance criteria.

13. That there is a need for role clarification in teacher preparation is indicated both in the literature and in the expressed career plans of the students. Thus, an attempt to identify the "profession of teaching" as a career goal could be incorporated into program considerations. If the intent of an alternative teacher education program is to provide a setting in which students are able to experiment with teaching before deciding on it as a career is to be met, early options for exit must exist. But, to encourage exit before providing students with both a philosophic and a practical perspective is to do them an injustice. It is recommended that a definition and role clarification component be added to the early portion of the preservice SEPP program.

14. As a matter of philosophic and practical consideration, the attitudes identified inherently impact on career choices made. The literature suggests that the counseling function within any program should be expanded to include discussion of role expectations, particularly in the context of both the immediate and long-range impact of attitudes and satisfaction with one's career choice.

15. Inventoried interests could be considered as essential pre-program entrance information. The literature strongly suggests that measures designed to identify interest have potential value for selection purposes. Inventories of interest are formal processes which could be utilized as one of several tools to determine entrance/acceptance into a program, particularly an alternative program having limited staff resources. Once identified, the curriculum should adopt/adapt strategies designed to capture expressed inventoried interests of the participants.

16. Tests for aptitude for teaching are existant. These measures

could also be utilized as another tool to determine entrance/acceptance into the preservice program. In addition, they could be utilized for evaluative purposes with respect to both the program and participants in terms of having additional comparative information available.

17. Because some of the data suggests a Hawthorne effect, there is the need to know if it is real or if, in fact, the early field experiences provided through the alternative program enhance student perceptions to the extent that they can more readily "not see" themselves in teaching as a career. If this is the case, then a vital program component may be judged to have been successful. Continued investigation in the area of program and career choice is recommended.

18. Given certain predetermined program components, how do students perceive the contribution of those components to the development of themselves as professionals? Additional research needs to be completed to determine the degree to which the program functions to enhance professional development as well as personal development.

19. Although students were not asked to identify the number of times they had changed majors, or why they had done so, such information could provide additional insights to the university Curriculum Committee and to the counseling staff. There is a need to know more of the process as it impacts on the students as well as on the university. By researching this basic question one might expect to help fill the vacuum of information with respect to the large numbers of students who withdraw or change majors and/or never complete their college careers.

20. The literature indicates that there is rationale to support the admittance of highly qualified preservice candidates. A study should be done to determine if, in fact, students opting for the alternative

program represent high calibre candidates, capable of enhancing the profession. Such a study could only be accomplished after first quantifying "high calibre." Then a criteria discrepancy could be accomplished.

21. The literature suggests that certain personality and/or other factors contribute to the decision to become a teacher. What specific personality characteristics may be contributory to the decision has not yet been identified. This is another potential area for research.

22. If students perceive teaching as a means to some other end, the large numbers of teachers who enter but also exit from the profession after only a few years would be explained. Research into the basic question of whether or not career choice functions to encourage mobility, dropouts, etc is warranted. The SEPP students were not asked whether or not their perceptions included teaching as a means to some other end. Such perceptual information could be gathered.

23. Additional research should be conducted on the laboratory (field experience) component of the SEPP program so as to identify the manner and degree to which the potential teacher is able to discuss and clarify what he perceives to be his strengths/weaknesses as they relate to becoming an effective teacher, within the context of role perceptions and career plans as a curriculum consideration previously noted in these recommendations.

24. For those persons who might wish to pursue use of the Attitude/Perceptions Scale, there is the need to additionally refine, validate, and test for additional reliability of the document. The recommendation is made, then, that before use is made of the document some of the steps identified earlier be taken to insure additional reliability/validity.

25. The alternative teacher education program is premised on the concept that the program encourages each person to develop his/her own teaching style. Yet student perceptions of "program/staff helpfulness," while not structured in terms of SEPP per se, were not related to the degrees of commitment expressed toward teaching three and five-years hence. This suggests that there is something occuring which fails to reach the students' individual interests, and, therefore, may contribute to decrease his interest in teaching as a career. Such an occurence would not be consistent with the small group, individualized approach proposed in the program. It is recommended that this inverse relationship be formally examined by the program administrators and staff.

26. Throughout the review of the literature the recurrent theme of the need for continuous patterns of pre and in-service education are mentioned. It is recommended that prior to the time of the graduation of the first SEPP class a design for inservice activities be identified to assure the continuity of effort toward professional growth. Such a design would be an extension of the currently approved curriculum.

27. Many of the components of the SEPP program, described in Chapters 1 and 2, hinge upon the cooperation of participating local schools. In addition to the recommendation that public relations efforts be expanded, it is recommended that the university attempt to define the criteria, method, and role definition of those local education agency personnel who function as field experience supervisors and/or cooperating teachers. The need for definition becomes greater as each passing term is completed, primarily because the students described in this study are expected to have increased field experiences as they progress through

the program. The liason responsibility for university personnel should also be clearly established as part of the process recommended.

28. As the alternative teacher education program expands, it will necessitate increased staff demands. It is recommended that full-time equivalent information be developed with respect to staffing patterns and that this information be described in terms of both university personnel and cooperating local education agency personnel. The whole area of "shared responsibility" for professional development is inherent in the alternative program. To assure the successful completion and graduation of its first class, there is every likelihood that administrators will be vitally interested in cost-benefit related studies. These, too, are recommended for consideration in program purposes as well as for research purposes.

29. Other alternative programs reviewed in the literature, while limited, do suggest that the greater the public information and community support for the program (coupled with university support), the more likelihood there is that the graduates of the program will be well-received by the education community. In addition, they appear to be supported in the process of becoming teachers through local education agency encouragement and participation. It is recommended that a public information effort be designed to inform and garner support for the alternative preservice program. The unique experiences provided through the program, if validated in the process, can enhance the capability of the student and his/her potential for initial job placement success. Initial job placement appears to be highly contingent on receptivity by the education community. Public information efforts represent one method of garnering

support for the program and its graduates.

30. Information from the literature suggests that interim "success" criteria may be developed as one means of measuring the relative success of persons engaged in an occupational endeavor. It is recommended that consideration be given to the development of criteria which are short term in nature and relevant to the program goals.

31. The literature suggests that many evaluations of teacher education programs are considered to meet "effectiveness measures" when taken from the perspective of post-hoc information. The recommendation is made that the program developers consider particular evaluations of both the "student teaching" component and the first-year of teaching perspectives of SEPP participants to determine if, in fact, confidence levels of these beginning teachers are increased or decreased. Such information would provide another portion of data relative to a total evaluation of the program as well as relative to an effectiveness measurement of preservice teacher education.

32. Self concept, closely allied to personality and values, as reviewed in the literature, is assumed to be enhanced by the nature of the alternative program. Additional research into the area of self-concept and values of the SEPP program participants appears to be needed particularly as another portion of the baseline data beyond that drawn through information contained in this study.

33. It is recommended that the university administration give its continued support to the alternative program and the counseling function generally within the University by making additional personality and interest testing possible, so as to be utilized by the SEPP staff.

While university funds are limited, to the extent possible efforts should continue to provide "entering information" on the nature and background of the students. This can be accomplished through a formalized testing process to include personality, attitude and interest measures.

34. Several recommendations affecting the counseling staff at Michigan State University, as well as the SEPP program administrators and staff, have been made. One final recommendation affecting this same group is that efforts be undertaken to adequately utilize personality and interest testing results as a general counseling tool.

CLOSING STATEMENT

Calls for reform in education, and in teacher education particularly, will continue for so long as the education profession at any level affects the lives of those who are taught, ad infinitum perhaps. Public demands for quality teachers who can function in a fast-changing social institution, and do so effectively, impact in unique ways on the total education community. Research in the behavioral and social sciences also contributes in a unique manner.

Efforts to produce teachers who are both human and learned have begun through modification of existing teacher education programs and the development of alternative programs. These efforts provide a vehicle through which the profession can continue to upgrade both its standards of selection and development of teaching competencies. To assure continual progress toward those goals, evaluation methodologies can be applied to the teacher education process to determine adoption-rejection of curriculum and to determine the need for revision or further development of curriculum offerings. Once having defined the formal setting (the institutional organization) as it affects the learning of the student, the setting becomes an antecedent characteristic--an operational definition. In the same sense, the human organism can be described in terms of initial orientation to the organization. Thus, assessment of the student in the particular learning setting can occur. "Values" may be stated objectively when developed against certain predetermined criteria.

The outputs of formal evaluation efforts are expressed as corrective feedback, rather than reflective comment. It can provide.

information designed to enhance the role of the teacher training institution while enhancing the potential successes of its graduates. To this end the total university curriculum contributes to the development of improved teacher trainee attitudes, knowledges, and behaviors toward the students they will teach.

Similarly, the particular preservice program contributes to the degree that it does, in fact, put into practice all of the best that is known of teaching and learning. The program, both regular and alternative, provides the setting and the modeling behaviors which may encourage positive human interaction as well as teaching skills.

Through such endeavors those who are prepared to teach will eventually be able to do so in a manner and style consistent with a personalized philosophy incorporating an understanding of those who are recipients of their efforts in the classroom setting.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SEPP SPECIFIC PROGRAM COMPONENTS

SECONDARY EDUCATION PILOT PROGRAM COMPONENTS

Fall: Education 102-A Introduction to Secondary Education (1 credit)

This seminar meets four times during the terms, for a minimum of two hours each meeting. It provides an introduction to the professional role of the teacher, the effect of schooling on youth, and an orientation to the SEPP program and philosophies. This seminar constitutes the formation of an ongoing advisement group, which continues to meet regularly, though less frequently, throughout the next four years.

Winter: Education 102-B Personal Dimensions of Secondary Teaching (2 cr.)

A two-day interpersonal relations micro-lab focusing on personal values, qualities of self, and the experience of teaching. Included is the first opportunity for students to teach a small piece of familiar material to members of the laboratory group, using video tape to evaluate and reflect on the experience.

Spring: Education 102-C Adolescent Youth Culture (2 credits)

A weekend camping trip with junior and senior high young people from the Lansing area, this laboratory focuses on characteristics of young people in a non-school setting. Of great importance in the design of this experience is the role of the self in interaction with others.

Field Experience Requirement:

During the second year of the program (occasionally the Spring Term of the freshmen year for those who are ready) SEPP requires students to complete the equivalent of 120 hours of clinical experience with young people in a field setting. It is strongly recommended that this requirement be met through summer work in a camp or recreation setting during the first or second summer. If completed during school time, this requirement could take the form of two, 2-hour blocks per week of time spent as a teacher's aide in a local school. Such a position is considered voluntary, and there is usually no imbursement associated with it. On the basis of that schedule the requirement can be met in one year.

Mind-benders: Each term students are expected to read from a list provided by the staff one book of current interest in the broad field of education and social concern. Single session discussions will be held, in which each student is expected to participate, depending on which book was read. Students from all class levels may participate in each discussion, which is not graded, but merely an opportunity to share ideas with other students and staff. Bibliographies are available at about midterm of the previous term.

Sophomore Year

Fall: Education 202-A Adolescent Educational Psychology (2 credits)

Course emphasizes psychological, social, emotional and academic development of adolescents. Special emphasis on the problems and characteristics of early adolescence (junior high and middle school).

Winter: Education 202-B Workshops in Secondary Education (2 credits)

A variety of concentrated sessions on various topics such as racial problems in secondary schools, school law, discipline, school organization, curriculum development, finance, etc.

Spring: Education 202-C Alternative School Structures (1 credit)

A series of visitations, each one day in length. Students will visit an open space school, a career center, an urban high school, an open middle school and one school of their choice. In each case students will be encouraged to experience the school day of a typical pupil. Discussion and analysis of each school will follow each visitation. Students especially interested in a particular school or type of school will be encouraged to concentrate on that type, occasionally substituting for one of those scheduled.

Field Experience Requirement:

If not already completed, students should plan to complete the requirement described on page four during this summer session.

Junior Year

Pre-Fall: Leadership Training Laboratory Workshop (no credit)

Junior students spend one week in September, prior to the beginning of the term, in a concentrated, live-in workshop setting designed to focus on interpersonal skills, group processes, and the specific dynamics of instructional groups. Heavy emphasis will be placed on the teacher's role in crisis situations -- in the classroom, in the school, and in the community.

Fall: Teaching Skills Laboratories (4 credits)

Specific teaching competencies, identified by the staff, will be addressed through concentrated workshop and laboratory sessions, with students spending at least four hours each week in a public school setting demonstrating those skills learned in the on-campus laboratories. Extensive use of video tape facilities will be applied to the evaluation of each competency.

Winter: Inter-racial, Inter-ethnic Camp Laboratory (1 credit)

Similar to the lab which is scheduled for the spring of the freshman year, this lab also includes junior and senior high students, but also focuses on the experience of the third world student.

Spring: Full Time Clinical Internship (10 credits)

Supervision by SEPP staff and public school personnel.

Senior Year

Fall: Workshops in Educational Activities (2 credits)

One required workshop sequence in curriculum building and improvement, emphasizing Kindergarten through twelfth grade. Other workshops offer a choice to students, many of them arising out of issues encountered in student teaching and previously in the program.

Winter: Seminar in Teaching of Specific Subjects (2 credits)

This course deals with the teaching of specific subjects. The student enrolls in a section dealing with his major subject field. Staff of SEPP works in conjunction with members of major departments in the supervision and instruction of this portion of the SEPP program.

Spring: Seminar in Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education (1 credit)

Focus in on the student's refinement of his personal philosophy of education, and its application to his personal teaching style. A beginning exploration of historical and philosophical perspectives serves as a brief introduction to graduate study.

Student Advisory Committee

Each term advisement groups are encouraged to designate one of their members as their representative to the Student Advisory Committee. Included in this committee's responsibilities is the approval of any program changes which may be appropriate to meet the changing needs of students in the program, the scheduling of social and program events, and the decision, when necessary, as to financial matters pertaining to the program.

Student Leadership in SEPP

One of the unique opportunities offered to students beyond their first year is that of participating in the leadership (and,

occasionally, the instruction) of others in the program. Small group leadership, seminar leadership, and the sponsoring of special events all give students additional opportunities for experience which both prepares them for classroom work as a professional, and adds to their marketability upon the receipt of degree and certification.

APPENDIX B

SPECIAL LETTER TO NON-SEPP ED 200 STUDENTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

November, 1974

Dear Ed 200 Student:

You are invited to participate in a study of secondary education teacher education students enrolled at Michigan State University. The purpose of the study is to gather information on the attitudes, perceptions, vocational interests, and experiences of the typical secondary education student.

The materials you will need to participate are attached to this letter. They are designed to determine:

- how you "see" the undergraduate program at MSU.
- how your personal interests "match" with various vocational interests.
- what experiences you may have had that are vocationally oriented.

A total of approximately 320 students will be part of the study, yourself included. As a participant we would like you to do the following:

1. Complete the attached forms within the next five days.

2. Schedule time within the next few days (around your class schedule) to complete one other form in Room 324 Erickson Hall.

3. Return the completed questionnaires to Room 324 E.H. At the time you return the materials you can also complete item 2 above.

Your voluntary participation will provide valuable information for the University, for yourself, and for us. You will be provided copies of the information gathered, some of which can help you in your career planning.

Please complete the questionnaires and return them to 324 E.H. within the next five days. Your willingness to help with the study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carol Norris

Carol Norris

Dr. Sam Corl
Associate Professor

Enclosure: Questionnaires (3)

APPENDIX C

CONTACT TO SEPP STUDENTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

November 5, 1974

You have been selected...because you are a SEPP student

to participate in a study of Michigan State University undergraduates.

As part of a doctoral dissertation, in part evaluating the SEPP program, your help is needed. The amount of time you will need to spend will be small--just enough to complete several questionnaires on several areas including:

- how you "see" the undergraduate program at MSU.
- how your personal interests "match" with various vocational interests.
- what experiences you may have had that are vocationally oriented.

A total of approximately 320 students will be part of the study, yourself included. As a participant we would like you to do the following:

1. Return the self-addressed post card today!

2. Plan on attending an hour-long orientation meeting on either November 20 or November 26, 1974. The meetings will be held in the Kiva, Erickson Hall. Times are as follows:

   November 20 - 12:40 - 1:40 p.m.
   November 20 - 1:40 - 2:40 p.m.
   November 26 - 12:40 - 1:30 p.m. or
   3:00 - 4:00 p.m.

   You may attend any one of the meetings.

3. Plan on completing the questionnaires on November 20 through 26. You can schedule the time around your class schedule.

4. Schedule time during the early part of April, 1975, to complete a second set of follow-up questionnaires.

Your voluntary participation will provide valuable information for the University, for yourself, and for us. You will be provided copies of the information gathered, some of which can help you in your career planning.

Please return the post card today. Mark your calendar for November 20 or 26. Your willingness to help with the study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carol Norris

Dr. Sam Gori
Associate Professor

Enclosure: post card

APPENDIX D

CONTACT LETTER TO NON-SEPP STUDENTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

November 20, 1974

You have been selected....

to participate in a unique study of Michigan State University undergraduates.

We really need your help! The amount of time you will need to spend will be small--just enough to complete several questionnaires on several areas including:

- how you "see" the undergraduate program at MSU.
- how your personal interests "match" with various vocational interests.
- what experiences you may have had that are vocationally oriented.

A total of approximately 320 students will be part of the study, yourself included. As a participant we would like you to do the following:

1. Return the self-addressed post card today!

2. Plan on attending an hour-long orientation meeting on one of several dates. The meetings will be held in Erickson Hall. Times and places are as follows:

   December 2 - 3:00 - 4:00 p.m. - Room 319 Erickson Hall
   December 3 - 1:40 - 2:40 p.m. - Room 319 Erickson Hall
   December 4 - 12:40 - 1:40 p.m. - Room 113 Erickson Hall
   December 4 - 1:40 - 2:40 p.m. - Room 113 Erickson Hall
   December 5 - 12:40 - 1:30 p.m. - Room 113 Erickson Hall

   You may attend any one of the meetings.

3. Plan on completing the questionnaires on December 2 through 6. You can schedule the time around your class schedule.

4. Schedule time during the early part of April, 1975, to complete a second set of follow-up questionnaires.

Your voluntary participation will provide valuable information for the University, for yourself, and for us. You will be provided copies of the information gathered, some of which can help you in your career planning.

Please return the post card today. Mark your calendar for December 2, 3, 4, or 5. Your willingness to help with the study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carol Norris

Carol Norris

Dr. Sam Goff

Associate Professor

Enclosure: Post card

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE RETURN, STAMPED SELF-ADDRESSED POSTCARD

Sam Corl and Carol Norris
324 Erickson Hall
College of Education
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

☐ I am interested in being part of the study, but cannot attend the scheduled meeting(s). You can reach me at _____ (phone) or leave a message at _____ (address) to set up a special meeting time.

☐ I am interested in being part of the study, and will attend the scheduled meeting on _____ (date).

_____ (Name) _____ (Student Number)

APPENDIX F

ATTITUDE/PERCEPTIONS SCALE

MSU ATTITUDE SURVEY - PERCEPTIONS TOWARD PROGRAM

PART I: Personal Information: Circle your responses

1. Sex:

   a) Male

   b) Female

2. Time in present school (MSU)

   a) 1 term or less

   b) 2-3 terms

   c) 4-5 terms

   d) 6-7 terms

   e) 8 or more terms

3. Prior post-secondary schooling. (junior college, community college, technical school, university)

   a) 1 term or less

   b) 2-3 terms

   c) 4-5 terms

   d) 6-7 terms

   e) 8 or more terms

Answer #4 only if you have completed item 3 above. If not, proceed to Part II.

4. Type of school attended prior to MSU:

   a) Junior or Community College

   b) Technical School

   c) University

PART II: Below are 34 items or statements dealing with how you perceive the program and services at Michigan State University. To aid you in answering this questionnaire, the following definitions are provided:

University Staff: is defined as any person officially employed by the University to provide services to students. This may include, but not be limited to academic advisors, residence hall advisors, University College Advisors, Supportive staff such as graduate student instructors.

Program: is defined as the formal instructional sequence in which you are currently enrolled. It includes the academic or professional course(s) (Past, present and projected) and related experiences required as part of the course work.

TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS respond to each of the items as follows: example, if you agree very strongly with a statement, you would write +3 on the short line preceding the statement, but if you should happen to disagree with it, you would put a -1 in front of it. Respond to each statement as best you can. Go rapidly but carefully. Do not spend too much time on any one statement; try to respond and then go on. The questions begin with item #5.

Response Codings:	Agree Very Strongly:	+3	Disagree Very Strongly:	-3
	Agree Strongly:	+2	Disagree Strongly:	-2
	Agree:	+1	Disagree:	-1

_____ 5. I understand what services the university staff can provide in this school.

_____ 6. I make use of the information provided by the university staff.

WITH RESPECT TO UNIVERSITY STAFF:

_____ 7. they help me to identify potential program problems.

_____ 8. they help me to solve education (program) problems.

_____ 9. they provide me with educational and/or vocational information related to my subject area.

_____10. they appear to have time to work with me on problems or concerns

_____11. they maintain confidentiality.

_____12. they are knowledgeable regarding educational information; e.g., courses, programs and prerequisites.

WITH RESPECT TO MYSELF:

_____13. I feel that university staff are competent in their subject matter areas.

_____14. As a new student I found that orientation to this school is provided by university staff.

_____15. As far as I can determine, students who withdraw or transfer are given information on what procedures to follow.

_____16. I feel that university staff are good resource people.

_____17. As far as I can determine, university staff provide students with information regarding scholarships, and other financial assistance available to them.

_____18. I have had little, if any, contact with university staff other than having drop/add cards signed.

WITH RESPECT TO UNIVERSITY STAFF:

_____19. they conduct group and/or individual sessions to assist students (e.g., in developing study skills).

_____20. They help me in scheduling classes and choosing instructors.

_____21. They act as a buffer or an advocate of the individual student with regard to institutional policies and/or regulations.

_____22. They offer advice, but do not insist that I follow their recommendation(s).

_____23. They attempt to get to know the students as individuals.

_____24. They provide accurate information on course content and course requirements.

WITH RESPECT TO MYSELF:

_____25. Time spent with university staff is worthwhile; it helps me make program decisions.

_____26. Time spent with university staff is worthwhile; it helps me make career decisions.

_____27. Time spent with university staff is worthwhile; it helps me make personal decisions.

_____28. If I have a problem or gripe, I know the university staff will provide a "shoulder to cry on."

_____29. I am able to reach university staff generally.

_____30. If I am referred to another person by someone from the university staff I am usually able to see the second person within a short period of time.

_____31. My observation is that most students do <u>not</u> use the services of the university staff.

_____32. When I am with the university staff I feel they are interested and attentive during our conversation.

RESPONSE CODINGS:

Agree Very Strongly:	+3	Disagree Very Strongly:	-3
Agree Strongly:	+2	Disagree Strongly:	-2
Agree:	+1	Disagree:	-1

WITH RESPECT TO MSU GENERALLY:

_____34. My attitude toward MSU is positive because of good experiences I have had in working with the university staff.

_____35. My decision to stay at MSU is, in part, because of the university staff.

PART 2.2 There are a group of people who are part of the university staff. They may have helped you in various ways. Of those with whom you have had contact, you have probably made some judgments.

Thinking of those with whom you have had contact check the appropriate section of the response.

2.1 To what extent have the dorm advisor(s) been of help to you?

_____ very much (1) _____ somewhat (2) _____mildly (3) _____very little (4) _____not at all (5)

2.2 To what extent have the teaching faculty been of help to you?

_____very much (1) _____somewhat (2) _____mildly (3) _____very little (4) _____not at all (5)

2.3 To what extent have the Graduate Assistant(s) been of help to you?

_____very much (1) _____somewhat (2) _____mildly (3) _____very little (4) _____not at all (5)

2.4 To what extent have the University College Faculty been of help to you?

_____very much (1) _____somewhat (2) _____mildly (3) _____very little (4) _____not at all (5)

2.5 To what extent have the fellow students and/or others been of help to you?

_____very much (1) _____somewhat (2) _____mildly (3) _____very little (4) _____not at all (5)

Student No. _____

PART III: Out of School Experiences

3.1 There are a group of volunteer experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as "helping other people." These would include, but not be limited to, tutoring, supervising children, caring for adults who are sick or handicapped, working in a school office or as a hall monitor, working in an adult education program, working in a day care center or as a camp counselor; volunteer work at a hospital.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had prior to attending MSU:

(1) _____ I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____ I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

3.2 There are a group of work experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as "working with people" but not necessarily in a "helping relationship." as given above. These might include face to face contact or telephone contact through such activities as clerking in a store, working as a waitress or theatre usher; conducting a survey for a company in person or by telephone.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had prior to attending MSU:

(1) _____I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

3.3 There are a group of experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as providing you with opportunities to be in a "leadership" position. These include, but are not limited to, class offices, club committee chairmen, etc.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had prior to attending MSU:

(1) _____ I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____ I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

Procede to Part IV, next page.

Student No. _____

PART IV: Education and Career Plans

4.1 Have you changed majors since entering MSU: _____ (1) yes _____ (2) no

4.2 To what extent are you interested in becoming a high school or junior high school teacher?

_____ (1) very much _____ (2) somewhat _____ (3) mildly _____ (4) very little
_____ (5) not at all

4.3 If your interest ranges from mild to very much in item 4.2, please complete the following questions.

To what extent do you perceive yourself remaining as a teacher three years from now?

_____ (1) very much _____ (2) somewhat _____ (3) mildly _____ (4) very little
_____ (5) not at all

4.4 To what extent do you perceive yourself remaining as a teacher five years from now?

_____ (1) very much _____ (2) somewhat _____ (3) mildly _____ (4) very little
_____ (5) not at all

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

THIS IS THE END OF THE ATTITUDE-

PERCEPTIONS SCALE.

Student No. _____

PART III: Out of School Experience

3.1 There are a group of volunteer experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as "helping other people." These would include, but not be limited to, tutoring, supervising children, caring for adults who are sick or handicapped, working in a school office or as a hall monitor, working in an adult education program, working in a day care center or as a camp counselor; volunteer work at a hospital.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had since attending MSU:

(1) _____ I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____ I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

3.2 There are a group of work experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as "working with people" but not necessarily in a "helping relationship" as given above. These might include face to face contact or telephone contact through such activities as clerking in a store, working as a waitress or theatre usher; conducting a survey for a company in person or by telephone.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had since attending MSU:

(1) _____ I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____ I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

3.3 There are a group of experiences you may have had which are broadly classified as providing you with opportunities to be in a "leadership" position. These include, but are not limited to, class offices, club committee chairmen, etc.

Indicate what experiences of this type you have had since attending MSU:

(1) _____ I have had these experiences. They include:

_____ _____

_____ _____

(2) _____ I have not had any of these kinds of experiences.

APPENDIX G

PERSONAL BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL BACKGROUND

_____ STUDENT NO. / / / / / /1/ SEX: MALE: _____
(NAME)

FEMALE: _____

1. Are you married: _____ yes _____ no
(10) (11)

2. Are you the head of a household? _____ yes _____ no
(12) (13)

3. RESIDENTIAL INFORMATION: SIZE OF COMMUNITY IN WHICH YOU LIVE. (In responding to this information, consider your home rather than your campus address: If you live off campus and consider that to be your home, respond on the basis of your families' (mother-father) home.)

URBAN COMMUNITY

_____ (14) 1,000,000 or more

_____ (16) 500,000 to 1,000,000

STANDARD METROPOLITAN

_____ (18) 250,000 to 500,000

_____ (20) 100,000 to 250,000

_____ (22) 50,000 to 100,000

SUBURBAN COMMUNITY

_____ (15) 25,000 to 50,000

_____ (17) 10,000 to 25,000

INDEPENDENT CITIES AND/OR RURAL

_____ (19) 5,000 to 10,000

_____ (21) 2,500 to 5,000

_____ (23) 2,000 to 2,500

_____ (24) 1,500 to 2,000

_____ (25) 1,000 to 1,500

4. NUMBER OF PERSONS IN YOUR IMMEDIATE FAMILY GROUP, YOURSELF EXCLUDED.

_____ (26) three or less	_____ (27) six	_____ (28) nine
_____ (29) four	_____ (30) seven	_____ (31) ten or more
_____ (32) five	_____ (33) eight	

5. AGES OF PERSONS IN YOUR IMMEDIATE FAMILY GROUP YOURSELF EXCLUDED.

AGE:	NO. OF PERSONS:	AGE:	NO. OF PERSONS:
_____ (34) Under 5	_____ (35)	_____ (36) 45 to 64	_____ (37)
_____ (38 5 to 14	_____ (39)	_____ (40) 65 and over	_____ (41
_____ (42) 15 to 24	_____ (43)		
_____ (44) 25 to 44	_____ (45)		

YOUR PRESENT AGE:

_____ (46) 18 or under

_____ (47) 19

_____ (48) 20 - 21

_____ (49) 22 - 24

_____ (50) 24 or older

6. SEX OF PERSONS IN YOUR IMMEDIATE FAMILY GROUP, YOURSELF EXCLUDED.

AGE:	SEX:	NUMBER:	AGE:	SEX:	NUMBER:
____Under 5 (51)	____male (52)	____ (53)	____25 to 44 (54)	____male (55)	_____ (56)
	____female (57)	____ (58)		____female (59)	_____ (60)
____5 to 14 (61)	____male (62)	____ (63)	____45 to 64 (64)	____male (65)	_____ (66)
	____female (67)	____ (68)		____female (68)	_____ (70)
____15 to 24 (71)	____male (72)	____ (73)	____65 or over (74)	____male (75)	_____ (76)
	____female (77)	____ (78)		____female (79)	_____ (80)

STUDENT NO. / / / / / /2/

7. PLACE OF RESIDENCE: BASED ON THE LAST FULL YEAR'S TIME:

7.1 Has your family residence changed in the last year? ____yes (8) ____no (9)

7.2 Do family members live in the same house? ____yes (10) ____no (11)

7.3 Do family members live in a different house, but in the same county? ____yes (12) ____no (13)

7.4 Do family members live in a different county, but in the same state? ____yes (14) ____no (15)

7.5 Do family members live in a different state? ____yes (16) ____no (17)

7.6 Are family members living abroad? ____yes (18) ____no (19)

8. TYPE OF RESIDENCE: MORE THAN ONE ANSWER MAY APPLY

8.1 Does your family own its own home? ____yes____no (20) (21)

8.2 Is it a single family residence? ____yes____no (22) (23)

8.3 Is it a condominium? ____yes____no (24) (25)

8.4 Does your family rent its home? ____yes____no (26) (27)

8.5 Is it an apartment? ____yes____no (28) (29)

8.6 Is your home shared with other non-family members (i.e., renters)? ____yes____no (30) (31)

9. TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT OF PERSONS OVER 25 OR CONSIDERED AS HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD. (In responding, count your mother or father, but not both. Count yourself, if you are the head of the household only.)

9.1 Professional, technical and kindred workers ____ (32)

9.2 Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm ____ (33)

9.3 Clerical and kindred workers ____ (34)

9.4 Sales workers ____ (35)

9.5 Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers ____ (36)

9.6 Operatives and kindred workers ____ (37)

9.7 Service workers, including private household ____ (38)

9.8 Laborers, except farm and mine ____ (39)

9.9 Farm occupations ____ (40)

10. FAMILY INCOME: ANNUAL INCOME FOR HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD. (Mother or father, but not both; self, if applicable.)

_____ (41) 25,000 or more	_____ (42) 7,000 to 7,499	_____ (43) 3,000 to 3,499
_____ (44) 15,000 to 24,999	_____ (45) 6,500 to 6,999	_____ (46) 2,500 to 2,999
_____ (47) 10,000 to 14,999	_____ (48) 6,000 to 6,599	_____ (49) 2,000 to 2,499
_____ (50) 9,500 to 9,999	_____ (51) 5,500 to 5,499	_____ (52) 1,500 to 1,999
_____ (53) 9,000 to 9,499	_____ (54) 5,000 to 5,499	_____ (55) 1,000 to 1,499
_____ (56) 8,500 to 8,999	_____ (57) 4,500 to 4,999	_____ (58) 500 to 999
_____ (59) 8,000 to 8,499	_____ (60) 4,000 to 4,499	_____ (61) loss, none, or less than 500
_____ (62) 7,500 to 7,999	_____ (63) 3,500 to 3,999	

11. YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED FOR HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD:

COLLEGE:	5 or more years	HIGH SCHOOL: _____ (65) 4	ELEMENTARY: _____ (66) 8
	4 years _____ (64)		
	4 years _____ (67)	_____ (68) 3	_____ (69) 7
	3 years _____ (70)	_____ (71) 2	_____ (72) 6/5
	2 years _____ (73)	_____ (74) 1	_____ (75) 4/3
	1 year _____ (76)		_____ (77) 2/1

12. SPECIAL SECTION: If both parents are working and you wish to volunteer the information on combined income, please do so in this portion.

USE THE FIGURES GIVEN IN SECTION 10 above TO IDENTIFY THE TOTAL COMBINED INCOME:

_____ (78) Total combined income of both working parents

Student No. / / / / / /3/

13. RACIAL ETHNIC BACKGROUND:

_____ (8) Anglo

_____ (9) Indian

_____ (10) Black

_____ (11) Oriental

_____ (12) Chicano

_____ (13) Other

14. MARITAL BACKGROUND FOR HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD:

_____ (14) Single

_____ (15) Married

_____ (16) Divorced

_____ (17) Separated

_____ (18) Widow

_____ (19) Widower

Is this information about yourself as the head of the household?

_____ (20) yes _____ (21) no

Is this information about a parent as the head of the household?

_____ (22) yes _____ (23) no

THIS IS THE END OF THE PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

APPENDIX H

SPECIAL CONTACT LETTER

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

January 9, 1975

You were selected....as part of 240 freshmen and sophomore students,

to participate in an important study of Michigan State University students.

Shortly before term break, you received a letter from us asking for your help. Then came the "big snow," and finals. Somewhere in there we lost you, and we really do need your help. Why not take time now to do the following:

1. Complete the enclosed forms immediately.

2. Return the forms to Room 324 Erickson Hall--give them to Donna, the secretary right outside that office.

3. Plan on completing another set of forms in April. You will get a letter from us reminding you about it.

Your voluntary participation will provide valuable information for the university, for yourself, and for us. You will be provided copies of the information gathered, some of which can help you in your career planning.

When our study is completed, we can furnish you with the following information:

- how students (and you) view the undergraduate program at MSU ...
- how your personal interests "match" with various vocational interests, and possible vocational choices...
- what experiences you may have had that are vocationally oriented, and how they may relate to future job hunting...

Please complete the forms enclosed and return them today to Room 324 Erickson Hall. Your willingness to help with the study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carol Norris

Dr. Sam Corl
Associate Professor

Enclosure:
Attitude/Perceptions Scale
Personal Background Data
66 Statements Scale

APPENDIX I

A/P SCALE FACTOR MATRIX

Attitude/Perception Scale:

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3
VAR01	.17880	.00660	.73491*
VAR02	.24010	.12216	.57663*
VAR03	.36618	.40736	.43374
VAR04	.29974	.42772	.44376
VAR05	.22780	.39348	.50400
VAR06	.27319	.60084*	.38868
VAR07	.07595	.50869*	.36208
VAR08	.17197	.51147*	.28319
VAR09	.19709	.31044	.45458*
VAR10	.09388	.37961*	.10492
VAR11	.21037	.46241*	.05141
VAR12	.39884	.42488	.33697
VAR13	.20150	.31308	.21790
VAR14	.40634	.37928	.32039
VAR15	.43248	.38928	.16633
VAR16	.34344	.20299	.18956
VAR17	.68736*	.01170	.28366
VAR18	.64153*	.22555	.26063
VAR19	.47334	.33351	.15000
VAR20	.70755*	.20940	.25393
VAR21	.67200*	.25808	.13369
VAR22	.49875	.42862	.11369
VAR23	.41874	.44614	.12452
VAR24	.26888	.63848*	.13607
VAR25	.29523	.49309*	.00955
VAR26	.16566	.10893	.13325
VAR27	.50604*	.35773	.21471
VAR28	.66055*	.41374	.17494
VAR29	.55041*	.45041	.11793

TOTAL N = 121