GRADUATES IN A DIFFERENTIATED TEACHING PROFESSION

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SUMMARY

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Following the Government decision in 1977 that all recruits to teaching in England and Wales must normally have a degree and be professionally trained, some considered this removal of the earlier distinctions between graduate/non-graduate and trained/untrained teachers marked the beginning of a unified teaching profession.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the extent to which the two major groups of graduate, professionally trained recruits, with BEd and degree/PGCE qualifications, constitute a unified membership of the teaching profession.

The teachers' inservice profiles, compiled from data provided by the teachers and their headteachers, are compared and combined with their pre-service profiles to assess the relative academic and professional status of the BEd and PGCE groups. This information was complemented by a more general evaluation of the BEd and PGCE teachers provided by a cross-section of headteachers.

The analysis is conducted within a conceptual framework of professional differentiation, derived from the writings of Davis and Moore, Marshall, Jackson, and Bucher and Strauss. The major concepts of 'prestige' (ie. status of teaching responsibilities); 'esteem' (ie. quality of performance); 'academic segment' and 'professional segment' become scales for comparing the BEd and PGCE teachers. This model also allows for the possibility of external factors influencing the educational system and, more specifically, the status of the teachers.

The results show that although the BEd group are regarded as more effective teachers the PGCE group obtain the more prestigious appointments. However the major division among the graduate teachers relates to the perceived difference in their academic status, which is exacerbated by the binary division in teacher education and related Government policies at present.

Consequently, the recommendations are for an integrated system of teacher education and the withdrawal of the BEd degree as an inferior academic qualification.

KEYWORDS Teacher education; teaching profession; teaching qualifications.

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CHAPTER 1

AN ALL-GRADUATE TEACHING PROFESSION - BUT DIVIDED?

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Two traditions in teacher education

From the beginning of the nineteenth century, when Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell made the first organised attempts to prepare teachers for their work in schools, teacher education has developed along two distinct and conflicting lines. These separate developments arose from two very different views of the nature of teacher education, as described by Elvin:

> "One is that the teacher should be educated but need not be trained. The other is that he should be trained but need not be educated." (1)

The first view I shall call the 'academic tradition' and the second the 'professional tradition'.

The academic tradition is based on the assumption that to possess a university degree, or its equivalent, is a necessary and sufficient qualification to be a teacher. The degree, from its origins in the medieval universities, was a licence to teach and continued to be so until 1969 when the regulations defining qualified teacher status were amended, so that everyone graduating after 31st December, 1973, would be required to complete a one-year post-graduate course of professional training before they could teach in any maintained school "with the exception, for the time being, of graduates in science or mathematics who wish to teach in a secondary school."(2) This exception serves not only as an incentive to attract graduates in subject areas for which there has been a shortage of teachers, but also to emphasise, in

accordance with the academic tradition, how relatively unimportant is professional training for the graduate.

In contrast the professional tradition emphasises the importance of the teacher as a skilful and committed practitioner, effectively providing pupils with learning experiences that are appropriate, stimulating and well organised. In order to acquire this professional competence it is necessary for the teacher to complete a period of professional training, that will provide insights into teaching methods, techniques of organising and managing pupils, with some practical teaching experience in schools. Much more important than the depth of the teacher's academic knowledge is his ability to teach and relate to young people. In its earliest and perhaps most extreme form the professional tradition was envisaged by Joseph Lancaster, who declared "Anyone who can read or write can become a teacher."(3)

Although the academic and professional traditions have generated two very different approaches to the preparation of the teacher they have not existed in static isolation, but rather have had a modifying influence upon each other. In 1971 Tibble expressed the view that the two different developments in teacher education

> "have been gradually drawn closer together and the institutions embodying them brought into closer association." (4)

That being the case the academic model for the preparation of teachers (ie the university programme of academic study leading to graduate status) and the professional model (ie the training college concurrent programme of professional and academic work leading to a non-graduate qualification, the Certificate in Education) should not be regarded as two parallel developments. Instead they represent two

converging traditions that may finally intersect and merge with the implementation of a teacher education policy that will produce an all-graduate, professionally trained intake to the teaching profession. Unless, that is, after the removal of the more obvious 'graduate/non-graduate', 'trained/untrained' distinctions, there remain more fundamental and subtle differences to perpetuate the division within teacher education and the teaching profession.

In order to assess the nature of any division that may exist within the present all-graduate recruitment to the teaching force it is necessary at this point to consider the political and educational decisions that have had a major influence upon the development of teacher education in England and Wales.

1800-1900: Remoteness - Reform - Rapprochement

The initiatives in teacher training by Lancaster and Bell at the beginning of the nineteenth century were criticized a decade later for the relatively low academic standards expected of students both at entry and during the training course. The content of the course was almost entirely professional, with particular emphasis given to the techniques of teaching children. Consequently in 1814 a new training programme was devised, which became the basic pattern for non-graduate teacher education for the next hundred and sixty years. The characteristics of this programme were to limit admission to students with prescribed academic qualifications; a concurrent course of general education and professional training; a final examination; a probationary period of teaching, which, for successful candidates, led to the award of the Teachers' Certificate.

The creation by the government of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education led to the emergence of the teacher training colleges in the 1840s and, sixteen years later, to the introduction of the compulsory two-year course of training, which was to remain the norm for non-graduate teachers until 1960, when it was increased to three years.

With the introduction of the elementary school system in 1870 the demand for non-graduate teachers increased considerably. Although the existing training colleges were already over-filled the 1870 Act made no provision for the new School Boards to build more colleges to meet the growing demand.

The Cross Commission, appointed in 1886 to inquire into the organisation of elementary education, reported in 1888 that the associated non-graduate teacher training system was its weakest feature. In order to increase the supply of non-graduate teachers, and to overcome the shortage of residential accommodation in the training colleges, the Commission recommended that a limited number of day training colleges should be established.

In accepting this recommendation the government stipulated that responsibility for the provision and training within the new day colleges should be given to the universities rather than the School Boards or the religious denominations. The universities responded with enthusiasm to this opportunity and within a decade had established sixteen day training colleges (later to become university departments of education) that together provided more than one-third of the non-graduate teachers for the elementary schools.

Dent has defined this development as a "major landmark"[5] in teacher education in England and Wales. It brought to an end the very

considerable control over teacher training which the religious denominations had enjoyed and, simultaneously, established the first important link between teacher education and the universities. Not only did the status of both the elementary school teacher and teacher training obtain some benefit from the university connection but, for the students in the day colleges, there were academic advantages too. With the approval of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education the students were allowed to complete a three-year concurrent course, which gave them the opportunity to read for a degree and complete their professional training for the Teachers' Certificate. In all respects this involvement of the universities in teacher education represented an important advance towards the unification of the academic and professional traditions.

This tendency continued as a result of one further development towards the end of the nineteenth century. In 1895 the Bryce Commission identified the urgent need for more secondary schools and also advocated the introduction of professional training courses for teachers wishing to find employment in secondary schools. This suggestion received strong support from the professional associations representing teachers in the independent secondary schools. At their conference in 1897 they endorsed the proposal to provide professional training for intending secondary school teachers, this training facility hitherto having been confined to the elementary school sector. Since the teachers normally employed in secondary schools were university graduates this initiative represented an important change in the academic tradition amounting to a sideways move in the direction of the professional tradition.

1900-1940: Reaction - Regression - Retrenchment

The progress towards unifying the two traditions in teacher education during the nineteenth century was not to be maintained. The 1902 Education Act, regarded in one sense as a major egalitarian statute, also created the conditions that were to prove a source of division in the context of teacher education.

The 1902 Act established the Local Education Authorities as a replacement for the School Boards and, accepting the recommendation of the Bryce Commission, gave permission to the new Authorities to provide secondary education in addition to the free and compulsory elementary schooling already available. The proposed maintained secondary schools were to offer free places to those able children in the elementary schools who were capable of passing the entrance examination, the remaining places being made available to children of parents who could afford to pay for the academic education the new schools were to provide, and which, for some pupils, would lead to a university place. Thus, alongside the more prestigious public and grammar schools in the independent sector, which hitherto had monopolized access to the universities, the relatively new maintained school sector had acquired its own gateway to the universities.

The 1902 Education Act also gave the local education authorities responsibility for the provision of teacher training colleges. This decision not only represented a reversal of earlier government policy when, following the Cross Report, this responsibility had been delegated to the universities, but also ensured a continuing division in the administrative control of teacher education that has persisted to the present.

A factor contributing to this change of policy was the concern now felt by central government that students admitted to the day training colleges were exploiting their association with the universities by studying for both a degree and the teachers' certificate. Although this practice had been approved by the Privy Council Committee as the controlling body for education, its successor, the Board of Education, was much less sympathetic. In his introduction to the 1904 Regulations for the training of teachers the first Permanent Secretary to the Board of Education, Robert Morant, wrote

> "The purpose for which a Training College is recognized and aided by the Board of Education is the training of teachers for service to the Public Elementary Schools... No College should aim at obtaining academical distinction for its students if that involves either the overstraining of the powers of the student, or the neglect of any part of his professional training... No country in the world attempts to staff its Elementary Schools entirely or even mainly with University graduates." (6)

Clearly, the thought of an all-graduate teaching profession was very far from Morant's mind at this time.

The 1904 Regulations, however, did not deter the able and well-motivated day college students from completing the dual qualifications. Consequently, the Board of Education amended the Regulations in 1911 in the following terms:

> "The Board are... proposing to recognize under certain conditions Training Departments attached to University Institutions as providing a Four-Years' Course of Training, of which the first three years will be devoted wholly or mainly to study in preparation for a Degree, and the fourth year will be devoted to professional training in preparation for the work of teaching in a Public Elementary School." (7)

By extending the course to four years for students wishing to teach in elementary schools, the Board, no doubt, hoped to achieve its 1904 objective of discouraging graduates from teaching in elementary schools. The extra year for professional training was not a requirement for those graduates intending to teach in secondary schools.

The expansion of secondary education, particularly after the 1918 Education Act, and the growing demand from secondary school teachers for professional training, led the universities to discontinue their professional training programmes for the elementary school teacher in order to concentrate their resources on the training of secondary teachers. The course structure adopted by the university departments conformed to the four-year consecutive pattern proposed by the Board of Education in 1911, and has remained the generally accepted model of education and training for the university graduate wishing to teach.

The Board of Education's 1918 Regulations for the training of teachers endorsed this development in the universities, and, five years later, appointed the Departmental Committee to evaluate the existing arrangements for the training of elementary school teachers, and to consider possible changes in the organisation and financing of the system, "having regard for the economy of public funds."(8) The report of the Departmental Committee, published in 1925, recommended that entry standards to the training colleges should be raised so that candidates should have remained at school to the age of eighteen years and have obtained the School Certificate qualification at least. However, the report also recommended that the college course should not be extended beyond two years, and that there was no justification for providing degree courses in the colleges. In this way the Committee ensured the major differences between the academic and the

professional traditions would persist. Indeed from their report the Committee appeared to be in favour of amplifying these differences:

> "We think that the two-year courses should become more professional in character and aim, and that the academic work which they include should be undertaken primarily as a means to professional skill, and less for learning or intellectual development in itself..." (9)

The Board of Education accepted and implemented the Departmental Committee's proposals and, thereby, rejected the affiliation of the training colleges to the universities. Therefore, as Dobson has explained,

> "the former separation of the colleges from the rest of higher education was largely restored, and prospective graduate and non-graduate teachers attended different institutions. It was unfortunate that this enfranchisement of the colleges was halted just at a time when they were poised to shed their traditional isolation and to assume a more important role in post-secondary education." (10)

Thus, by the first quarter of the twentieth century, the academic and professional traditions in teacher education in England and Wales remained far apart, with the lines of demarcation clearly defined. The academic model was confined to the relatively autonomous university sector; the entry requirement was the Higher School Certificate, in accordance with the standards of university admission; the prescribed four-year consecutive course pattern consisted of a three-year degree programme followed by a year of professional training, although this latter component remained optional since graduates were eligible to teach in secondary schools without training; the professional training was linked to the requirements of secondary

school teaching, either in the independent or maintained sector. In contrast, the professional model was associated with the training colleges, which were controlled by either the local education authorities or, in some cases, the religious denominations; the college entry requirement was the School Certificate; the compulsory two-year course of concurrent training was very largely professional in aim and content, and led to a non-graduate qualification, the Teachers' Certificate; the course was for intending teachers who would normally be employed in elementary schools.

1940-1977: Review - Reorganisation - Recision

Almost twenty years later, in 1942, the Board of Education appointed a committee under the chairmanship of Sir Arnold McNair, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Liverpool, to investigate the sources of supply and training of teachers, with a view to determining post-war policy. Although the ten members of the Committee were criticized for having no first-hand experience of the work of the training colleges, their report, published in 1944, revealed a concern to abolish some of the divisions that existed in the status of teachers and the control of teacher education. The Committee advocated that, in future, the Board of Education should recognize only one grade of teacher, the Qualified Teacher. However, in view of the serious shortage of teachers that was anticipated in the post-war period it would be necessary to accept as 'qualified' not only those teachers who had satisfactorily completed an approved course of education and training, which included professionally trained graduates and non-graduates, but also, at the discretion of the Board of Education, "persons with good academic or other attainments";[11] namely, the

untrained graduate or graduate-equivalent. The Committee proposed that all qualified teachers should receive a basic salary. The McNair Committee also advocated the introduction of the three-year concurrent course in the colleges, which should incorporate both personal and professional education to meet the needs of the intending teacher.

Although very critical of the existing organisation of teacher education, which McNair reported did not provide a coherent training service and was "chaotic and ill-adjusted even to present needs",(12) the Committee could not agree on an appropriate solution to the problem. Five members were in favour of establishing University Schools of Education in which the two approved teacher training institutions, namely the university departments of education and the training colleges, would amalgamate to permit the

> "universities to undertake genuine responsibility for the general supervision of the training of all teachers in the interests of uniting the profession and ending the isolation of the colleges." (13)

One member of the Committee, Sir Fred Clarke, who strongly supported this scheme, had argued publicly that

> "only the universities had the power and prestige to enhance educational standards. The historical stigma of the colleges had got to be removed." (14)

The local education authorities (LEAs) would be involved in the management of the School of Education and it was intended that practising teachers should also participate in various ways.

The other five members of the McNair Committee, including the Chairman, also envisaged the LEAs, colleges, universities and teachers forming local partnerships, but with a view to developing stronger

links between the colleges, LEAs and central government. They were strongly opposed to the universities becoming the senior partner, with responsibility for the training of all teachers, graduate and non-graduate. Tibble[15] has suggested this opposition to the universities being given such responsibility was based on the fear that it would lead to an over-emphasis on academic studies in the college course.

The universities were given the opportunity to choose between the two schemes proposed by the McNair Committee, and after much deliberation and discussion they decided upon a modified version of the first proposal. Instead of University Schools of Education the agreement was to establish Area Training Organisations (ATOs), which included representatives of the major educational interest groups in the area.

Institutes of Education were established normally within the university, Cambridge being the exception, to administer the ATO and to have responsibility for "supervising the academic work of the member institutions, securing co-operation among training establishments..."[16] The irony was that the University Departments of Education, which were responsible for the professional training of graduates, were not subject to the direct control of the ATO although they did participate in its decision-making. Consequently the effective control enjoyed by the Institutes of Education, representing the ATOs, was restricted to the constituent training colleges. Although the university connection for the colleges had been achieved the continuing separation of the two training establishments impeded the intentions of the McNair Committee and preserved a division between the two major patterns of teacher education.

However, one important linkage between the training colleges and the education departments in the universities was established. In July 1943 the Training College Association and the Council of Training College Principals wrote to the heads of the university education departments in the following terms:

> "By accidents of history the division between University Training Departments and Training Colleges is very marked, yet the problems of training teachers for the Secondary Schools... require urgently that the two types of institutions should more fully recognise their common interest." (17)

Later in 1943 the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education was founded. Sir Fred Clarke, who as a member of the McNair Committee was a strong advocate of the need for closer ties between the training colleges and the universities, and campaigned for the adoption of the Schools of Education scheme, became the Chairman of the ATCDE in 1944.

The 1944 Education Act abolished the elementary schools and extended the maintained secondary school system, without closing the independent sector, so that secondary education became compulsory and, in the maintained sector, free for all children between the ages of 11 and 15 years. Although the conditions of service for graduate and non-graduate teachers were made more uniform, the division within the profession remained with the graduate teachers now mainly employed in either the maintained selective grammar schools or the well-established independent schools, and the non-graduates in the non-selective secondary modern and primary schools.

The simultaneous preparation in 1944 of the McNair Report and the Education Bill at the Board of Education had, no doubt, alerted the

McNair Committee to the introduction of universal secondary education and, consequently, to the need for a three-year college course to meet the increased academic and professional demands that would be made upon teachers. However, because of the serious shortage of teachers, which was only partially alleviated by the Emergency Training Scheme, and the economic cost of extending the period of training, the three-year course was postponed until 1960.

In 1961, and just five months after the start of the first three-year course in the training colleges, the Robbins Committee was appointed to review the pattern of full-time higher education in England and Wales, to identify the needs and advise on long-term policy. So far as teacher education was concerned three important issues had remained unresolved since the nineteenth century, notwithstanding the reports, legislation and developments in the intervening years, and it was these issues which continued to divide the teaching profession and separate the academic and professional traditions within teacher education. The three issues were:

1. the differential status of graduate and non-graduate teachers (the related issue of professionally trained/ untrained teachers had been partly resolved with the introduction of voluntary training courses for graduates);
2. the separation of the two teacher training institutions, the university departments of education and the training colleges;
3. the control and finance of the training colleges.

The Robbins Committee considered all three issues and, in their report made recommendations they anticipated would provide long-term solutions to the problems.

The Committee's Report, published in 1963, indicated that "Several of our witnesses have urged that teaching should become an all-graduate profession."[18] The Committee however concluded,

> "although we cannot go as far as those who advocate an all-graduate profession, it would not be acceptable simply to allow the present situation to continue... The opportunity to graduate must be created... but we wish to emphasise now that, though the academic standard of the degree must be broadly related to what is customary in the universities, the nature of the course and the approach to the various subjects should be such as to suit the needs of future teachers." (19)

The Robbins Committee were strongly opposed to any attempt to divide the teaching profession by associating graduate status with a particular type of school.

> "We certainly do not think that all secondary school teachers should be graduates and all primary school teachers not. On the contrary, well-trained non-graduates are indispensable in a general secondary school system and much more useful for many posts than graduates with specialist degrees, and it would be an excellent thing if more graduates, men as well as women, entered the primary schools." (20)

At the same time the Committee did not feel all training college students should be required to complete the degree course particularly if they did not believe such a course was suited to their needs and interests.

The Robbins' proposals, therefore, did not seek to remove the distinction between graduate and non-graduate teachers. Rather the degree in the colleges was envisaged as an optional extra for those

students who had the motivation and ability to continue their studies for a fourth year beyond the level of the Certificate in Education, in much the same way that professional training had become an optional extra for the intending teacher at the completion of his degree course in the university. Robbins had expected about 25% of training college students would complete the new degree by the mid-1970s.

For those college students taking the degree the Robbins Committee insisted the course should be of four years' duration and should be regarded as a suitable qualification for registration for a higher degree. The Committee's view was

> "that the great advantage of a four-year, as contrasted with a three-year, degree course is that there would be no possibility of invidious comparison with the standard of degrees taken in a different context." (21)

As to the nature and nomenclature of this new degree the Committee reported

> "We think it should be distinctive and recommend that it should be called a BEd. The provisions we have envisaged should make certain that it is regarded as a degree equivalent in standard to the BA. But it would be a degree gained in a distinctive way, and characteristically based on the study of Education." (22)

The evidence submitted by the ATCDE to the Robbins Committee called, in effect, for a further narrowing of the gap between the academic and professional traditions in teacher education. Commenting on the training of university graduates the ATCDE "urged that there should be no further delay in making professional training compulsory",(23) whereas, for training college students the Association sought "a first degree in Education and one or two other subjects, and

including professional preparation."[24] The training college degree, it was argued, should be validated by the universities in order to guarantee standards.

The Government gave its approval to the Robbins proposal for a Bachelor of Education degree to be available to some students in the training colleges. In 1968, five universities awarded the degree to the first BEd graduates in England and Wales, and by the following year twenty-one universities were awarding the degree. Commenting on this very rapid response by the universities to the challenge of the BEd degree Brown has claimed that

> "Never before have British universities instituted a new academic qualification on so widespread a scale within such a short period of time." (25)

On the issue of the separation of the teacher training institutions, namely the training colleges and the university departments of education, the Robbins Committee endorsed the university scheme which had been proposed in the McNair Report. Robbins recommended

> "The colleges in each university's Institute of Education and the University Department of Education should be formed into a School of Education." (26)

Each School should have its own academic board and boards of studies and would assume responsibility for the award of the BEd degree and Certificate. The Report also recommended that the training colleges should be renamed Colleges of Education, which would more accurately reflect their general educational roles, including undergraduate courses, rather than their traditional, narrowly professional function.

The Government agreed to this proposed change of name for the colleges and also welcomed the opportunity to establish a closer association between the universities and the colleges, particularly through the academic control and development of the new BEd degree. Once again, however, the 'School of Education' concept was rejected in favour of allowing this association to continue through the channels of the existing ATO/Institute of Education structure.

On the third and related issue of the administrative and financial control of the colleges the Robbins Committee favoured a unitary system of higher education, with a single Grants Commission, which would make a specific allocation of funds through the universities to the proposed Schools of Education. The intention of the Committee was to create a unitary structure for teacher education in England and Wales that would give the control of both the academic and financial affairs of the colleges, as well as the university departments of education, to the Schools of Education. In this way the colleges would be brought wholly within the university sphere of influence, although it was recognised that the LEAs and other maintaining bodies would still have an important role in the administration of the Schools of Education.

The LEAs however strongly opposed these proposals, which would have meant the loss of their administrative and financial control of the colleges. The Government took almost a year to consult the different interest groups and finally decided there should be no change in the existing arrangements for the external administration and financial control of the colleges. Peirson has commented that

> "it was certainly the easiest decision because it maintained the status quo. But it is my belief that it was a cowardly decision which sacrificed a major long term objective which should have over-ridden all questions of expediency: the emergence of a unified teaching profession. This is the really vital opportunity that was missed in 1964." (27)

Although not envisaged in 1963 as being immediately relevant either to teacher education or, more specifically, to the new colleges of education, the Robbins Committee proposed the introduction of a Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA), which was to be given degree-awarding authority for colleges in the non-university sector. The proposal was also approved by the Government.

Higher education in England and Wales was now being developed according to a 'binary policy'. This was publicly announced by the Secretary of State in April 1965 when he distinguished between the 'autonomous sector', associated with the universities, and the 'public sector', represented by the colleges of education and the polytechnics. Browne has suggested this divided system of higher education had serious consequences for the colleges since

> "it left them straddled between their academic sponsors on the one side, and their financial support on the other. A dark and mysterious crevasse lay between, where economic and demographic dragons lurked." (28)

In Britton's view other countries with higher education systems had also been obliged to adopt a binary policy, and he identified the need for such a policy in teacher education.

> "Can you have complete freedom on the part of the universities if they cover the whole of the teaching output, to provide not the teachers that the schools require but the teachers that they think they will provide? In other words can you have a situation where the teacher training plant cannot have pressure put on it to provide the right number of teachers of physical education, the right number of teachers of craft and so on?... At the present moment our solution is the binary system - one system where there is a very large measure of freedom - one system where there is a very considerable measure of public control." (29)

The binary division within the system of higher education was reflected in the important and persistent division within the teaching profession between graduate and non-graduate. The introduction of the BEd degree in the colleges would not remove this distinction but simply enable some prospective teachers to transfer from the category of non-graduate to graduate. Pedley regarded this division within the teaching profession as a major obstacle to the effective development of a genuine comprehensive school system, which he believed

> "should be deeply concerned to help to shape and transmit a communal culture... This task is impossible so long as our teachers are themselves sharply divided into what are in effect two classes, graduate and non-graduate, with their different backgrounds and correspondingly different social status and public esteem. The ending of this cleavage is one of the major reforms necessary for the effective development of a system of comprehensive education." (30)

Two related developments in the late 1960s helped to bridge the gap between the academic and professional traditions in teacher education, introducing greater compatibility in the standards of entry to the profession for graduate and non-graduate teachers and providing opportunities for closer association between the universities and colleges. In September, 1969, the Government announced that professional training for graduates would be compulsory for those graduating after 1969 and going into maintained primary schools, and after 1973 for those intending to teach in secondary schools. However, as indicated above, exceptions can be made to this rule as in the case of mathematics and science graduates at present. Graduates successfully completing the one-year course of training would be awarded the Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). To provide the additional

professional training places for the graduate students the DES gave the Area Training Organisations approval to introduce PGCE courses in the colleges of education. At the same time the development of the BEd degree in the area training organisations in 1969 had provided, in most cases, opportunities for the college students to attend lectures in the university and to make use of university resources, particularly the library.

The nineteen-sixties have been described as "a decade of great ferment in teacher education."[31] The planning and organisational demands associated with the introduction of the three-year college course, the BEd degree and compulsory professional training for graduates were exacerbated by a three-fold increase in the number of students engaged in teacher training.

Table 1.1

TEACHERS IN TRAINING IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES[32]

Year	PGCE Courses	Other Courses	Total
1960-61	3,398	32,464	35,862
1970-71	7,570	106,237	113,807

These developments generated new demands for a government sponsored inquiry into the education of teachers in England and Wales, the last review specifically relating to teacher education having been completed almost three decades earlier by the McNair Committee, in very different social and economic circumstances. To satisfy all interested parties

such an inquiry would need to examine the organisation of teacher education in the total context of higher education as well as the more detailed structure and content of courses.

Willey and Maddison have suggested that in spite of the repeated demands from responsible bodies for an investigation into teacher training "the Department of Education and Science showed no great enthusiasm for promoting an enquiry."(33) This deadlock was broken however when the House of Commons Select Committee on Education and Science decided to initiate such an enquiry in 1969, but, before this could be completed the 1970 General Election intervened, although this did not prevent the Committee publishing what evidence it had.(34) In February 1970, a few months before the Election, Mr. Edward Short, then Secretary of State for Education and Science, asked the Institutes of Education to review their structures and activities. The Short inquiry was then superseded by the changed approach of the small committee set up in June 1970, after the change of government, by the new Secretary of State, Mrs. Margaret Thatcher. This committee of eight, which included representatives from the university departments of education, the colleges, primary and secondary schools, the LEAs and HMI, was chaired by Lord James of Rusholme, and was asked to report within twelve months.

The James Report was published in January 1972, and although paying tribute to the manner in which the colleges and university departments had responded to the pressures associated with the expansion of teacher training in the 1960s, it was made clear in the introductory paragraph of the Report that

> "there is abundant evidence that the system is no longer adequate to its purposes. That inadequacy arises from an overdependence upon initial training, as distinct from continued education and training, and from an unhelpful distinction between two kinds of training, one route for graduates and another for non-graduates." (35)

The Report emphasised

> "the time has come to abandon the formal distinctions between the two main existing types: that is, three years of concurrent training for non-graduates and one year of consecutive training for graduates. These present distinctions, although increasingly blurred during the last decade by the development of degree work within the colleges and of concurrent courses in some universities, run sharply through the whole profession (in its career and salary patterns, for example) and are obsolete." (36)

Consequently one of the major aims to emerge from the James Report was the progressive achievement of an all-graduate teaching profession. However, the consecutive patterns of teacher education and training proposed by the Committee would only perpetuate the division within the teaching profession. For the university graduate the consecutive model would contain three years of general education leading to a degree award before commencing professional training, whereas the college student would complete two years of general education, leading to the Diploma in Higher Education (Dip HE), before proceeding to a course of professional training.

The James Committee believed a three-year undergraduate education, prior to training, was the desirable pattern for some intending teachers, but not all. For those who would be teaching in first or middle schools, or as non-specialists in secondary schools or F.E. colleges, the Dip HE foundation would be more appropriate. The Report added

> "There should be no implication that one route is more difficult or more prestigious than the other. The distinction means simply that different kinds of teaching, not necessarily related to types of schools or to the ages of the children to be taught, may require different kinds of preparation." (37)

The reactions of the two major teachers' associations were unanimous in welcoming the James Committee's stated objective of an all-graduate teaching profession and also unanimous in rejecting the divisive nature of the recommended patterns of teacher education. These reactions reflect a concern within the teaching profession to establish a more uniform and socially acceptable standard of graduate status for all teachers in the future. This standard has been long established in the academic tradition of the universities, a standard in which the two major variables of academic content and length of course are closely related.

To avoid any disparity in the status of intending teachers graduating from the two training institutions it was important to establish greater comparability between the courses offered in the colleges and those in the universities. The James Committee's proposals would not provide this comparability but, rather, maintain a distinction between the professionally trained graduates leaving the colleges and those leaving the universities, particularly in relation to the academic rigour and duration of their courses of general education.

In December 1972, the DES published a White Paper[38] in which the Government's proposals for the future pattern of teacher education in England and Wales were presented, taking into account the recommendations in the James Report and the reactions received from interested parties to the contents of the Report in the eleven months of consultation.

The White Paper was explicit in its support for an all-graduate teaching force. "The Government propose to work towards the achievement of a graduate teaching profession as the ultimate aim."[39] The Government favoured the retention of the BEd degree and strongly advocated the development of

> "three-year courses incorporating educational studies which are so designed that they will lead both to the award of a BEd degree and to qualified status. The degree would normally be an Ordinary BEd degree with the assumption that a proportion of students who attain a sufficiently high standard in the three-year course could, if they wished, continue for a fourth year to take an Honours BEd degree. The normal entry requirement would be the same as for universities and the academic content no less rigorous than that of existing degree courses." (40)

The James Committee had considered the possibility of amalgamating the colleges of education and the universities but concluded

> "there may be a few cases where such mergers are geographically possible and educationally appropriate. Other varieties of mergers offer perhaps more promising opportunities." (41)

In May 1973 the DES issued Circular 7/73[42] to the LEAs, in which it was made very clear that the Government intended most colleges to remain in the public sector of a delimited binary system of higher education. The circular required the LEAs to submit their proposals for creating major institutions of higher education within their area of the public sector, by considering the amalgamation of the maintained colleges of education with colleges of further education and/or polytechnics. Where the LEAs felt it was desirable and feasible the new institutions of higher education may be organised to provide under-graduate, and possibly postgraduate, courses for intending teachere

or non-teachers or both.

Validation for advanced courses would be obtained from either the universities or the CNAA. To ensure there would be some comparability in the requirements of the two degree-granting bodies the University Grants Committee and the CNAA together appointed a Study Group to prepare guidelines for the new Bachelor of Education degree. Some of the teacher training institutions in the public sector chose to apply to the universities for the validation of their BEd, and others, for various administrative and educational reasons, to the CNAA.

In August, 1975, the DES announced the approved arrangements for 110 of the former colleges of education. Of these, 12 were no longer to be involved in teacher education, and the remainder were almost equally shared between four categories: those allowed to remain as free-standing institutions; and those amalgamating with either polytechnics, or other colleges of education, or colleges of further education. In each of the four categories there were teacher education programmes in addition to diversified courses. Also in August, 1975, the DES published new regulations for the further and higher education sector to take account of the organisational changes that were being made. The new regulations terminated the long-standing formal association between the colleges and the area training organisations and brought to an end "the overall supervision of teacher training through the ATOs."(43)

Associated with this reorganisation of the colleges was a substantial contraction in the number of teacher training places required to meet the falling school population. The extent of this contraction, as marked and traumatic as the rapid expansion in the 1960s, can be seen in Table L2 which is derived from data presented by the Minister

of State for Education in July 1977.[44]

Table 1.2

COLLEGES OF EDUCATION: CONTRACTION 1974-77		
YEAR	NO. OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	NO. OF TEACHER TRAINING PLACES IN THE COLLEGES
1974	159	117,000
1977	136	84,700

1977-1982: Resolution? Realignment? Rift?

The developments in the training of teachers by the mid-1970s brought the academic and professional traditions in teacher education still closer together. The considerable reduction in the demand for teachers enabled the Government to implement its commitment to an all-graduate teaching profession, as expressed in the 1972 White Paper. The subsequent decision by the Government to discontinue the three-year course of training for non-graduate teachers was a further indication of this commitment. But not only were the entrants to the teaching profession to be graduate, they were also to be professionally trained, although graduates in mathematics and science continued to be excused the training requirement. No longer were academic expertise and professional training acceptable alternatives but, rather, it had become a requirement that the teacher should be educated as well as trained.

The regulations governing admission to the universities and the colleges were now compatible and, for intending teachers, both institutions provided the opportunity to obtain a classified Honours degree leading to qualified teacher status after four years. The students entering the colleges would receive the BEd degree, validated either by a university or the CNAA but equally rigorous in academic and professional standards, having first been scrutinized by a validation panel of specialists and then monitored annually by a team of external examiners.

The intending teacher, with the appropriate entry qualifications, has then a choice of routes into the teaching profession: either to complete first a three-year arts or science degree, followed by the one-year PGCE course; or to take the BEd degree in which the reading of one or two main subjects would be combined with the study of Education and professional training.

The first option is the route more associated with the academic tradition in teacher education, having been provided in the universities for more than half a century, and currently available in some public sector institutions too. The second route, the BEd degree, is more closely associated with the professional tradition, having been provided for more than a decade in the colleges of education.

With an all-graduate, professionally trained intake to the teaching profession does this mean we have finally achieved, in John's words, "our ideal of a united and indivisible teaching profession"[45], or do the divisions remain? Does the existence of the two qualifying routes, the degree with PGCE and the BEd, provide the prospective teacher with different career opportunities so that one can be seen to have advantages relative to the other? If so, what is the nature of these advantages? Do the BEd graduates enjoy the same academic and

professional status as other graduate teachers with the PGCE qualification. If not, then in what respects do the two qualification routes differ?

Writing in 1969 Bernbaum and his colleagues observed

> "teachers and their leaders should not be too optimistic about the unity of their profession. In the last resort we live in a highly stratified and differentianted society. Sociologists frequently tell us that the educational system is one of the main agencies of that stratification and differentiation. It would indeed be surprising if those who worked in the system were not themselves highly stratified and differentiated." (46)

CHAPTER 2

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS : REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Having examined the development of teacher education in England and Wales the emphasis in this chapter will be upon teaching and teachers. In preparation for the actual inquiry the chapter will consider, in turn, (a) the nature of teaching as an occupation and the differential status of teachers in schools; (b) the relevant research in this field, and, finally, (c) the theoretical framework for the investigation.

In concentrating on the graduate, professionally trained recruits to teaching, it is not a concern of this research to determine if this group, or either the BEd or PGCE sub-group, satisfies any criteria for inclusion among the professions, which Marshall has described as "a select body of superior occupations ... the occupations suitable for a gentleman."(1) The purpose here is simply to compare the status of the BEd and PGCE recruits before and during their teaching appointments, and this comparison is in relation to each other and not to any other occupational group.

Where reference is made in this report to the 'teaching profession' it is resort to conventional usage and is not intended to imply that schoolteaching enjoys the general standing and prestige of either the medical or legal profession. This conventional usage is well summarized by Becker, who suggests the term

> "Profession is not the sole property of the social scientist. Members of occupations use it to describe themselves ... Laymen habitually use it to refer to certain kinds of work and not to others ..." (2)

(a) The occupation of teaching : its characteristics and differentiated membership

Those who have attempted to compare the status of teaching with the established professions have reached quite varied conclusions, of which the following represent only a cross-section. "Teachers are not professionals in the usual sense" (Geer[3]); teachers are "semi-professionals" (Etzioni[4]); "teaching is a learned profession in most senses, but (alas) not in all" (Gould[5]); and "it would be foolish to deny teachers the title of professionals" (Leggatt[6]).

Not only is there some disagreement as to the defining traits or attributes of a profession but the procedure itself, in Robinson's view, is tautological.

> "An ideal-type profession is constructed based on what is generally considered to be an established profession and other occupations are then judged by their similarity to the ideal type. Medicine is an established profession because medicine is the base for the ideal type; teaching is not so established because teaching is not like medicine." (7)

Johnson rejects the trait theory approach for its failure to accommodate the changing and varied occupational contexts and the distribution of power within the professional group and between the group and other power groupings in society.

> "The basis of this failure has been the acceptance of a model of professions which cannot account for variations in the institutional framework of professional practice." (8)

Larson too has observed

> "the conditions of professional work have changed, so that the predominant pattern is no longer that of a free practitioner in a market of services but that of a salaried specialist in a large organisation." (9)

It is in recognition of the significance of these changed work conditions for teachers that Leggatt[10] refers to teaching as the 'bureaucratic profession', believing that the particular characteristics of teaching arise from work within organisations.

There is one further defining feature of the teaching occupation, which affects the vast majority of teachers in England and Wales - state control. In his attempt to overcome the limitations of the 'trait' approach Johnson's alternative threefold typology includes a "mediation"[11] type that envisages a third party intervening or mediating in the relationship between 'producer' and 'consumer' to define both the needs and the manner in which the needs are met. There are various institutional forms within this type and there are variations too in the control of 'needs' and the control of the 'manner' in which the needs are to be met. Furthermore, the influence of a particular system of control upon different occupations will vary as a result of the historical development of the particular occupation.

Johnson's general model of mediatory control permits an analysis of the characteristics of the occupation of teaching, operating as it does for most teachers in the context of state mediatory control and a bureaucratic organisational structure. The characteristics of, and the differentiation within the teaching profession will now be examined under the headings of the salient features of the mediation type.

(1) "... the state may attempt to ensure a desired distribution of occupational services through the medium of a state agency which is the effective employer of all practitioners who have a statutory obligation to provide a given service ... (which) will also give rise to supervision of the manner in which the service is provided." (12)

In the case of the teaching service in England and Wales this state agency is, at present, the Department of Education and Science, working in partnership with the local education authorities, who exercise control over the educational service in their particular area and are responsible for a share in the funding of the service and who are the employers of the teachers in maintained schools. Educational policy is determined by central government and implemented at the national level by DES, with local responsibilities delegated to the LEAs.

Teachers are consulted in the making of educational policy, but ultimate authority is outside the teaching profession and rests with the locally and centrally elected politicians.

Educational matters that, traditionally, have been the preserve of the teachers have been subjected to increasing scrutiny and interference by the DES and LEA. The autonomy in matters of curriculum and pedagogy which teachers in England and Wales have enjoyed, relative to some other Western democracies, has been somewhat curtailed in recent years as the DES prescribes on issues concerning 'core curriculum', teaching methods, 'standards', the assessment of pupil performance, accountability and external examinations. This represents greater involvement by central government in both the definition and control of the needs of the consumers (in this case pupils and society)

and the manner in which these needs are to be met. The proposed disbanding of the Schools Council, which had been established in 1964 after suspicion of increased DES intervention in curricular decisions, will probably further reduce the influence of the teaching profession.

The responsibility for the supervision of the quality and manner of the service is in the hands of Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) who operate both centrally and regionally. The Inspectorate exercise their authority and responsibility quite liberally within the education service as the following very brief list of survey reports and discussion papers demonstrate: Primary education in England[13]; Aspects of secondary education in England[14]; A view of the curriculum[15]; Mixed ability teaching[16]; Developments in the BEd degree course[17]; PGCE in the Public Sector[18]. The advisory staff of the LEAs also exercise a supervisory and an initiatory function although more localised and much less influential than HM Inspectorate.

Although the annual review of the salaries of teachers in primary and secondary schools in England and Wales is the responsibility of the Burnham Primary and Secondary Committee, consisting of representatives of the LEAs and the teachers, it is the decision finally of the Secretary of State for Education and Science that will determine the award to teachers in schools.

The nature of this control and supervision in matters relating directly to the service teachers provide and the financial rewards they receive has prompted Drake to write in the following terms:

> "As salaried employees of the state (technically, in general, of pseudo-employers, local education authorities), British teachers are controlled by laymen and administrators, not by their peers ... The quality of their services is not the responsibility of the teachers themselves to anything like the extent that it is for lawyers or doctors, whose training, though heavily subsidized by the state, is not strictly controlled by it, and whose services are not inspected by local and central government." (19)

(2) "The control of recruitment to an occupation is an important means open to the state of ensuring that a universal service is provided, and it can achieve this end by expanding academic channels into the occupation." (20)

The very strict control by the DES of student admissions to teacher education programmes, which will be discussed more fully in the data analysis, is a further illustration of state mediation and of the limited autonomy and self-government available to the teaching profession. Not only are the actual admission target figures decided by the DES but also the entry requirements and, at the successful completion of the pre-service programme, the eligibility award of Qualified Teacher Status. Thus it is the employer, the state, not the teaching profession who effectively controls the supply of teachers and who determines the academic and professional requirements needed to practise in the maintained schools.

In the last decade the five GCE Ordinary level passes as a basic entry requirement to non-graduate teacher education programmes has been raised to two Advanced level passes as the minimum entry requirement for the BEd degree programme, together with Ordinary level passes in mathematics and English. For the PGCE programme the normal entry qualification is a degree of a British university or of the CNAA, or a DES approved graduate-equivalent qualification. Quite recently the DES has written to the teacher education establishments offering (21) guidelines and prescriptions on the appropriateness and relevance of candidates' main subject qualifications for teaching in schools.

Just as the DES has the power to impose restrictions on the admissions requirements so too, as we have seen in Chapter 1, is it able to relax completely the training requirement for graduates in

mathematics and science, or any other subject in which an acute shortage of teachers develops.

Before 1970 the composition of the teaching profession consisted of personnel whose status could normally be defined in terms of some combination of the following epithets: graduate; non-graduate; trained (in a 1, 2 or 3 year course); untrained; unqualified; temporary, part-time; and supply. As the need arose so the government of the day would change the rules to ensure the provision of a universal service as far as was possible.

This feature of recruitment has also been experienced in the USA, perhaps even more extremely than here, when in times of teacher shortage, Wittlin reports, "misfits and invalids were sometimes considered equal to the task of teaching." (22)

In all cases at present the teachers successfully completing one or other of the two major programmes of initial training will be graduates and professionally trained, and will have been recommended for the award of Qualified Teacher Status, subject to the satisfactory completion of the probationary period in the schools. Given the history of such diverse recruitment in England and Wales it will take some years for the divisive distinction between graduate and non-graduate teachers to disappear as Table 2.1 shows.

Table 2.1

GRADUATE AND NON-GRADUATE TEACHERS IN MAINTAINED PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES (23)

Teachers		1953	1962	1973	1979
Graduates	Men (%)	10%	13%	13%	18%
	Women (%)	7%	8%	9%	14%
Non-Graduates	Men (%)	28%	27%	28%	23%
	Women (%)	53%	49%	49%	45%
Others (eg Non-Qualified) (%)		2%	3%	1%	-
TOTAL (Actual)		225,463	278,463	383,542	443,028

Although the proportion of graduates employed in maintained schools has increased from 22% to 32% between 1973 and 1979 the possibility of this change continuing will depend largely on two factors. Firstly, the opportunity that will be given to newly qualified teachers to fill vacancies in the schools, and secondly, the extent to which teachers in post will continue to complete degree courses and, thereby, transfer into the 'graduate' category.

In relation to the second factor the most recent survey[24] of graduates from the Open University shows that nearly half of those who have graduated since the first degrees were awarded in 1972 have been teachers. Of the 20,088 teachers who have an OU degree only 5% already had a university degree, and so part-time study with the Open University enabled the vast majority of this group to convert their teaching certificate into a degree and, in the opinion of 86% of these teachers, improve their career opportunities. However, this 1980 survey also reveals the proportion of teachers enrolling is now falling rapidly with the change to an all-graduate recruitment to the teaching profession.

The other major opportunity for serving teachers to convert to graduate status has been provided by the development of In-service BEd degree programmes, principally in public sector colleges and polytechnics. A national survey by Evans[25] has shown that by January 1979 more than 13,000 teachers had obtained the In-service BEd degree. Of the 6,740 teachers engaged in part or full-time study for this degree during 1978-79 3,743 (or 56%) were attending university validated courses and 2,997 (or 44%) the CNAA courses. Of the 6,740 teachers 487 (or 7.2%) were on full-time secondment.

(3) "While under professionalism entry to an occupation is regulated by professionally controlled schools and examinations, state mediation has the effect of placing greater power in the hands of academic institutions such as universities." (26)

The very high status which the university enjoys in the community as a consequence of its rigorous and demanding academic standards, and its development of new ideas and techniques through research, reflects favourably upon those members of an occupation such as teaching who have completed all or part of their pre-service higher education in the university. Jackson has endorsed this view:

> "The modern university with its emphasis on teaching and research provides both the training and the intellectual tradition itself but in some measure incorporates also the legitimating structure of authority and competence." (27)

The attempts by the McNair (1944) and Robbins (1963) committees to incorporate the colleges within the universities, as we saw in Chapter 1, if successful would have enabled the colleges to share this high status public image and provide a more unified institutional base for the recruits to the teaching profession.

The major implication of the state's dependence on academic institutions, albeit divided and socially stratified into universities and public sector institutions, is the loss of power and control of teacher education by the practising membership. Frequent attempts by the teachers' unions and associations in the past to obtain a fuller involvement in teacher education have achieved little real success.

Presenting a case for teacher participation in courses of professional training Evans, who is an officer of the National Union

of Teachers, has argued that the "conflict of values and methodology in teaching"[28] that exists between those providing the teacher education and the teachers in schools is having an adverse effect on the work of the training establishments and the schools. Students, he suggested, were emerging from their initial training with large gaps in their professional education and, consequently, there was a "tendency for the young teacher to be 're-educated' by his new colleagues in the staff room."[29] Only by the full involvement of teachers in all aspects of the professional training programme, he believed, would the gaps be closed and the professional relevance of the courses maximized.

More recently the CNAA has given strong support to the involvement of practising schoolteachers in their validated programmes of initial and in-service training, in the roles of course tutors, qualification committee members and external examiners. In 1979 UCET[30] too, representing the university view, expressed its support for much closer co-operation with the teaching profession in relation to the PGCE course.

Judge's[31] solution lies in the creation of University Schools of Education that are committed to initial and in-service teacher education, giving a high priority to educational research and to the involvement of schoolteachers. In this way, he believes, the present tension that exists between those who advocate professional competency and those who favour the university connection and the mastery of subject knowledge can be resolved.

The desire for such an alliance has tended to be frustrated by a conflict of interests between liberal and vocational education; between the academic and professional traditions. Millerson has commented:

> "University expansion and development tended to follow a traditional pattern of higher education built up from the Middle Ages, offering inappropriate courses which were almost entirely non-vocational." (32)

Consequently, he claims, some occupational groups have rejected the university connection and sought their professional training in other colleges.

So far as teacher education is concerned Taylor[33] has provided sound reasons for maintaining and developing the partial involvement which universities in England and Wales have at present. Judge strongly agrees but warns

> "When the teaching profession, and those institutionally associated with it, seeks to raise its professional status by making its initiatory programmes more central in a university and more responsive to its key values, a problem is created by success. The pursuit of scholarship, rigour and academic respectability as conventionally defined, deflects those programmes from a concern with such desiderata as professional competence, practical skill and on-the-job training." (34)

Once again the dilemma of the academic and professional traditions in the education of teachers raises its head.

(4) (a) "Bureaucratisation is a major underlying process associated with mediative control..."[35]

(b) "... the bureaucratisation of the occupation tends to stratify practitioners and formalise incipient cleavages."[36]

(c) "Such mediation has the effect of creating divergent interests and orientations within an occupational community as a result of the creation of varied specialist and hierarchical organisational forms."[37]

Bureaucracies may differ considerably in the details of their organisation and procedures but, in general structure, they are sufficiently alike to enable a model or ideal type of the bureaucratic form to be constructed.

Following on Weber's[38] characterisation of the ideal-typical features of bureaucracies Chinoy[39] has summarized the functionally related features of this model:

(i) carefully defined positions or offices;

(ii) a hierarchical order with clear-cut lines of authority and responsibility;

(iii) selection of personnel on the basis of technical or professional qualifications;

(iv) rules and regulations governing official action;

(v) security of tenure and the possibility of a career by promotion in the hierarchy.

The tendency to establish much larger school units in the last twenty five years, particularly at the secondary level, has resulted in more formalized procedures and arrangements in order to maximize

the efficiency and avoid, as far as possible, the chaos that could arise from the mis-management of the large number of pupils and teaching staff and the increased quantity of material resources.

Simultaneously the Burnham salary awards to schoolteachers in 1956 created a much more stratified staffing structure than hitherto. The earlier basic scale, with additional allowances mainly for head-teachers and deputy-headteachers, was now to be replaced by a more finely graded hierarchy that would include head of department posts (of which there were to be four, and later five, categories relative to the size of the department) and special responsibility posts (graded in two, and later three, scales), in addition to the head, deputy-head and any senior master and senior mistress posts that already existed.

The new posts were to be allocated to schools according to the criteria of school size and the age of pupils. Schools with an entitlement were now expected to create the departments if they did not already exist and make official appointments to these and other posts of responsibility. The staffing hierarchy was now created and, together with the formalized procedures, the bureaucratic nature of the school's internal organisation established.

In his analysis of the changing internal organisation of schools Hoyle has detected two trends. The first he calls "professional stratification" which he defines as "the tendency towards the creation of an increased number of status levels within the teaching profession." (40) Occurring at the same time, although not necessarily functionally related, is a second trend: the process of

> "role differentiation (which) refers to the tendency for the basic role of the teacher to take on more specialized forms and the tendency for completely new roles to emerge in schools and in the education system." (41)

These trends have arisen to a large extent from external forces, some imposed and others less tangible but pervasive in terms of changing values and norms. At primary school level the post-Plowden initiatives, the abolition of the 11+ examination, and the introduction of first and middle schools were very influential. At the secondary stage the raising of the school leaving age, the reorganisation of secondary education into, generally, larger comprehensive schools, and, affecting both the primary and secondary sectors, the ramifications of a multi-cultural society - all had some effect on the academic and social dimensions of the schools.

Structural adaptation to these pressures encouraged the development of bureaucratic arrangements. For Hoyle the process of professional stratification and role differentiation have created a promotion ladder within a career structure.

Promotion depends however on the teacher making himself or herself distinctive, a specialist in either the academic or social organisation of the school, by developing a particular niche. It may require an additional qualification or some voluntary contribution to the extra-curricular activities in the school but, with success, the teacher will gradually move away from the responsibilities of classroom teaching into more full-time administrative responsibilities as the career pattern in school progresses.

Hoyle focuses in his analysis on the dysfunctional aspects of the promotion process within teaching and suggests those teachers who do not have the appropriate qualifications to compete will experience relative deprivation and anomie. If this is the case then teachers are likely to experience a loss of satisfaction and commitment to teaching which will affect their performance in the classroom.

Hoyle does assume all teachers will be sensitive to the pressure of this 'career orientation' although it is quite likely there are teachers in the schools who prefer to remain in a full teaching role, with intrinsic job satisfaction from the act of teaching their important reward.

At the conclusion of his paper Hoyle claims

> "The process of stratification cannot now be reversed, thus the strategic problem is to minimize its undesirable consequences." (42)

Among his recommendations to alleviate the negative consequences of anomie and relative deprivation are:

(a) the clarification of criteria for promotion in education;

(b) the reconstruction of the career structure in teaching;

(c) the reconstruction of salary scales in teaching;

(d) a common basic professional training for all who work in education.

Hoyle's fourth recommendation as stated is particularly pertinent to the interest of this research. However, writing in 1969, his concern was not with the BEd and PGCE trainees, nor with the graduate and non-graduate trainees, but very simply and very narrowly with the PGCE trained and PGCE untrained sub-groups.

A further determinant of stratification within the teaching profession is the level of prestige associated with the different roles and responsibilities in the occupational hierarchy. Jackson has suggested that

> "Prestige is distributed ... according to the twin qualities of the esoteric value of what is taught and the consequent difficulties involved in attaining it, and the audience to whom it is communicated." (43)

Applying these criteria to the full range of the formal education service one finds, at the highest level of prestige, the subject specialist tutor in the university who is both teaching and extending the boundaries of specialized knowledge through research. In terms of the 'difficulty-time' criterion this specialist tutor-researcher may devote his whole career to the pursuit of new knowledge which, until it is known, cannot be regarded as readily available. Jackson's second criterion of prestige, the student audience, at university level represent the most able 'learners' in the educational system and may themselves be graduates in the subject area.

At the other extreme in this prestige scale is found the nursery-infant teacher who disseminates the type of knowledge that is very generalized and public, and which most adults should be capable of teaching. Because such knowledge is readily available in society and relatively unsophisticated it is not difficult to attain, and since schooling at this age is compulsory the children do not represent an exclusive group.

Between the two extremes in descending order one would place other institutions of higher and further education, the various secondary schools, the middle then junior schools, followed, in order, by the infant and nursery units.

Since our concern in this research is schoolteaching the stratified prestige levels of the schools and the teachers is of interest. Bernbaum et al have reported students' rankings of primary and secondary teachers, firstly as they thought the general public would list them, and secondly, as they the students would list them. The results are given overleaf but the authors offer no explanation for any variation between the lists.

'Public' ranking	Students own ranking
Independent schoolteacher	Grammar schoolteacher
Grammar schoolteacher	Comprehensive schoolteacher
Comprehensive schoolteacher	Independent schoolteacher
Secondary Modern schoolteacher	Secondary Modern schoolteacher
Primary schoolteacher	Primary schoolteacher

Given this prestige stratification between schools and Hoyle's identification of a similar phenomenon within schools one becomes aware of the extent of the differentiation within the teaching profession as a whole. Durkheim[45] has interpreted the social consequences of differentiation as essentially integrative, while Coser[46] has argued that it may serve a socially cohesive function, so long as the demarcation lines are not so well-defined as to create a cleavage between one group and another, which may then generate tension and conflict.

The divergent orientations of primary and secondary teachers are more readily understood and will be discussed in rather more detail below. However, within the same school the different academic and professional identities of teachers, which have been formed by their own educational experiences, have been given formal recognition by the creation of departments. In Esland's words

> " 'Subjects' can be shown to have 'careers' which are dependent on the social-structural and social-psychological correlates of membership of epistemic communities. The individual career and set of appropriate commitments are worked out within the frames of reference which these allow." (47)

Between the 'subject' associations in the formal organisation of the school there exists a tension as they compete for scarce staffing

and capitation entitlements, for superior timetable provision and accommodation facilities, and, in the secondary school, for external examination success.

These and other aspects of the day-to-day competition occur not only within the bureaucratic organisation of the school but within a much wider social context of stratified knowledge. Consequencly, some subjects and the teachers who teach them are accorded higher prestige than others. In Young's view

> "the contemporary British educational system is dominated by academic curricula with a rigid stratification of knowledge. It follows that if teachers and children are socialized within an institutionalized structure which legitimates such assumptions, then for teachers, high status (and rewards) will be associated with areas of the curriculum that are (1) formally assessed, (2) taught to the 'ablest' children, (3) taught in homogeneous ability groups of children who show themselves most successful within such curricula." (48)

(5) (a) "Differences in the structural or organisational location of practitioners are likely to generate divergences of orientation." (49)

(b) "Variations in the organisational and structural locations of practitioners will not only lead to differences in attitudes regarding the occupational community, but also to differences in the types of knowledge and ideologies esponsed."(50)

Anyone at all familiar with the maintained and independent school system in England and Wales may be delighted or dismayed at the prospect of such enormous variety in organisational arrangements, but

the diversity has developed to the point where educationists are expressing concern.

In 1970 when it was thought we were half-way to a comprehensive secondary school system Benn and Simon observed that the initial fear of a single monolithic organisation developing had been dispelled. Instead, from their research data, they concluded

> "If anything, the fear is now the opposite. The variety of schemes is so great that it may well have an adverse effect on pupil transfer arrangements, and on teacher promotion and career structure." (51)

If we permutate and combine this variety with the diversity of schools by type and title at the pre-secondary stage, with the different forms of school internal organisation, and with the different definitions of school curriculum, then include for good measure the variable factors of material resources and socio-economic status of the school locality, one should begin to appreciate that the school system does need a supply of teachers with quite different professional interests, skills and knowledge.

The implications of the organisational changes for the careers of teachers have been explored by Lyons (52a) and Riseborough (52b), and the complexity has been summarized by Lyons and McCleary:

> "To think of teachers as representing a homogeneous body of professionals pursuing relatively standardized careers within relatively standardized organisations is a myth which represents a widely held perception of teaching." (52c)

Anderson reinforces this point by suggesting that teachers belong to a composite, rather than single, profession. His concern is, however, that despite the evident diversity of function and responsibility

> "the extent of the differences among the various elements making up this composite tend to be minimized rather than emphasised in many discussions of teacher education." (53)

Bernbaum et al have suggested that analyses of the occupational status of teachers

> "often ignore a significant perspective deriving from the fact that different categories of teachers operate in different work situations ... (and) such differences in work situations are likely to arise from the structure of the educational system and its historical antecedents." (54)

Their research, which was concerned with the differential prestige rankings within the teaching profession, observed that different work situations and different categories of teachers are associated in a way that results in prestige differences within the teaching profession, and this resulting status differentiation is linked to differential rewards in terms of income, career prospects and job satisfaction.

The different work situations arising from the stratified structure of the educational system necessitate markedly different role performances, knowledge and expertise on the part of the teacher according to perceived differences in the psychological and educational needs and abilities of children at the different ages and stages. Stewart has commented on this divergence:

> "The teacher in advanced societies has been expected to know his subject. This phrase varies in meaning. For many teachers of young children it has meant being familiar with good methods and materials for teaching ... 'Knowing your subject' for a teacher of sixth formers going to a university necessitates a mastery of content of a more academic kind." (55)

As children progress through the school system so the emphasis for the teacher changes, in general terms, from the undifferentiated activities provided for the youngest pupils, to a more integrated curriculum in the junior school and, finally, the differentiated curriculum given to most pupils in the secondary school. With this

progression towards greater differentiation in curricular organisation so the role of the teacher is modified from that of 'generalist' to 'specialist'.

The content of the undifferentiated curriculum has been described by Dearden in the following way:

> "A general learning situation is arranged without any direction of attention to distinct subject-matters. A wide range of often freely chosen activity is available involving toys, books, materials, pets, apparatus and of course other children. It might be disputed that there is a 'curriculum' at all here, and admittedly we are, so to speak, at the very edges of the concept. Nevertheless, the situation is that of a school and the adult staff are teachers." (56)

Although the point of departure is debatable and, consequently, will vary between schools, gradually the teacher will be expected to provide more systematic and deliberate learning opportunities for the children as they progress into and through the junior school. Again there will be variations in emphasis between junior schools but the pattern generally is one of an integrated curriculum based on projects and themes, or topics where the individual pupil is given an opportunity to pursue an area of interest. The traditional subjects are subordinate to the aims and totality of the project, theme or topic and are introduced as and when they can contribute to this more general goal. Clearly a well designed project or theme by the teacher will ensure that it is well balanced and provides opportunities for the subject areas to contribute at an appropriate level.

At the secondary, or upper middle, school stage the differentiated curriculum is dominant for most teachers and pupils. Although there are alternative forms of the differentiated curriculum the one most

frequently adopted is that which divides learning into traditional 'subjects'. Each subject component in the school curriculum has its own, and not usually equal, share of the available teaching time, strictly defined in the form of the school timetable. This is, of course, in keeping with the more bureaucratic structure of the secondary school and contrasts with the rather more flexible use of time that is generally found in junior and infant schools.

Secondary school teachers are normally employed as subject specialists although the extent of their subject expertise will largely determine the level at which they are employed to teach the subject and, consequently, the prestige they are accorded. The different levels of subject knowledge and expertise different teachers are perceived to possess provides, therefore, a further opportunity to differentiate teachers who, as we have already seen, operate within a structure of stratified knowledge.

Not all teachers at the secondary level are employed as subject specialists, particularly in the teaching of younger and/or less able pupils. Curriculum developments in the nineteen-seventies have also encouraged the introduction of interdisciplinary courses for the older average and below-average ability levels. These developments when compared with external examination courses and syllabuses demonstrate, in Shipman's view,

> "two different and diverging worlds of education. One is firmly planted in revered academic traditions, is adapted to teaching from a pool of factual knowledge and has clearly defined, if often irrelevant subject boundaries. The other is experimental, ... focuses on contemporary problems, groups subjects together and rejects formal teaching methods. One emphasises a schooling within a framework of external examinations, the other attempts to align school work to the environment of the children." (57)

Just as the pupils taking the different courses are academically stratified so too may be the teachers who are responsible for these different courses.

Decisions regarding curriculum content and teaching method have tended to be interpreted and polarised as the 'traditional' and 'progressive' ideologies within education. The dominant ideology so far as a particular school is concerned will have an important bearing on the content that is to be admitted as 'curriculum knowledge', its organisation, structure, presentation and assessment, and, not least, to whom it shall be taught and when. Bernstein[58] and Eggleston[59] have focused on these issues and the related matters of the distribution of power and the principles of social control. However the interest of this research relates more specifically to one further decision: 'by whom will it be taught?'

The outcomes of these decisions are reflected in what have become identified as the 'subject centred curriculum' and the 'child centred curriculum'. The former links very closely with the academic subject syllabuses leading to external examinations in the secondary school, and the latter much more with the primary school (as the Plowden Committee[60] intended), subordinating the subject content to considerations of the child's interests and attitudes, and the effect on the child himself of what he learns, does and experiences.

Within the framework of the 'traditional' ideology the favoured pattern of teacher education is that which emphasises academic aims and content so that the intending teacher may have the depth of subject knowledge to meet the full requirements of the subject centred curriculum. The case for an academic emphasis in initial training has been articulated by Jackson:

> "A trained mind is given precedence to technical (ie. professional) competence which it is assumed can be readily picked up once the formal education process is complete." (61)

This is essentially the academic tradition in teacher education.

In contrast the professional tradition is identified much more with the 'progressive' ideology and the resultant child centred curriculum. Here the emphasis is on the technical competence of the intending teacher as a practitioner, equipped for example with a good understanding of children's intellectual and emotional development; of individual differences within this general pattern; of the ways in which children learn and can be motivated to learn; of how knowledge should be structured and presented in order to meet the needs and interests of the pupil and maximize the effectiveness and benefits of the learning experience, at the same time showing an awareness of those factors external to the child, in classroom, school, home and community, that may help or hinder this learning. Clearly it is not sufficient just to know your own specialist subject, regardless of depth and expertise; this will not guarantee effective teaching. This position has been summarized by Hilliard:

> "It certainly does not follow that simply by virtue of being graduates they are professionally qualified to become teachers ... the most that can be said of the untrained graduate is that he is a graduate; he is not a professionally educated teacher, because his studies have been purely academic and not professional." (62)

The academic and professional traditions are based upon, and perpetuate, quite divergent orientations within teaching and co-exist, in Judge's view, in a hostile relationship:

"Professionalism, perceived as the pursuit of academic respectability has come close to open conflict with professionalism interpreted as the promotion of sound practical skills ..." (63)

When a professional group is sub-divided as teaching is by the academic and professional traditions it conforms to Bucher and Strauss's view of such groups as

"loose amalgamations of segments pursuing different objectives in different manners and more or less delicately held together under a common name at a particular period in history." (64)

We shall return towards the end of this chapter to consider the Bucher and Strauss model more fully and the contribution it can make to the theoretical understanding and framework of this research.

(6) (a) "The growth of bureaucratic structures geared to the provision of services has given rise to ... pluralist bureaucracies, where occupational career structures and rewards systems are differentiated out from the administrative hierarchy in order to accommodate occupational expectations."(65)

(b) "Under this form of institutionalized control the functions of occupational associations in maintaining colleague identification ... are likely to be less important than are its specifically 'trade union functions' in pressing for improvements in pay and conditions."(66)

Teachers' salary awards are negotiated at the national level and

are subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for Education and Science or, ultimately, in the case of dispute and referral to arbitration, the Houses of Parliament. This underlines the extent of the state control of education in England and Wales.

In the first instance the responsibility for the review of teachers' salaries rests with the Burnham Primary and Secondary Committee, which is composed of representatives from the major teacher associations, the LEA and the DES. In recent years such reviews have been implemented annually, with a more significant reappraisal of the entire salary structure within the teaching profession held less frequently. The last major structural review specifically undertaken for the teaching profession was conducted by the Houghton Committee[67] in 1974, and its report and implications will be considered in greater detail below.

At present before the Secretary of State is a claim by the teachers' associations for another major review of the salary structure and, even more fundamental, a call for the replacement of the Burnham Committee, which would entail a new agreement on the composition and powers of the replacement committee. Both requests are currently receiving attention at the DES.

Hilsum and Start[68] have provided a brief history of the Burnham Committee between 1945 and 1972, which reveals a number of antecedents that are informative for this research.

Founded in 1919 the Burnham Committee (which takes its name from its first Chairman) reflected the differentiated nature of the teaching profession that has been discussed in Chapter 1. There were in effect three Burnham Committees, each with separate responsibility for the salaries of teachers in the elementary school, the technical and

similar schools, and the secondary or grammar schools within the maintained sector. It was at the time of the 1944 Education Act, and the reorganisation of the maintained schools, that the three committees were amalgamated.

Teachers in primary and secondary schools in 1944 were on different salary scales although, a year later, the new Burnham Committee introduced the same basic scale for both sectors. However, there remained a difference in the pay for men and women.

Effectively there were two salary scales with men in the maintained primary and secondary schools entitled to two additional increments above what the women teachers in these schools could earn. This difference continued until the 1956 Burnham agreement approved the adoption of equal pay for men and women teachers, the process to be completed by 1961.

This was a particularly contentious issue for those representing the male and female interests within the teachers' associations. Given the relatively large size of the schoolteaching profession, with a majority membership of women who were mainly employed in primary schools and, consequently, perceived by some to be doing relatively less important work, such a pay policy, almost inevitably, would have important implications for male salaries, given the fixed amount of money available for distribution.

In 1960 there were 266,138 teachers[69] employed in the maintained primary and secondary schools in England and Wales, of whom 160,111 (or 60%) were women. Of the women teachers 106,741 (or 67%) were employed in the primary sector, although for the 143,507 primary teachers of both sexes this number of women represented a 74% membership. Conversely, of the 106,027 men teachers 69,261 (or 65%)

were employed in the secondary school, which represented 56% of all secondary teachers.

The change in pay policy was intended to raise the relative status of women within the teaching profession, but this change was interpreted by the men as a lowering of their own status with the removal of the financial and the differential prestige advantages they had previously enjoyed. The events established the National Association of Schoolmasters (NAS) as a forceful champion of men's conditions of service in teaching, but the more recent amalgamation of the NAS with the Union of Women Teachers (UWT) would suggest the deep resentment felt at the time of the equal pay decision has since been forgotten.

A further differentiation within the rewards to members of the schoolteaching profession concerned the graduate and non-graduate teachers. Prior to 1945 the two categories had separate salary scales but from 1945 the differential advantage to the graduate has been maintained by the award of additional increments. At different times the Burnham Committee has considered it appropriate to differentiate the graduate sub-group according to the classification of the degree. In 1948 graduate teachers with first class honours degrees received an extra allowance relative to other graduate teachers, but three years later this differential was removed only to return in 1954, on this occasion differentiating between 'good honours' and 'ordinary' graduates. This demarcation has remained to the present day.

Although the different salary scales for grammar school and other teachers had been abolished in the 1945 Burnham awards a new and very significant variable was introduced into salary calculations that neutralized the effect of a basic scale for primary and secondary

school teachers, and preserved particularly the pre-war advantage of the grammar school teacher.

In the immediate post-war period schools had a headteacher and one or more members of staff on a 'post of special responsibility' (PSR), the most senior of whom was normally regarded as the deputy headteacher. The criteria which the Burnham Committee introduced in 1945 to assess a school's entitlement to PSRs related to the number and the age of the pupils in the school.

The critical pupil age was 15 years. Pupils below that age carried no differential advantage for the school. Pupils aged 15 and above brought significant advantage to the school and the career prospects of its staff. Additionally it was within the power of the LEA to award a PSR to a teacher who was considered to be teaching advanced academic work.

In effect what the criteria created was a carefully calculated supplementary system of rewards that was for the benefit, almost exclusively, of the grammar school teachers, who for the most part were already in receipt of the graduate allowance. They were also the school teachers who enjoyed the highest prestige, itself an important non-monetary reward, which accrued to them both as graduates and members of the high status grammar school.

In contrast the primary and secondary modern schools - together the former elementary school - did not have pupils at this time above the age of fourteen and, therefore, relied entirely upon their pupil roll to qualify for PSRs. The 'unit total' system that replaced the 'school roll' in 1948 as the basis of this criterion had little effect. Pupils below 15 years counted for 1 point, while pupils aged 15, 16 or 17 years and above counted for 4, 7 and 10 points respectively.

The monetary and non-monetary rewards available to schoolteachers at this time were distributed, unquestionably, to the advantage of those teachers belonging to the academic segment within the profession.

In June 1974 the Committee of Inquiry into Teachers' Pay was appointed under the chairmanship of Lord Houghton[70]. This was the first independent review of teachers' pay in Great Britain as a whole and the first in England and Wales since the 1944 McNair Report. In an intensive and wide ranging inquiry the Committee touched upon monetary and non-monetary dimensions of the reward system, the latter including career prospects, prestige and esteem, and job satisfaction, as well as defining the general principles which should determine teachers' pay in the future.

The Houghton Committee was concerned to create a career structure in teaching which, from the point of entry,

> "should provide both steady and secure progress for the diligent and qualified, and opportunities for promotion desirable and adequate for those who aspire to the highest positions." (71)

In addition, the Committee had perceived the following functional deficiencies within the educational system that impaired the quality of the teaching service and, therefore, needed to be corrected in their recommendations. Inducements or rewards would be necessary to:

(1) attract more graduate recruits into teaching "partly to help progress towards the ultimate aim of an all-graduate profession and partly to meet specialist deficiencies in the schools." (Para. 28; p.9)

(2) attract more men teachers, particularly in the primary schools. (Para. 28; p.9)

(3) correct the high turnover and wastage rate, which stood at 20.7% in 1972-73. (Para. 37; p.11)

(4) encourage effective teachers to continue as teachers in the classroom; "to use promoted posts in this way - rather than as a means of recognizing the acceptance of extra 'administrative' responsibility." (Para. 109; p. 28)

(5) compensate teachers whose work in the past decade had been "subject to increasing responsibility and complexity together with a variety of changes which have imposed severe burdens and should be recognized by higher pay." (Para. 56; p. 16)

(6) to improve the status of teaching; "the status of teachers was too little respected, especially in primary and secondary schools." (Para. 59; p. 16)

In making its recommendations on the new career and pay structure for primary and secondary teachers in England and Wales the Houghton Report had this to say:

> "An important part of our task has been to recommend pay levels for school teachers which make up for the fact that teachers' pay has fallen behind general salary movements in recent years. This we have done, but we have also aimed at much more than this. We saw a need to restore to the pay structure a shape and range more worthy of a professional career and of the position in the community teachers should occupy. We have recommended starting salaries which compare favourably with those in other occupations requiring the same entry standards. Our structural recommendations for merging scales and re-shaping incremental progression are designed to create an opportunity for better career earnings at every level. In England and Wales, recommendations on the points system will provide much more opportunity for promoted posts in the schools - primary, middle and secondary - where these are most needed, and will open the way for greater use of promoted posts to recognize classroom teaching ability." (72)

The recommended average increase in teachers' salaries was 29% and this was accepted by the government. The Houghton Committee also fulfilled its aim to establish an improved career structure for teachers in all types of school, which has survived to the present. By their insistence that teaching is a profession they formally acknowledged the high level of prestige that should be accorded to teachers in the stratified positional scale, and this was endorsed in some measure by the title change from 'Assistant Teacher' to 'Teacher'. By their desire to enhance the status of effective classroom teachers they were encouraging the formal recognition of the teacher's esteem (or personal status) in the profession and, thereby, improving the job-satisfaction of those teachers who, against their wishes, would otherwise be compelled to leave the classroom to seek promotion.

In exchange for these rewards, and the recognition of the functional importance of teaching, the Houghton Committee made it very clear in the conclusion to their report that they expected teachers to accept their obligations and responsibilities in the service of the community.

> "We wish to stress that we believe the salary levels we recommend justify expectation of professional standards of performance in return. As in other professions, these salary levels are in part recognition of the fact that the job cannot be compressed within a rigid structure of prescribed duties, hours or days. The majority of teachers, we believe, approach their task in this spirit." (73)

It is the minority, however, who having been appointed to the position and are in receipt of the rewards then fail to display the commitment to teaching, either in their approach to their classroom responsibilities or their involvement in other educational activities in or out of school, who cause concern.

As a result of the Houghton Report's recommendations the stratified career structure for school teachers took the following form:

Headteacher

Deputy Headteacher

Senior Teacher

Scale 4

Scale 3

Scale 2

Scale 1

Although Scale 1 began at a salary level considered high relative to other occupations the graduate would start at the third incremental point, and the 'good honours' graduate at the fifth point in an attempt to attract graduates into teaching. Scale 1 was also extended by two increments at the top but for the good honours graduates only. (Para. 91; p.24)

This salary differential, related to academic attainment, was to be confined to Scale 1. Promotion to a higher scale, whether for additional responsibility or in recognition of effective classroom teaching would be based therefore on professional performance in post and not on the basis of initial qualification (Para. 89; p.24). If this is true in practice then one might expect to find professionally competent teachers moving from Scale 1 to Scale 2 more quickly than teachers whose strength is their initial academic qualification.

The staffing structure of a school is dependent in the first instance on the school's unit total, which represents the number of pupils weighted by age. The unit total entitles the school to a

points score which the headteacher may expend on appointments above Scale 1 at the following post-Houghton rates: Scale 2 = 2 points; Scale 3 = 2 points; Scale 4 and Senior Teacher = 3 points. (Headteachers and their deputies have their salary scales fixed directly by the school's Group size, which is also determined by the unit total.)

The contentious aspect of this arrangement was the relative unit weighting of pupils by age. This weighting before Houghton had allowed a pupil aged 17 and over to count as equivalent to almost seven pupils in the primary school and, therefore, was unfairly restricting the primary sector in its ability to offer promoted posts to attract the graduates and men teachers who were in such short supply.

The Houghton Report endeavoured to conceal the disparity of prestige contained in the age-weighting scale, a disparity that was reflected above by Jackson in his prestige scale and in the students' ranking of teachers, reported by Bernbaum et al.

> "We completely accept that the age-weighting arrangements are merely a means of achieving the right educational balance of teacher structure in different types of school and are not an attempt to measure the relative difficulty or importance of teaching children of different ages." (74)

However, the report did recommend a narrowing of the disparity in order to create more opportunity for promoted posts in the small schools; in the primary and middle schools; and in secondary schools without sixth forms where "some of the most difficult practical problems of classroom teaching occur." (Para. 110; p.28) The age-weightings before and after the Houghton Committee inquiry are reflected in the tables overleaf[75].

Table 2.2

AGE-WEIGHTING OF PUPILS IN SCHOOLS, APRIL 1974	
Category of pupil	Units
For each pupil under 13 years of age	1½
For each pupil aged 13 and under 15	2
For each pupil aged 15 and under 16	4
For each pupil aged 16 and under 17	6
For each pupil aged 17 and over	10

Table 2.3

AGE-WEIGHTING OF PUPILS IN SCHOOLS FOLLOWING HOUGHTON REPORT, DECEMBER 1974	
Category of pupil	Units
For each pupil under 14 years of age	2
For each pupil aged 14 and under 15	3
For each pupil aged 15 and under 16	4
For each pupil aged 16 and under 17	6
For each pupil aged 17 and over	8

There remains one further dimension to the reward system for teachers as considered by the Houghton Committee. Rather than the positive rewards that may accrue to teachers for initial qualifications, additional responsibility or effective teaching, this final aspect refers more to 'compensatory' rewards to teachers in schools of particular difficulty, largely because of the social and economic conditions of the areas in which the schools are located.

Teachers employed in classified 'social priority areas' were already in receipt of an allowance but the Committee regarded the identifying criteria as inadequate and crude. Consequently, in their report the Committee recommended that LEAs should be allowed to extend the existing discretionary increase of up to 20% in the points entitlement for schools of exceptional difficulty.

> "We should like to see this discretion extended so that a greater number of schools with severe educational problems may be helped by the creation of more senior posts." (Para. 115; p.30)

Additional financial rewards and extended career opportunities were regarded, therefore, as the palliatives for the teacher experiencing such adverse working conditions and relatively low prestige. Whether this solution will guarantee the teacher's full commitment to the task remains a debatable issue.

It is in matters of remuneration and salary negotiation that the teachers' associations are able to wield most power. This is one of the relatively few areas of concern that succeeds in uniting a considerable majority of the teaching profession and, consequently, tends to result in joint action.

In relation to most other matters teachers are consulted by the DES or LEA for the practitioners' opinion on some new strategy or proposed change in policy. But, there is no doubt, the final decision rests with the DES or, in local affairs, the LEA, but this decision almost certainly will take into account the potential cooperation or hostility of the teachers.

The major weakness of the associations in combating the authority of the DES and the LEAs is their own fragmentation. As representatives

of sectional interests within the stratified and differentiated teaching profession they articulate quite differing views on a wide range of educational issues so that, inevitably, energy is expended more in intra-professional conflict than in the development of a unified policy perspective for the teaching profession.

Summary

By focusing on state mediation as a form of control, in the way Johnson suggests, it has been possible to describe and examine the teaching profession in its political and ideological contexts, which in turn generate considerable variation and differentiation in both the organisation and practice of schools and teachers.

With the historical background that was described in Chapter 1, the scene has now been set for a more detailed and specific consideration of the research problem.

(b) Research in teacher education

In a summary of British research related to teacher education Cane[76] has pointed to the transformation that took place in teacher education in England and Wales during the nineteen sixties. Such developments generated considerable research and evaluation.

At this point in time it would seem the nineteen-seventies were at least as dynamic and probably even more traumatic in the field of teacher education. The James Report, the White Paper, the rationalization, diversification, contraction and closures, the all-graduate and all-trained intake to the profession, the developing CNAA interest and influence alongside the dissolution of the Area Training Organisations, and not least the new structures and modified curricula within the programmes of teacher education. If the nineteen-sixties prepared a meal for researchers the nineteen-seventies provided a banquet.

Cane classified his discussion of research in teacher education under the following seven headings:

(1) Teachers as Practitioners

(2) Teachers as People

(3) The Objectives, Curriculum and Methods of Teacher Education

(4) Pre-service Students

(5) In-service Students

(6) Follow-through Studies

(7) Research Methods and Organisation

The research project that is presented here belongs in the penultimate category as a 'follow-through study'. Studies of this kind have attempted to match the pre-service profiles of a group or

groups of students from one or more training establishments to their progress as qualified teachers, generally in the early stages of their careers.

For example, attention has focused on the students' teaching practice marks at the pre-service and in-service stages to measure the strength of the relationship between the two assessments. The evidence, however is conflicting. Start's[77] study suggested the college teaching mark had only a slight relationship with the head-teacher's assessment, whereas a follow-up study by Clark and Nisbet[78] has shown the college assessments to be valid in the early years of teaching experience.

Attempts have also been made to measure the effects different institutional environments, the students' academic and professional grades during pre-service training, and the students' qualifications at entry to the training establishment have had on subsequent performance in schools.

A recent project of this kind by McCall et al[79] was completed in Scotland, where two colleges of education combined to follow-up the students from both colleges who had completed the three-year non-graduate Primary Diploma course. This enabled the research to cover a representative group of schools as well as two training environments for purposes of comparison. Data was classified under three headings: (1) Entry variables (ie. pre-training grades and reports); (2) College performance variables; and (3) School performance variables (ie. in-post assessment after teaching for two years).

Data was assembled from the student files; college records; and from questionnaires completed by the former students and their head-teachers. The research team of six, three from each college, also observed a sample of the former students teaching in schools.

The project, which received financial support from the Scottish Education Department, investigated the relationships between the sets of variables in order to establish the most reliable predictors of both college performance and "teacher competence" when in post.

The results of this five-year project showed:

(i) prediction of college performance from a knowledge of entry characteristics was possible but the level of prediction was not high, and the important entry variables were different in the two colleges;

(ii) there were positive relationships between college performance and the rating made by the headteacher;

(iii) the results in the observation stage indicated some concurrence between college performance and the in-post teaching performance.

This study by McCall et al is similar to this inquiry in its research design. However, the aims of the two projects, the subjects and their qualifications do restrict the degree of comparability.

Three other enquiries also have some relevance for this research although they do not belong in the category of 'follow-through' studies. In what is a 'pre-service' project Gallop(80) tested the notion of a dichotomy within the professional ranks of teachers. He selected a sample of graduate trainees at a university department of education, and non-graduates from a college of education to assess the extent of any differences in the personality and value systems of the two groups of intending teachers as well as any differences in the perceived organisational environment of the training establishments. His findings led him to conclude;

> "there are two types of teacher, each of the two types being the product of psychophysical differences such as personality and values; and I further argue that institutional/organisational differences are such as to reinforce this dichotomy." (81)

There exists a close similarity between Gallop's 'two types' and Kob's types A and B. Kob's research[82] was conducted in Germany in the mid-1950s and led him to contrast his type A teachers, whose

> "interpretation of their professional role is not derived from their academic background but is based on their being teachers," (83)

with his type B, whose interpretation of the teaching role "is based on their academic qualifications and their specialized knowledge in certain subjects."[84] There is a clear distinction in Kob's study between teachers with a 'professional' and with an 'academic' orientation, which he believes are consequences of the

> "very structure of the teaching profession ... (and) they determine the prevailing public image of the profession, significantly affecting its social prestige." (85)

In developing his typology Kob also recognized the existence of "prestige differences within the profession."[86] The study was based on interviews with 82 teachers (76 men and 6 women) in four different types of German secondary school, and therefore falls into Cane's category of 'In-service students' research.

The third project, which is also 'in-service', is the large-scale survey and inquiry conducted by Hilsum and Start[87] for the NFER, the project having been sponsored by the Social Science Research Council with supplementary support from the DES. The inquiry began in 1971

and focused upon (i) the promotion structure and factors that appear to determine promotion; (ii) appointment procedures and their efficiency; (iii) the career patterns of teachers. Information and opinions were obtained from 155 of the 164 LEAs in England and Wales and a random sample of 12,000 teachers, representative of teachers of all types and schools. Questionnaires were completed and interviews conducted with a sample of LEA officers, headteachers and teachers. Application forms, advertisements and responses to advertisements were scrutinized as were the Burnham Committee reports from 1945 to 1971. The comprehensive data to emerge was analyzed by group and sub-group but failed to sub-divide the 'graduate' teacher category, which would have been especially informative for this present enquiry into the early teaching careers of BEd and PGCE teachers.

A common feature of the research projects reported above is their lack of a theoretical framework. In this study the problem will be posited in such a framework in order to develop a coherent and systematic view of the problem and its variables.

(c) The theoretical framework

Introduction

Having first identified and defined the research problem, and wishing to conduct the inquiry within a theoretical framework, the next responsibility is that of selecting the most appropriate and relevant analytical perspective for the particular problem and its component variables.

The diversity of analytical systems in present day sociology arouses not only a multiplicity of questions of a methodological nature but also an intense invective as sociologists rally to the defence of their own theoretical position. A danger in this situation, Brittan suggests, is that

> "there seems to be no room for alternative perspectives. Possible alternatives are relegated to the sphere of ideology and are regarded as being sociologically irrelevant." (88)

In an attempt to rationalise this diversity Fallding has compared the functionalist perspective with what he terms the "four false opposites"[89]; that is four perspectives - the conflict view; the exchange view; the symbolic interactionist view; the evolutionary view; - which give emphasis to variables that are present in social situations but which the functionalist perspective is thought not to be able to accommodate. By showing that functionalism can focus upon such variables Fallding concludes that this perspective "in its most generic meaning is nothing more nor less than sociology itself."[90]

Similarly Gouldner[91] has discussed ethnomethodology and concluded it is an approach which borrows from the functionalism of Parsons, whereas Pircevic[92] has argued that sociology cannot be given a phenomenological foundation, although phenomenology does help to

clarify certain problems in social theory.

Following Berger's[93] views of 'society in man' and 'man in society' Dawe[94] has concluded there are two sociologies; the two approaches "are grounded in the diametrically opposed concerns with two central problems, those of order and control."[95] For the researcher selecting one or other perspective Dawe suggests the "criterion of choice between the two perspectives is clearly that of research utility."[96]

In his support for functionalism as the only sociology Fallding believes sociologists should concentrate their attention on functioning social systems. However he does not regard functionalism as a comprehensive explanatory theory of society but rather as an orientation to enquiry, which he defines as "analytical theory."[97]

In this research the education system is envisaged as a functioning social system which, for our purposes, consists of training establishments that are educating and socializing recruits to teach in the stratified schools that are a sub-system of the larger system. The schools select and appoint the recruits on the evidence of their education and training record, with some filling the more, others the less, prestigious positions in the schools. The dominant values within both the education system and the wider society may influence the allocation of recruits to positions in the schools and, accordingly, determine the rewards accruing to the recruits.

Our primary concern is to identify what pattern of relationships, if any, exist between the training establishments, the recruits and the teaching positions occupied by the recruits in this defined functioning social system.

An assessment of the utility of the different sociological perspectives as a framework for understanding and analysing this

research problem has favoured the functionalist approach. Since the focus of attention is the professional stratification of the recruits to teaching then, more specifically, the perspective will be the functionalist model of social stratification.

In adopting this particular model it does not mean that variables more closely associated with other perspectives will be excluded. An attempt will be made to use this functionalist perspective in its most generic sense, as Fallding suggested.

The functionalist model of social stratification

It is a characteristic of all known societies from the most primitive to the most advanced that the social organisation is divided into strata, which form a hierarchy of status, prestige and power. In his discussion of the nature of social stratification Chinoy has written:

> "In every society some men are identified as superior and others as inferior: patricians and plebians, the twice-born and once-born, aristocrats and commoners, masters and slaves, the classes and the masses ... These contrasts - between higher and lower, rich and poor, powerful and powerless - constitute the substance of social stratification." (98)

Starting from the proposition that no society is unstratified Davis and Moore have attempted to explain, in functional terms, "the universal necessity which calls forth stratification in any social system."(99) Any functioning social system, whether it be society itself, the educational system or a school, must distribute its members to fill the different social positions within the system and motivate them to perform the role associated with that position. However this distribution or allocation of members cannot be left to

chance since Davis and Moore emphasise,

> "it does make a great deal of difference who gets into which positions, not only because some positions are inherently more agreeable than others, but also because some require special talents or training and some are functionally more important than others.

It is necessary therefore to select members to fill the stratified positions on the evidence of their ability and qualifications.

Given the stratified nature of teaching posts in schools, which was discussed in the first section of this chapter, Davis and Moore suggest there are two determinants of the relative status of these hierarchical positions, those with the highest rank will "(a) have the greatest importance for the society (ie. school) and (b) require the greatest training or talent."(101)

So far as (a) is concerned Jackson, as we have seen, has identified two criteria for the relative status of positions in schools, which relate to the academic and professional traditions in the educational system. The second determinant (b) may be applied more directly to the ability, education and training associated with the two groups of graduate recruits to teaching, the BEd and PGCE.

The problem remains, however, for the social system (whether society or school) to induce those members who have the ability and appropriate training to seek the positions and fulfil the required duties. To achieve this Davis and Moore suggest the society must establish a system of rewards to serve as incentives and, additionally, find a means of distributing these rewards differentially in relation to the relative importance of the positions.

Davis and Moore suggest the characteristics of this reward system are:

> "first of all, the things that contribute to sustenance and comfort. It has, second, the things that contribute to humour and diversion. And it has, finally, the things that contribute to self-respect and ego-expansion. The last, because of the peculiarly social character of the self, is largely a function of the opinion of others, but it nonetheless ranks in importance with the first two. In any social system all three kinds of rewards must be dispersed differentially according to positions." (102)

Later in their statement of the principles of social stratification the authors interpret these rewards as salary, leisure, prestige and esteem.

Although the first two categories are self-explanatory the third requires some clarification particularly in view of its importance for this research. Whereas 'prestige' is the social approval attached to a particular position in the hierarchy (eg. he is a lawyer; she is a junior school teacher), 'esteem' is the social approval that comes with the faithful and effective fulfilment of the duties of a position.

Consequently, someone may enjoy high prestige as a senior executive but low esteem for an inadequate performance of the senior executive's duties. Thus <u>within</u> a scale of prestige one can perceive a scale of esteem that enables the holders of identical positions in the stratified schools to be differentiated by the quality of their performance in that position. This distinction between prestige and esteem is identical to Marshall's "positional social status" and "personal social status."(103)

In his analysis of social status Marshall suggests the social value of education and qualifications is assessed in two ways:

> "first, by the actual results, that is to say, the knowledge and skills acquired, and secondly, by the symbolic value of the institutions in which the education was obtained." (104)

This too is an important consideration for this research since, firstly, it draws attention to possible distinguishing features in the nature of the graduate teachers' qualifications and, secondly, the status of the institutions where the qualifications were obtained.

In the first section of this chapter reference was made to Bucher and Strauss's analysis of professional groups, such as teaching, being composed of segments which represent "many identities, many values, and many interests."(105) Bucher and Strauss propose their 'process model' either "as a supplement of, or an alternative to, the prevailing functional model."(106)

Within this theoretical framework we will employ the features of the process model as a supplement to the functionalist model of stratification. The propensity for the teaching profession to be sub-divided according to academic or professional identities, values and interests, as Kob's and Gallop's research have shown, gives particular significance to the concept of segmentation within the stratification model. It remains for this investigation to demonstrate if the earlier segments of 'graduate' and 'non-graduate' have been replaced by the 'PGCE' and 'BEd' segments as schools adapt to an all-graduate recruitment.

Bucher and Strauss emphasise the interdependent yet competing nature of the relationship between segments. They are effectively in competition for the more prestigious positions and the related rewards within the stratified occupational structure. Membership of a particular segment has implications for the teacher's career, the school and teaching situation in which the teacher is employed, and consequently the teacher's prestige and 'public image'. Bucher and Strauss also imply that the competing interests of the segments will

be evident at the pre-service stage as the "segments choose candidates in their own image."[107]

Finally, having identified the general principles of their stratification model, Davis and Moore consider the "modes of variation."[108] which are the internal and external characteristics (not principles) of a particular stratification system and determine the manner in which it functions.

Internally, for example, the degree of opportunity and openness within the system will determine the amount of social mobility; the degree of specialization will affect the fineness and number of gradations in prestige and power; the "magnitude of invidious differences"[109] will determine the social distance between the stratified positions; and lastly, the degree of stratum solidarity which, if high, creates firm divisions between social groups in the hierarchy, as one might find in caste or class organised systems.

Impinging on these internal modes of variation are external influences and conditions which, although outside the system of stratification, nevertheless affect that system. The nature of these external variables will depend upon the form of the particular social system. If it is the entire society then the external variables will relate mainly to other societies and international conditions. If the social system is part of the society, such as the educational system, then the external variables are the prevailing social, political, economic and cultural conditions in the wider society.

Particularly important in this research, as discussed earlier in the chapter, is the external influence and mediatory control of the state (in the form of the DES and LEAs) on the functioning of the educational system. Influential too are the dominant cultural values

of the society, particularly in relation to the form and content of education, that have had a stratifying effect on the status of educational institutions, of the knowledge made available in these institutions, and of the teachers who present this knowledge. The influence of tradition too as part of this culture is reflected in Taylor's comment:

> "The whole process reflects an educational system that is still shot through with kinds of social distinction that characterized earlier stages of industrialisation." (110)

(110a)
Turner has examined the manner in which the dominant values and norms within the established culture of society affect the structure and organisation of the educational system and, thereby, exercise a controlling influence on the extent of any upward social mobility in society.

Tumin[111] has suggested, in his critique of the Davis and Moore model, that these dominant values, norms and traditions within society may be created by elite personnel who, having achieved positions of major responsibility and prestige, exercise their power and influence to define the rules and criteria governing upward social mobility. In this way, Tumin explains, the interests of the dominant elite are protected and a much less open system of social mobility operates, in reality, than Davis and Moore are prepared to concede in their theoretical model. Given this reality it is legitimate to enquire for whom the stratification system is functional and perhaps to conclude that, for society at large or certain groups within society, it may, to some extent at least, be dysfunctional.

Tumin's notion of a powerful elite emerging at the top of the social hierarchy, with the potential to control values, standards,

resources, communications and, ultimately, society itself, is supported by Bottomore,[112] who regards Davis and Moore's failure to make any specific reference to this 'political dimension', even at the most theoretical level, a serious omission. In particular, Bottomore criticizes Davis and Moore for assuming that the 'most important positions' and the 'most qualified persons' are unambiguously defined, and are independent of the influence of powerful interest groups in society.

Davis and Moore rebut such criticisms, insisting that apparent deficiencies of this kind can be explained by reference to the modes of variation and the contextual variables, which are relative to social, cultural, political and economic conditions in society at a particular stage in its history. This point is illustrated in Goldthorpe's analysis of social stratification in industrial society. By comparing stratification in Soviet society with Western countries Goldthorpe's specific aim is

> "to question the idea that the stratification systems of all industrial societies are ipso facto of the same generic type." (113)

Having established such a difference he then concludes

> "This difference derives from the simple fact that in Soviet society the economy operates within a 'monistic', or totalitarian, political order and is ... totally planned, whereas in advanced Western societies ... the economy is planned in a far less centralized and detailed way." (114)

Therefore, although there may be variations in the operation and functioning of the stratification model Davis, elsewhere, has insisted such variations do not negate the principle.[115]

Summary

The list below summarizes the salient features of the theoretical framework employed in this research. The features are based on the Davis and Moore model of social stratification supplemented by the process model of professions as formulated by Bucher and Strauss.

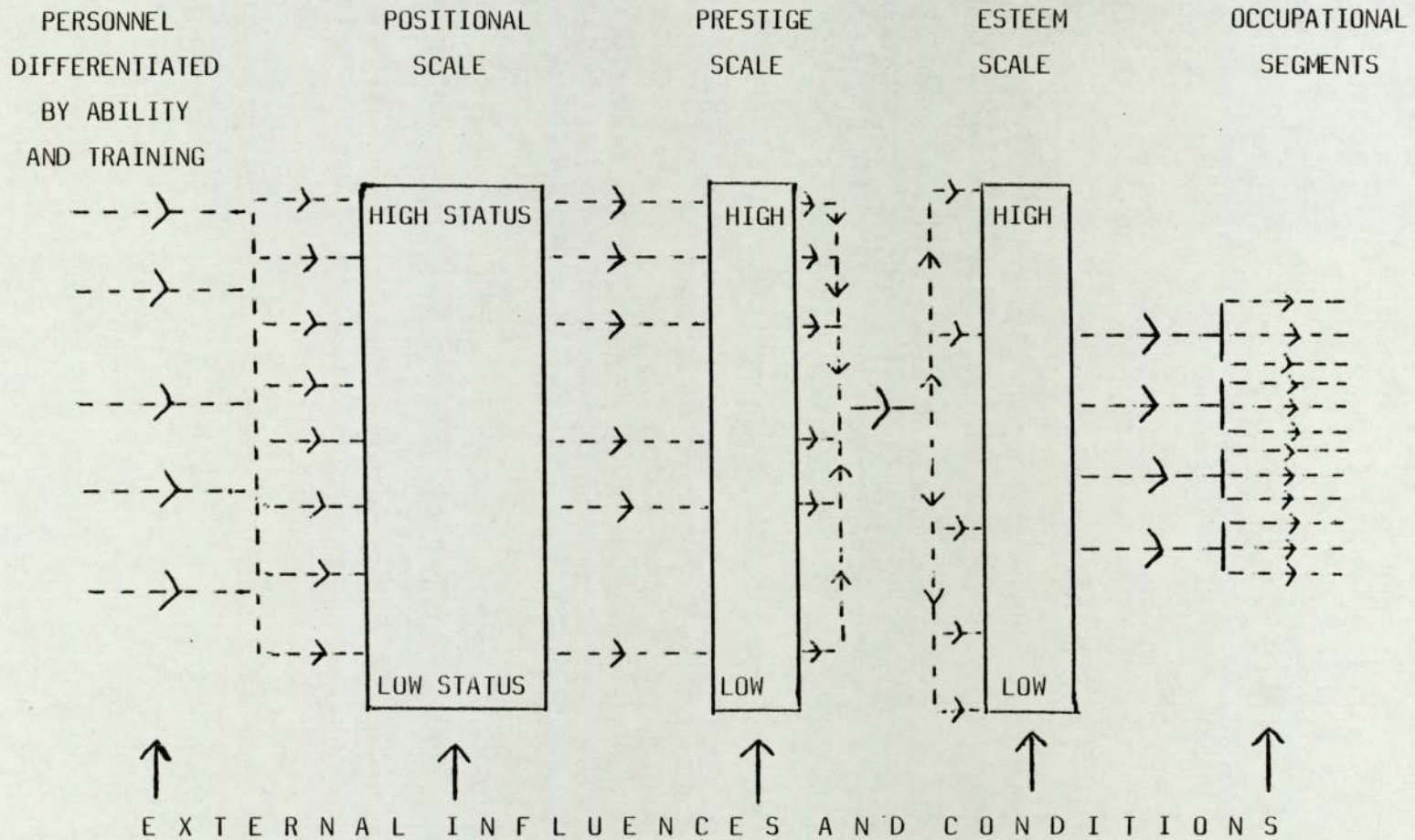
1. Positions in a social system are stratified according to their functional importance for that system.
2. The social system must appoint personnel who have the talent and training to fill those positions which are more functionally important for the system.
3. The social system must organise a set of rewards, to be distributed differentially, as incentives for the personnel with the talent and training to fill the more important positions.
4. The rewards consist of the rights and perquisites associated with, or 'built into', the position and may be classified as (a) income; (b) leisure; (c) prestige; (d) esteem.
5. Personnel filling the same social position in the hierarchy have the same prestige (or positional status) but may differ in esteem (or personal status, associated with role performance).
6. Personnel filling different social positions in the hierarchy will differ in prestige and possibly, but not necessarily, in income and/or leisure.
7. Where personnel appointed to a particular position may be grouped according to different identities, values and interests they form segments within an occupation.

8. External influences and conditions will impinge upon, and affect, the functioning of the stratification system.

This framework, which is represented diagrammatically in Figure 1, will be employed to generate the operational hypotheses as we move in Chapter 3 to a more detailed definition of the problem of the relative status of the BEd and PGCE segments within the teaching profession.

Figure 1

MODEL OF STRATIFIED OCCUPATIONAL SYSTEM



CHAPTER 3

AIMS AND HYPOTHESES

(a) Introduction

In Chapter 1 the history of teacher education in England and Wales was traced to the point in the mid-1970s when central government had decided that recruits to the teaching profession would normally be both graduate and professionally trained. Consequently, the broad differences in the standard of entry qualifications had now been removed and a very positive step in the direction of an all-graduate teaching profession had been taken. It would appear, in theory at least, that the two quite distinct traditions in teacher education - the academic and the professional - had merged at last.

In his assessment of this development Britton is rather pessimistic, implying that the professional degree, the BEd, remains in an inferior category to the more academic degree/PGCE qualification.

> "It may be argued that the new BEd degree is a move in the right direction. It is too early to know what will be the ultimate value of the BEd, but there are signs that the profession is being offered the shadow for the substance... Time will show whether BEd is considered to be equivalent to BA in popular esteem and, what is more important, whether in educational circles a BEd will be considered equivalent to the BA plus a DipEd or PGCE." (1)

Brown[2] is rather more confident, and emphasises the BEd degree will provide a better opportunity than the one-year PGCE programme for students to be introduced to children and understand their needs. He has also drawn attention to the lack of research in this area in a more cautious comment:

"We have not had sufficient experience of the performance of the teacher with a BEd degree to be in the position to evaluate the worth of his training. Some of us may have the hunch that he will outclass the traditional graduate with the postgraduate certificate but we have very little hard evidence for this." (3)

In the decade that has passed since both Britton and Brown speculated on the future credibility and standing of the BEd degree, there have been a number of developments which, in Lacey's terms, have further "blurred the distinction"[4] between the academic and professional traditions.

Firstly, the actual growth in the number of students leaving the public sector teacher education establishments (ie the maintained and voluntary colleges, and the polytechnics) with the BEd qualification as shown in the table below.

Table 3.1

STUDENTS ADMITTED TO BEd PROGRAMMES[5]

	1970-71	1973-74	1976-77	1981-82
No. of students	2,777	3,966	6,280	6,950

Secondly, the increase in the number of students admitted to PGCE programmes, partly as a result of making professional training a compulsory requirement for graduates. However, an important feature of this development for the merging of the academic and professional traditions has been the expanding provision of PGCE places in the

public sector, to the point where it has exceeded university provision.

Table 3.2

STUDENTS ADMITTED TO PGCE PROGRAMMES (6)

Departments of Education		1970-71	1972-73	1973-74	1976-77	1981-82
Universities	No. of students:	4,962	5,134	4,828	4,808	5,600
Public Sector	No. of students:	2,388	5,124	5,297	5,415	5,850
	TOTAL	7.350	10,258	10,125	10,223	11,450

A third and very significant development in this decade has been the emergence of the PGCE programme as the major source of initial training for teachers. In 1970-71 the PGCE population represented about 16% of the 46,000 students engaged in initial teacher training, with the three-year Certificate students contributing about 72% of the total and the BEd students 6%. The remainder consisted of a variety of one-year non-graduate courses for intending teachers. By 1981-82, with almost all of the non-graduate training programmes discontinued, the PGCE representation has increased to about 60% and the BEd to about 37%. However, since more than half of the PGCE students are completing their professional training in public sector institutions then, at present, the public sector accounts for about two-thirds of the total initial training programme.

One other development in the last decade, which has had a bearing upon the two initial training traditions, has been the replacement of the tripartite division of secondary schools by the comprehensive structure. This has greatly reduced the opportunity for different

categories of teachers to be segregated by school although, of course, it does not preclude the possibility of teachers being separated almost as rigidly but within the same school.

Commenting in 1969 on the implications of comprehensive education for the intraprofessional rankings of teachers in secondary schools Bernbaum et al confirm that

> "one of the major sources of differentiation in the status of teachers has been the status of the establishment in which they work. If we could now imagine a system in which all secondary education was organized on a comprehensive basis, then one of the traditional bases for differentiation would be removed. Under these circumstances it is possible to suggest that other criteria for status might apply... It is likely that such a development would be associated with a related trend in the recruitment of teachers to particular schools which would lead to a ranking of teachers by the type of their academic qualifications and by a more intangible grading of the place of origin of the qualifications. If this is to be so it has obvious implications for the BEd qualification now being offered in the colleges of education and for the award of degrees through the Council for National Academic Awards." (7)

More than a decade ago, and at a very early stage in the development of the BEd degree, Britton, Brown and Bernbaum were asking very salient questions about this quite new graduate and professional qualification for teachers. Their common concern was the status and acceptability of the BEd, and more particularly the teachers awarded this degree, in the primary and secondary schools relative to the more established degree with PGCE, and the holders of this qualification.

(b) Aims

The principal aim of this research is to investigate the problem articulated quite independently by Britton, Brown and Bernbaum et al. Are the teachers with BEd and PGCE qualifications equally regarded in the schools, and are the 'public images' of the two qualifications compatible within Britton's "educational circles"?

If there are observable and perceived differences in the status of the graduate teachers with the BEd and PGCE qualifications, and in the status of the qualifications, then the secondary aim of the research will be to identify and define the underlying criteria for this differentiation.

As we have seen in Chapter 2 this investigation is framed within the functionalist model of social stratification, supplemented by the segmental view of professional groups postulated by Bucher and Strauss. Concepts such as stratified positional scale, prestige, esteem, segments and external influences, which were discussed and their interrelationships represented diagrammatically in Figure 1, will be adapted and developed in the context of the organisation of schools and the status of teachers.

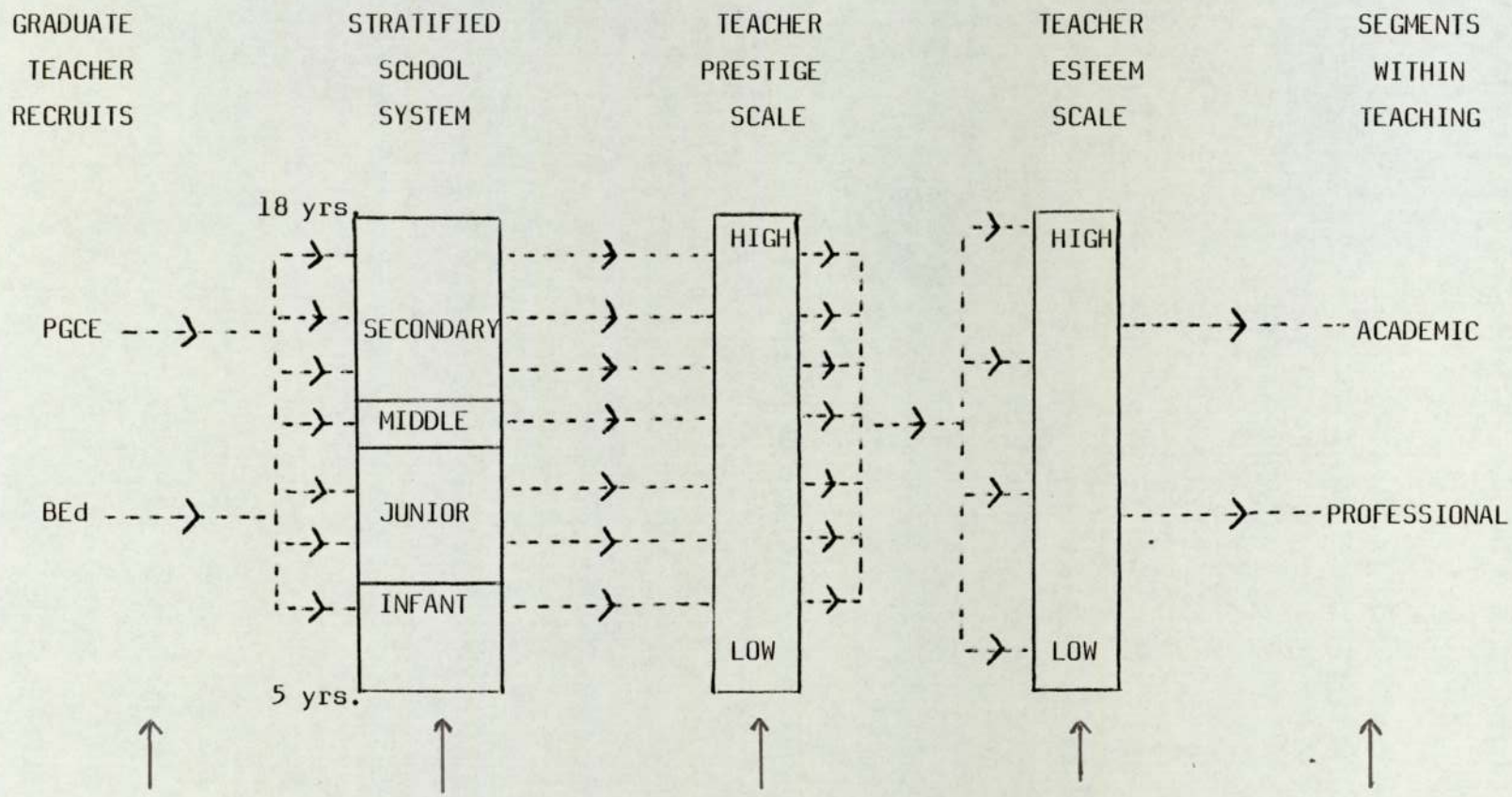
Figure 2 displays the relationships between the key concepts in this theoretical framework as it may apply to the graduate recruits to the stratified school system in England and Wales. A brief explanation of the variables as they apply to teachers and schools is given below.

Graduate teacher recruits

The two categories of graduate recruits to the teaching profession, PGCE and BEd, are professionally trained for teaching appointments within the different age-bands of the school system.

Figure 2

PRESTIGE, ESTEEM AND SEGMENTS IN SCHOOL TEACHING



Stratified school system

In the diagram (Figure 2) the stratified age-bands are classified as Infant, Junior, Middle and Secondary within the 5-18 school age-band, although in practice there may be variations between and within these different categories. For example, within the Secondary age-band there may be further sub-division by age (eg. 11-16; 13-16 and 16-18 years), by sex, and by ability (eg. grammar, technical and secondary modern). In comprehensive secondary schools, where the segregation by sex and ability into different schools has been eliminated, the pupils may be differentiated by ability, subjects, vocational interest or examination aim within the same school. Schools may also vary according to their locality (urban-suburban-rural) and the social composition of the pupils. Schools are also differentiated by size, which has implications for the salary structure and resources within a school as discussed in Chapter 2.

Prestige scale

In the abstract model of social stratification presented by Davis and Moore positions are ranked according to their functional importance for the social system, with differential measures of prestige and other rewards 'built-into' the positions in a positive relation to their functional importance. In the context of the stratified school system, Jackson's twin criteria of (i) the esoteric value of what is taught and (ii) the quality of the pupil audience to whom it is communicated serve as measures of functional importance and therefore of the positional status or prestige of teachers. High prestige is accorded to those positions which require teachers to have very specialized knowledge and where the pupil audience is composed of the most able and mature students within the school system.

In this category, at the top of the prestige scale, is the teaching of specialist subjects to students completing GCE Advanced level courses, with the added responsibility that the quality of the external examination result will have an important bearing on a student's available opportunities in higher education and future career. Lower in the scale but still relatively prestigious are other external examination teaching responsibilities, such as GCE Ordinary level and CSE work. Positional status is associated generally with the teaching of the more able pupils, who have the capability to adapt to, and satisfy, the requirements of the high-status academic curricula as defined by Young.(8) The older the more able pupils are the higher is such teaching in the prestige scale, given that with age has come a deeper understanding of the subject knowledge, and further development of the pupils' knowledge is contingent upon the expertise of the subject specialist teacher.

Towards the bottom of the prestige scale are those teaching responsibilities which do not require the teacher to be a subject specialist and where such responsibilities relate to pupils of average or below average ability and/or who are relatively young within the school age-range. At the bottom of the prestige scale are the generalist teaching responsibilities associated with the youngest of all pupils, the new entrants into the stratified school system, whose needs are more to do with understanding, care and attention than subject knowledge, and for which it is not really necessary to be a qualified teacher.

Because ranking on the prestige scale reflects positional status it is also an indicator of career advancement and, normally, of salary level, as was discussed in Chapter 2.

Esteem scale

Whereas prestige indicates positional status esteem is a measure of personal status or level of performance. The teacher will acquire the prestige associated with the position he or she obtains but the esteem scale will measure the quality of the teacher's performance in that position. A teacher accorded high prestige is not necessarily accorded high esteem. High esteem will be an indication of the teacher's potential for further promotion in the stratified positional scale whereas low esteem indicates an ineffective performance due possibly to the teacher's inability or unwillingness to meet the role requirements. Although there is a direct correspondence between the hierarchy of positions and the prestige scale neither is in such direct relation with the esteem scale.

Segments

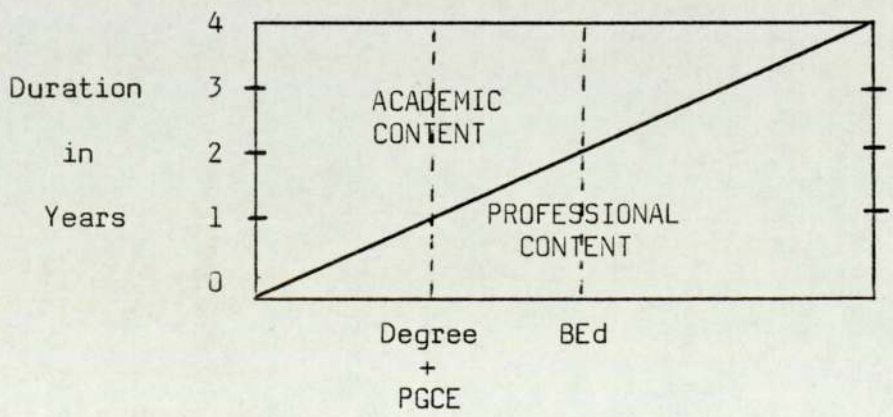
The analysis of professions by Bucher and Strauss has postulated the existence within a profession of sub-groups or segments that are the consequence of members having different identities, values, interests and objectives in relation to the professional task. The research of Gallop at the pre-service stage and of Kob at the inservice stage has revealed the existence of two quite different types or segments within the teaching profession, one having an 'academic' orientation and the other a 'professional' orientation to teaching. Whereas the first is subject-centred, emphasising the importance of the mastery of a body of knowledge, of high academic standards, of external examinations and qualifications, the second segment puts much more emphasis on the skills of teaching than on subject content, is composed much more of generalists than single subject specialists, advocating the development of the whole child

and showing as much concern for the social as the academic features of school life. The academic and professional segments within the teaching profession and the 'public images' they present have implications for recruitment and pre-service training as Gallop has shown, and subsequently are identified with quite different teaching situations and responsibilities in different schools or within the same school. In this way, as Bucher and Strauss illustrated, the teacher's career is largely determined by the segment to which that teacher belongs.

Given that BEd and PGCE recruits to teaching are both graduate and professionally trained then their backgrounds do represent a mixture of academic and professional experiences. Unlike an earlier stage in the history of teacher education, when graduate recruits received no professional training, and non-graduates received little more than their training, the present BEd and PGCE recruits do not fit neatly into either the academic or the professional segments, as Figure 3 illustrates.

Figure 3

RELATIVE AMOUNTS OF ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL CONTENT IN PROGRAMMES OF INITIAL TRAINING



However, relative to each other's position along this 'course content' continuum, the PGCE recruits are more 'academic' and the BEd graduates more 'professional' from the nature of their academic and professional experiences at this pre-service stage.

External influences

External influences can and do impinge on the functioning of the model presented in Figure 2. Political decisions (by DES, LEA or Teachers' Associations); economic factors (occupational relevance of school courses; available resources; Burnham salary awards); educational developments (curricula; examinations; standards; research) and socio-cultural pressures and processes (the ideologies of dominant 'publics' such as the universities, employers, parents, the media) all interrelate to determine the shape and balance of the system in the future.

Decisions and pressures of this kind impinge on the variables at every stage in the model: on (i) the nature of the recruits and, consequently, of the training programmes to be provided; (ii) the structure of the school system and, consequently, (iii) the positional status and prestige scale; from (i) (ii) and (iii) there may be changes that will modify (iv) the esteem scale and, in turn, (v) the major segments, as new emphases and ideologies permeate the system.

(c) Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are derived from the foregoing discussion in this and earlier chapters.

The order in which the hypotheses are presented represents a progression from the more specific to the more general aspects of the problem, culminating in a consideration of the effects which the external influences may have.

Hypothesis 1

The PGCE teachers will be higher in the prestige scale than the BEd teachers, obtaining career positions that rank higher in positional status, such as:

(a) teaching in the more academically selective schools;

(b) teaching pupils from communities that are ranked higher in terms of their social class;

(c) specialist subject teacher;

(d) teaching the more able pupils;

(e) teaching older pupils;

(f) teaching external examination pupils.

Hypothesis 2

The BEd teachers will be higher in the esteem scale than the PGCE teachers, being regarded as:

(a) more effective teachers;

(b) more professional in terms of observed behavioural qualities (eg reliable, co-operative, punctual, conscientious);

(c) more professionally committed to teaching as a career;

(d) more willing to become involved in the full life of the school;

(e) more committed to professional development through attendance at in-service courses.

Hypothesis 3

The PGCE teachers are identified as an 'academic' segment within the teaching profession.

Hypothesis 4

The BEd teachers are identified as a 'professional' segment within the teaching profession.

Hypothesis 5

The graduate and professionally trained recruitment continues to divide the teaching profession according to the differential nature of the entry qualifications.

Hypothesis 6

External influences will operate to maintain a division between the PGCE and BEd graduate segments in the teaching profession.

In Chapter 4 we consider the manner in which this research project was initiated and planned.

CHAPTER 4

PLAN OF THE INVESTIGATION

Introduction

An earlier research project[1] drew the author's attention to the possibility of significant differences in the professional status accorded to BEd and PGCE teachers in schools. The introduction of neighbourhood high schools (12-16 years) in Stoke on Trent in 1972 had resulted in a reduction of almost 50% in the proportion of graduate teachers remaining in the former grammar schools. When interviewed one former grammar school headteacher suggested the reality was even more damaging than the statistic implied since a number of the graduate replacements had a BEd, which he believed was "nothing more than a glorified Cert. Ed."[2]

Subsequent informal discussions with fourth-year BEd students in a college of education revealed a variety of reactions from the students' interview experiences. Some did feel they were at a disadvantage when in competition with PGCE students, others were able to report successful interviews with PGCE students on the shortlist.

Clearly other variables in the student profile, as well as the nature of the teaching post itself, would have an important bearing on such decisions.

Because of the complex but interesting nature of this problem, and the important implications it has for teacher education in England and Wales, a research proposal was prepared in 1975, submitted to, and later approved by the Department of Educational Inquiry in the University of Aston in Birmingham.

In general terms the proposal entailed comparing the pre-service records of BEd and PGCE students with the later academic and professional responsibilities they were given when they had taken up a teaching appointment, in order to assess what advantages, if any, one graduate group enjoyed relative to the other, and in what areas of school life such advantages applied.

The project would depend upon a reasonable survival rate of former students in a sample on later follow-up at the in-service stage. The larger the group at the pre-service stage the greater the likelihood of a viable number for the follow-up. Although at this particular college of education there had been BEd and PGCE courses since the late nineteen-sixties the numbers in either course did not exceed 75 until 1972-73. This year group and the following three intakes, up to and including 1975-76, would provide a pre-service total population of more than 700 students, almost equally divided between the BEd and the PGCE cohorts. No attempt was made to select a representative sample of the two groups in order to reduce the scale and cost of the inquiry. Instead, all who satisfactorily completed their course would be included in the pre-service population. Furthermore, it was anticipated that there could be significant difficulties in locating the former students now teaching in schools and then persuading them to respond to a professionally sensitive questionnaire. For these reasons it seemed unwise and unhelpful to introduce a voluntary reduction in the size of the cohorts at the pre-service stage when the follow-up effects were still unknown.

Students admitted to the PGCE course were holders of recognized graduate or graduate-equivalent qualifications, as was customary in

all institutions providing this kind of teacher education programme.

The BEd degree had a quite different set of entry requirements. In terms of the five-point assessment scale, ranging from A to E with E the Fail grade, students were required to achieve at least a Grade B in Education and their main subject in the three-year Certificate in Education course, and at least a Grade C in the final teaching practice. In addition, students were required to attend a BEd 'bridging course' during their third year and to pass the bridging written examinations in both Education and the student's main subject. If all requirements were met then the student was eligible to enter a fourth-year course leading to the award of the BEd degree with Honours.

The research plan

Having identified the problem and defined the aims the following research plan was devised after a preliminary appraisal of the relevant literature.

The research would take the form of a follow-up study of successive cohorts of BEd and PGCE students who had completed their initial training at the college of education between 1972-73 and 1975-76 inclusive.

The sequential stages in the planned programme were as follows:

Stage 1: Complete the Pre-service Profile forms for the BEd students (Appendix 1) and for the PGCE students (Appendix 2) for the 1972-73, 1973-74, 1974-75 and 1975-76 cohorts.

Stage 2: Identify which of the BEd and PGCE students are employed as teachers and locate their schools.

Stage 3: Prepare the Teacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 4)

Stage 4: Prepare the Headteacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 6)

Stage 5: Prepare the covering letters to the teachers (Appendix 3) and headteachers (Appendix 5)

Stage 6: Questionnaire response data coded, entered on coding sheets for punching. Control cards prepared for data analysis using SPSS.[3] The list of the variables, including the SPSS labels and names, are given in Appendix 7.

Stage 7: Data analysis using SPSS procedures.

Stage 8: Preparation of the covering letter (Appendix 8) and a second and more general Headteacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 9)

Stage 9: Complete the data analysis for this second questionnaire and relate to earlier results.

Stage 10: Complete background reading and monitoring of decision-making affecting teacher education in England and Wales. Write-up the research.

Implementation of the plan

Stage 1 : The Pre-service Profiles

The completion of the BEd and PGCE pre-service profiles entailed an examination of the students' confidential records in the college for each of the four cohorts: 1972-73; 1973-74; 1974-75 and 1975-76.

As the forms in Appendices 1 and 2 show, the variables selected were: the student's age; sex; marital status; full-time employment (if any); academic results including GCE 'A' level passes and grades, the degree subject(s) and result, and other qualifications; the

student's professional education programme including length of course, school age-band and subject method courses, and final assessment grades in educational and professional studies and teaching practice.

This data collection was undertaken in 1976 when the 1975-76 students had completed their programmes.

Stage 2 : Location of students now teaching

The successful location of the former BEd and PGCE students now employed in schools was of paramount importance for a follow-up study of this kind.

An approach was made to the Chief Registrar at the Registered Personnel Registry of the Department of Education and Science in Darlington, who, having been made aware of the nature of the research project, kindly gave his permission for the required information to be provided.

Lists of BEd and PGCE students in each of the four year-groups were prepared, giving the student's full name and DES Reference Number, and posted to the Registry in January, 1977. The lists were returned as completed, the last being returned in April of that year.

The information provided by the DES Registry fell into three categories:

(1) the name of the teacher's employing Local Education Authority (LEA) and, in some cases, the name of the school.

(2) the last known employing LEA for those former students who had taken up a teaching appointment but had since withdrawn from service.

(3) the former students for whom the Department had not yet received notification of an appointment to full-time teaching service.

Where the Registry had provided the name of the school the address was obtained from the Education Authorities Directory and Annual.(4)

Where just the name of the LEA was provided, either as the present or last known employer, a list was compiled for each Authority giving the full name and DES Reference Number of each former student now believed to be in that LEA's employ. The lists were posted to the local authorities with an accompanying explanation and request for the name and address of the school at which the teacher was, or had been, employed.

All the LEAs who were approached agreed to help but not in all cases did they have sufficient information to complete their list. Some former students thought to be in their employ had since withdrawn from teaching, others were supply teachers with no permanent school attachment, some had filled temporary vacancies only, and a final and very small group, those whom the authorities claimed they had never employed, which implied an error in the DES Registry records or a clerical mistake in their interpretation. In some cases an LEA was able to provide the name and address of a school outside their control to which a teacher on the list had recently been appointed.

All teachers who could be located in full-time teaching posts were retained as the potential source of information at the follow-up stage of the inquiry. The rest, who had appeared in the pre-service population, were classified as either having withdrawn from the teaching service or not having taken up a full-time teaching appointment.

The following table shows the number of men and women within each year group of the BEd and PGCE cohorts at the pre-service stage, those eliminated from the inquiry because they had withdrawn from the service

or never obtained an appointment, and the remainder to whom questionnaires would be posted in the follow-up stage.

Table 4.1

BEd AND PGCE COHORTS

PRE-SERVICE AND FOLLOW-UP GROUP SIZES

Year	Group	Pre-Service		Eliminated				Teaching: April 1977	
				Withdrawn		No Appt't			
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1972-73	BEd	26	53	1	6	0	7	25	40
	PGCE	67	28	10	5	8	5	49	18
1973-74	BEd	24	55	1	5	1	9	22	41
	PGCE	61	33	5	1	7	5	49	27
1974-75	BEd	52	42	2	0	11	14	39	28
	PGCE	47	38	1	1	14	18	32	19
1975-76	BEd	48	55	1	1	7	19	40	35
	PGCE	56	34	1	1	13	14	42	19
TOTAL	BEd	150	205	5	12	19	49	126	144
	PGCE	231	133	17	8	42	42	172	83

Of the combined BEd and PGCE cohorts at the pre-service stage, which totalled 719 students, it had been possible to locate 525, or 73%, in full-time teaching posts in April 1977.

In terms of sub-groups the rank-ordered sizes evident in the pre-service cohorts were maintained at the school level, namely, in descending order: PGCE (Men); BEd (Women); BEd (Men) and PGCE (Women). However, in terms of being successfully located in a full-time teaching post the rank order was quite different as Table 4.2 shows.

Table 4.2

BEd AND PGCE SUB-GROUPS LOCATED IN FULL-TIME TEACHING

Sub-Group	Pre-Service	Teaching F.T.	Teachers Located %
BEd (Men)	150	126	84%
PGCE (Men)	231	172	74%
BEd (Women)	205	144	70%
PGCE (Women)	133	83	62%
TOTAL	719	525	73%

By qualification 270 (or 76%) of the initial 355 BEd students were found to be full-time teachers, which was a little higher than the PGCE statistic that showed 255 (or 70%) of the original 364 students were now teaching.

By sex a higher proportion of men than women were found in teaching posts: 298 (or 78%) of the 381 men compared with 227 (or 67%) of the 338 women at the pre-service stage.

On this evidence it would appear there is a clear advantage in obtaining a full-time teaching post if you are a BEd graduate and male, whereas you are most disadvantaged if you are a female with the degree and PGCE qualification. Such a comparison, of course, gives no indication of the type or prestige of the jobs that are obtained.

It would be presumptuous to read too much into comparative figures of this kind without knowing more about the intermediate variables such as the students' commitment and motivation to teach, and the effort if any that was made to obtain a teaching appointment. All

that we do know from this attempt to locate former students in schools is (as Table 4.1 shows) that 17 (or 4.8%) of the BEd cohort obtained teaching posts and then withdrew, in comparison with 25 (or 6.9%) of the PGCE group. Additionally, 68 (or 19%) of the BEd and 84 (or 23%) of the PGCE former students did not obtain a teaching appointment.

What Table 4.1 does reveal quite clearly is an increase from 1975 in the number of BEd and PGCE former students not obtaining first teaching appointments. What remains unclear is whether this development was due to market conditions or student choice.

Stage 3 : The Teacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 4)

The aim and concern in the planning of the questionnaire was to obtain the fullest possible picture of each former student's school of employment, teaching role, other professional responsibilities in school, in-service education, career plans and commitment to teaching. It was hoped in this case that the nature of the inquiry and its connection with the teacher's college of professional training would generate a satisfactory response.

The questionnaire was sub-divided into four parts:-

Section A: Present Teaching Post, seeking information on the type of school; teaching role; specialist teaching subject(s) if any; the reasons for any change in the age-band and teaching subject(s) since initial training.

Section B: Teaching Programme, seeking information on the amount of teaching; the distribution of teaching time between different age, ability and external examination groups; involvement in extra-curricular and other activities; job satisfaction/dissatisfaction with reasons.

Section C: Teaching Experience, Further Training and Qualifications, seeking information on other teaching appointments, courses attended and qualifications obtained since leaving college.

Section D: Future Plans, seeking information on the teacher's career and promotion plans, and the nature of any change in commitment to teaching since leaving college.

The teachers' schools had been located by the end of April 1977. Assuming the locations were accurate it was important to act upon this information without too much delay and minimize the risk of 'losing' teachers who might be changing school or leaving the service. Consequently the questionnaires were posted in the second week of May 1977 with the request that they should be completed and returned by the last day of that month. The teachers located in maintained schools were employed by 74 different LEAs situated in all regions of England and Wales.

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the number of completed questionnaires returned by the BEd and PGCE teachers. A number of 'refusals' were reported but in every case by the headteacher of the school on behalf of the teacher. Some headteachers said they had advised the teacher not to complete the questionnaire. Some schools also returned blank questionnaires on behalf of 16 BEd and 22 PGCE teachers, indicating they had either left or were unknown at the school. No reply was received from 73 BEd and 85 PGCE teachers and no reminder was sent to them.

The decision not to send a reminder was taken in the third week after the anticipated return of the questionnaire, by which time it was considered a satisfactory response had already been obtained.

Table 4.3

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE BEd RESPONSE						
Year	No. of Teachers (N)	Replies (A)	Refusals (B)	Left or Unknown (C)	No Reply	Response % $(\frac{A+B+C}{N} \times 100)$
1972-3	65	43	0	0	22	66%
1973-4	63	40	1	7	15	76%
1974-5	67	43	2	5	17	75%
1975-6	75	49	3	4	19	75%
TOTAL	270	175	6	16	73	73%

Table 4.4

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE PGCE RESPONSE						
Year	No. of Teachers (N)	Replies (A)	Refusals (B)	Left or Unknown (C)	No Reply	Response % $(\frac{A+B+C}{N} \times 100)$
1972-3	67	37	2	5	23	66%
1973-4	76	31	2	9	34	55%
1974-5	51	32	1	6	12	76%
1975-6	61	42	1	2	16	74%
TOTAL	255	142	6	22	85	66%

Given that it was, by then, a demanding stage in the summer term for most teachers; given also the possibility of an antagonistic attitude to the inquiry by the teacher and/or the headteacher; and, further, the possibility that the teacher may not be on the staff of the school, it was felt there was unlikely to be a significant gain from sending the reminder.

Stage 4 : The Headteacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 6)

The questionnaire to the headteacher of the school at which the BEd or PGCE teacher was employed was designed to provide information relating to both the 'prestige' and 'esteem' variables in this research. Questions were put to the headteacher requiring factual data about the school and its social location, the status and role of the teacher, and then, in relation to the 'esteem' factor, asking for the headteacher's assessment of the quality of the teacher.

This questionnaire was sub-divided into two parts:

Section A: The School, seeking information on the school's geographical setting; the social composition of the catchment area; the size and age-range of the school.

Section B: The Teacher, in which the headteacher was asked to define the teacher's official status (by salary scale), teaching role and specialist subject(s) if any; to indicate the teacher's other responsibilities in the school; to assess on defined scales the effectiveness and professional qualities of the teacher, with an estimation of the teacher's commitment to a career in teaching.

The questionnaires to the headteacher and teacher were posted at the same time but in separate envelopes and both were marked 'Confidential'.

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show the response by the headteachers in respect of the BEd and PGCE teachers. Although the response rate was higher than for the teachers so also was the number of refusals. Consequently, the 'no reply' category was much reduced. Again no reminder was sent to this group.

In the preparation of the headteacher's questionnaire it was anticipated that the questions seeking the headteacher's assessment of the teacher's effectiveness, professional qualities and commitment may prove contentious. However, if we were to obtain some measure of the teacher's 'esteem' then such questions could not be avoided. Hilsum and Start had attempted to overcome this problem through negotiation with the interested parties:

> "The draft questionnaires and interview schedules were discussed fully with representatives of the teachers and LEAs before finalization." (5)

It was felt in this case that to engage in such consultation would achieve very little, particularly since the issue of confidentiality had been well publicized at this time. At the NAS/UWT annual conference in April 1977 approval was given to the motion "that teachers should be shown any document concerning their professional competence." (6)

In the circumstances the personal invitation to each headteacher to participate in the research was likely to be more effective. Assurances were given to the headteachers that the information they provided would be held in the strictest confidence, and that the

Table 4.5

HEADTEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE BEd RESPONSE						
Year	No. of Teachers (N)	Replies (A)	Refusals (B)	Left or Unknown (C)	No Reply	Response % $(\frac{A+B+C}{N} \times 100)$
1972-3	65	48	0	0	17	74%
1973-4	63	45	2	7	9	86%
1974-5	67	48	2	5	12	82%
1975-6	75	50	3	4	18	76%
TOTAL	270	191	7	16	56	79%

Table 4.6

HEADTEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE PGCE RESPONSE						
Year	No. of Teachers (N)	Replies (A)	Refusals (B)	Left or Unknown (C)	No Reply	Response % $(\frac{A+B+C}{N} \times 100)$
1972-3	67	43	3	5	16	76%
1973-4	76	51	2	9	14	82%
1974-5	51	35	2	6	8	84%
1975-6	61	48	3	2	8	87%
TOTAL	255	177	10	22	46	82%

inquiry was concerned not with individuals but to test hypotheses for whole groups of teachers, all of whom were alumni of a particular college of education. The completed questionnaires by 191 (or 71%) of the 270 headteachers for the BEd group, and 177 (or 69%) of the 255 headteachers for the PGCE teachers justified the action taken.

There was, nevertheless, a very strong critical reaction from some individuals and teacher representatives when this questionnaire reached the schools, and a senior officer of the NUT, having lodged a protest, attended the University to discuss the project. Some headteachers sought the advice of their own association, NAHT, before responding, and others sought the teacher's approval before completing and returning the questionnaire. Letters from headteachers expressing support and interest were also received.

Stage 5 : The covering letters to teachers (Appendix 3) and headteachers (Appendix 5)

Separate covering letters to the teachers and headteachers were prepared for enclosure with the questionnaires. The letters explained the purpose of the research and gave the assurance of confidentiality.

In a nation-wide inquiry of this kind it was felt the status and neutrality of the University Department would be an asset in obtaining a higher response rate. The letters, therefore, were written on the University notepaper under the signature of the Head of the Department, who was also the supervisor of this research.

However, one headteacher who had written to complain of the questionnaire referred to this link with the University in a way that epitomises the division in teacher education.

> "I find it most disturbing, as do all my colleagues with whom I have discussed this matter, that Head Teachers should be asked to give opinions on the professional competence of named colleagues in a questionnaire for research purposes by an organisation outside the schools system." (7)

A very different concern expressed by another headteacher highlighted a suspicion those in schools may have of life in higher education, and which may help to sustain this division. Having completed the questionnaire the headteacher then wrote to say he would not return it because he was

> "concerned about confidentiality. We do know that on occasions students sit in administrative blocks, open filing cabinets and read the contents. We also know that certain research students have in the past been indiscrete. Your circular letter could, of course, be a forgery, and in any case it does not detail security arrangements that you have in mind." (8)

The last eight words constitute an important guideline for researchers who despatch questionnaires, expect confidential information to be supplied but are rarely, if ever, explicit about the safeguarding of that information.

When the covering letters were composed it was felt there would be some advantage in not reporting to the teachers and headteachers that the other party was also completing a questionnaire. For example, it was thought some headmasters would prefer the teacher not to know so as to avoid any embarrassing exchanges, while those who wished to discuss the form with the teacher could arrange to do so. In the twenty-one letters received from headteachers there was very clear support for both the teacher and headteacher being informed of the other's involvement. Since the other headteachers and teachers,

representing 97% of all respondents, made no comment on this issue one does not know what the more general feeling really was.

Stages 6 and 7 : (i) Data base; (ii) Variables and coding; (iii) Data analysis.

(i) Data base

From details of the returns reported in Tables 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 above it will be seen for the BEd group that questionnaires were completed by 175 teachers and 191 headteachers. For the PGCE group 142 teachers and 177 headteachers completed the questionnaires.

For each qualification group the information received, or not received, in response to the questionnaires can be classified as follows:

(1) both the teacher and the headteacher have responded;

(2) the teacher only has responded;

(3) the headteacher only has responded;

(4) the non-respondents (ie. no information has been received from either the teacher or headteacher, including the expressed refusals);

(5) information has been received from the school reporting the teacher is unknown, has left the school or is deceased.

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 show the returns and non-returns from teachers and headteachers in these five categories for men and women in each year of each qualification. This information is shown in relation to the number of teachers located in schools, and to whom questionnaires were posted. The tables also show for each year the number of men and women who provided the final computer data base. This number represents the sum of categories (1) to (4) above; that is, it

Table 4.7

RESPONSE, NON-RESPONSE AND DATA BASE

BEd TEACHERS

Year	Sex	No. of Teachers	Questionnaires Returned by:		Case Coverage:				Delete	Data Base
			Teacher	Head Teacher	Teacher and Head	Teacher only	Head only	Non-Response	Left, Un-known etc.	
1972-73	Men	25	12	22	11	1	11	2	0	25
	Women	40	31	26	21	10	5	4	0	40
	Total	65	43	48	32	11	16	6	0	65
1973-74	Men	22	15	16	12	3	4	1	2	20
	Women	41	25	29	23	2	6	6	4	37
	Total	63	40	45	35	5	10	7	6	57
1974-75	Men	39	21	28	16	5	12	3	3	36
	Women	28	22	20	17	5	3	1	2	26
	Total	67	43	48	33	10	15	4	5	62
1975-76	Men	40	26	29	21	5	8	4	2	38
	Women	35	23	21	16	7	5	4	3	32
	Total	75	49	50	37	12	13	8	5	70
All	Men	126	74	95	60	14	35	10	7	119
	Women	144	101	96	77	24	19	15	9	135
	Total	270	175	191	137	38	54	25	16	254

Table 4.8

RESPONSE, NON-RESPONSE AND DATA BASE

PGCE TEACHERS

Year	Sex	No. of Teachers	Questionnaires Returned by:		Case Coverage:				Delete	Data Base
			Teacher	Head Teacher	Teacher and Head	Teacher only	Head only	Non-Response	Left, Un-known etc.	
1972-73	Men	49	29	35	23	6	12	8	0	49
	Women	18	8	8	6	2	2	4	4	14
	Total	67	37	43	29	8	14	12	4	63
1973-74	Men	49	21	33	18	3	15	7	6	43
	Women	27	10	18	10	0	8	4	5	22
	Total	76	31	51	28	3	23	11	11	65
1974-75	Men	32	17	21	14	3	7	5	3	29
	Women	19	15	14	11	4	3	0	1	18
	Total	51	32	35	25	7	10	5	4	47
1975-76	Men	42	29	32	23	6	9	3	1	41
	Women	19	13	16	12	1	4	0	2	17
	Total	61	42	48	35	7	13	3	3	58
All	Men	172	96	121	78	18	43	23	10	162
	Women	83	46	56	39	7	17	8	12	71
	Total	255	142	177	117	25	60	31	22	233

includes the respondents and non-respondents but not those who fall into the category of 'definitely not present at the school'. The non-respondents are included since it was assumed the teachers were at the schools located, and this was accurately demonstrated in the 'refusal' cases.

In order to simplify the comparison, Table 4.9 presents the totals for the BEd and PGCE groups alongside each other, together with their combined total.

Table 4.9

TOTAL RESPONSE, NON-RESPONSE AND DATA BASE FOR BEd and PGCE TEACHERS

Qualification	No. of Teachers	Questionnaires: Teacher	Questionnaires: Head	Case Coverage: Teacher & Head	Case Coverage: Teacher only	Case Coverage: Head only	Case Coverage: Non-Response	Delete Left, etc.	Data Base
BEd	270	175	191	137	38	54	25	16	254
PGCE	255	142	177	117	25	60	31	22	233
TOTAL	525	317	368	254	63	114	56	38	487

From Table 4.9 it will be seen that the final data base for the SPSS analysis consists of 487 cases, composed of 254 BEd and 233 PGCE teachers. The data provided by the teachers, which will contribute principally to the comparison of the prestige (or positional status) of the BEd and PGCE teachers, represents 317 (or 65%) of the 487 cases. Within the BEd group this proportion is 175 (or 69%) of the 254 teachers, and within the PGCE group it is 142 (or 61%) of the 233 group size.

The data submitted by the headteachers, which will contribute to the comparison of the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of both prestige and esteem, represents 368 (or 76%) of the 487 cases. For the BEd group the headteacher data covers 191 (or 75%) of the 254 teachers and for the PGCE teachers 177 (or 76%) of the 233 in the group.

The most limited range of data within the 487 cases is associated with the 'non-response' group, which represents 56 (or 11%) of the cases in the data base. As was stated above it is assumed this group is located in the schools identified by either the DES Registry or the LEA, and this is known to be true for the 'refusal' sub-group within non-response cases. The group will be absorbed, therefore, into any analysis involving the type of school to which BEd and PGCE teachers have been appointed. To ensure the BEd and PGCE non-respondents did not constitute a significantly different group from the other BEd and PGCE cases the frequency distributions for the 'response' and 'non-response' cases were compared within the range of the pre-service profile variables. The SPSS subprogram CROSSTABS was employed for this purpose, together with the chi-square test, which showed there was no significant difference between the 'response' and 'non-response' data.

Finally, for the purpose of comparison, Table 4.10 shows the variations in group size in the progress from the pre-service stage to the final data base.

(ii) Variables and coding schedule

The variables selected for the analysis cover the two main phases of each teacher's academic and professional career. The first phase is based upon pre-service variables that present a profile of the

Table 4.10

COMPARISON OF THE GROUP SIZE OF BEd AND PGCE COHORTS												
Year	Qual.	Sex	Pre-Service Stage			Teachers Located in Full-time Posts			Data Base		
1972-73	BEd	Men	26	79	174	25	65	132	25	65	128
		Women	53			40			40		
	PGCE	Men	67	95		49	67		49	63	
		Women	28			18			14		
1973-74	BEd	Men	24	79	173	22	63	139	20	57	122
		Women	55			41			37		
	PGCE	Men	61	94		49	76		43	65	
		Women	33			27			22		
1974-75	BEd	Men	52	94	179	39	67	118	36	62	109
		Women	42			28			26		
	PGCE	Men	47	85		32	51		29	47	
		Women	38			19			18		
1975-76	BEd	Men	48	103	193	40	75	136	38	70	128
		Women	55			35			32		
	PGCE	Men	56	90		42	61		41	58	
		Women	34			19			17		
TOTAL		Men	381			298			281		
		Women	338			227			206		
TOTAL		BEd	355			270			254		
		PGCE	364			255			233		
TOTAL			719			525			487		

teacher's academic achievements before and during the college course and professional assessments during the course, together with other variables extracted from the teacher's pre-college and college records which may affect future status and performance in the school.

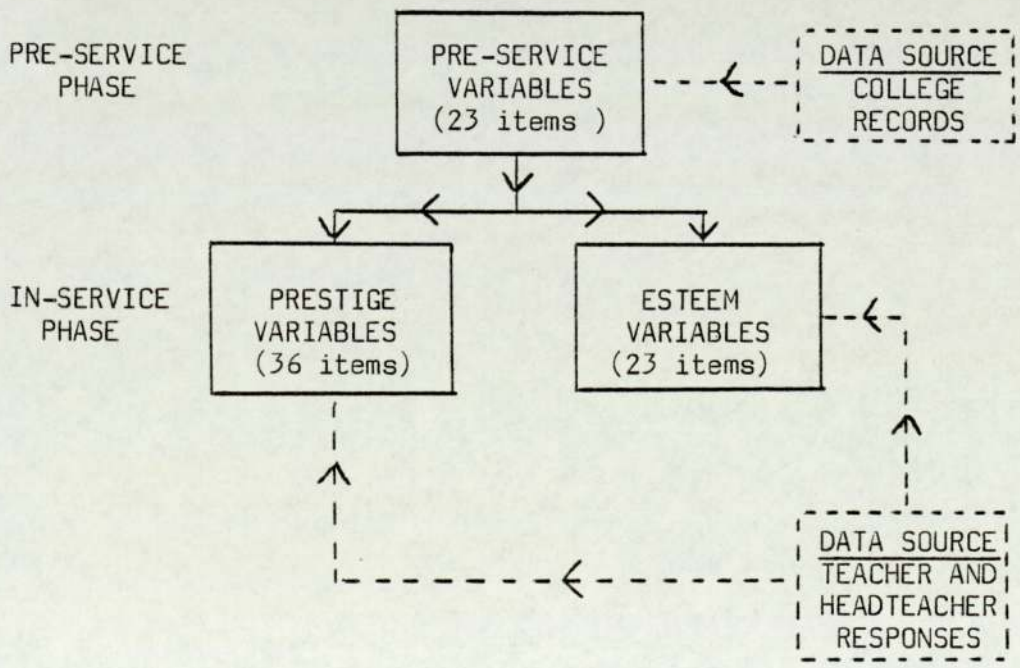
The second phase relates to the in-service variables in the teacher's career, with particular reference to the teaching appointment at the time of the survey. For the purpose of this research the in-service variables are sub-divided into two categories, the first relating to the 'prestige' (or positional status) of the teacher, the second category relating to the teacher's 'esteem' (ie. personal or performance status) in the school.

The teacher's pre-service profile provides the data for the pre-service variables and the teacher's and headteacher's questionnaire responses provide the data at the in-service stage.

Figure 4 summarizes this structure.

Figure 4

PHASE AND CATEGORY OF THE RESEARCH VARIABLES WITH DATA SOURCE



The list of variables for each of the three categories (a) Pre-service; (b) Prestige, and (c) Esteem is presented in Appendix 7. The lists show both the variable label and the variable name as adopted for the SPSS procedures.

The teaching performance variables are shown as the first five items in the list of Esteem variables (Appendix 7). They are extracted from the extensive research undertaken by Ryans[9] in the United States, which sought to compile information on significant teacher characteristics and to develop objective measures for use in evaluating teacher behaviour. Although Ryans and his colleagues had hoped to produce a single composite index of teacher behaviour they concluded from their findings

> "that the personal and interpersonal behaviour of teachers in the classroom probably may best be described in terms of a limited number of major dimensions, or families of behaviours." (10)

From an extensive list of variables, arranged on twenty two dimensions, the observers of teacher behaviour in classrooms employed by Ryans produced data which, after factorial analysis, led to the identification of the three principal and interdependent dimensions which form the first three variables in the 'Esteem' list. The remaining two variables emerged from research evidence Ryans collected from headteachers in secondary and pre-secondary schools, who strongly favoured the additional dimensions, which refer to the teacher's 'ability to teach the subject matter' and 'outstandingly superior, or notably poor, over all teacher behaviour'.

Whereas Ryans employed a 7-point scale for the dimensions, in this research a 5-point measure will be used since this may be

associated more readily with the five literal grades of A (=Distinction or Outstanding); B (=Good or Commendation); C (=Satisfactory); D (=Below average); E (=Fail), which have been used in the teacher's pre-service assessment profile.

The variables which the data analysis has shown are pertinent and statistically significant to the purpose of this research are reported and discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. However, in view of the extensive information collected during this inquiry the University has given permission for the data set to be stored in the Computer Centre at the University of Aston, and to be made available on request.

(iii) Data analysis

For the analysis of the data collected at the pre-service and in-service phases the following SPSS subprograms were principally involved.

(a) FREQUENCIES is one of two procedures available in SPSS that will provide a preliminary summary of the frequency distributions of the variables in the research. The FREQUENCIES procedure was more appropriate since it provides the frequency distribution tables for variables which are classified into a limited number of discrete values or categories, as is the case in this research. Also by selecting the GENERAL mode within this procedure the frequency tables will be produced for all kinds of variables, the tables displaying the absolute frequency distribution as well as, in percentages, the relative and cumulative frequencies. By selecting from the range of statistical techniques available in the FREQUENCIES subprogram a more detailed description of the frequency distribution for each variable is provided. For this investigation the statistical information selected provided

measures of the mean, standard error, median, standard deviation and variance, in addition to the absolute, relative and cumulative frequency distributions that are automatically provided for each variable.

(b) CROSSTABS is a subprogram that examines the relationships between two or more variables, producing a sequence of two-way contingency tables in which the joint frequency distribution of the two variables is displayed. The absolute frequency in each cell of the table is also expressed as a percentage of the row, column and total distribution. In order to calculate the degree of association between the two variables a range of statistical techniques is available within the CROSSTABS subprogram, including the chi-square test of significance. From the cell frequencies the value of chi-square is calculated and this is given, along with the degrees of freedom and the statistical significance measure of this result.

(c) BREAKDOWN is a subprogram identical to CROSSTABS but with the potential to provide additional information. It will calculate and print the sums, means, standard deviations and variances of the dependent or criterion variable in relation, at one time, to five independent variables and the sub-groups within these variables. This advantage is conditional upon the nature of the variables. The dependent variable may be either continuous or discrete but must be the type of variable for which a calculated mean will make sense. The independent variables may be nominal, ordinal or interval measures given that they are classified into a limited number of discrete groups. The calculations of the sum, mean, standard deviation and variance are automatic but, additionally available are two other

statistical techniques: a one-way analysis of variance, and a test of linearity.

(d) REGRESSION is a subprogram which examines the linear relationship between the dependent variable and a set of independent variables, at the same time taking into account the interrelationships among the independent variables. Although this subprogram has a wide range of applications, in this research it was employed to produce a linear combination of a group of independent variables which correlate as highly as possible with the dependent variable and to identify, within this combination, the relative contribution and importance of each independent variable. From the various optional statistics available within this subprogram the printout of the correlation matrices was selected.

Although the SPSS subprograms outlined above were employed at different stages in the analysis of the data because of the nature of this inquiry the major emphasis was on the subprogram CROSSTABS.

Stages 8 and 9 : The second and more general Headteacher's Questionnaire (Appendix 9)

As the analysis of the data progressed it appeared increasingly relevant and necessary to obtain from headteachers a more general evaluation of graduate teachers with either the BEd or PGCE qualification. So far in the research some headteachers had been asked, among other questions, to provide an assessment of a specific teacher, whether BEd or PGCE, employed in the headteacher's school. Now the request was for a statement of the more general 'image' of the two qualifications, and the qualities and relative strengths of the teachers the headteacher associated with the BEd and PGCE labels.

In the questionnaire the headteachers were asked:

(1) to compare the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of their (a) academic and (b) professional status;

(2) to identify the specific strengths and weaknesses of the two groups of teachers;

(3) to state if they preferred the BEd or PGCE, or had no preference, for each of eight different teaching roles;

(4) to explain the implications of any perceived differences between the BEd and PGCE for programmes of initial and in-service training and for the professional careers of the two groups of graduate teachers.

The questionnaire and covering letter (Appendix 8) were distributed among a sample of headteachers of schools in Cheshire, Staffordshire and Salop that are frequently used by the college of education for the block teaching experience provided for BEd and PGCE students during their initial training. Most of the schools also have full-time members of staff who have graduated by one or other of the two qualification routes.

Thirty questionnaires were distributed and all were completed and returned, either by post or collected from the school. The sample was composed of 10 Primary schools, including some Junior and Infant; 4 Middle schools (2 in the 8-12 and 2 in the 9-13 age-bands), and 16 Secondary schools (comprising a boys' and a girls' grammar school, ages 11-18 years; 10 mixed comprehensive schools, ages 11-18 years; one junior comprehensive school, ages 12-16 years; and 2 secondary modern schools, one boys' and the other girls', ages 11-16 years).

The data, although small in scale in relation to the main inquiry, provide an important overview of the two categories of recruits

present emerging from the initial training phase. It represents the 'professional image' of the two qualifications and of the teachers who belong in one or other of the categories, articulated as it is by the individuals with ultimate authority in the schools.

This more general data provided by the thirty headteachers was not included in the SPSS programme. Rather, in view of its size and nature, it could be readily analyzed without resort to the computer.

The results of this and other analyses in relation to this research will be summarized in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

The chapter is divided into four sections. The first three sections present, in turn, the results which relate to the main categories of variables: (A) Pre-service; (B) Inservice Prestige; and (C) Inservice Esteem.

Reported in each section are those variables whose differential distribution in relation to the BEd and PGCE groups is statistically significant at the 5% level or better although certain other variables are also included for their theoretical importance. Unless otherwise stated the analysis is based on the CROSSTABS subprogram, with special reference to the chi-square test and the measure of significance of the overall difference in the BEd and PGCE distributions.

At the conclusion to each of the first three sections there is an analysis of the relationships between the major variables.

The fourth section (D) provides a summary of the data obtained from the sample of thirty headteachers in response to the second, more general questionnaire. Where a headteacher's comment is quoted, the source is not disclosed in order to preserve confidentiality, but is given in coded form (eg. P3 indicates the third headteacher in the Primary group).

(A) PRE-SERVICE VARIABLES

(1) Age when leaving school

For the 487 subjects who formed the data base for the combined BEd and PGCE groups the ages ranged from 21 to 50 years when leaving college at the completion of their initial training. Table 5.1 shows the absolute and percentage frequencies for the two groups, and the overall difference in the distributions is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.1

AGE OF BEd AND PGCE GROUPS WHEN LEAVING COLLEGE				
Age in Years	BEd Group		PGCE Group	
	No.	%	No.	%
21 - 23	195	76	127	55
24 - 30	39	16	96	41
31 - 50	20	8	10	4
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(2) Full-time employment before college

Work experience was defined as full-time employment lasting for one year or more. Up to two employment experiences were included in the profile, in descending order of duration (ie. EMPLOYA followed by EMPLOYB).

Table 5.2 shows the variation in work experience between the BEd and PGCE groups at the commencement of their initial training. The overall difference is significant at the 1% level.

That the percentage of the PGCE group with one and two full-time work experiences is more than double the frequency for the BEd group partly accounts for the relatively high frequency of PGCE students who completed their initial training when in the 24 - 30 age range, as shown in Table 5.1 above.

Table 5.2

WORK EXPERIENCE OF BEd AND PGCE GROUPS AT ENTRY TO COLLEGE						
GROUP	NO WORK EXPERIENCE		AT LEAST ONE WORK EXPERIENCE		AT LEAST TWO WORK EXPERIENCES	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
BEd	190	75	64	25	13	5
PGCE	114	49	119	51	25	11
TOTAL	304	62	183	38	38	8

(3) Number of GCE Advanced level passes

Within the full data base the number of GCE Advanced level passes ranged from 'none' to '5 passes' for both the BEd and PGCE groups.

Whereas 42% of the BEd students did not have more than one Advanced level pass, only 6% of the PGCE students were in this category. The BEd students in the data base were all admitted initially to the three-year Certificate in Education course, for which the normal minimum entry qualification was passes in five subjects at GCE Ordinary level, although in special cases the University of Keele Institute of Education did admit students who did not possess the minimum qualification. In comparison, students enrolling for degree courses were normally expected to have at least two Advanced level passes, although, exceptionally, appropriate alternative qualifications were accepted.

At the other extreme 3% of the BEd group and 20% of the PGCE students in the data base had obtained 4 or 5 passes at GCE Advanced level. The difference in the number of 'A' level passes is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.3

NUMBER OF GCE 'A' LEVEL PASSES OBTAINED BY BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Number of Passes	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
5	1	0.3	8	3
4	7	2.7	40	17
3	42	17	132	57
2	97	38	39	17
1	61	24	3	1
None	46	18	11	5
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(4) Average grades of GCE Advanced level passes

The full range of pass grades, from A to E, had been obtained by both the BEd and PGCE group members who had been successful in the GCE Advanced level examinations.

Of these, 11% of the BEd and 34% of the PGCE students achieved an average grade of either A or B. At the lower end of the scale 63% of the BEd and 26% of the PGCE groups had obtained an average grade of D or E, or had no Advanced level pass.

The difference in average grades between the two groups, shown in Table 5.4, is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.4

AVERAGE GRADE OF GCE 'A' LEVEL PASSES OBTAINED BY BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Average Pass Grade	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
A	5	2	18	8
B	22	9	60	26
C	65	26	93	40
D	67	26	48	20
E	49	19	3	1
NO PASS GRADE	46	18	11	5
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(5) Degree awards

The full scale of awards from First Class Honours to Pass degree had been obtained by both the BEd and PGCE groups. However, whereas 32% of the BEd graduates qualified for the additional increments in salary as 'good honours graduates' (ie. possessing a First or Second class degree) there was 61% of the PGCE group in this category.

The difference between the degree awards obtained by the BEd and PGCE groups, shown in Table 5.5, is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.5

DEGREE AWARDS OBTAINED BY THE BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Degree Award	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
First Class Hons	1	0.4	8	3.4
Upper Second Class	5	2.0	43	18.5
Lower Second Class	74	29.1	92	39.5
Third Class	105	41.3	38	16.3
Pass Degree	69	27.2	52	22.3
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(6) Degree subjects

All BEd graduates had specialized in one main subject of their choice and completed a compulsory course in Educational Studies for their degree. Within the PGCE group 57% had specialized in one subject only, 34% in two subjects and the remaining 9% in three subjects for their degree.

The subjects which the BEd and PGCE groups identified as their first, second or third area of specialization within their degree programmes produced a composite list of fifty two subject areas. To facilitate a comparison between the two groups this list was sub-divided into the three subject-area categories adopted in the Newsom Report[1], namely (a) Practical subjects; (b) Science and Mathematics; and (c) Humanities. Table 5.6 shows the allocation of subject areas to the different categories.

Table 5.6

BEd AND PGCE DEGREE SUBJECTS BY CATEGORY		
Practical	Science & Mathematics	Humanities
Art	Biology	Divinity
Dance	Chemistry	English
Drama	Physics	History
Crafts	Botany	Classics
Music	Zoology	American Studies
Physical Education	Environmental Science	French
Special Education	Rural Science	German
Youth and Community Studies	Geography	Welsh
	Geology	Spanish
Mechanical Engineering	Ecology	Portuguese
Electrical Engineering	Physiology	Russian
Civil Engineering	Metallurgy	Linguistics
Mining Engineering	Veterinary Medicine	Anthropology
Nursing Management	Architecture	Psychology
	Accountancy	Philosophy
	Mathematics	Sociology
	Computer Science	Law
		Politics
		Education
		Business Studies
		Economics
		Social Administration

The absolute and percentage frequencies of degree subjects by category for the BEd and PGCE groups are given in Table 5.7. The difference in the distribution for first, second and third subject choice, considered separately, is significant in each case at the 1% level.

Table 5.7

DEGREE SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION OF BEd AND PGCE GROUPS					
Subject Choice	Subject Category	BEd		PGCE	
		No.	%	No.	%
First	Practical	88	35	27	12
	Science/Maths	69	27	107	46
	Humanities	97	38	99	42
Second	Practical	0	-	7	3
	Science/Maths	0	-	41	17
	Humanities	254	100	53	23
	None	0	-	132	57
Third	Practical	0	-	0	-
	Science/Maths	0	-	7	3
	Humanities	0	-	14	6
	None	254	100	212	91

(7) Professional training: ageband course

Given the relatively small numbers from within the BEd and PGCE groups that had enrolled for the Nursery School course (BEd 3; PGCE 1) and the Infant School (BEd 11; PGCE 0) these agebands, for the purpose of this research, were combined with the Junior School course (BEd 61; PGCE 38) to form a Primary School group.

The Primary group, therefore, included the BEd and PGCE students who were training to teach children in the age range 4-11 years. Students who enrolled for the Middle School course focused on children in the 9-13 age range and those taking the Secondary School course covered the 11-18 range.

The distribution of the BEd and PGCE students between the three agebands is shown in Table 5.8. Whereas the BEd group during initial training was equally divided between Primary/Middle and Secondary, about two thirds of the PGCE group had enrolled for the Secondary course. The overall difference is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.8

AGEBAND COURSES TAKEN BY BEd AND PGCE GROUPS

	BEd		PGCE	
Ageband	No.	%	No.	%
Primary	75	29	39	17
Middle	53	21	43	18
Secondary	126	50	151	65
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(8) Professional training: subject method courses

BEd and PGCE students who enrolled for the Primary and Middle agebands were required to take one main subject teaching method course, which was normally in their degree subject or, exceptionally, in an associated subject area relevant to the curriculum of primary and middle schools. In addition these students were required to take a general subjects method course called Curriculum Studies that was intended to equip the student to perform a generalist role normally expected of teachers in primary and middle schools.

The BEd and PGCE students who enrolled for the Secondary age-band were normally required to take two subject method courses.

Although in most cases the method courses related to subject areas one would normally expect to find in the secondary school curriculum, there were some courses available as second subject choices of an essentially professional nature, such as Teaching Slow Learners, Working with Youth and Social Education, including Counselling. As for the Primary and Middle agebands a student's main subject method course was normally linked to that student's specialist subject in the degree or to an associated subject area found in the secondary school curriculum.

When the data were obtained for this research there were thirty two subject method courses available to both the BEd and PGCE students. The method courses have been sub-divided into the same three categories employed for the classification of degree subjects and listed in Table 5.6 above.

The range of method courses available to the Primary, Middle and Secondary agebands within the BEd and PGCE programmes is shown by subject area category in Table 5.9. The method courses that were offered to Secondary students as second subject choices are identified by the figure 2 in parenthesis.

Table 5.9

BEd AND PGCE METHOD COURSES BY CATEGORY		
Practical	Science & Mathematics	Humanities
Art	Biology	Religious Education
Dance	Chemistry	English
Drama	Physics	History
Handicraft	Combined Science	Humanities (2)
Home Economics (2)	Environmental Studies	French
Music	Geography	Economics
Physical Education	Geology	Social and Economic Studies (2)
Special Education	Rural Studies	Business Studies/ Commerce
Teaching Slow Learners (2)	Mathematics	Mass Media (2)
Working with Youth (2)	Computer Studies	Curriculum Studies (Primary and Middle only)
Social Ed/ Counselling (2)		
Educational Technology (2)		

The absolute and percentage frequencies of the students' teaching method courses for the three BEd and PGCE agebands are given in Table 5.10. The data refer to the one main subject method course taken by Primary and Middle students and the two method courses completed by Secondary students. Since the Curriculum Studies course was a compulsory second method unit for all Primary and Middle students it is not included in this table.

The difference in the distribution for the Primary, Secondary (Method 1) and Secondary (Method 2), considered separately, is significant in each case at the 1% level. However, the difference for the Middle ageband is not significant ($p = 0.323$).

Table 5.10

METHOD COURSES BY CATEGORY FOR BEd AND PGCE AGEBANDS					
Ageband, course and No. of students	Method Course Category	BEd		PGCE	
		No.	%	No.	%
PRIMARY: METHOD 1; BEd : N = 75 PGCE : N = 39	Practical	18	24	0	-
	Science/Maths	20	27	0	-
	Humanities	37	49	39	100
MIDDLE: METHOD 1; BEd : N = 53 PGCE : N = 43	Practical	13	25	15	34
	Science/Maths	15	28	14	33
	Humanities	25	47	14	33
SECONDARY: METHOD 1; BEd : N = 126 PGCE : N = 151	Practical	55	44	17	11
	Science/Maths	35	28	87	58
	Humanities	36	28	47	31
SECONDARY: METHOD 2; BEd : N = 126 PGCE : N = 151	Practical	46	37	60	40
	Science/Maths	42	33	69	46
	Humanities	38	30	22	14

In both the BEd and PGCE groups the majority of students who enrolled for the Primary and Middle agebands were those with qualifications in the category of Humanities subject areas. This imbalance, which is evident during initial training, has important implications for the range, and perhaps the quality, of the curriculum coverage these students will provide as generalist teachers, particularly in the primary school.

In the Secondary ageband first method course distribution the BEd students are training predominantly in the category of practical subjects and the PGCE students in science and mathematics. However,

in the second method course distribution the BEd students are much more evenly spread across the three subject categories whereas in the PGCE group there is a marked increase in the number of students electing to take their second method course from the category of practical subjects.

(9) Final assessment : professional theory

Throughout their initial training the BEd and PGCE students were continuously assessed in both educational studies and subject teaching method. At the conclusion of the initial training course a student's marks in the two areas were combined to give the final assessment in 'professional theory'.

Since all students were required to complete successfully this component in their initial training, all 487 graduates in the data base would have obtained a Pass grade (ranging from A to D in descending order of performance) as their final assessment in professional theory. As explained in Chapter 4, the BEd students were required to obtain either an A or B grade in professional theory by the completion of their third year in order to be eligible for entry to the fourth and final year of the degree.

The overall difference in the distribution of the final assessment grades for the BEd and PGCE groups, shown in Table 5.11, is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.11

FINAL ASSESSMENT OF PROFESSIONAL THEORY FOR BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Final Grade	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
A	31	12	20	8
B	223	88	91	39
C	0	-	111	48
D	0	-	11	5
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(10) Final assessment : teaching practice

At the conclusion of their final block teaching experience during initial training the BEd and PGCE students were graded according to the quality of their teaching performance. This grade represented a student's final assessment for teaching practice.

Since all students were required to achieve a Pass standard in this component of their initial training then all students in this data base will have grades in the A to D range. As explained in Chapter 4, the BEd students were required to have obtained a final assessment for teaching practice in the range from A to C before being admitted to the fourth year of the degree.

Table 5.12 shows that more than two thirds of the BEd graduates were awarded either grade A or B for their teaching performance, whereas more than half of the PGCE group were assessed in the C or D grades at the completion of their initial training. The overall difference in the distribution of the final assessment grades is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.12

FINAL ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING PRACTICE FOR BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Final Grade	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
A	46	18	23	10
B	129	51	85	37
C	79	31	110	47
D	0	-	15	6
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

(11) Relationships between Pre-service variables

At the completion of initial training all members of the BEd and PGCE groups are both graduate and professionally trained to teach.

Disregarding the higher degree, which had been obtained by twelve PGCE students representing 5% of the data base, the major assessments of all students' academic and professional competence at this stage of their careers are given by three variables: (i) the classification of the degree (DEGCLASS); (ii) the final grade awarded for professional theory (ASSTHY), and (iii) the final grade awarded for teaching practice (ASSTP).

A comparison of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the different pairs of variables within this group of three shows the final assessments of professional theory and teaching practice to be most strongly related (.31), followed by the degree classification and the teaching practice assessment (.11), with finally, the degree classification and the professional theory variables showing an inverse but weak relationship (-.076). In this last case the negative relationship could have been anticipated from a comparison

of the degree and professional theory results in Tables 5.5 and 5.11 above. Whereas about 68% of the BEd group obtained Third class or Pass degrees they all obtained A or B grades in professional theory. Conversely, 61% of the PGCE students had been awarded First or Second class Honours degrees but 53% of the PGCE group obtained C or D grades in the professional theory.

A CROSSTABS comparison of the frequency distributions for the same three pairs of variables shows the variations for the assessments of professional theory and teaching practice, and also the degree classification and the assessment of professional theory, to be significant at the 1% level, whereas for degree classification and teaching practice assessment variation is much less significant (p= .086).

(B) IN-SERVICE VARIABLES : PRESTIGE

(1) Type of school where employed

Table 5.13 shows the type of school in which the BEd and PGCE teachers were employed at the time of the completed questionnaire.

The Primary category includes Nursery and Infant schools (2%), Junior (8%) and designated Primary schools (8%). About 6% of the teachers were employed in other types of educational institution such as Colleges of Further Education.

The difference in the type of school in which the BEd and PGCE teachers found employment is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.13

TYPE OF SCHOOL IN WHICH BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS FOUND EMPLOYMENT				
Type of School	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
Primary	60	24	28	12
Middle	24	9	17	8
Sec. Modern	28	11	17	8
Comprehensive	121	47	124	52
Grammar	4	2	25	11
Direct Grant	0	-	3	1
Independent	4	2	5	2
Other	13	5	14	6
TOTAL	254	100	233	100

The table shows that the BEd teachers outnumber the PGCE in Primary, Middle and Secondary Modern schools whereas the PGCE teachers have the majority in the maintained and direct grant Grammar schools. In the Comprehensive and Independent schools and 'other' institutions the BEd and PGCE groups have an almost equal share of the appointments.

A comparison of the students' pre-service ageband training and the teaching appointment obtained reveals a change in the direction of the secondary school for both BEd and PGCE groups. The comparison is summarized in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14

PRE-SERVICE AGEBAND TRAINING AND IN-SERVICE SCHOOL APPOINTMENT FOR BEd AND PGCE GROUPS				
Ageband and school type	BEd		PGCE	
	Pre-service	In-service	Pre-service	In-service
Primary	29%	24%	17%	12%
Middle	21%	9%	18%	8%
Secondary	50%	62%	65%	74%

To an extent the move towards secondary teaching appointments since the completion of initial training is probably a consequence of the contraction and falling rolls in the pre-secondary school sector during the late 1970s, together with the rather limited LEA response to the 1967 Plowden Report recommendation for the introduction of four-year middle schools. This restriction in the provision of teaching appointments at the pre-secondary stage together with more personal considerations, which are identified below, prompted the teachers to change their ageband.

However, the extent of this ageband change may be more apparent than real. Since the Middle School course focused on the teaching of children aged 9 to 13 years it would be reasonable for teachers to utilize this expertise by teaching in the upper junior or lower secondary school agebands.

Of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire 22% of the BEd group and 16% of the PGCE confirmed they were not teaching the ageband for which they had been trained. The major reasons given by the teachers for this change were:

(i) To obtain a teaching appointment: BEd 7.1%; PGCE 7.3%

(ii) Job satisfaction: BEd 4.7%; PGCE 4.7%

(iii) Private and personal reasons: BEd 3.5%; PGCE 0

(iv) Opportunity for promotion: BEd 2.0%; PGCE 1.0%

(v) To extend teaching experience: BEd 1.0%; PGCE 0.5%

(2) Socio-economic status of the school catchment area

The responses from 425 headteachers revealed that 43 (or 10%) of the BEd and PGCE teachers were employed in middle class areas, 186 (or 44%) in working class areas and 196 (or 46%) in mixed catchment areas. The difference in the status of the school catchment area between the BEd and PGCE teachers is shown in Table 5.15 and is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.15

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE SCHOOL CATCHMENT AREA FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

Status of Catchment area	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
Middle Class	18	9	25	12
Mixed Class	83	40	113	52
Working Class	107	51	79	36
TOTAL	208	100	217	100

(3) Number of teachers in the schools

The responses from the headteachers showed the number of teaching staff in the schools where the BEd and PGCE teachers were employed varied from 2 to 140. The number of teachers in the school has important implications for each teacher's role and career prospects in the school as well as the amount of professional support that may be available to the relatively inexperienced teacher.

The difference in the number of teachers in the schools where the BEd and PGCE groups were employed is shown in Table 5.16 and is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.16

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOLS WHERE THE BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS WERE EMPLOYED

Number of Teachers	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
1 - 39	100	48	68	31
40 - 99	101	49	132	61
100 and above	7	3	17	8
TOTAL	208	100	217	100

(4) The nature of the teaching role

The BEd and PGCE teachers were asked if their teaching role in the school was that of 'subject specialist' (ie. teaching one or two subjects only) or 'generalist teacher' (ie. teaching more than two subjects in the curriculum). Their headteachers too were asked to confirm the teacher's role as either specialist or generalist. For the 254 cases in which both the headteacher and the teacher provided information there was complete agreement in the definition of the teacher's role.

From the 430 replies 81 (or 36%) of the BEd and 41 (or 20%) of the PGCE were employed as generalist teachers, and 147 (or 64%) of the BEd and 161 (or 80%) of the PGCE as subject specialist teachers. The difference between the groups is significant at the 1% level.

(5) Specialist teaching subjects

The BEd and PGCE teachers who were employed as subject specialists were asked to name the subject area(s) in which they specialized in their schools.

The list of subject areas obtained from the teachers was sub-divided according to the three categories adopted at the pre-service stage for the classification of degree and method course subjects, namely (i) Practical; (ii) Science and Mathematics, and (iii) Humanities.

The difference between the BEd and PGCE teachers in their major specialist teaching subject is shown in Table 5.17 and is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.17

MAJOR TEACHING SUBJECT OF BEd AND PGCE SPECIALIST TEACHERS

Subject Category	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
Practical	63	27	20	10
Science and Maths.	41	18	90	45
Humanities	43	19	51	25
Non-specialist teachers	81	36	41	20
TOTAL	228	100	202	100

(6) Change in teaching subject(s) since initial training

The BEd and PGCE teachers who had completed the Secondary age-band course during their initial training and who had, therefore, specialized in either one or two subject method courses, were asked to indicate the extent of any change in their specialist teaching subject(s) since completing their training, (cf. Table 5.10).

The responses are summarized in Table 5.18 and the between the BEd and PGCE groups is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.18

CHANGE IN TEACHING SUBJECT(S) SINCE LEAVING COLLEGE FOR BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY TRAINED TEACHERS

No. of subjects in training	Teaching subject(s) in school	BEd		PGCE	
		No.	%	No.	%
One	Same Subject	20	18	4	3
One	Different Subject	4	3½	2	2
Two	Same Subjects	33	29	25	19
Two	One Only	52	46	94	71
Two	Neither	4	3½	7	5
TOTAL		113	100	132	100

From Table 5.18 it can be seen that 47% of the BEd and 22% of the PGCE teachers were teaching the one or two subjects for which they had been trained, whereas for each group 7% were not teaching the subject(s) in which they had specialized during their initial training.

The extent to which the academic and professional training of secondary teachers is used by the school has been discussed in the recent HMI report, 'The New Teacher in School'.[2] In the HMI sample of 201 secondary teachers it was found 70 (or 35%) were employed in

the school in such a way that made full use of their training whereas 11 (or 5%) were seriously underusing their specialist subject training. This data approximates to the combined BEd and PGCE percentages in this research for 'full use' (34%) and 'serious underuse' (7%).

Additionally the HMI inquiry found that 56 (or 28%) of the secondary teachers were 'moderately underused' by the schools. In this research, however, 46% of the BEd and 71% of the PGCE teachers might be regarded as 'moderately underusing' their specialist training by teaching only one of their two main subjects.

The major reasons given by the BEd and PGCE teachers for any change in their specialist teaching subjects were:

(i) To obtain a teaching appointment: BEd 14%; PGCE 10%

(ii) Teacher's personal decision: BEd 2%; PGCE 5%

(iii) Unspecified 'other' reasons: BEd 4%; PGCE 1%

(iv) The change was required by the school BEd 2%; PGCE 3%

(7) Age of pupils with whom most teaching time is spent

The BEd and PGCE teachers were asked to identify by age the pupils with whom they spent their teaching time in the school.

The responses from 310 teachers revealed that 57 (or 18%) taught one age-group only and a further 30 (or 10%) taught just two different age-groups of pupils (eg. 11-12 years and 14-15 years).

The differences in the teaching of particular age-groups between the BEd and PGCE teachers in primary and middle schools are not statistically significant ($p = .072$). However, for the 172 secondary school teachers who responded to this question the difference between the BEd and PGCE groups, as shown in Table 5.19, is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.19

AGE OF PUPILS WITH WHOM BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY TEACHERS SPEND MOST TEACHING TIME				
Age group in years	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
11 - 12	22	27	9	10
12 - 13	15	18	13	15
13 - 14	16	19	10	11
14 - 15	10	12	19	21
15 - 16	15	18	21	24
16 - 17	3	4	14	16
17 - 18	2	2	3	3
TOTAL	83	100	89	100

The relative frequency distributions in Table 5.19 reveal that 64% of the BEd secondary teachers spend most of their teaching time with pupils in the age-range 11 - 14 years, whereas 64% of the PGCE teachers in secondary schools spend most of their teaching time with pupils aged from 14 - 18 years.

Sixth form teaching is undertaken by 6% of the BEd secondary teachers and 19% of the PGCE group.

(8) Time spent teaching pupils of above average ability

The BEd and PGCE teachers were asked to give details of their official teaching commitments with pupils of 'above average ability'.

The differences in the distribution of teaching time for the BEd and PGCE groups in primary and middle schools were not statistically significant (p= .442).

Of the 172 secondary teachers (83 BEd and 89 PGCE) who responded there were 37 (45%) of the BEd and 20 (22%) of the PGCE teachers who

were not timetabled to teach the 'above average ability' pupils.

Table 5.20 shows the variation in the amount of teaching time the remaining BEd and PGCE secondary teachers spent with this category of pupils. The difference between the groups is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.20

TIME SPENT TEACHING ABOVE AVERAGE ABILITY PUPILS BY BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY TEACHERS

Teaching time per week	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
No involvement	37	45	20	22
Up to 1 hour	12	14	13	15
More than 1, up to 2 hours	16	19	23	26
More than 2, up to 3 hours	9	11	12	13
More than 3, up to 4 hours	5	6	7	8
More than 4, up to 5 hours	4	5	7	8
More than 5, up to 6 hours	0	-	3	3
More than 6, up to 7 hours	0	-	4	5
TOTAL	83	100	89	100

(9) Teaching external examination courses

The BEd and PGCE teachers in secondary schools were asked to provide details of their teaching commitments in relation to GCE Advanced and Ordinary levels, the CSE and other external examination courses.

Table 5.21 shows the differences between the BEd and PGCE respondents according to the highest ranked external examination course with which they were involved. The difference is significant at the 1% level.

Table 5.21

HIGHEST RANKED EXTERNAL EXAMINATION TEACHING BY BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY GROUPS				
External Examination	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
GCE 'A' Level	14	14	37	37
GCE 'O' Level	25	24	22	22
CSE	26	25	18	18
Other (unspecified)	1	1	2	2
No involvement	37	36	21	21
TOTAL	103	100	100	100

The PGCE teachers are much more involved in the teaching of GCE Advanced level work whereas the BEd group has a slightly greater share of Ordinary level and CSE teaching as their highest ranked examination experience.

However, the data provided by the same secondary teachers showed that, in their second ranked examination teaching commitments, the PGCE group was in the majority for Ordinary level, CSE and other examination courses. The difference shown in Table 5.22 between the BEd and PGCE groups in the teaching of a second examination course is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.22

SECOND RANKED EXTERNAL EXAMINATION TEACHING BY BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY GROUPS				
External Examination	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
GCE 'O' level	12	12	25	25
CSE	14	13	17	17
Other (unspecified)	1	1	3	3
No involvement	76	74	55	55
TOTAL	103	100	100	100

The differences in total weekly teaching time devoted to external examination courses by the BEd and PGCE secondary teachers for the highest and second ranked courses separately considered, are shown in Table 5.23 and are significant at the 5% and 1% levels respectively.

Table 5.23

TEACHING TIME PER WEEK FOR HIGHEST AND SECOND RANKED EXTERNAL EXAMINATION COURSES BY BEd AND PGCE SECONDARY GROUPS								
Teaching time: Range in hours	Highest Ranked Course				Second Ranked Course			
	BEd		PGCE		BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
0	37	36	21	21	76	74	55	55
0 - 1	41	40	35	35	13	12	23	23
1 - 2	19	18	31	31	12	12	15	15
2 - 3	4	4	11	11	1	1	7	7
3 - 4	2	2	2	2	1	1	0	-
TOTAL	103	100	100	100	103	100	100	100

(10) Relationships between Prestige and Pre-service variables, including the teacher's qualification

The characteristics of a prestige scale within the teaching profession, as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, associate a teacher's positional status in this hierarchical scale with the nature of the teacher's role and responsibilities in the school system. In a cumulative way the extent to which the teacher is a subject specialist, teaching the older and more able pupils, particularly in preparation for external examinations will determine his ranking in the prestige scale.

Of the students in the pre-service data base who were followed-up in teaching appointments there were, as shown above in Table 5.14, 33% of the BEd group and 20% of the PGCE employed in primary and middle schools, and 62% of the BEd and 74% of the PGCE in secondary schools. Initially it would be relevant to the purpose of this inquiry to compare the relative positional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers, firstly, within the primary and middle schools, and then within the secondary schools, before combining the pre-secondary and secondary agebands within a single scale of prestige.

The value labels adopted for the coding of the data relating to each variable in the prestige scale provide the necessary comparative measures to assess the positional status of the teachers. Table 5.24 presents the value labels and the range of scores for each variable in the prestige scale.

Table 5.24

PRESTIGE SCALE VARIABLES, VALUE LABELS AND RANGE OF SCORES		
Variable	Value Labels	Range of Scores
1. Specialist Teacher	No = 1; Yes = 2	1 - 2
2. Teaching time with more able pupils	0-3 hours = 1 4 hours or more = 2	1 - 2
3. Age of pupils most frequently taught	4-9yrs = 1; 11-13yrs = 3 10 yrs = 2; 14-18yrs = 4	Primary/Middle: 1-3 Secondary: 3-4
4. External Examination Teaching	None or Other = 1 GCE 'A', 'O', CSE = 2	1 - 2
5. Teaching time with External Examination Courses	0-3 hours = 1 4 hours or more = 2	1 - 2

For the analysis of the positional status of the BEd and PGCE primary and middle school teachers the first three variables listed in Table 5.24 were employed. When combined the three variables give a cumulative range of scores from 3 to 7.

By using the * SELECT IF control card with the CROSSTABS subprogram the absolute and percentage frequencies shown in Table 5.25 were obtained for the positional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers in primary and middle schools. The difference in the frequencies for the BEd and PGCE groups is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.25

POSITIONAL STATUS SCORES FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS IN PRIMARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS				
Cumulative Score	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
3	44	73	12	43
4	10	17	10	36
5	2	3	4	14
6	3	5	0	-
7	1	2.	2	7
TOTAL	60	100	28	100

From this evidence almost three-quarters of the BEd primary/middle teachers are positioned at the lowest level of the prestige scale, whereas fewer than half of the PGCE group are at this level. Although the absolute numbers are small, 10% of the BEd primary/middle teachers have total scores in the 5 - 7 range in comparison with 21% of the PGCE group.

For the analysis of the positional status of the secondary teachers all five prestige scale variables in Table 5.24 are included. When combined the five variables give a cumulative range of scores for secondary teachers from 7 to 11.

By employing the procedures adopted for the primary and middle teachers the overall difference in the distribution for the BEd and PGCE secondary teachers, which is given in Table 5.26, is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.26

POSITIONAL STATUS SCORES FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS				
Cumulative Score	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
7	24	25	15	15
8	21	21	17	16
9	22	22	17	16
10	25	26	32	31
11	6	6	22	22
TOTAL	98	100	103	100

If scores of 7 and 8 are regarded as relatively low prestige within the secondary school then 46% of the BEd teachers and 31% of the PGCE are at this level. Conversely, if scores of 10 and 11 represent relatively high prestige then 32% of the BEd secondary teachers and 53% of the PGCE are at this level of positional status.

Table 5.27 summarizes the comparison of the BEd and PGCE teachers in primary/middle and secondary schools in terms of their relative status in the prestige scale.

Table 5.27

COMPARATIVE PRESTIGE OF BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS				
Schools	Low Prestige		High Prestige	
	BEd	PGCE	BEd	PGCE
Primary and Middle	73%	43%	10%	21%
Secondary	46%	31%	32%	53%

In order to investigate the relationship between the measure of prestige attained by the BEd and PGCE teachers and their pre-service characteristics the prestige scale was sub-divided into the three categories defined in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28

CATEGORIES OF TEACHER PRESTIGE		
Prestige Level	Characteristics	
	School	Positional Status Score
High	Secondary	10 or 11
Medium	Secondary	7 - 9
Low	Primary/Middle	All scores for this ageband

The relationship between the prestige levels of the practising teachers and major variables within the Pre-service profile was investigated by means of the SPSS subprogram REGRESSION. The pre-service variables are: the qualification obtained, whether BEd or PGCE (QUAL); the sex of the teacher (SEX); the main teaching method and degree subject (METHODA); the ageband course of training (AGEBAND); the final grade for professional theory (ASSTHY); the final grade for teaching practice (ASSTP); and the classification of the degree award (DEGCLASS).

The printout for this subprogram provides the multiple regression coefficient squared (R^2), which is the measure of the amount of variation in the dependent variable PRESTIGE that can be explained by the pre-service variables operating jointly. Additionally, by printing the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) the subprogram enables the coefficient of determination (r^2) to be calculated, the latter

being the measure of the proportion of variance in the PRESTIGE variable that is explained by that particular pre-service variable operating alone.

Table 5.29 summarizes the relationships between teacher prestige and the pre-service variables in terms of the R^2 and r^2 measures. The pre-service variables are listed in the table in the order in which they appear in the SPSS data file, with the exception of the variable SEX, which is placed below the more direct measures of the academic and professional characteristics of the teachers.

Table 5.29

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHER PRESTIGE AND PRE-SERVICE VARIABLES

Step	Pre-Service Variable	R^2	r^2
1	QUAL	.06001	.0600
2	AGEBAND	.42210	.4048
3	METHODA	.43320	.0087
4	ASSTHY	.44216	.0685
5	ASSTP	.44296	.0105
6	DEGCLASS	.44307	.0057
7	SEX	.44313	.0608

The nature of the graduate teacher's qualification, whether BEd or PGCE, accounts for 6% of the variance in teacher prestige. This is slightly less than the variance explained separately by the assessment of professional theory (6.9%) and the sex of the teacher (6.1%), the latter reflecting the tendency of women to teach in the primary school and men in the secondary sector. In comparison, the ageband course in which the teacher specialized during initial training explains 40% of the variance in prestige when considered

alone, and just over 42% of the variance when considered jointly with the teacher's qualification.

The importance of the ageband course as the major determinant of teacher prestige can be readily understood given the influence the ageband training exerts in determining whether the student will become a specialist or generalist teacher, with responsibility for young children or older pupils and with the opportunity to teach external examination courses.

In contrast, the teacher's degree classification when considered separately explains about a half of one per cent of the prestige variance. The teacher's main subject area accounts for only slightly more, and the assessed performance of the teacher during teaching practice for about 1% of the variance in teacher prestige. When taken jointly their contribution to this variance is minimal following the inclusion of the AGEBAND and, to a lesser extent, the ASSTHY, SEX and QUAL independent variables.

(C) IN-SERVICE : ESTEEM VARIABLES

(1) Commitment to teaching

The headteachers were asked to assess the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of what they, the headteachers, perceived the commitment of the teachers to be. This commitment to teaching was assessed as 'Strong', 'Average' and 'Weak'.

The data provided by the headteachers relate to 368 teachers (191 BEd and 177 PGCE) and the difference between the BEd and PGCE groups, which is shown in Table 5.30, is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.30

BEd AND PGCE COMMITMENT TO TEACHING ASSESSED BY HEADTEACHERS				
Degree of Commitment	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
Strong	131	69	98	55
Average	52	27	68	39
Weak	8	4	11	6
TOTAL	191	100	177	100

When the teachers were asked if their commitment to teaching had changed since completing initial training the 315 replies (175 BEd and 140 PGCE) revealed that 37% of the BEd teachers and 46% of the PGCE had increased their commitment whereas a reduced commitment was reported by 13% of the BEd and 11% of the PGCE.

(2) Involvement in extra-curricular activities

The headteachers were asked to assess the involvement of the teachers in the extra-curricular activities of the school. This involvement was measured as 'High', 'Average', 'Low' or 'Nil'.

The difference in the involvement of the 368 teachers assessed by headteachers is shown in Table 5.31 and is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.31

EXTRA-CURRICULAR INVOLVEMENT OF BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS ASSESSED BY HEADTEACHERS				
Degree of Involvement	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
High	82	43	60	34
Average	83	43	74	42
Low	17	9	36	20
No Involvement	9	5	7	4
TOTAL	191	100	177	100

In contrast to the headteachers more generalised view of a teacher's involvement in the life of a school the BEd and PGCE teachers were asked, much more specifically, to calculate the amount of time they gave to particular extra-curricular activities.

Of the 315 teachers who replied 10% of the BEd group and 6% of the PGCE reported they devoted 7 hours or more each week to these activities whereas, coincidentally, 28% of each group gave no time to clubs or societies in the school.

(3) Attendance at inservice courses

In order to compare the involvement of the BEd and PGCE teachers in courses of inservice training the two groups were asked to give details of the courses they had attended since leaving college.

The data provided by 314 teachers (175 BEd and 139 PGCE) revealed that 38% of the BEd respondents and 56% of the PGCE had not attended any inservice training course. This difference between the two groups is significant at the 1% level.

Among the 78 teachers (43 BEd and 35 PGCE) from the 1972-73 cohort who responded to this question, and who were the longest serving teachers in this research sample, there were 26% of the BEd and 46% of the PGCE who had undertaken no inservice training during the four years since completing initial training. In the succeeding cohorts the relative percentages for no inservice experience are (BEd figure first): 1973-74 (3 years service): 38% and 42%; 1974-75 (2 years service): 33% and 55%; 1975-76 (1 year of service): 53% and 76%.

It is clear from this evidence that the PGCE teachers are consistently less involved than the BEd in inservice training. Whether this reflects, for example, greater indifference on the part of the PGCE group, or lack of opportunity or support by the school

and LEA, or a lack of suitable courses is, however, not clear.

For the four cohorts combined the total time spent in attendance at inservice courses varied from one day to one term. The differencein total attendance time between the BEd and PGCE teachers is shown in Table 5.32 and is significant at the 5% level.

Table 5.32

TOTAL TIME SPENT ON INSERVICE TRAINING COURSES BY BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

Total time range	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
From 1 day to 1 week	46	26	28	20
More than 1 week and up to 2 weeks	51	29	31	23
More than 2 weeks and up to 1 month	5	3	2	1
More than 1 month and up to 2 months	5	3	0	-
More than 2 months and up to 1 term	2	1	0	-
Nil	66	38	78	56
TOTAL	175	100	139	100

(4) Further qualifications since initial training

The replies from 314 teachers (175 BEd and 139 PGCE) indicated that one PGCE had obtained his Doctorate and two other PGCE teachers their Master's degrees since completing their initial training. Three BEd and one PGCE had successfully completed Advanced Diploma courses and a total of twenty one others (15 BEd and 6 PGCE) had obtained 'other' qualifications, in some cases the result of satisfactorily completing a short inservice course and, in others, a GCE 'A' or 'O' level course.

Thirteen BEd teachers reported they were currently pursuing further qualifications: two for Master's degrees, three for Advanced

Diplomas, and eight 'other' qualifications. Six PGCE were similarly engaged, one for a Doctorate, one for a Master's degree, three for an Advanced Diploma and one 'other' qualification. There were 162 (or 93%) of the BEd and 133 (or 96%) of the PGCE respondents not currently pursuing any further qualification. The overall difference between the BEd and PGCE groups, however, is not statistically significant ($p = .161$).

(5) The career plans of the teachers

When the 315 teacher respondents (175 BEd, 140 PGCE) were asked to define their career plans, 58% indicated they wished to continue in schools, with 38% preferring to continue as classroom teachers and 20% aspiring to more senior managerial positions in the school. About 4% reported their intention to leave education and a further 22% were uncertain as to their career plans.

The variation between the BEd and PGCE teachers is summarized in Table 5.33, but the overall difference in the distribution is not statistically significant ($p = .839$).

Table 5.33

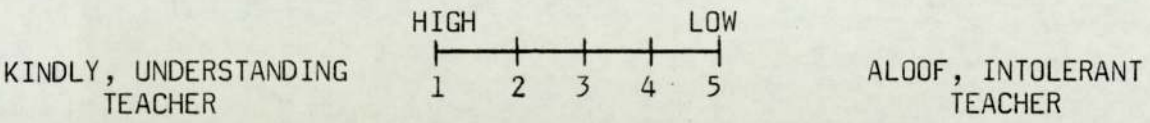
CAREER PLANS OF BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

Career Plan	BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%
To continue as a teacher in school	70	40	49	35
Major admin. responsibility in school	31	18	32	23
To teach in Further or Higher Education	14	8	11	8
To join LEA Advisory staff	9	5	4	3
Some other work in Education	8	5	6	4
Uncertain	37	21	33	23
To leave Education	6	3	5	4
TOTAL	175	100	140	100

(6) Teacher effectiveness

As indicated in Chapter 4 the criteria of inservice teacher effectiveness employed in this research are those developed by Ryans.

The five criteria were presented to the headteachers in the form of five dimensions, each dimension scaled from 1 to 5, ranging from high to low in terms of the 'effective teacher' variable eg.



For the purpose of this research a BEd or PGCE teacher awarded a score of 1 ot 2 on a particular dimension is regarded as above-average for that criterion of effectiveness, whereas scores of 3, 4 or 5 are interpreted as average or below-average.

The headteachers who agreed to participate in this part of the research together provided teacher effectiveness scores for 368 teachers, representing 76% of the pre-service data base.

The variations in teacher effectiveness between the BEd and PGCE groups, based on assessments by the headteachers, are shown in Table 5.34 together with the measure of probability (p) for each criterion. The difference between the groups for the 'stimulating, imaginative teacher' criterion is significant at the 1% level, and for the criterion 'outstandingly good teacher' is significant at the 5% level. However, on each of the five dimensions, the BEd teachers as a group are assessed as relatively more effective than the PGCE teachers.

Table 5.34

BEd AND PGCE TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS
ASSESSED BY HEADTEACHERS (BEd: N=191; PGCE: N=177)

Effectiveness Criteria	Above-Average				Average and Below Average				p
	BEd		PGCE		BEd		PGCE		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Kindly, Understanding	147	77	123	69	44	23	54	31	.133
Systematic, Businesslike	137	71	111	63	54	28	66	37	.083
Stimulating, Imaginative	118	61	83	47	73	38	94	53	**
Able to Teach Subject	153	80	131	74	38	20	46	26	.205
Outstanding Teacher	117	61	84	48	74	39	93	52	*

** Significant at 1%; * Significant at 5%

Further analysis of the teacher effectiveness variables will be undertaken following the presentation of the data relating to the professional qualities of the BEd and PGCE groups.

(7) Professional qualities

The headteachers were also asked to assess the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of the following professional qualities: (i) reliability; (ii) conscientiousness; (iii) co-operation with colleagues; and (iv) punctuality.

The assessment for each quality was to be made on a three-point scale of 'Good', 'Average' and 'Poor'. Assessments were obtained for the same 368 teachers whose teaching effectiveness has been reported above.

Table 5.35 shows the comparative assessments of the BEd and PGCE teachers for each of the four professional qualities, together with the probability measurement (p) for the comparative frequencies relating to each of the qualities. The difference between the BEd

and PGCE teachers for the quality 'reliability' is significant at the 5% level. Again a greater proportion of the BEd than the PGCE group appear in the 'good' category for each of the four professional qualities.

Table 5.35

PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES OF BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS ASSESSED BY HEADTEACHERS (BEd: N=191; PGCE: N=177)

Professional Quality	Good				Average or Poor				p
	BEd		PGCE		BEd		PGCE		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Reliability	152	80	122	69	39	20	55	31	*
Conscientiousness	151	79	131	74	40	21	46	26	.3079
Co-operation	143	75	115	65	48	25	62	35	.0502
Punctuality	157	82	136	77	34	18	41	23	.3092

*Significant at the 5% level

(8) Relationships between the Esteem variables and other variables in the research

Within the category of ESTEEM variables the headteachers of the BEd and PGCE groups had been directly responsible for the assessment data relating to the teaching effectiveness, professional qualities, commitment and extra-curricular involvement of the teachers. Together this represented eleven different variables.

Through the use of the SPSS procedure RELIABILITY the relationships between the eleven variables were examined to measure, by means of the Alpha coefficient, the extent of the relationship between the variables in order to form a single ESTEEM variable.

At the same time the eleven variables were sub-divided into two groups: (i) the five variables developed by Ryans to define teacher effectiveness; and (ii) the four variables included under the heading of 'professional qualities' (Table 5.35) supplemented by the two

remaining variables 'commitment to teaching' and 'involvement in extra-curricular activities'.

The reliability analysis revealed that the eleven items were quite strongly related, although the 'extra-curricular involvement' variable was the weakest item in the scale, as shown in Table 5.36. With the removal of this variable the remaining ten items gave an Alph coefficient of .89.

Table 5.36

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR ESTEEM SCALE		
Variable Item	Multiple Correlation Squared (R^2)	Alpha if item Deleted
Kindly	.35	.888
Systematic	.58	.875
Stimulating	.59	.874
Able to Teach Subject	.52	.877
Outstanding Teacher	.68	.868
Reliability	.69	.876
Conscientiousness	.63	.878
Co-operation	.48	.881
Punctuality	.32	.888
Commitment	.55	.875
Extra-Curricular involvement	.27	.890

The reliability analysis for the two sub-groups give, in the case of the teacher effectiveness variables, an Alpha correlation coefficient of .85 . For the second sub-group, now reduced to five items, the Alpha coefficient is .86 .

Although the strong positive correlation between the variables is highest when represented as a single scale of ten items the adoption of the two scales, based on the two sub-groups of variables, does

enable a more sensitive analysis of relationships with other Inservice and Pre-service variables to be conducted without serious reduction in the strength of the correlation between the items in the single scale.

The five variables so far subsumed under the heading of 'teacher effectiveness' are now collapsed to create a new variable relating to teaching performance (TEACPERF). The second group of five variables (reliability; conscientiousness; co-operation; punctuality; commitment), emphasising more the attitude and motivation of the teachers, is collapsed to create a new variable relating to professional attitudes (PROFATT).

Having identified the nature of the two major ESTEEM variables, 'teaching performance' and 'professional attitudes', the next stage is to investigate the proportion of the variance within these two dependent variables that can be explained by a number of independent variables from within the Pre-service and Inservice variable categories.

The initial selection of the independent variables was based upon the data analysis revealing that the difference between their frequency distributions for the BEd and PGCE groups was statistically significant. The SPSS subprogram BREAKDOWN was used to complete a one-way analysis of variance in order to identify which of the selected independent variables, when broken down by BEd and PGCE qualification, show a significant difference in relation to the two separate dependent variables TEACPERF and PROFATT.

Tables 5.37 and 5.38 summarize this analysis of variance, displaying just those independent variables that demonstrated a statistically significant relationship with the two dependent

variables. The statistical data shown in the tables are (i) the computed F ratio (derived from the 'between-groups' mean square ÷ the 'within-groups' mean square); (ii) the lower and upper degrees of freedom; (iii) the level of significance, and (iv) the eta-squared statistic (derived from the 'between-groups' sum of squares divided by the 'total sum of squares'), which is a measure of the total variance that is explained by the independent variable.

Table 5.37

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHING PERFORMANCE OF BEd AND PGCE GROUPS BY OTHER MAJOR VARIABLES					
Independent Variable	F Ratio	Deg. Freedom Lower	Upper	Signif Level	Eta-Squared
Sex of Teacher	5.49	1	366	5%	.0147
Final Theory Assessment	8.52	3	364	1%	.0656
Final T.P.Assessment	18.88	3	364	1%	.1347
Type of School	2.94	9	358	1%	.0688
Main Teaching Subject	4.99	3	364	1%	.0395
External Exam. Teaching	2.33	5	247	5%	.0451
Inservice Training	10.07	1	251	1%	.0386

Table 5.38

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES OF BEd AND PGCE GROUPS BY OTHER MAJOR VARIABLES					
Independent Variable	F Ratio	Deg. Freedom Lower	Upper	Signif Level	Eta-Squared
Final Theory Assessment	3.98	3	364	1%	.0317
Final T.P. Assessment	7.34	3	364	1%	.0570
Type of School	2.24	9	258	5%	.0533
Inservice Training	9.90	1	251	1%	.0379

The results of this analysis show the final teaching practice assessment during initial training accounts for the largest proportion of variance in the two major Esteem variables, more than 13% of the total variance in teaching performance and 5.7% of the variance in professional attitudes. This relationship between the quality of the students' teaching performance during initial training and the quality of the teaching performance and professional attitudes when in post should be a source of some encouragement to the teacher trainers who may see in this some comparability in the standards and expectations of the training institution and the school.

The type of school in which the teacher finds employment ranks second among the independent variables, accounting for almost 7% of the total variance in teaching performance and about 5% in professional attitudes. This may simply reflect the fact that schools of a particular type and status are able to attract and appoint teachers whose teaching performance and professional attitudes are commensurate with that status.

Whereas the professional theory assessment during initial training accounts, as one might expect, for a larger proportion of the variance in teaching performance than in professional attitudes, the amount of inservice training undertaken by the teachers accounts for an equivalent proportion of the variance in the two variables.

Of the three variables that explain proportions of the total variance in teaching performance only, the involvement in teaching external examinations and the main teaching subject each account for about 4% of the variance. The sex of the teacher, although qualifying for inclusion in Table 5.37 with a variance ratio (F) that is significant at the 5% level, accounts for only 1.5% of the total variance in the teaching performance.

(9) Academic and Professional status

In order to measure the extent to which the BEd and PGCE teachers may be regarded as belonging to either an 'Academic' or 'Professional' segment within the teaching profession the variables within the research that are known, or have been found, to be related to one or other of these two dimensions are classified accordingly. In this analysis no distinction is made between variables which, for other purposes, have been separated into three variable categories, namely: Pre-service; Inservice (Prestige), and Inservice (Esteem).

Again the value labels adopted in the coding of the data relating to each variable will provide the comparative measures to assess the relative strengths of the BEd and PGCE teachers on both the 'Academic' and 'Professional' dimensions.

Table 5.39 presents the value labels and the range of possible scores for each variable in the Academic dimension.

Table 5.39

ACADEMIC VARIABLES, VALUE LABELS AND RANGE OF SCORES

Variable	Value Labels	Range of Scores
1. Number 'A' level passes	None - 2 passes = 1 3 or more = 2	1 - 2
2. Average 'A' level grade	C,D,E, None = 1 A,B = 2	1 - 2
3. Specialist method subject	Practical = 1 Science/Maths/ Humanities = 2	1 - 2
4. Degree main subject	Practical = 1 Science/Maths/ Humanities = 2	1 - 2
5. Class of degree	3rd, Pass, None = 1 1st or 2nd = 2	1 - 2
6. Number of years in higher education	3 or 4 years = 1 5 or more = 2	1 - 2
7. Teaching role	Generalist = 1 Specialist = 2	1 - 2
8. Age of pupils most frequently taught	4-9 yrs. = 1 10 yrs. = 2 11-13 yrs. = 3 14-18 yrs. = 4	Primary/ Middle 1-3 Secondary 3-4
9. Teaching time with more able pupils	0-3 hours = 1 4 hours or more = 2	1 - 2
10. Main teaching subject in school	Practical = 1 Science/Maths/ Humanities = 2	1 - 2
11. External exam. Teaching	None/other = 1 GCE 'A'/'O'/ CSE = 2	1 - 2
12. Teaching time with external examination courses	0-3 hours = 1 4 hours or more = 2	1 - 2

For the purpose of comparing the BEd and PGCE primary/middle teachers the first nine of the Academic variables listed in Table 5.38 are used, giving a possible range of cumulative scores from 9 to 19. All twelve variables are included for the comparison of the secondary teachers, giving a possible range of cumulative scores from 14 to 26.

Table 5.40 presents the value labels and the range of possible scores for each variable in the Professional dimension.

Table 5.40

PROFESSIONAL VARIABLES, VALUE LABELS AND RANGE OF SCORES

Variable	Value Label	Range of Scores
Assessment of Professional Theory	Grade C or D =1 Grade A or B =2	1 - 2
Assessment of Teaching Practice	Grade C or D =1 Grade A or B =2	1 - 2
Extent of Inservice Training	None = 1; Some = 2	1 - 2
Kindly Teacher	Grades 3-5 =1; Grade 1 or 2 =2	1 - 2
Systematic/Organised Teacher	Grades 3-5 =1; Grade 1 or 2 =2	1 - 2
Stimulating Teacher	Grades 3-5 =1; Grade 1 or 2 =2	1 - 2
Able to teach main subject	Grades 3-5 =1; Grade 1 or 2 =2	1 - 2
Outstanding Teacher	Grades 3-5 =1; Grade 1 or 2 =2	1 - 2
Reliable	Grade 2 or 3 =1; Grade 1 =2	1 - 2
Conscientious	Grade 2 or 3 =1; Grade 1 =2	1 - 2
Co-operative	Grade 2 or 3 =1; Grade 1 =2	1 - 2
Punctual	Grade 2 or 3 =1; Grade 1 =2	1 - 2
Commitment to Teaching	Grade 2 or 3 =1; Grade 1 =2	1 - 2

The full list of Professional variables is employed for both the primary/middle and secondary teachers, thus giving a possible range of cumulative scores from 13 to 26 for all BEd and PGCE teachers.

Table 5.41 presents the comparative results for the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of the Academic variables. The secondary teachers are sub-divided according to the ages of the pupils with whom they spend most teaching time, namely 11-13 years or 14-18 years. The differences between the BEd and PGCE groups for all three age categories considered separately, is significant in each case at the 1% level.

Table 5.41

ACADEMIC STATUS SCORES FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

Cumulative Score	Primary & Middle				Secondary (11-13yrs)				Secondary (14-18yrs)			
	BEd		PGCE		BEd		PGCE		BEd		PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
9	9	15	0	-								
10	3	5	1	3½								
11	24	40	1	3½	1	1	0	-				
12	9	15	1	3½	0	-	0	-				
13	7	12	9	32	11	16	0	-				
14	5	8	9	32	7	10	1	2				
15	2	3	4	15	9	13	1	2				
16	0	-	2	7	12	18	4	8	1	3	1	2
17	1	2	1	3½	10	15	5	10	2	7	0	-
18					12	18	7	14	2	10	1	2
19					4	6	12	24	11	35	4	7
20					2	3	15	30	10	32	11	20
21					0	-	4	8	3	10	9	17
22					0	-	1	2	1	3	21	39
23									0	-	6	11
24									0	-	1	2
TOTAL	60	100	28	100	68	100	50	100	31	100	54	100

Within each of the three age categories the majority of the BEd teachers are in the lower half of the range of cumulative scores recorded for the particular ageband. Conversely, the PGCE teachers are to be found in the upper half of the range of cumulative scores for Academic status.

Table 5.42 gives the comparative results for the BEd and PGCE teachers in terms of their Professional status. The chi-square test revealed that the difference in the distribution of Professional status between the two groups of teachers in each ageband, considered separately, is not statistically significant, as denoted by the probability values at the foot of the table.

Table 5.42

PROFESSIONAL STATUS SCORES FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

Cumulative Score	Primary & Middle BEd		Primary & Middle PGCE		Secondary (11-13yrs) BEd		Secondary (11-13yrs) PGCE		Secondary (14-18yrs) BEd		Secondary (14-18yrs) PGCE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
13	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	2	0	-	2	5
14	1	2	1	5	0	-	1	2	0	-	1	2
15	1	2	0	-	0	-	3	7	1	4	4	9
16	1	2	1	5	1	2	2	5	0	-	3	7
17	1	2	0	-	3	6	1	2	0	-	0	-
18	2	4	0	-	5	10	1	2	0	-	3	7
19	0	-	0	-	4	7	4	9	3	12	1	2
20	3	7	0	-	4	7	4	9	2	8	5	11
21	2	4	0	-	3	6	0	-	1	4	7	16
22	2	4	4	18	2	4	2	5	1	4	2	5
23	5	11	2	9	4	7	7	16	2	8	2	5
24	7	15	4	18	4	7	5	11	6	24	6	13
25	12	26	6	27	12	23	9	21	7	28	6	13
26	10	21	4	18	11	21	4	9	2	8	2	5
TOTAL	47	100	22	100	53	100	44	100	25	100	44	100
PROBABILITY	p = .679				p = .253				p = .313			

The failure of the chi-square test to reveal any significant difference in the Professional status scores for the BEd and PGCE teachers prompted further analysis of the data, using the more sensitive t-test procedure. The t-test for independent groups was applied separately to the same three ageband distributions of scores for Professional status, given in Table 5.42.

The results of the further analyses confirmed there was no significant difference in the distribution of Professional status between the BEd and PGCE teachers in the primary/middle and lower secondary agebands. However, in the upper secondary age-group the difference in the Professional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers is now shown to be significant at the 1% level. The results are summarized in Table 5.43.

Table 5.43

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN PROFESSIONAL STATUS SCORES FOR BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

AGE-GROUP	STATISTICS	BEd	PGCE	t	
PRIMARY AND MIDDLE	Mean S.D. N	23.128 3.167 47	23.364 3.048 22	0.292	N.S.
LOWER SECONDARY	Mean S.D. N	22.528 3.208 53	21.568 3.800 44	1.350	N.S.
UPPER SECONDARY	Mean S.D. N	22.880 2.789 25	20.545 3.837 44	2.665	**

** Significant at 1%

An inspection of Tables 5.42 and 5.43 reveals that the highest mean scores for Professional status are obtained by the primary/middle

teachers, especially the PGCE group, who obtain the highest mean score of all teachers. Apart from two PGCE members in the primary/middle category who have scores of 14 and 16 points the rest are in the range from 22 to 26. This excellent professional assessment may simply reflect the enthusiasm and commitment PGCE teachers must possess if they are to adapt successfully to the requirements of teaching in the primary and middle schools, given their relatively short initial training to meet this challenge.

In contrast, the PGCE teachers in the upper secondary age-group obtain the lowest of all mean scores for Professional status and are much more evenly dispersed through the full range of cumulative scores. The BEd teachers in this age-group, however, apart from one member, are confined to the 19-26 range of scores, with 60% of the group obtaining 24 points or more.

Whereas 40% of all PGCE teachers and 20% of all BEd teachers in this analysis are identified in the upper secondary age-group it would seem the PGCE group may have achieved this prestigious responsibility mainly on the strength of academic rather than professional considerations. The BEd group in this upper secondary ageband, however, appears to have been selected for professional as well as academic reasons since its membership contains just one teacher in the 'below-average' Professional status range (13-18 points), which is fewer than all other sub-groups, including the high quality PGCE primary/middle teachers.

However, in spite of this highly significant difference at the upper secondary level, it should not be overlooked that for the remaining 80% BEd and 60% PGCE there is no significant difference in their Professional status.

(D) HEADTEACHERS' MORE GENERAL VIEWS OF BEd AND PGCE TEACHERS

As explained in Chapter 4 the sample of thirty headteachers who were approached for their views of BEd and PGCE teachers was a mixture of headmasters and headmistresses from sixteen secondary schools, four middle schools and ten primary schools.

The views expressed by the headteachers are summarized under the headings of the issues included in the questionnaire.

(1) The relative academic status of BEd and PGCE teachers

Twenty two (or 73%) of the heads did not regard BEd and PGCE teachers as of equal academic status. The remaining eight who believed they were equal were mainly primary/middle heads, but included one secondary modern headmistress.

(2) The relative professional status of BEd and PGCE teachers

The majority of the headteachers (63%) thought the BEd and PGCE were equally matched in professional status. Of the remaining eleven heads who considered them to be unequal, seven were primary/middle and four secondary.

(3) The strengths and weaknesses of BEd teachers

All of the headteachers referred to the BEd advantage of a longer course of initial training. One secondary head thought this had given BEd teachers "Enthusiasm and confidence for teaching; awareness of methodology and a knowledge of the needs of all abilities" (S4). Some secondary heads considered the longer period of training had enabled BEd teachers to acquire "breadth of subject experience" (S7). Generally, BEd teachers were regarded as very committed, versatile and adaptable, and more kindly and sympathetic, especially with younger and less able children.

Conversely almost all of the secondary headteachers identified the major weakness of BEd teachers as a relatively limited depth of knowledge and understanding of a specialist subject. Some of the expressed opinions were: "The BEd teachers are often not equipped for work at an advanced level or with more able, older children" (S11); "They often have weak 'A' levels, consequently are not able to effectively teach Advanced level nor to stretch the very able" (S12). One primary headmistress thought BEd teachers were "Too interested in methods of teaching and not critical or demanding enough of the children's achievement by these methods" (P5). Generally, BEd teachers were regarded by the headteachers as "narrower", "restricted", and "more parochial in outlook" than their PGCE colleagues.

(4) The strengths and weaknesses of PGCE teachers

The major strength of PGCE teachers is, in the view of all the headteachers, their depth of subject knowledge. Some of the expressed views were: "The PGCE teacher has familiarity with subject knowledge basic to the teaching at whatever level, from introductory to scholarship level" (S8).

Generally the PGCE teachers are "On the whole, quicker to grasp new ideas and principles. Usually cope better with periods of heavy work load eg. exams, reports" (S2). They have "greater cultural width" (S12) and "usually wider experience of life and people (universities are wider institutions), and have experienced a greater degree of independence" (S5). Two primary heads thought the PGCE teacher has "a more objective, analytical approach to teaching" (P4) and is "less likely to have very firm doctrinaire opinions on teaching methods and more likely to blend into staff and school's approaches" (P7).

The majority of headteachers regarded the relatively short PGCE course of initial training as the prime weakness. Consequently, PGCE are "Often inexperienced in the 'craft' of teaching ie. organisation, control and planning" (P4). They experience "difficulty in pitching their material at a suitable level" (S6), and show "an ignorance of the needs of children, particularly the average and below ability levels" (S4).

One secondary head suggested the PGCE has a "Lack of inter-disciplinary flexibility" (S7) which was echoed in a primary head's comment that "They often have over-rigid, formalised, pre-formed attitudes towards their teaching, and are reluctant to move outside their specialism" (P2). A number of headteachers questioned the attitude and motivation of PGCE teachers: "Their reasons for teaching are often suspect" (P3), and "Not always are they committed to teaching - they may have just 'drifted' into it" (S5).

(5) Suitability for particular teaching roles

Eight different teaching roles were defined for the headteachers who were asked to select either a BEd or a PGCE teacher for each role, or to indicate they had no particular preference.

Table 5.44 lists the different teaching roles and summarizes the responses from the thirty headteachers, sub-divided into secondary and primary/middle school groups.

Table 5.44

HEADTEACHERS' PREFERENCE FOR BEd OR PGCE TEACHER IN PARTICULAR TEACHING ROLES						
Teaching Role	Secondary (N=16)			Primary and Middle (N=14)		
	BEd	PGCE	Either	BEd	PGCE	Either
Teaching above-average ability pupils	0	12	4	1	1	12
Teaching average ability pupils	0	2	14	4	1	9
Teaching below-average ability pupils	6	0	10	9	0	5
Teaching remedial pupils	8	0	8	9	0	5
Teaching older pupils	0	4	12	0	3	11
Teaching younger pupils	2	1	13	6	0	8
Subject specialist teacher	0	13	3	1	7	6
General subjects teacher	8	0	8	4	2	8

Both the secondary and primary/middle headteachers state a clear preference for the PGCE teacher as the subject specialist, and as the teacher of older pupils, although in the latter case rather more show no particular preference. At the secondary school level the PGCE teacher is strongly favoured as the teacher of the more able pupils.

Conversely, both groups of headteachers prefer the BEd graduate as (i) the general subjects teacher, (ii) the teacher of younger pupils, and (iii) of pupils in the below-average and remedial ability categories.

(6) BEd and PGCE programmes of initial and inservice training

When asked to state the implications of their knowledge of BEd and PGCE teachers for programmes of professional training all the headteachers made explicit reference to the need for more school-based

experience at the pre-service stage.

A number of the heads from primary and secondary schools advocated changes that would improve the academic credibility of the BEd teacher. One secondary head suggested "The solution is to raise the standard of entry to BEd courses" (S9), whereas a primary headmistress favoured "all students taking a straight degree course in an academic subject of their own choice, then as graduates doing a full teacher training course, not the shortened one-year version" (P5). Similarly another primary proposed "A gradual phasing out of the BEd and the introduction of PGCE courses for all, involving longer training in classroom situations" (P7).

In contrast a primary headmaster regarded the BEd programme as "a more useful training for work in primary schools ... A BEd course could well be geared to the primary and middle school age-range (P4).

A further and more extreme view suggested the teacher's initial training experience, whether BEd or PGCE, had little if any effect. For one secondary head "No amount of training will have any impact on the differences between the Post-graduate and the BEd" (S12), and a middle school head commented "The quality of the teacher seems unaffected by the course of training - we have had both very good and very poor teachers from both types of training." (M3)

Given the availability of inservice courses it was the predominant view of the headteachers that programmes of this kind should be utilised to "fill the gaps" and "compensate" for deficiencies in the courses of initial training. Consequently, it was strongly recommended that, giten the retention of the BEd and PGCE programmes, the BEd teachers should undertake further academic study in their

main subject area, and that PGCE qualified teachers should attend courses in curriculum development, teaching skills and techniques, particularly in relation to pupils of average and below-average ability.

(7) The careers of BEd and PGCE teachers

Generally the views of the secondary headteachers envisaged rather more 'academic' careers for the PGCE teachers and 'pastoral' responsibilities being given to the BEd graduates. One such head remarked: "Given the availability of PGCE trained teachers, the BEd candidate would be at some disadvantage for departmental promotion" (S8). Another commented "Though there will obviously be notable exceptions the BEd will tend to find promotion in pastoral care work, often with junior forms, while the PGCE teacher will move towards a Head of (Academic) Department post" (S2). With the shortage subject areas in mind one head was much more tentative: "Their career opportunities depend greatly on their subject. A BEd physicist probably stands more chance of early promotion than a PGCE historian" (S5).

Relatively few of the primary and middle school headteachers completed this section of the questionnaire, which may be indicative of the more limited opportunities for promotion in the pre-secondary sector. Of those who did respond some clearly favoured the PGCE teacher as "The graduate able to offer most to children and to be more adaptable to the dynamic situations in which education will find itself during the 1980s and 1990s" (P7). Another primary head suggested "In a primary school particularly, what is important is ability as a class teacher: well trained in classroom techniques rather than a graduate well qualified in a single subject" (P8).

It is perhaps appropriate to conclude this section, and indeed this chapter, with an opinion expressed by the one Infant school headmistress in this sample of headteachers: "So little has really changed that the existing situation of most PGCE teachers seeking posts in secondary schools and BEd trained teachers entering mainly primary schools will persist" (P10).

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The discussion of the results will be arranged under the heading of each of the six hypotheses. As stated in Chapter 3 the order in which the hypotheses occur represents a progression from the more specific to the more general dimensions of this problem.

HYPOTHESIS 1 : The PGCE teachers will be higher in the prestige scale than the BEd teachers, obtaining teaching appointments that rank higher in positional status, such as:

(a) teaching in the more academically selective schools;

(b) teaching pupils from communities that are ranked higher in terms of social class;

(c) specialist subject teacher;

(d) teaching the more able pupils;

(e) teaching older pupils;

(f) teaching external examination pupils.

The characteristics of the stratified school system and the related prestige scale were discussed in Chapter 3. The more prestigious teaching appointments and teaching roles that are available within the stratified system are listed in this hypothesis, having been derived from the criteria postulated by Jackson.

The considerable growth in comprehensive secondary education in England and Wales since the mid-1960's has greatly reduced the number of maintained and direct grant places available in the selective grammar schools. Of the 487 teachers in this inquiry who obtained

appointments in the high status grammar schools 12% were PGCE and 2% BEd. In comparison, 28% of the PGCE teachers and 44% of the BEd were employed in the non-selective secondary modern and pre-secondary schools, which are accorded relatively low prestige in the stratified school system.(Table 5.13).

The variation in the types of secondary school in England and Wales has been, in the past, a major source of differentiation in the status of teachers. However, with the reduction in the types of secondary school, resulting from the growth in comprehensive education, Bernbaum suggests "the social composition of the pupils taught might become very important for the status of their teachers, the schools in 'good' areas having higher status than the 'downtown' schools."(1)

Having obtained from the headteachers an indication of the socio-economic status of the school catchment area the analysis of the data has shown that 36% of the PGCE teachers and 51% of the BEd were employed in schools in 'working class' areas. At the highest of the three prestige levels of social composition employed in this research 12% of the PGCE teachers and 9% of the BEd were found in 'middle class' catchment areas. (Table 5.15)

In terms of the prestige of the teaching appointment, therefore, a significantly greater proportion of the PGCE teachers is found in the high status selective schools and in schools situated in middle class areas. Conversely, a much smaller proportion of the PGCE teachers is employed in the lower status schools and in schools in working class areas relative to the proportions of BEd teachers in such appointments.

The analysis of the distribution of prestige associated with the teaching roles within the schools has shown that 80% of the PGCE teachers had found employment as subject specialists compared with 64% of the BEd graduates. Furthermore, among the specialist teachers the PGCE group were mainly employed to teach the higher status science, mathematics and humanities subjects, whereas the BEd teachers were specialists in the more practical subject areas.

Combining the teaching role and subject responsibilities 70% of the PGCE group were specialist teachers of science, mathematics or humanities subjects compared with 37% of the BEd. The remaining 30% PGCE and 63% BEd were either generalist teachers or specialists in the more practical subjects. (Table 5.17)

The distribution of prestige in relation to Jackson's second criterion, namely the pupil audience, refers to the teaching of the older, more able pupils and particularly those taking external examinations. The analysis of the data associated with this criterion has shown that the PGCE teachers were significantly more involved in the teaching of the older, more able and external examination pupils, thereby occupying the more prestigious positions in schools. This difference between the PGCE and BEd teachers seems as significant in the relatively undifferentiated organisational context of the primary and middle schools as it is in the much more differentiated internal structure of the secondary school, as the cumulative scores of teacher prestige have shown. (Tables 5.25 and 5.26)

The analysis of the data relating to the location and nature of the teaching appointments obtained by the BEd and PGCE teachers provides therefore, very clear and, statistically, highly significant

evidence of the differential prestige of the two groups of graduate teachers.

This evidence is endorsed by the thirty headteachers who participated in the more general inquiry relating to the perceived qualities of the BEd and PGCE teachers and their suitability for specific teaching responsibilities in schools. At the secondary school level, where teachers generally enjoy relatively high prestige within the stratified school system but where there is a more pronounced status differentiation among the staff, the headteachers stated a strong preference for PGCE teachers in what are the more prestigious roles (Table 5.44).

The first hypothesis is therefore confirmed. The teaching appointments that rank higher in positional status are consistently and significantly more likely to be occupied by PGCE than BEd teachers, thereby according the PGCE teachers higher prestige within the teaching profession.

HYPOTHESIS 2 : The BEd teachers will be higher in the esteem scale than the PGCE teachers, being regarded as:

(a) more effective teachers;

(b) more professional in terms of observed behavioural qualities (eg. reliable, co-operative, conscientious, punctual);

(c) more professionally committed to teaching as a career;

(d) more willing to become involved in the full life of the school;

(e) more committed to professional development (eg. attendance at inservice courses).

At the completion of initial training the difference between the BEd and PGCE groups in terms of their assessed performance during teaching practice was found to be highly significant, with 69% of the BEd in the 'above-average' category (ie. grades A and B) compared with 47% of the PGCE students. (Table 5.12)

When they are assessed at the inservice stage by their headteachers the BEd group has a greater proportion of its members in the 'above-average' category of teacher effectiveness than does the PGCE group. There are proportionally more BEd teachers in the 'above-average' category on each of the five dimensions of teacher effectiveness, and the average frequency for all five dimensions is 70% for the BEd and 60% of the PGCE teachers. However, the difference between the BEd and PGCE teachers is statistically significant on just two of the five dimensions. (Table 5.34)

In their replies to the general questionnaire the headteachers were unanimous in their recognition of the BEd teachers as having expertise in the organisation and management of learning experiences for pupils of all abilities. Since the headteachers regarded this expertise as a product of the BEd teachers' extended initial training it is therefore no surprise that, in view of their much shorter period of initial training, the PGCE teachers generally should be regarded as much less effective and knowledgeable in this respect.

However, as if to compensate for this deficiency, the PGCE teachers were regarded by all the headteachers as having a major advantage over the BEd teachers in the depth and understanding of their subject knowledge.

It may be a reasonable conclusion from the headteachers' general responses that the BEd graduates are likely to be the more effective

teachers given that they remain within the more restricted range of their subject knowledge. Beyond this depth the PGCE teachers are more effective in spite of any limitations they may have in their appreciation and organisation of appropriate learning experiences for their pupils.

When assessed for their professional qualities by their head-teachers the BEd graduates were again given a more favourable rating than the PGCE. On each of the four dimensions of reliability, conscientiousness, co-operation and punctuality there was a higher proportion of the BEd teachers in the 'above-average' category, with an overall average of 79% of their members in this category compared with 71% of the PGCE teachers. The differences between the BEd and PGCE groups were rather more pronounced on the dimensions of reliability and co-operation, and much less so on the other two. (Table 5.35)

The two professional qualities of reliability and co-operation, in which the BEd teachers are more noticeably different and more highly regarded by the headteachers, focus particularly on the social aspects and implications of professional behaviour. On this evidence the BEd graduates, generally, are likely to make more agreeable and helpful colleagues through their reliability and co-operative attitude, whereas the PGCE teachers will tend to act more independently of colleagues and be less reliable.

Two further measures of the teacher's esteem, which are identified in this hypothesis, are the extent of the teacher's commitment to teaching and involvement in the life of the school, particularly in relation to extra-curricular activities. Both measures revealed a significant difference between the BEd and PGCE

teachers when assessed by their headteachers. Whereas 69% of the BEd are 'strongly' committed to teaching the comparative proportion for the PGCE group is 55% (Table 5.30), and 43% of the BEd teachers are 'highly' involved in extra-curricular activities in comparison with 34% PGCE. (Table 5.31)

It may appear that a teacher's commitment to a career in teaching and that teacher's involvement in the wider curricular activities of the school would be strongly associated. In this inquiry the correlation coefficient suggests a moderate relationship ($r = .433$; $r^2 = .187$) with one variable accounting for slightly less than 19% of the variance in the other. One explanation for this weaker than expected relationship is that for teachers in some subject areas, such as physical education/games and drama, the extra-curricular involvement is more a requirement than a voluntary activity, and therefore may not accurately reflect the teacher's commitment.

The concern teachers show for their own continuing professional development is the final measure of the teacher's esteem subsumed within this hypothesis. The evidence provided by the BEd and PGCE teachers reveals that 62% of the BEd and 44% of the PGCE had engaged in some inservice training, although the actual duration of this training had ranged from one day to one term. (Table 5.32) There is a highly significant difference between the BEd and PGCE teacher involvement in inservice training in each of the four year groups included in this inquiry, which suggests the difference is also persistent over time.

Since the teachers were not asked to express their views of inservice training it would be conjecture to suggest reasons for the

difference in support for continuing professional education demonstrated by the BEd and PGCE teachers.

The headteachers who responded to the general questionnaire believed that both the BEd and PGCE groups were in need of in-service training and education although the provision should be markedly different. For the BEd teachers the emphasis should be on academic improvement, whereas for the PGCE teachers the emphasis should be on professional development. In both cases the purpose of the inservice provision would be the correction of the residual deficiencies from the initial training experience.

The general impression of the BEd graduate, to which all the headteachers subscribed, is that of a highly committed, dedicated and enthusiastic teacher. In comparison, the PGCE teacher is perceived, at least initially, as someone who has decided to teach rather more out of economic necessity than choice, and then perhaps only temporarily.

The assumption on the part of the headteachers appears to be that, because the BEd teachers committed themselves to a three or four year programme of initial training from the outset, they are committed to a career in teaching. This view conceals the reality that for the majority of the BEd teachers their failure to meet the entry requirements for degree courses in universities or polytechnics left them with few alternatives in higher education. Of the 254 BEd graduates at the pre-service stage of this inquiry 80% had obtained two or fewer GCE 'A' level passes, whereas of the 233 PGCE 77% had been awarded three or more 'A' level passes (Table 5.3). The difference in the quality of the Advanced level passes was statistically highly significant with 63% of the BEd group obtaining

an average grade of D or lower, and 74% of the PGCE receiving an average grade in the A, B or C category (Table 5.4). Given that some PGCE teachers may have turned to teaching through 'economic necessity' then it is equally true that some BEd teachers may have entered teacher training through 'academic necessity'.

It should also be noted that this strong commitment to teaching, that is so readily associated with the BEd graduates, is seen by some headteachers to have its drawbacks, not least in the 'narrow', 'restricted' and 'parochial' outlook such teachers may sometimes bring to teaching. Conversely, the relatively weaker commitment of the PGCE teachers fosters, in the view of the same headteachers, a 'greater degree of independence' and 'a more objective, analytical approach to teaching'.

Nevertheless, the analysis of the data relating to the teaching performance and attitudinal qualities of the BEd and PGCE teachers, together with the general opinions of the two groups of graduate teacher expressed by the sample of headteachers, reveals that the BEd teacher is more highly regarded. Overall, the BEd graduate is a more competent practitioner in the classroom and a more committed and co-operative colleague in the school, and, consequently, is ranked higher in the esteem scale. The second hypothesis is therefore confirmed.

HYPOTHESIS 3 : The PGCE teachers are identified as an 'academic' segment within the teaching profession.

Bucher and Strauss's process model of the professions, and the research of both Kob and Gallop more specifically in relation to the

teaching profession, have directed attention to the existence of sub-groups or segments within the professional group. A segment consists of those members of a professional group who can be distinguished from the rest of the group according to some particular expertise or skill, and who, consequently, have a specific identity within that profession.

In the past the teaching profession has consisted of sub-groups classified as 'graduate' and 'non-graduate'; and also as 'trained' and 'untrained'. Since both the BEd and PGCE teachers are graduate and professionally trained we will now consider the extent to which the PGCE teachers stand apart from the BEd as an 'academic' segment.

The variables employed as indicators of the academic status of the teachers are listed in Table 5.39. In summary they represent the teachers' academic qualifications at the completion of initial training, based on the quality of the performance in the GCE 'A' level and degree examinations, the nature of the specialist subject(s) studied, the number of years in full-time higher education, the nature of the teaching role and specialist subject(s) taught in school, and the extent of the teacher's involvement with the older, more able pupils and in the teaching of external examination courses.

Essentially this selection of variables takes account of the teacher's academic 'paper' qualifications and duration of advanced study, as well as an indication of the teacher's academic standing in the school from the nature of the role and teaching commitments.

The academic profile of the BEd and PGCE teachers was compiled by totalling the scores obtained on each of the selected 'academic' variables. Table 5.41 displays the cumulative scores for the BEd and PGCE teachers, sub-divided by ageband into (i) primary and

middle; (ii) lower secondary (11-13 years), and (iii) upper secondary (14-18 years).

The distribution of academic scores for the BEd and PGCE teachers shows an identical pattern within each of the three age groups, with the PGCE group much more favourably placed. A comparison of the teachers in the upper half of the range of cumulative scores for each age group reveals, at the primary/middle level, 13% BEd and 57% PGCE; in the lower secondary there are 42% BEd and 88% PGCE; and in the upper secondary school 13% BEd and 69% PGCE (Table 5.41). In each case the difference is highly significant.

From these comparative results it might appear that whereas the PGCE teachers are 'academic' the BEd are 'non-academic'. This is an over-simplification and ignores the fact that the BEd graduates were awarded a university validated Honours degree after four years full time study, about half of this time having been devoted to the development of the student's specialist academic subject.

Therefore, the difference in the academic status of the PGCE and BEd teachers, although very real and significant, is one of relative academic strength. Compared with the non-graduate recruits of thirty or more years ago the BEd graduate is a highly educated entrant to the teaching profession. However, in comparison with the PGCE recruit to teaching, who has achieved a significantly better GCE 'A' level performance, not only to meet university or polytechnic entrance requirements but as a more secure foundation from which to pursue an arts or science degree course, and then devotes at least three years to full-time academic study, the BEd graduate appears, academically, much less impressive.

This distinction between the BEd and the PGCE teachers in relation to their academic credibility is perceived very clearly by the headteachers who responded to the general questionnaire. Almost three-quarters of the heads regarded the PGCE teachers as academically superior, and none suggested the BEd was more advanced in this respect.

Furthermore, all of the headteachers identified the major strength of the PGCE teachers to be their depth of subject knowledge. In contrast, the majority of the heads considered the major weakness of the BEd teachers to be their relatively limited command of their specialist subject.

Consequently, the PGCE teacher is favoured by most headteachers as the subject specialist, whereas for those heads who expressed a preference it is in support of the BEd as the teacher of general subjects (Table 5.44). This perception of the BEd teacher as the person equipped to teach a wide range of subjects is unjustified. In this research the data analysis has shown that all BEd students read one subject only, apart from Educational Studies, for their degree in comparison with the PGCE group of whom 43% had read a second subject and 9% a third subject in their degree programme (Table 5.7).

Although for the primary and middle agebands the BEd groups were given teaching method courses in a number of curriculum areas, as were the PGCE primary/middle students in their one-year course, the BEd secondary ageband concentrated on not more than two teaching subjects in their programme. It is therefore difficult to see what positive evidence exists in the BEd secondary teacher's academic or professional background that prompts a half of the secondary head-teachers to declare a preference for the BEd graduate as the general

subjects teacher (the other half expressed no preference) (Table 5.44). Unless it is, of course, that having allocated as far as possible the PGCE teachers to the specialist subject roles, there is no alternative but to employ the BEd teacher rather more as a generalist stop-gap to cover curriculum areas where a shortage of specialist staff exists.

Inevitably this mis-use of staffing resources in the school, which is not always fully recognised by headteachers because of their apparent limited appreciation of the nature and extent of the graduate teacher's academic competence, has serious implications for the quality of the educational provision in the subject areas affected. The recent HMI discussion paper, The New Teacher in School, drew attention to the mismatch of the academic qualifications and professional preparation with the teaching programme some teachers were given in school, and suggested "it is of some concern that nearly half of those in this survey were teaching subjects for which they had no appropriate academic qualification for at least four periods a week, and in many cases substantially more."(2) Additionally, the survey showed that for "about a third of the teachers their academic and professional preparation was being underused to either a moderate or serious extent."(3)

Whatever the reasons for this lack of match between the pre-service academic and professional experience of the teachers and their deployment in schools there is one very clear and irrefutable conclusion to emerge from the data analysis and the general responses of the headteachers; it is that academic credibility is associated with the PGCE teachers and not the BEd.

In particular, what Bucher and Strauss have called this 'public image' of the two groups of graduate teacher, as it is perceived by the headteachers, has important implications for the employment, deployment and unemployment prospects of the teachers. The perceived disparity in academic credibility between the PGCE and BEd teachers prompted two heads of primary schools - where hitherto it may have been assumed this disparity in depth of subject knowledge is not important - to advocate the replacement of the BEd qualification by a "straight degree" programme followed by a modified PGCE course to include more school experience.

Whatever the future holds, the analysis of the present position supports the view that, given an all-graduate teaching profession composed of PGCE and BEd teachers, the PGCE group is identified as an 'academic' segment within the profession. The third hypothesis is therefore confirmed.

HYPOTHESIS 4 : The BEd teachers are identified as a 'professional' segment within the teaching profession

Having identified a highly significant distinction between the BEd and PGCE teachers according to academic criteria the concern now is to assess the extent of the difference between the teachers in terms of professional criteria, and, particularly, to see if the BEd graduates constitute a 'professional' segment.

As a degree in Education, the BEd is primarily a professional degree for teachers which, at the initial training stage, is intended to develop professional expertise, culminating in qualified teacher status. Failure to satisfy professional requirements both

in the theory and practice of Education would result in the failure of the degree.

All BEd graduates in this research had, of course, successfully completed their four-year course, which, in this case, had been equally shared between professional and academic interests.

The student embarking on the four-year BEd programme will, in most cases, begin this professional education immediately after leaving school (Table 5.1). The professional socialization of this intending teacher then progresses over the four-year period, developing knowledge and skills appropriate to the teaching task and also internalizing the values, attitudes and norms inherent in the professional culture. This is of course a complex process that has been examined in some detail by Lacey,[4] although specifically in relation to PGCE courses and students.

Whereas the BEd teacher begins the pre-service professional socialization at the age of about eighteen and is exposed to this educational experience for four years, the PGCE teacher, at the same career stage, is at least three years older and completes the professional socialization within a 'year' of twenty four to thirty six weeks depending upon the institution. Having already completed a degree course prior to the professional training experience PGCE students generally are likely to adopt a more critical stance in relation to the content and expectations of the professional training course than do the BEd students.

Given these very different arrangements and experiences associated with the professional training of the BEd and PGCE teachers it should not be too surprising to find that the BEd graduates perform significantly better in terms of professional criteria than do the

PGCE teachers at the completion of their initial training. The data analysis has shown that the differences between the performance levels of the BEd and PGCE students is, statistically, highly significant for both the assessment of professional theory and the assessment of teaching practice (Tables 5.11 and 5.12).

Although the students' personal qualities, such as ability, application, energy and enthusiasm, play an important part in assessments of this kind, nevertheless the considerable difference in the nature of the professional training experience given to the BEd and PGCE groups is likely to have a major influence on the quality of their professional performance at the pre-service stage.

The recently published HMI discussion paper on the content of initial training has provided official endorsement of the above view that the advantage of the four-year BEd programme "is that the student's professional development can take place over a longer period and an early commitment to teaching should, with proper planning, ensure that the process of training in all its aspects can be well fitted to the student's professional career."(5) Similarly, a disadvantage of the PGCE route "is that the time available for professional training is the equivalent of only one year, and this is a very short period in which to train any teacher, most particularly a primary teacher."(6)

Elsewhere in the discussion paper HMI suggest "The professional skills which initial training can give to an intending teacher lie at the heart of the training process. School experience and teaching practice are the firm basis for professional training ..."(7) In view of the significant difference that is seen to exist in the performance of the BEd and PGCE teachers in teaching practice, and

also the related professional theory component, the BEd group does constitute a professional segment at the pre-service stage of the teachers' careers.

In addition to the pre-service professional performance the data provided by the headteachers specifically relating to the professional characteristics of the BEd or PGCE teacher in their school, together with the teacher's own report of attendance at inservice training courses, formed the basis for the 'professional' profile. Details of the different variables and the value labels employed to provide a cumulative score of 'professional status' are given in Table 5.40, and the results presented in Tables 5.42 and 5.43, showing separately the cumulative scores and t-test analyses for primary/middle, lower and upper secondary teachers.

The results of the analyses demonstrate that the highly significant difference in the professional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers at the completion of their initial training is not fully maintained in the early stages of their teaching careers. It is only within the upper secondary age-grouping that this highly significant difference is seen to persist.

The t-test results in Table 5.43 show that the PGCE teachers in the primary/middle age-grouping are no longer significantly different from the BEd teachers in terms of their professional status, and that the PGCE group do, in fact, obtain a slightly higher mean cumulative score.

The analysis for the lower secondary age-grouping reveals that a similar development has occurred at this level, with the PGCE teachers again closing the gap on the BEd so that it would seem there is no longer a significant difference between the two groups at the

inservice stage.

Together, the primary/middle and lower secondary groups account for 80% of the BEd and 60% of the PGCE teachers. It is, therefore, for the remaining minority of teachers at the upper secondary level only that a significant difference in their professional status would seem to exist. From Tables 5.42 and 5.43 the evidence would suggest it is not so much that this BEd sub-group is particularly strong professionally (they rank third after the PGCE and BEd primary/middle sub-groups in terms of mean score) but rather that the PGCE teachers in the upper-secondary ageband are professionally relatively weak (they have the lowest mean score of all six sub-groups in this analysis).

It should be noted at this time, with LEAs under increasing pressure to devote scarce resources to inservice training for teachers, that this closing of the gap in professional status has been achieved by the majority of employed PGCE teachers without access to INSET. Paradoxically, it is the BEd teachers who have attended inservice courses to a significantly greater extent than the PGCE (Table 5.32). Possibly there is a limit to the improvement in professional performance to be gained by extending or continuing professional education (whether pre-service or inservice) and significant progress may only be made up to that limit.

From the evidence presented in this inquiry it would appear that initial differences in professional status can be overcome through the ongoing day-to-day professional experience of teaching. This evidence is supported by the responses of the thirty head-teachers to the general questionnaire, which revealed that 63% of

the heads perceived the BEd and PGCE teachers to be equal in professional status.

Whether or not this capability to 'catch up' in professional terms is unique to the PGCE teachers cannot be deduced from this inquiry. However, one secondary headmaster provided the following pertinent comment: "The major weakness of the PGCE teachers is their lack of teaching experience and ignorance of the needs of children - particularly the average and below ability levels. They have a tendency to merely lecture and assume they command interest - but they learn fast!" (S4)

It may be, therefore, a combination of the natural ability of the teacher and the opportunity to gain extended practical experience in the classroom which has enabled the initial gap in professional competence and status to be closed for the majority of PGCE teachers. But whatever the reason, the BEd teachers have lost their clear professional advantage and, at the inservice stage, no longer constitute a 'professional' segment that sets them apart from the PGCE teachers regardless of ageband. The hypothesis is therefore not confirmed.

HYPOTHESIS 5 : The graduate, professionally trained recruitment continues to divide the teaching profession according to the differential nature of the entry qualifications

This more general hypothesis is closely associated with the main purpose of this research, which, as explained at the end of chapter one, seeks to establish if the BEd and PGCE recruits to teaching enjoy parity of academic and professional status and, if

not, in what respects they differ. The aim is to evaluate the extent to which the long-standing 'academic tradition' and 'professional tradition' within teacher education have merged now that recruitment to teaching is graduate and professionally trained, apart from the present exceptions permitted in the shortage subject areas of science and mathematics.

As explained in chapters two and three the analysis of the research problem is set within a theoretical framework that is based on the general principles of social stratification postulated by Davis and Moore. For the specific utility of this research these general principles were supplemented by the criteria and concepts developed separately by Jackson, Marshall, and Bucher and Strauss, the whole being set within the context of external influences and constraints emanating from the wider political system (see Figure 2, page 97).

So far in this chapter the hypotheses have focused separately and specifically on the characteristics of prestige, esteem, academic status and professional status as they relate to the BEd and PGCE teachers. Here the intention is to provide an overview of these different elements within the theoretical framework, as they affect the overall relative status of the two groups of graduate teacher.

At the completion of their initial training the BEd and PGCE groups are significantly different in terms of their relative academic and professional strengths. By virtue of their much better performance in the GCE Advanced level examinations, the nature of their degree courses and the higher classification of

their degree results, the PGCE group is clearly identified as an academic segment at the pre-service stage. In contrast the BEd group has achieved a clear and highly significant advantage in both teaching performance and an understanding of the professional theory and methodology which informs classroom practice and may, therefore, be regarded as a professional segment at this stage.

The relative academic and professional strengths and identities of the PGCE and BEd graduates at the completion of their pre-service training is largely a reflection of the weighting given to academic and professional studies in their initial training programmes. For the PGCE group the academic component has occupied the first three years of their four-year consecutive programme, giving a 75% : 25% ratio of academic to professional experience. In their more concurrent programme the BEd graduates in this inquiry acquired their professional education over the four years of their degree and with a total allocation of about 50% of the taught programme. More recent BEd programmes have varied both the structure and duration of the professional studies experience and, consequently, the available time for academic studies. The 1979 HMI survey[8] of fifteen institutions offering the BEd degree revealed that the time allocated to academic subject study ranged from 22% to 50% of the total taught programme.

Given this variation in emphasis in the academic and professional education of the graduates, and the accompanying socialization experiences, one is able to detect the dichotomy within the ranks of the intending teachers similar to that found by Gallop in his

study of students engaged in initial training programmes at "two contrasting institutions"[9], namely a university department of education and a college of education.

Progressing from their different programmes of initial training the BEd and PGCE teachers are found in the data analysis to obtain teaching appointments that are markedly different in their level of prestige. This evidence, which has been examined in detail in relation to the first hypothesis, shows the PGCE qualified teacher to have a major advantage in obtaining the more prestigious positions in schools.

The esoteric nature of the knowledge taught and the age and ability of the pupils to whom it is taught are, for Jackson, the major determinants of the prestige associated with the different teaching appointments in schools. The prestige scale for teachers ascends approximately in step with the progress of pupils through the stratified school system as they acquire specialist subject knowledge, grow older and develop mentally, emotionally and physically.

Pupils who remain at school to complete GCE Advanced level courses have themselves obtained a sufficient grounding in their main subjects to pose a challenge to all but the most knowledgeable of graduate teachers. It can be readily understood, therefore, that schools will appoint whenever possible the PGCE teachers, given their academic status and identity, to meet the educational needs of the Advanced level pupils and the academic challenge which they generate.

However, it is not only at the highest academic levels of the secondary school that the PGCE teacher achieves the higher prestige. This advantage is retained by the PGCE group in the lower secondary school and also at the rather less esoteric levels of the primary and middle schools.

The data analysis revealed that the ageband course completed during initial training is a major determinant of a teacher's prestige. This is self-evident given the manner in which the prestige scale relates to the age of the pupils. However, what is not self-evident is that within particular agebands of the school system the PGCE teacher should be so clearly higher in prestige. In this inquiry the differences in the relative prestige scores for the BEd and PGCE teachers in primary/middle, lower secondary and upper secondary agebands are all highly significant.

Given this tendency for the PGCE teacher to obtain the more prestigious appointments within schools, the career opportunities that are most likely to be made available to the BEd graduates are in those subjects in the school curriculum where teachers are in short supply, or the more practical subject areas, such as handicrafts, where traditionally PGCE teachers are not strongly represented. Failing this, their career opportunities in the secondary school are likely to exist within the pastoral rather than the academic organisation of the school, as a number of the headteacher respondents to the general questionnaire indicated.

It is very clear, therefore, that the academic status and identity of the PGCE group at the pre-service stage is maintained when they obtain their appointments in schools. In contrast the

very strong advantage held by the BEd group in relation to professional competence at the pre-service stage is not so clearly maintained when they are employed in schools.

When, as qualified teachers, the PGCE and BEd graduates were assessed by their headteachers for 'teacher effectiveness' (five criteria) and 'professional qualities' (four criteria) the BEd teachers are more frequently represented with the above-average grades on each of the nine criteria, although for only three of the nine are the differences seen to be statistically significant (Tables 5.34 and 5.35).

The other variables which, taken independently, also provide measures of the teacher's esteem are (i) commitment to teaching; (ii) involvement in the school's extra-curricular activities; and (iii) attendance at inservice courses. In each case the differences in the assessment of the BEd and PGCE teachers are statistically significant and favour the BEd graduates (Tables 5.30, 5.31 and 5.32).

Thus the relative measures of esteem accorded to the BEd and PGCE teachers in their school appointments, based on the assessments submitted by the headteachers, show the BEd teachers to be more favourably graded and, therefore, occupying a higher position in the esteem scale.

However, when the more general professional profile of the two groups of graduate teacher is compared the result is rather different. The professional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers is measured by aggregating the scores obtained by each group on the pre-service and inservice 'professional' variables, in an identical procedure to the one adopted for the comparison of the teachers' academic status (see Tables 5.39 and 5.41).

The aggregate scores for the professional status of the BEd and PGCE teachers in the primary/middle, lower secondary and upper secondary age-groups were presented in Table 5.42, and the t-test analyses of the distributions were shown in Table 5.43. Whereas the BEd were significantly higher than the PGCE group in professional status at the conclusion of their initial training, only a 20% minority of the BEd teachers retain that significant advantage at the inservice stage. For the remaining 80% of the BEd teachers it would seem they have lost their early professional advantage and are no longer perceived to be significantly different from the PGCE teachers.

Therefore, although the BEd teachers, as we saw earlier, retain an advantage at the inservice stage on certain criteria relating to teacher effectiveness and professional qualities, in terms of their general professional status the considerable majority of the BEd teachers are not significantly different from the PGCE.

Consequently, the higher academic status of the PGCE group during initial training is strongly maintained at the inservice stage and the higher professional status of the BEd group during initial training is maintained by only a small minority. This does suggest that whereas professional performance and status are likely to improve with more continuous school experience the difference in academic status is much more persistent and can be overcome only by further academic study made publicly credible by the acquisition of academic qualifications.

A major implication of this conclusion for teacher education is that the emphasis during initial training should be directed towards the academic rather than the professional development of the intending teacher, in the expectation that professional progress will continue when an inservice appointment is taken up. Jackson, as we saw in chapter two, has summarized this viewpoint in the following way:

"A trained mind is given precedence to technical (ie. professional) competence which it is assumed can be readily picked up once the formal education process is complete."(10) It should of course be noted that the PGCE teachers in this research, who had been able to improve their professional competence and status to a level approximating that of the BEd teachers, had all successfully completed a course of professional training, upon which they were able to build when appointed to schools.

Although a teaching appointment will provide the relatively inexperienced teachers with the opportunity to improve their professional skills, the teacher's personal qualities may also play an important part in overcoming initial difficulties. The extent of this contribution has been identified in a recent HMI report:

> "Even where the training seemed not to have been as effective as it should have been, or, more commonly, where it was ill matched with the tasks the teachers had been called upon to do, there were many cases where the personal qualities of the teachers had enabled them to overcome this disadvantage, particularly when they also received sympathetic and sound support from school or LEA." (11)

Given that the level of the teacher's professional competence and status may be influenced, for example, by teaching experience, personal qualities, and the support given to the teacher by the school or LEA, suggests that the 'professional' component in the graduate teacher's qualification is a relatively unstable characteristic. Consequently it does not provide a persistent and reliable measure by which to distinguish the BEd from the PGCE teacher.

In contrast, the 'academic' component in the graduate teacher's qualification is a much more static and constant characteristic that has been shown to be a reliable measure by which to differentiate

the BEd and PGCE teachers. This is evident not only at the completion of initial training but persists at least through the early phase of the teachers' careers covered by this inquiry.

Unlike Kob's research findings[12], reported in chapter two, in which the practising teachers could be readily classified as 'professional' (type A) and 'academic' (type B), the data analysis and the general opinions expressed by headteachers in this research show the BEd and PGCE teachers to be more reliably classified as relatively 'low academic' and 'high academic' sub-groups within the all-graduate, professionally trained membership of the teaching profession. Whereas Kob had relied on personal interviews with his sample of teachers, thereby taking account of their self-expressed values and attitudes towards education and teaching, in this research the classification of the teachers is mainly based upon a scaling of the teaching responsibilities the graduates are actually given in schools and the headteachers' perceptions of the jobs they are best qualified to do, as well as the assessments of the teachers' academic and professional performance at the pre-service and inservice stages.

The conclusion is, therefore, that the graduate, professionally trained recruitment does continue to divide the teaching profession for reasons associated with the differential quality of the academic status of the graduates' entry qualifications. In his discussion of social status, as we saw in chapter two, Marshall has suggested the social value of education and qualifications can be measured in two ways, "first, by the actual results, that is to say, the knowledge and skills acquired, and secondly, by the symbolic value of the institutions in which the education was obtained."[13] The academic respectability associated by tradition with the three-year Honours

degree in arts or science obtained from the most prestigious and exclusive educational institution, the university, is educationally and socially superior to the professional degree in Education for intending teachers, obtained from the colleges of education, and belonging very much in the professional tradition of the non-graduate certificates formerly awarded to intending teachers in the training colleges.

The evidence from this research is pertinent to the suspicions and doubts expressed by Britton shortly after the introduction of the BEd, and referred to in chapter three:

> "It is too early to know what will be the ultimate value of the BEd, but there are signs that the profession is being offered the shadow for the substance ... Time will show whether BEd is considered to be equivalent to BA in popular esteem and, what is more important, whether in educational circles a BEd will be considered equivalent to the BA plus a DipEd or PGCE. In any case the majority of the BEd courses do nothing to solve the problem of inadequate subject knowledge." (14)

Fourteen years later the results of this inquiry confirm that the BEd is rather more the shadow than the substance when compared with the more traditional, academic first degrees. Furthermore, this evidence emerges from 'educational circles' represented by head-teachers in schools where the BEd and the BA/PGCE teachers are employed.

The fifth hypothesis is therefore confirmed, although not entirely in the manner represented in the theoretical model. There it had been envisaged the division within the teaching profession would take the form of an academic segment (PGCE) and a professional segment (BEd). Instead the major cleavage is within the academic

component alone, with the PGCE teachers identified as having relatively high academic status and the BEd graduates relatively low academic status.

HYPOTHESIS 6 : External influences will operate to maintain a division between the PGCE and BEd graduates in the teaching profession

In proposing a set of theoretical principles for the analysis of social stratification, Davis and Moore recognised the importance of external conditions and forces that would influence the operation and structure of the stratification system. External factors of this kind, in a particular cultural context, translate the principles into reality for a particular society, or sub-group of society, at a particular stage in its history.

Given that the specific concern in this inquiry is the teacher education system in England and Wales at the present time then the external conditions and forces take the form of the prevailing social, economic and political pressures. For example, recent and projected demographic changes in society affect the size and balance of the school population; a stagnant economy restricts, among other things, the educational budget; and, ultimately, in accordance with its political philosophy and current policy, government will make decisions, intervene and implement whatever changes it considers are necessary in the light of the changing conditions. The present Government's recently published White Paper[15], relating to the training and deployment of teachers, illustrates the process.

This external control of the education system, including teacher education, by a government agency on behalf of the state at

large conforms to Johnson's model of 'mediatory control', which has been discussed in chapter two in relation to the education system in England and Wales. That discussion focused on the nature and the exercise of the power invested in the central government agency, the DES, in relation to (i) its more local and subordinate partners, the LEAs; (ii) its own team of investigators, who inspect and monitor the educational service, HMI; (iii) the teachers and their professional associations and (iv) the universities as the guardians of academic standards.

The involvement in teacher education of this central agency, the DES, and its predecessors the Ministry of Education and the Board of Education, has been examined in chapter one. The nature of this involvement since the mid-nineteenth century has been transformed from the mediatory role of modest facilitator to that of coercive interventionist at the present time. Given the enormous investment in education today some may regard this more positive lead by the DES as both desirable and necessary, whereas others view this increasing display of centralized control and direction with concern.

The extent of this involvement in teacher education is evident from the most recent White Paper, in which the DES, armed with research evidence from HMI and recommendations from its own Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET), prescribes and proscribes in relation to (i) the demand and supply of teachers; (ii) the relationship between the teacher's training and role in school; (iii) the structure of initial training provision; (iv) the content of initial training; (v) the qualifications of teachers; and, for the benefit of the LEAs, (vi) the management of teachers

with reference to their appointment, deployment, redeployment, early retirement, inservice education, retraining, evaluation and dismissal. In addition, the White Paper contains appendices (i) asserting the legal and administrative authority of the Secretary of State for Education and Science, with appropriate reference to the Secretaries of State for Wales and Scotland, in matters of policy relating to teacher supply, training and qualifications; and (ii) a consideration of the ways in which initial teacher training might be improved. Related to this appendix (ii) is the promise that sometime after July 1983 the Secretary of State for Education and Science will approve "criteria which he will take into account in deciding whether or not to approve, or to continue to approve, individual courses (of initial training)."[16] However, it is suggested the Secretary of State "should be concerned with the broad framework and structure of courses leaving detailed content to academic institutions and their validating bodies."[17]

So far as the central theme of this inquiry is concerned, namely the relative status of the BEd and PGCE teachers, there is nothing in the White Paper or any other recent policy statement from the DES to suggest that the binary institutional framework within which teacher education is organised, and which is itself a source of division among teachers, is likely to be discontinued in the foreseeable future.

The failure of both the McNair and the Robbins Committees, as we saw in chapter one, to convince the governments of the day of the need for a unitary administrative structure for teacher education providing closer links with the universities, reflected a powerful political resistance to this proposal which has not diminished. More recently Judge[18] has pointed to the advantages

for the professional education of intending and inservice teachers, and subsequently classroom practice, of basing teacher education in schools of education at the universities, at the same time removing the ambiguity in the status of teachers. Again there is no indication that DES is prepared to consider such a unifying proposal, as though differential status remains a useful means of controlling the profession as a whole through a division of self interests.

Not only does the existence of the public sector polytechnics and colleges of education satisfy the quite powerful vested interest of the LEAs but it also affords the DES an opportunity to exercise more direct control over at least one section of higher education. The recent inquiry into the public sector higher education provision, initiated by the DES and conducted by its National Advisory Board, is an illustration of the control DES wishes to retain. Britton, however, suggested in 1969 that it is unreasonable to expect otherwise: "Can you have the whole of the higher education sector with the kind of academic freedom that the universities claim at the present time."(19) There are probably many staff in universities today who would claim that Britton's view of university autonomy is now quite out of date as the influence of the DES becomes more evident, through the University Grants Committee, and particularly in relation to the UDEs.

When the DES conducted its most recent review of the structure of the initial training provision in May 1982 it had two objectives to achieve: firstly, an overall reduction in recruitment and, secondly, a change in the balance of recruitment between the primary and secondary school courses. These changes were required to meet the latest school population projections which showed falling secondary rolls and a somewhat unexpected if modest bulge of new births that would affect the primary schools in the mid-1980s. Of particular interest for this research is the manner in which the new primary

and secondary targets were to be distributed between the BEd and PGCE qualifications, and then between the universities and public sector training institutions.

The proposed target allocations were published on 9 August 1982, to permit further consultation with the institutions, before the final decisions were released three months later on 8 November. Table 6.1 summarizes the distribution of admission places [20] by qualification and institution for 1983 and 1985 in comparison with the estimated actual recruitment in 1981.

Table 6.1

ADMISSIONS TO INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING COURSES IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Qualification	Institution	Estimated 1981	Planned 1983	Planned 1985
Primary BEd	Universities	200	250	250
	Public Sector	4,000	5,100	6,200
Primary PGCE	Universities	400	400	600
	Public Sector	1,100	1,150	1,550
Secondary BEd	Universities	250	250	250
	Public Sector	2,500	1,600	1,600
Secondary PGCE	Universities	5,200	4,250	4,250
	Public Sector	4,750	2,650	2,650
TOTAL	Universities	6,050	5,150	5,350
	Public Sector	12,350	10,500	12,000
TOTAL		18,400	15,650	17,350

Table 6.1 is derived from Table 3 in the 1983 White Paper and shows that by 1985 the total planned admissions for the universities and public sector, combined, are only 1,050 places (-6%) below the estimated recruitment in 1981. Within this total reduction the

universities have lost 700 places (-12%) and the public sector 350 places (-3%).

However, this quantitative comparison conceals an important qualitative change in emphasis, particularly in relation to the type of initial training programme and its institutional location in the future. Whereas the universities have lost 750 PGCE places (-13%) the public sector institutions have been reduced by 1,650 PGCE places (-28%). The comparison for the reduction in PGCE secondary admissions shows that the universities have lost 950 places (-18%) and the public sector 2,100 (-44%). In the case of the BEd degree, by 1985 the universities will have a total allocation of 500 places representing an increase of 50 (+11%) whereas the public sector institutions have a combined BEd allocation of 7,800 places representing an increase since 1981 of 1,300 places (+20%).

Comparing the ageband distributions between institutions Table 6.1 shows that the universities have lost 950 (-17%) secondary places (representing BEd and PGCE combined) whereas the public sector has been reduced by 3,000 secondary places (-41%). In contrast, at the primary level the universities have been allocated an additional 250 places (+42%) and the public sector institutions have gained, by 1985, 2,650 (+52%).

The White Paper refers to this qualitative redistribution of places between the BEd and PGCE courses in the following way:

> "Both types of course are available to students training for primary or for secondary teaching, but about three-quarters of the primary training intakes are to BEd courses whilst three-quarters of the secondary intakes are to PGCE courses. Most BEd places are in public sector colleges; PGCE places are distributed more evenly between the universities and the public sector." (21)

This restructuring of initial training in November 1982 has effectively reinforced and extended the already strong division within the teacher education system in England and Wales. This division now links quite emphatically the BEd degree with the public sector institutions and the intending primary school teacher, whereas the PGCE qualification is closely associated with the university departments of education and the intending secondary teacher.

In quantitative terms, 94% of all BEd places in 1985 will be provided in the public sector, and 75% of all students taking the BEd will be intending primary teachers. In contrast, 79% of all intending secondary teachers will enrol for the PGCE qualification, and 88% of all PGCE secondary places in 1985 will be provided in the university sector.

A further proposal in the 1983 White Paper, which will have divisive consequences for the teaching profession, relates to the classification of a teacher's qualified teacher status (Q.T.S.) according to the specific age range of the pupils, and, if secondary, the specific subject(s) that teacher has been trained to teach.

The DES had circulated a "consultation paper" on the 26 May, 1982 asking various interest groups in teacher education to consider whether there would be advantages in introducing a measure of phase and subject specificity within qualified teacher status. The general opposition to the DES proposal was led by the NUT, who regarded the whole idea as "spurious and dangerous" (TES 18.6.82), whereas the NAS/UWT felt it would lead to a two tier profession of primary and secondary teachers, which might then give expression to "a teacher hierarchy through salary scales that varied." (TES 13.8.82)

Disregarding this criticism from the profession, the White Paper calls upon the LEAs to ensure that in appointing teachers to schools proper attention is paid to the teacher's professional training experience to ensure the necessary match between initial training qualifications (which will be specified in the Q.T.S. letter of approval) and the teaching role in the school.

Given the rigid application of this proposal and an enforced admissions policy to programmes of initial training that produces, very largely, public sector BEd graduates for the primary schools, and university trained PGCE teachers for the secondary schools, then in effect one has a relatively closed system of professional stratification based on initial training qualifications.

Although the consultation paper did state explicitly that "Teachers would not be formally restricted for employment purposes", it did, however, add "but authorities would be expected to ensure that normally teachers would concentrate mainly on the subjects and age groups mentioned in their Q.T. status letters."(22) The White Paper adopts an identical stance, not actually prohibiting newly-qualified teachers from applying for teaching appointments in agebands and subjects other than for which they were trained. However, it is the Government's intention to amend the 1982 Education (Teachers) Regulations so that appointing authorities will be required to take note of a teacher's formal qualifications when making what the Regulations call "suitable" teacher appointments. The White Paper then adds, threateningly,

> "HM Inspectors ... will be asked to report on the extent to which the qualifications of the teaching staff conform to the requirements of the amended Regulations. After a five-year period the Secretary of State will institute a general review of progress in the light of the reports received." (23)

Thus a structure of the teaching profession is being created and controlled in a way that closely associates qualified teachers with an already stratified school system. The newly qualified teachers will be appointed to these schools on the evidence of their initial training qualifications, and their teaching careers will then be restricted to these relatively narrow age and subject bands. Since in the future, as we have seen, the BEd graduates will be employed mainly in the primary sector and the PGCE teachers in secondary schools, external decisions by the DES are operating to maintain a division between the BEd and PGCE qualified teachers. The sixth hypothesis is therefore confirmed.

The consideration of the hypotheses in this chapter has shown, on the evidence of the data analysis and the general views of a group of headteachers, that a very clear division exists between the BEd and PGCE teachers entering the teaching profession, and this division is being reinforced by current national policy in teacher education.

The DES acknowledge in the 1983 White Paper the need for differentiation in the programmes of initial training to match the differentiated responsibilities teachers undertake when employed in schools. However, the DES fails to recognise, or to admit, the possible connection between this differentiation and the professional status and career prospects of the PGCE and BEd graduate recruits to teaching. Instead, rather naively and optimistically, the White Paper refers only to the essential unity and parity within the profession:

> "Teachers' tasks vary greatly according to the age, ability and aptitudes of their pupils ... One of the main themes of this paper is the need for greater differentiation in the training and deployment of teachers to reflect the variety of these tasks. But the Government see the task of teaching school pupils as a single process and value the national tradition of an undivided school teaching profession, united by a common purpose and with parity of esteem for all its members." (24)

Just forty years ago another White Paper[25], entitled Educational Reconstruction, presented the Government's proposals for a major change in the structure of the education system in England and Wales. The White Paper referred to the need for 'diversity of types' of school which would, nevertheless, enjoy 'parity of prestige', as would the pupils who attended the schools.

We were soon to learn that 'diversity' and 'parity' are incompatible concepts so far as schools and pupils are concerned. The evidence from this inquiry shows the same concepts are no more compatible when applied to teachers, regardless of what the 1983 White Paper would have us believe.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, FURTHER RESEARCH

(a) CONCLUSIONS

The analytical framework developed for the purpose of this inquiry was discussed in chapter three. It postulates that the BEd and PGCE recruits, when employed in the stratified school system in England and Wales, can be differentiated according to the relative status of their teaching appointments (ie. prestige) and the relative status of their teaching performance and professional qualities (ie. esteem), and that, overall, they can be differentiated according to their membership of either an academic or professional segment within the teaching profession. The framework also recognises the influence which external social and political pressures will exert on the careers of the BEd and PGCE teachers.

The findings of this inquiry, based on the survey data analysis and the opinions expressed by a group of headteachers, show that the teachers who have graduated with arts or science degrees, and have then completed the PGCE course, tend to obtain the more prestigious teaching appointments in primary and secondary schools, and are identified as a relatively high level academic segment within the teaching profession.

In comparison, the BEd graduates tend to obtain the less prestigious teaching appointments in the schools and are identified as a relatively low level academic segment within the profession. Although in terms of esteem they are regarded, in some respects, as more effective teachers, more reliable and committed to teaching,

the overall professional strength of the BEd graduates is not so distinctive from that displayed by the PGCE teachers as to identify them clearly as a professional segment within the teaching profession.

Therefore, the major distinguishing criterion between the PGCE and BEd teachers is their relative academic status, which in itself is sufficiently disparate as to create a very clear division within the ranks of the graduate, professionally trained recruits to the teaching profession. But this, in effect, is just the beginning, since the academic nature of the more prestigious career opportunities available in schools further advantages the PGCE teacher and seems to extend the division.

Given that the British educational system remains dominated by academic as opposed to social and practical curricula, as Young[1] has suggested, then it is reasonable to expect that a stratified rewards system, consisting of prestige and income, should benefit those who are regarded as experts in what counts as academic knowledge. Having identified the PGCE teachers as the deserving recipients of the prestige and income rewards the Government, through the DES, seems currently to be creating arrangements which seem likely to ensure that this will tend to happen.

For example, the 1983 White Paper recognises explicitly the superior academic status of the PGCE teacher in justifying the DES decision to allocate, in future, more secondary training places to the PGCE rather than the BEd qualification route.

> "The Government are determined to strengthen subject expertise in secondary teaching and believe that in general this aim points to the PGCE route. BEd courses are being retained for training in subjects where the opportunities are limited for a first degree route to PGCE ... such subjects are craft, design and technology; physical education and home economics." (2)

Thus, in future, recruitment to the more prestigious specialist roles, teaching an academic subject in the secondary school, will be increasingly available only to the university trained PGCE teacher.

Similarly, the policy of successive governments in relation to teachers' salaries has consistently favoured the good honours graduate teaching older pupils, as the detailed discussion in chapter two showed. Although there have been a number of modifications to the salary structure during the last forty years there remains a significant 'prestige' weighting that most favours the academic subject specialist, with sixth form teaching opportunities, and provides the least benefit for the subject generalist teacher in the primary school.

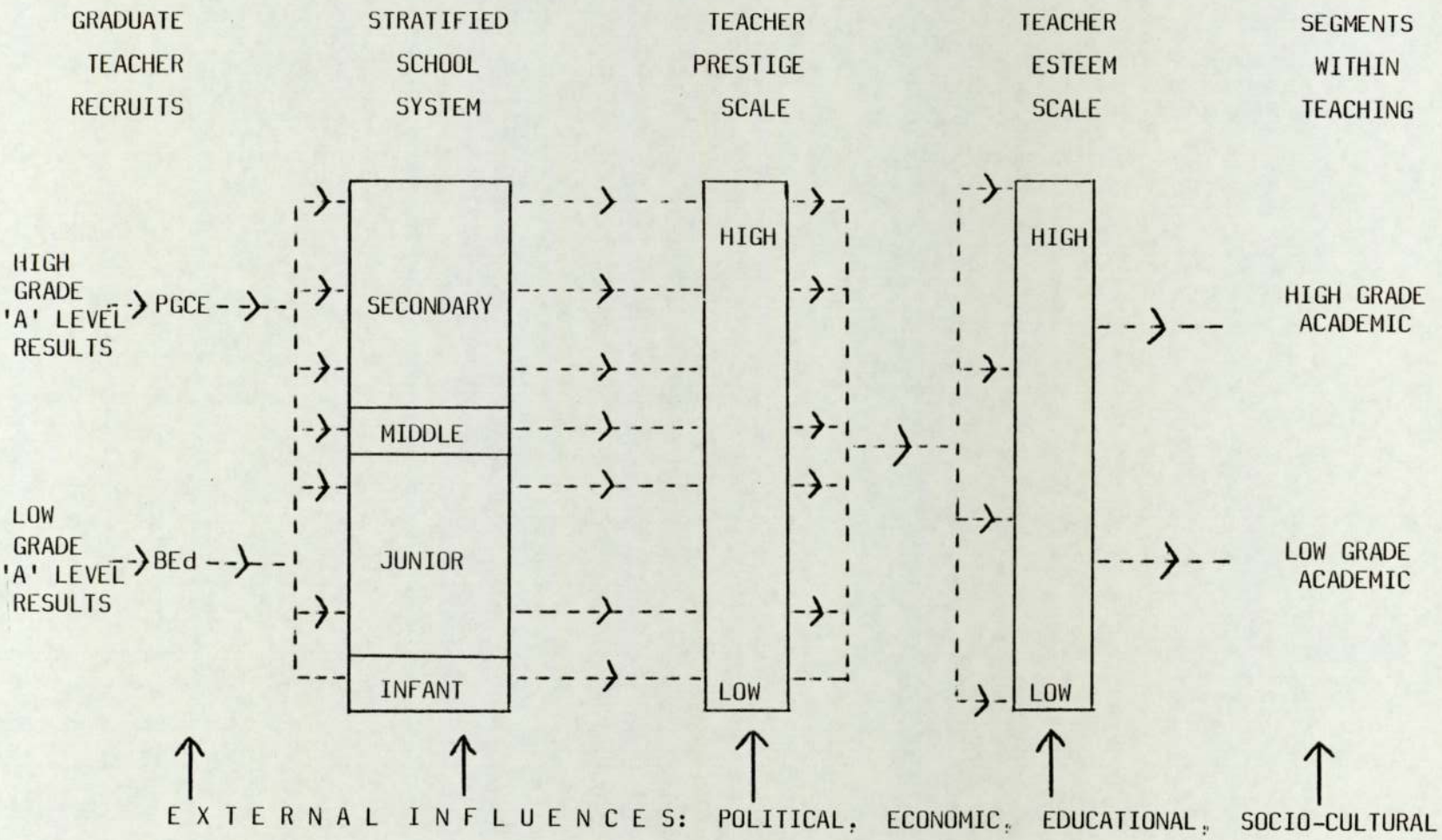
The evidence from this inquiry has revealed the need to modify the analytical framework to show the sub-division of the academic segment into relatively 'high' and 'low' level categories, representing the PGCE and BEd graduates respectively. Similarly the lack of any strong distinction between the two groups of teachers in their overall professional status once settled into service does not warrant the inclusion of a professional segment, other than as a theoretical possibility (see Figure 5).

In addition to the two proposed segmental categories within the teaching profession, which have now been modified in the light of the evidence relating to the BEd and PGCE teachers, more sensitive changes to the analytical framework as it is presented in chapter three (Figure 2) could be introduced at the input stage.

The starting point in the model is taken to be the two types of initial training programme, one leading to the award of an arts

Figure 5

PRESTIGE, ESTEEM AND SEGMENTS IN SCHOOLTEACHING : REVISED MODEL



or science degree and followed by a PGCE qualification, the other consisting of a more concurrent four-year programme leading to the BEd degree. Given that the major distinguishing characteristic of the two groups later proves to be their relatively high and low academic status, such a distinction is already evident at the pre-initial training stage in the quality of the GCE Advanced level results obtained by the two groups. The differences in the relative 'A' level performance of the BEd and PGCE recruits were shown in Tables 5.3 and 5.4, and they are as highly significant as the differences in their academic status when they are practising teachers. This would suggest that the award of the BEd degree has had little, if any, effect on the academic status of this group relative to those who performed better at 'A' level and went on to complete the PGCE course.

There are a number of possible explanations for this, which may operate independently or in some combined relationship. For example, the perceived ability differences in the two groups of teachers as reflected in their Advanced level results; the status of the institution of higher education they were subsequently eligible to attend; the differing nature of the degree courses attended, one 'academic' the other 'professional'; the perceived academic standards associated with the award of the degree.

Whatever the reason(s) there is a very clear distinction being made between the two groups in relation to their academic credibility. So far as this new generation of an all-graduate, professionally trained intake to the teaching profession is concerned they seem to be as divided as were the former graduates and non-graduates.

Just as high and low academic status were, in the past, synonymous with the 'graduate' and 'non-graduate' teacher respectively, so today high academic status is synonymous with 'PGCE' and low academic status with the 'BEd' teacher.

What seems particularly helpful for the PGCE teacher's career, and particularly harmful for the BEd teacher's career, is that the distinction has emerged from assessment data and opinions expressed by headteachers. There is such a strong coincidence, especially in the general characteristics ascribed to 'the BEd teacher' and 'the PGCE teacher' by a cross-section of heads, that the profession has established (in some sense separately from the bureaucracy of the DES) its own stereotypes of the two categories of teacher. As is the case with stereotypes there is evidence of some distortion at the individual level, such as in the popular impression of the PGCE recruit as 'uncommitted to teaching', and of the BEd graduate as 'the general subjects teacher' irrespective of ageband training.

One suspects that the teaching profession is able to recognise and appreciate the PGCE teacher as the person who, normally, will have a depth of subject knowledge that is more than equal to the most advanced syllabus encountered in the secondary school. In comparison, the BEd graduate will normally fall short of this standard and, therefore, should not be entrusted with Advanced level teaching. In effect it is the arts and science first degrees, which the PGCE teachers possess, that represent the credible and acceptable model. Any other initial qualification that is different from that model, whether it be a three-year certificate in education, or a BEd degree, falls short of that standard and is, therefore, by definition, classified as relatively inferior.

The White Paper's advice to the LEA's on the matter of the appointment of teachers, which suggests that the BEd graduate should not be employed in the secondary school to teach subject areas normally covered by the PGCE teacher, serves only to further damage the academic status, the career prospects and the professional self-confidence of the BEd teachers who are either teaching or training to teach in secondary schools.

The final thrust to destroy all hope of an undivided teaching profession is delivered through a carefully organised admissions policy for initial training that not only maintains the division between the universities and the public sector but promises to congregate the vast majority of BEd graduates in the primary schools and the PGCE in the higher status secondary schools. And to ensure this pattern of professional stratification is effectively implemented by the LEA's and other appointing authorities there is the further promise of inspections, reports and reviews of progress.

(b) RECOMMENDATIONS

The evidence and conclusions arising from this research have two major implications for both teacher education in England and Wales and the status of the teachers who emerge from initial training to staff the schools in the future. The two implications relate to (1) the institutional framework in which teacher education is administered; and (2) the qualifications of the all-graduate, professionally trained teachers.

In making these recommendations the underlying premise is that it would be desirable to have a unified teaching profession in which there is no major distinction between the nature and quality of the

initial training qualification of one group of intending teachers and another. Within this premise it is assumed that, whereas the academic component of the teachers' qualification will be equivalent in academic standard and prestige, the professional component will be geared more specifically to the educational needs of the pupils and schools in the teachers' chosen ageband.

It is acknowledged, however, that the teachers who will obtain appointments in the secondary rather than the primary schools will, by the same 'age of pupils' criterion employed in this research, acquire relatively higher prestige. This status differentiation is inevitable given the present age structure of the school system in England and Wales. Nevertheless, by ensuring that all qualified teachers will have comparable academic qualifications at first degree level this should eliminate the disparity in educational status of teachers in primary and secondary schools.

Furthermore, the highly valued members of the profession, who are the academically well-qualified and effective teachers, are needed at all phases of the education system. All children, regardless of their age and ability, have a right to be taught by very able, knowledgeable and respected teachers. It is particularly important that children at the primary stage should be taught by staff who can give them the best possible foundation upon which to build, and also help them to avoid conceptual misunderstandings which may arise from less than adequate teacher cognition, and which can generate more serious learning difficulties for pupils later in their school careers.

It is consistent with this premise that the subject expertise, which the 1983 White Paper proposes to concentrate in the secondary school, should be more freely distributed in all types of school.

In January 1983 the HMI discussion paper on the content of initial training did advocate the employment of subject specialist teachers in the primary sector, suggesting "such teachers will come to be used as subject leaders or consultants within the primary school."(3)

The deployment of well-qualified subject specialist teachers in the primary and secondary sectors should not only provide the injection of subject expertise in the curriculum in each ageband but also facilitate the progression and continuity between the two curricula. Given the equivalent academic status of the staff in the two sectors, this continuity in subject content is more likely to arise from a co-operative, interdependent relationship between the primary and secondary teachers that is borne of mutual respect and recognition of each other's status and expertise.

In essence, therefore, a more unified teaching profession, whose members have an equivalent first degree and are found in all phases of the education system. This contrasts with two other models of the teaching profession: the first, emerging from this enquiry, in which teachers are differentiated by relatively high and low status academic qualifications; the second, emerging from the 1983 White Paper, which will create a much more rigid stratification in which teachers are differentiated into high and low status categories by ageband and qualification.

Recommendation 1 : The institutional framework for teacher education in England and Wales

A major and long-standing source of the division within teacher education, and the subsequent status of teachers in England and Wales, has been the separation of the university and non-university institutions in the provision of initial training programmes.

The seeds for the present division between the university and public sector provision were planted at the turn of the last century. Following the Cross Report in 1888 the Government gave the responsibility for the training of elementary teachers in the new day colleges to the universities. Fourteen years later, following the 1902 Education Act and the formation of the LEAs the Government then decided to allocate the provision of additional training colleges to the new local authorities.

In the next quarter of a century the division was exacerbated by government decisions that permitted the day colleges to become the University Departments of Education (UDE's), offering three-year degree courses followed by one year of professional training, increasingly for intending secondary (ie. grammar school) teachers only. In contrast the training colleges, belonging to the LEA's and the voluntary bodies, were restricted to a two-year course for the non-graduate trainee for the elementary school.

Since then successive major reports on the education and training of teachers have all identified the need for a unified administrative structure but none has succeeded in persuading the Government of the day to implement such a recommendation.

Both the McNair (1944) and Robbins (1963) reports advocated the formation of University Schools of Education, in which the separate

interests of the UDEs, the colleges, the LEAs, and the teaching profession would be represented and, hopefully, integrated.

However, not only was this recommendation rejected on both occasions but in 1965 the Government gave formal endorsement to a binary structure for higher education in England and Wales. Ironically, this official approval for a divided system of higher education coincided with the same Government's request to the LEAs to develop a system of comprehensive education in order to "eliminate separatism in secondary education."(4)

The third major report on teacher education, that of the James Committee which was published in 1971, although supporting a unified organisational structure introduced a different administrative concept. The James Report recommended the formation of Regional Councils for Colleges and Departments of Education (RCCDEs), adding that "The important criteria would be that each RCCDE should represent and bring into partnership all the colleges, universities, polytechnics and the LEAs in the region."(5) The teaching profession, the CNAA and the DES would also be represented in what the James Committee envisaged would be a system of fifteen RCCDEs to cover England and Wales with one national agency above this level called the National Council for Teacher Education and Training.

In making these recommendations the James Committee was also advocating the closure of the Area Training Organisations (ATOs), which had emerged as a compromise from the McNair Report and which had operated for a quarter of a century, with variable effect, to provide an administrative link between the university, the UDE and the colleges in the area. The James Report justified the decision in the following terms: "Placing undue emphasis on the present

link with universities has its own attendant dangers. The most obvious of these is that some colleges have been encouraged to strive for the wrong kind of excellence. Their courses have in many cases become too academic . . ."[6] From the evidence in this inquiry the BEd courses were not as academic as the schools would have wished.

A further argument which the James Committee had considered, but rejected, relates to academic freedom and

> "asserts that the universities exert not a dictatorial power but a beneficent influence in protecting the colleges' academic integrity from improper interference by LEA's or by the DES. A development of this argument is that the removal of the present university dominance of the area training organisations would create a 'power vacuum': to end the dominance of one partner would invite the dominance of another. These are arguments that are often cogently advanced by those with great experience in the field . . ." (7)

Nevertheless, the Committee disregarded the argument and the implicit advice, but today we recognise how sound that advice seems to have been, given the dominance now demonstrated by the DES in teacher education.

In the 1972 White Paper that followed the James Report, the Government accepted the Committee's recommendation to disband the ATOs but refused to create the RCCDEs that were intended by James to be the replacement for the area organisation. Thus the regional administrative tier in teacher education had been removed and, apart from the validating responsibilities shared by the universities and the CNAA, the vacuum had been effectively created for more direct control of a divided teacher education system by the DES.

More recently, Judge, who was a member of the James Committee, has reiterated the case for university schools of education, in order to end the conflict and ambiguity between 'academic respectability' and 'professional competence' that affect the teaching profession. Judge suggests the "schools of education . . . have it in their power, as no-one else has, to contribute to the resolution of that ambiguity . . ." by having the means "of linking the work of teachers with the university and contributing to the elevation of their professional status as of their professional competence."(8)

There has been, therefore, a strong and official demand for the creation of a regional but unified administrative structure for teacher education. The James Report was particularly explicit: "the case for the new regional body is, in our view, established beyond all reasonable doubt."(9)

The first recommendation from this present inquiry is to support in principle the attainment of a unified administrative structure for teacher education. The present separation of the UDEs and the public sector institutions involved in initial and inservice education for teachers is restricting the development of a unified teaching profession, which will affect not only the status and morale of the teachers but the quality of the education service and the careers of pupils in the schools. This separation may also be wasteful in terms of manpower and other resources.

The serious and committed involvement of the universities in this integrated enterprise is crucially important. For this reason the preferred model is that of the University School of Education (rather than the RCCDE), which would be identical to the university schools in medicine and dentistry. Most of all, if the teaching profession

is to be unified the academic status of some graduate members must be improved and this is more likely to be achieved through closer association with the university. It does, of course, have implications too for the nature and nomenclature of the teacher's qualification (discussed in the next sub-section in relation to the second recommendation).

However the major problem for any such unified organisation, whether it be a school of education or regional council, is the reconciliation of those distinctive interests associated with what the James Report called the academic/awarding functions and the professional/planning functions. At present the universities and the CNAA are given responsibility for the first set of functions and it is the DES, the LEAs and the teaching profession that have particular interests in the second. The dilemma for teacher education then is, of course, that whereas the universities and the CNAA possess the academic status and credibility, it is the Government, through the DES and the LEAs, that has the power and the control of both the teacher training numbers and the purse strings. In this situation one can but repeat the plea to all interested parties made by Shearman in his note of reservation in the Robbins Report: "what is needed . . . is that there should be give-and-take, cooperation and goodwill in the fullest measure . . . in the service of the teaching profession."(10)

Ultimately, all will depend on the will of the Government, not least in its willingness to re-establish this kind of regional administration for teacher education. There is some encouragement to be found in Annex B of the 1983 White Paper, where ACSET reports it is supporting the formation of Professional Committees that would have the kind of supervisory functions held formerly by the

Area Training Organisations. The Committees' constitution, structure and methods of working are intended to encourage the effective participation of the universities, CNAA, the teaching profession and the LEAs

> "The location and administrative base of the Committees and their relationship with a possible General Teaching Council are matters which require further consideration. ACSET proposes to offer advice on all these issues." (11)

Clearly, a proposal full of possibilities that will depend on the willing support of the various interest groups and, of course, the approval of the Secretary of State.

Recommendation 2 : The qualifications of the graduate, professionally trained teachers

Major interest groups at the national level have been concerned in recent years to find ways of improving the effectiveness of the two main initial training programmes in order to meet the needs of the schools and the intending teacher. The DES, HMI, UCET and CNAA have all contributed to this debate through the organisation of working parties, enquiries, conferences and the publication of reports and discussion papers.

Although both the BEd and degree/PGCE initial training qualifications normally take four years to complete and both comply with the graduate, professional training entry requirements to the teaching profession, there remains a very real difference in the status of the two groups as this research has shown.

In general terms the PGCE qualified teacher is frequently regarded as having devoted too little time to professional training, consequently the HMI paper[12] on the content of initial training has recommended a 36 week model for the PGCE course. The BEd graduate, however, is more generally identified as having a relatively limited academic background, as a result of inferior GCE 'A' level qualifications and an initial training programme in which not more than a half of the time is given to academic subject development.

This research has shown the perceived deficiencies associated with the BEd qualification to be much more significant and persistent than the weaknesses identified with the PGCE teacher. In effect, the BEd teacher's relatively low academic status compares unfavourably with the PGCE teacher's relatively high academic status, a distinction which has become a major determinant of the type of teaching appointment and career opportunities the schools make available to the teachers and, in future, the criterion DES will use to identify the type of school in which they may teach.

This demarcation in the perceived quality of the two initial training qualifications is the predominant source of the continuing rift in the teaching profession, with the BEd teachers firmly entrenched among the lower ranks in the hierarchy of graduate recruits to teaching. Many have clearly not accepted the assumptions of McNamara and Ross in their 1982 report on the BEd degree and its future:

> "One of the features of the story chronicled in this study is the increasing professional orientation of BEd programmes. With the move from the certificate to the degree it was deemed necessary to establish the academic credibility of the new award. This having been done . . . It is noteworthy that many of the revisions now being planned feature this increased professional orientation." (13)

Rather more representative of the evidence compiled in this research, particularly the general comments provided by the thirty headteachers, is the article in 1981 by Lodge[14] in which, under the heading 'Degree of uncertainty' he enquires if the BEd is doomed. Lodge points to the very poor recruitment to BEd courses in recent years, the limited marketability of the degree for other professions, and its failure to guarantee employment even in teaching. He shows too how the DES has been able to take advantage of the unpopularity of the BEd by imposing contraction, even closure, on those institutions which have failed to meet their allocated recruitment targets. Meanwhile the PGCE courses in both the universities and the public sector institutions have a supply of applicants that exceeds their prescribed targets. At least the PGCE intending teacher who fails to obtain a teaching appointment has the consolation of an arts or science degree that is normally much more acceptable to other prospective employers.

The inferior status of the BEd degree in relation to other first degrees has a further and very serious implication for education in the public sector. The recent White Paper's projected admissions figures show that 94% of the students expected to enrol for the BEd degree in 1985 will be on courses validated by the CNAA. It is conceivable that such a strong association between the BEd qualification and the CNAA will not only harm the public image of the Council but also the credibility of the many other qualifications to which it has given its approval, as Bernbaum et al[15] have suggested.

The second recommendation is, therefore, that the BEd degree should be withdrawn as a qualification for intending teachers.

As the professional degree for teaching its limited credibility as an academic qualification renders it relatively inferior to the arts and science first degrees with PGCE. Consequently by failing to match the status of this alternative graduate route into teaching it has effectively maintained the long-standing division within the teaching profession.

Whereas the BA and BSc titles normally represent different but equivalent academic strengths, the very nomenclature 'BEd' now symbolises inferior academic status. Evidence of this differentiation is demonstrated in the way the BEd graduates are (i) employed in less prestigious teaching roles in schools; (ii) evaluated by a cross-section of headteachers in relation to their strengths and weaknesses; and (iii) regarded as having less subject knowledge by the DES in the 1983 White Paper. Only by removing the BEd nomenclature and requiring intending teachers to complete an arts or science degree will this division in academic status disappear.

Given that DES would wish to continue with the BEd formula of a four-year, more concurrent structure, the alternative model of a BA or BSc with a concurrent four-year Certificate in Education, as presented in the HMI paper[16] on the content of initial training, has many advantages.

By enabling the intending teacher to complete an arts or science degree over four years it provides the academic credibility so lacking in the BEd qualification. At the same time the four-year Certificate in Education component, which will account for about one-third of the total four-year programme, will provide an opportunity for the development of professional competence over an extended period, and therefore has advantages over the present three-term PGCE course.

For these reasons this alternative model should meet more adequately the academic and professional needs of the newly qualified teacher and the schools, and will provide intending teachers with a degree which is marketable outside teaching.

From the perspective of this research it should provide both primary and secondary teachers with an academic and professional qualification that is commensurate in status with the three year degree plus PGCE qualification and thereby provide the basis for building a teaching profession that is no longer divided by initial qualifications.

Both recommendations, if they are to be implemented, require the Government to share the concern expressed in this research in relation to the harmful consequences of maintaining a divided profession. Harmful, that is, not only for the teachers, but the pupils they teach, the schools and the wider communities they serve.

The contraction in the size of the teacher education system, both in terms of the number of institutions and the teachers being trained, provides the Government with an excellent opportunity to re-build that system in a much more integrated form, if it has the political will.

(c) FURTHER RESEARCH

This final section affords the opportunity to take a retrospective view at this inquiry to suggest some changes that might profitably be made if one were starting again. Additionally, one may look ahead to suggest some possible topics for research arising from this inquiry.

Looking back, if it had been possible, some briefing of the students before they left college would have been helpful. Not only would this have alerted them to the follow-up that would take place but it may also have enabled a more reliable contact to be maintained with each student, thereby eliminating the need to refer to the DES and the LEAs for sometimes unreliable information about each former student's teaching appointment.

This preliminary and more personal contact should also enable some measure of the students' attitudes to be taken at the pre-service stage, particularly in relation to variables such as the nature and strength of their commitment to teaching, and their perceived career prospects as 'academics' or 'professionals', so that a more precise measure of any change when they are teaching may be obtained.

In the follow-up questionnaire to the secondary teachers some indication of the subject staffing resources in relation to the number of pupils to be taught in the teacher's particular area would have been helpful as a guide to the competition the teacher is experiencing to obtain the more prestigious teaching roles in that department.

Having obtained a quantitative measure of the teachers' continuing professional education from the total attendance at inservice courses a much clearer interpretation of this variability would have been possible if, in addition, a more qualitative response had been obtained from the teachers indicating, for example, their attitude to inservice training; the availability of suitable courses; and the support given by the school and LEA to continuing professional education. However, to make this an in-depth enquiry of INSET would necessarily

have been a separate study.

Looking forward to possible research opportunities arising from this inquiry it would be informative to compare the findings recorded here with a replication of this study in another institution. For example, PGCE and BEd graduates who have completed programmes validated by a university. The combination even of different institutions might produce some interesting comparisons, for example, public sector graduates with the PGCE qualification and BEd graduates with the university approved award.

A modification of this general follow-up study could be usefully applied in the more specific context of particular subject areas of the curriculum. For example, a more intensive focus on a subject normally taught by BEd and PGCE teachers in the secondary school should provide interesting insights into the comparative teaching responsibilities of the PGCE and BEd graduates, particularly if the PGCE teacher has a Pass degree and the BEd graduate a First Class Honours award.

So far as the particular research reported here is concerned it is hoped to continue following-up the teachers as their careers progress and develop. By adopting this longitudinal approach it will be possible to map their careers, assess their relative status over time, taking account of the changing external forces that will affect their careers and impinge on the education system as a whole. Above all, it should be possible to deduce if the PGCE and BEd graduates continue to represent a division in the teaching profession, or whether the present demarcation will become increasingly blurred with time. Nevertheless, the findings of this research, when considered with the remaining literature on the teaching profession in England and Wales, will give sufficient weight to the recommendations in this chapter.

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

PRE-SERVICE PROFILE

BEd STUDENTS

CODE

1. Case number:

2. BEd Year: 19 - 19

3. (i) Surname:
   (ii) Forename(s):

4. Address:

5. (i) Date of birth:
   (ii) Age when leaving College (in years):

6. Single - Married:

7. GCE Advanced Level results:

	Subject	Grade
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		
(iv)		
(v)		

8. Other qualifications:

   (i)
   (ii)

9. Full-time employment (if any):

	Type	Duration
(i)		
(ii)		

10. Length of College course: 2 - 3 - 4 years

11. Age-band course: I - J - M - S

12. Certificate in Education results:

	Subject	Grade
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		

13. Final Teaching Practice result: A - B - C

14. Degree main subject:

15. Degree result: Honours: Classification

    Pass:

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

PRE-SERVICE PROFILE

PGCE STUDENTS

CODE

1. Case number:

2. PGCE Year: 19 - 19

3. (i) Surname:
   (ii) Forename(s):

4. Address:

5. (i) Date of birth:
   (ii) Age when leaving College (in years):

6. Single - Married:

7. GCE Advanced Level results:

	Subject	Grade
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		
(iv)		
(v)		

8. University or Polytechnic attended:

9. Degree subject(s):

10. Degree result: Honours: Classification:
    Pass

11. Other degrees or qualifications:
    (i)
    (ii)

12. Full-time employment (if any):

	Type	Duration
(i)		
(ii)		

13. Age-band course: I - J - M - S

14. PGCE result:

	Subject/Method Course	Grade
(i)		
(ii)		
(iii)		

15. Final Teaching Practice result: A - B - C - D

THE UNIVERSITY
OF ASTON
IN BIRMINGHAM

Education/RCW/VG

Gosta Green, Birmingham B4 7ET/Tel: 021.359 3611 Ex 534

The Department of Educational Enquiry

Professor of Education and Head of Department:
Professor R C Whitfield BSc, PhD, MA, MEd, FRIC

9th May, 1977.

Dear

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

The Department of Education and Science, the University of Aston and the Crewe and Alsager College of Higher Education are co-operating in an investigation of the role and responsibilities of teachers who have recently qualified and are at an early stage in their careers. The teachers in the sample are all former students of the Crewe and Alsager College(s), who completed their professional training between 1973 and 1976 and who have since begun teaching. Among other things we are concerned about the mis-match between courses of preparation for intending teachers, and the professional activities and problems which confront teachers at the start of their careers. It is essential, therefore, to obtain an accurate definition of the kinds of things teachers are expected to do in the early years of their teaching careers.

We do hope you will co-operate in this enquiry by completing the enclosed questionnaire (which should take about 20 minutes) and then returning it in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope by 31st May, 1977. We do assure you that your reply will be held in the strictest confidence and that neither the D.E.S. nor any other person will be informed about individual cases.

You will understand how important your co-operation is for the successful completion of this study; a high level of returns is essential for the study to be representative. While we cannot claim that the study will immediately help your own career, we would not be mounting it if we did not feel that it can be constructive in the training and development of the profession. Our grateful thanks in anticipation of your support.

Yours sincerely,

Kingsley Evans.

T. Kingsley Evans, (Head of Education & Professional Studies, Crewe & Alsager College)

Richard C. Whitfield

Richard C. Whitfield, (Professor of Education).

Telex 336997

UNIVERSITY OF ASTON IN BIRMINGHAM

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ENQUIRY

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE - CONFIDENTIAL

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

TEACHER'S NAME: _____ 1-3

SECTION A : PRESENT TEACHING POST

1. TYPE OF SCHOOL : Please tick as appropriate 4

NURSERY AND/OR INFANT	
JUNIOR	
PRIMARY	
MIDDLE (Age-band: _____)	
SECONDARY MODERN	
COMPREHENSIVE (Age-band: _____)	
GRAMMAR AND/OR TECHNICAL	
DIRECT GRANT	
INDEPENDENT (Age-band: _____)	
OTHER (Specify: _____)	

2. PRESENT TEACHING ROLE : Please tick as appropriate 5

(a) GENERAL SUBJECTS TEACHER	
(b) SUBJECT SPECIALIST TEACHER	

If the answer is (b) please specify your specialist subject(s):

(i) _____ 6,7

(ii) _____ 8,9

3. PRESENT TEACHING SUBJECTS : If you specialised in either one or two subjects during your professional training course in college are you now teaching the same subject(s) in your present school? Please tick as appropriate 10

I DID NOT SPECIALISE IN MAIN SUBJECT(S) DURING TRAINING	
I TOOK ONE SUBJECT WHICH I AM TEACHING	
I TOOK ONE SUBJECT WHICH I AM NOT TEACHING	
I TOOK TWO SUBJECTS AND I AM TEACHING BOTH SUBJECTS	
I TOOK TWO SUBJECTS AND I AM TEACHING ONE OF THESE	
I TOOK TWO SUBJECTS NEITHER OF WHICH I AM TEACHING	

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

4. CHANGE OF TEACHING SUBJECT(S): If you are no longer teaching the subject(s) in which you specialised during professional training please tick as appropriate to indicate the most important reason for this change. (One tick only please) 11

- IT WAS MY DECISION TO CHANGE MY TEACHING SUBJECT(S) ☐
- I WAS REQUIRED BY MY SCHOOL TO CHANGE MY SUBJECT(S) AFTER MY APPOINTMENT ☐
- IT WAS NECESSARY TO CHANGE MY SUBJECT(S) TO OBTAIN THIS TEACHING POST ☐
- OTHER REASON (SPECIFY: ..... ☐
  .....) ☐
- I TEACH THE SUBJECT(S) FOR WHICH I WAS TRAINED ☐

5. SCHOOL AGE-BAND: Are you teaching the pupil age-band for which you were professionally trained in college? Please tick as appropriate. 12

YES ☐
NO ☐

If your answer is NO please tick as appropriate to indicate the most important reason for your change of age-band. (One tick only please) 13

- TO EXTEND MY TEACHING EXPERIENCE ☐
- TO IMPROVE MY JOB-SATISFACTION IN TEACHING ☐
- TO OBTAIN A TEACHING APPOINTMENT ☐
- TO IMPROVE PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES ☐
- BECAUSE OF PERSONAL CIRCUMSTANCES ☐
- OTHER REASON (Specify: _____) ☐

SECTION B : TEACHING PROGRAMME

6. AVAILABLE TEACHING TIME : How much time is there normally available for teaching in your school during a five-day week (ie normal school hours from Monday to Friday less the time officially allowed for non-teaching activities such as registration, assemblies, break-times etc.)? Please give your answer in hours and minutes.

TOTAL TEACHING TIME IN SCHOOL (per 5 day week) ☐ hrs. ☐ mins. 14-16

7. YOUR TEACHING TIME : How much time are you officially timetabled to teach during the five-day school week? Please give your answer in hours and minutes.

MY TOTAL TEACHING TIME (per 5 day week) ☐ hrs. ☐ mins. 17-19

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

8. DISTRIBUTION OF YOUR TEACHING TIME : Please complete the following table to show how your official teaching time is distributed among the different age-groups in your school.

AGE-GROUP IN YEARS	TOTAL TEACHING TIME I SPEND WITH THE AGE-GROUP IN THE 5-DAY WEEK		
	HOURS	MINUTES	
3-4			20-23
4-5 (ie TOP NURSERY)			24-27
5-6			28-31
6-7 (ie TOP INFANTS)			
7-8			
8-9			
9-10			
10-11 (ie TOP JUNIOR)			
11-12			
12-13			
13-14			
14-15			
15-16			
16-17 (ie LOWER SIXTH)			
17-18 (ie UPPER SIXTH)			
18-19 (ie 3rd YEAR SIXTH)			

9. Please complete the following table to show how your official teaching time is distributed among the ability groups in your school.

ABILITY GROUP	TOTAL TEACHING TIME I SPEND WITH THE ABILITY GROUP IN THE 5-DAY WEEK		
	HOURS	MINUTES	
ABOVE AVERAGE ABILITY			32-34
AVERAGE ABILITY			35-37
BELOW AVERAGE ABILITY			38-40
REMEDIAL			41-43
MIXED ABILITY			44-46

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

10. EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS : Do pupils in your school take external examinations (eg GCE 'O' level; Eleven-plus)? Please tick as appropriate 47

YES ☐

NO ☐

If the answer is YES please enter alongside the relevant examination(s) the total time per week you are timetabled to teach the examination group(s) in the final year of their examination course (ie the academic year in which the pupils take the examination).

EXTERNAL EXAMINATION	TOTAL TEACHING TIME I SPEND WITH THE EXTERNAL EXAMINATION GROUP IN THE 5-DAY WEEK		
	HOURS	MINUTES	
1. GCE 'A' LEVEL			48-50
2. GCE 'O' LEVEL			51-53
3. CSE			54-56
4. ELEVEN-PLUS			
OTHERS (specify below)	———	———	
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			

11. EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES : Does your school provide extra-curricular activities for pupils (eg societies, clubs including sport)? Please tick as appropriate. 57

YES ☐

NO ☐

If the answer is YES please give details of your involvement in these activities outside the normal timetable. If you are <u>not involved</u> write NIL in the right-hand column of the following table.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN WHICH I AM INVOLVED	ESTIMATED AMOUNT OF TIME I DEVOTE TO EACH ACTIVITY IN THE 5-DAY WEEK (OUTSIDE THE NORMAL TIMETABLE)		58-60
	HOURS	MINUTES	
1. SPORT/GAMES (Specify)			
2. OTHERS (Specify)			

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

12. OTHER RESPONSIBILITIES : If you have any other official responsibility in your school please tick as appropriate and specify the nature of this responsibility. 61

I HAVE NO OTHER OFFICIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN MY SCHOOL: ☐

I HAVE OTHER ACADEMIC RESPONSIBILITIES: ☐

(SPECIFY: _____)

I HAVE PASTORAL-GUIDANCE RESPONSIBILITIES: ☐

(SPECIFY: _____)

I HAVE RESPONSIBILITIES OTHER THAN ACADEMIC/PASTORAL-GUIDANCE: ☐

(SPECIFY: _____)

13. How satisfied are you with the teaching role you have in your present school? Please tick as appropriate. 62

VERY SATISFIED ☐

SATISFIED ☐

NOT SATISFIED ☐

If your answer is <u>either</u> VERY SATISFIED <u>or</u> NOT SATISFIED please give <u>not more than three reasons</u> for your attitude, beginning with the most important reason.

(i) _____ 63,64

(ii) _____ 65,66

(iii) _____ 67,68

<u>SECTION C : TEACHING EXPERIENCE, FURTHER TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS</u>

14. TEACHING EXPERIENCE : Please give details of the teaching appointment(s) you have obtained <u>since completing your professional training</u> in college. 69 70

NAME OF SCHOOL	PUPIL AGE-RANGE	FULL OR PART TIME	DATES FROM	DATES TO	STATUS: (SCALE 1,2,3 or 4; Senior tr; Dep. Head)

71,72 73

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

15. IN-SERVICE TRAINING : Please give details of any in-service course(s) which you have attended since completing your professional training in college, expressing the duration in days or weeks or months etc. as most appropriate. If you have not attended an in-service course write NONE in the left-hand column. 74 75

COURSE TITLE	FULL OR PART TIME	DURATION OF COURSE				
		DAY(S)	WEEK(S)	MONTH(S)	TERM(S)	YEAR

16. FURTHER QUALIFICATIONS : Please give details of any further qualification(s) you have obtained since completing your professional training. If you have not obtained a further qualification write NONE in the left-hand column.

QUALIFICATION	DATE OF AWARD

76

17. FURTHER STUDY : If you are studying at present for a further qualification please give details. If you are not studying for a qualification write NONE in the left-hand column.

QUALIFICATION	EXPECTED COMPLETION DATE

77

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

SECTION D : FUTURE PLANS

18. CAREER PLANS : Please tick as appropriate to indicate your future career plans. (One tick only) 78

- TO ACHIEVE MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY IN A SCHOOL
- TO CONTINUE AS A TEACHER IN SCHOOL
- TO TEACH IN FURTHER OR HIGHER EDUCATION
- TO BECOME AN ADVISER OR INSPECTOR
- TO DO OTHER EDUCATIONAL WORK (SPECIFY: _____)
- TO FIND EMPLOYMENT OUTSIDE EDUCATION
- UNCERTAIN AT PRESENT

19. If it is your intention to continue in the education service please tick as appropriate to indicate where you will be seeking promotion, if at all. 79

- I WILL SEEK PROMOTION IN OTHER LEAs IF NECESSARY
- I WILL SEEK PROMOTION BUT ONLY WITHIN MY PRESENT LEA
- I WILL SEEK PROMOTION BUT ONLY WITHIN MY PRESENT SCHOOL
- I WILL NOT BE SEEKING PROMOTION

20. COMMITMENT TO TEACHING : Please tick as appropriate to indicate the change, if any, in the strength of your commitment to a career in teaching since completing your professional training in college. 80

- MY COMMITMENT HAS INCREASED
- MY COMMITMENT HAS DECREASED
- MY COMMITMENT HAS NOT CHANGED

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.
PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED
QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE STAMPED
ADDRESSED ENVELOPE.

THE UNIVERSITY
OF ASTON
IN BIRMINGHAM

Education/RCW/VG

Gosta Green, Birmingham B4 7ET/Tel: 021.359 3611 Ex 534

The Department of Educational Enquiry

Professor of Education and Head of Department:
Professor R C Whitfield BSc, PhD, MA, MEd, FRIC

9th May, 1977.

Dear Headteacher,

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

The decision to reduce the size of the initial teacher training programme has been accompanied by a demand to evaluate the content and effectiveness of courses of teacher training. Somewhat surprisingly however there is little factual evidence to inform the present debate or to provide guidelines for the planning of future courses of teacher education and training.

With the support of the Department of Education and Science, my department, in conjunction with the Crewe and Alsager College of Higher Education, is conducting an enquiry into the matching of the professional training with the early teaching careers of over 500 recent entrants into the profession. While the professional training records of the teachers included in the sample are available, we depend upon your assistance to compile the record of the teacher's status and role-performance in the school situation. Your professional judgement of the teacher's qualities in the school and classroom is vitally important for the successful completion of the study.

We do hope, therefore, that you will give this enquiry your support by completing the enclosed short questionnaire which should not take more than 10 minutes. Please return it in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope by 31st May, 1977. The name of the teacher on your staff who is one of the subjects of this inquiry and located with the assistance of the D.E.S., is shown near the top of the questionnaire. You are assured that your responses will be held in the strictest confidence, and that the D.E.S. will not be informed about individual cases.

We should like to thank you in anticipation of your support, and though we cannot claim that this study will immediately help your school, we should not be mounting it if we did not feel that it will be constructive in the development of the profession. It is hoped to publish the overall results in due course in the Times Educational Supplement and the British Journal of Teacher Education.

Yours sincerely,

Richard C. Whitfield

Professor R.C. Whitfield.

P.S. If your school is a large one, and you feel that a senior colleague is in a better position than yourself to respond with respect to the named teacher, please feel free to delegate this matter. Thankyou.

Telex 336997

UNIVERSITY OF ASTON IN BIRMINGHAM

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ENQUIRY

STUDY OF CAREERS IN TEACHING

HEADTEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE - CONFIDENTIAL

STATUS OF RESPONDENT IF NOT HEADTEACHER: _____

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

TEACHER'S NAME: _____ 1-3

SECTION A : THE SCHOOL

1. LOCATION : Please tick as appropriate 4

RURAL	☐
URBAN	☐
SUBURBAN	☐

2. CATCHMENT AREA : SOCIAL COMPOSITION
Please tick as appropriate 5

MAINLY MIDDLE CLASS (ie professional, non-manual occupations)	☐
MAINLY WORKING CLASS (ie skilled/unskilled manual occupations)	☐
A BALANCE OF MIDDLE AND WORKING CLASSES	☐

3. NUMBER OF PUPILS ON ROLL : Please write in the spaces the number of pupils in your school at the beginning of the Summer Term, 1977

BOYS	☐	6-9
GIRLS	☐	10-13
TOTAL	☐	14-17

4. AGE RANGE OF PUPILS IN YOUR SCHOOL
Please circle the lowest and highest ages: 18,19

03,04,05,06,07,08,09,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19 20,21

5. NUMBER OF STAFF : Please write in the space the number of full-time equivalent teachers in your school at the beginning of the Summer Term, 1977

NUMBER OF STAFF (F.T. equivalent) ☐ 22-24

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

SECTION B : THE TEACHER

6. PRESENT STATUS OF THE TEACHER : Please tick as appropriate 25

- SCALE 1 ☐
- SCALE 2 ☐
- SCALE 3 ☐
- SCALE 4 ☐
- SENIOR TEACHER ☐
- DEPUTY HEADTEACHER ☐
- OTHER (specify: ☐

_____)

7. THE TEACHER'S PRESENT TEACHING ROLE
Please tick as appropriate 26

(a) GENERAL SUBJECTS TEACHER
(b) SUBJECT SPECIALIST TEACHER

If the answer is (b) please specify the specialist subject(s)

(i) _____ 27,28

(ii) _____ 29,30

8. CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS : Arranged below are scales for teacher classroom performance. Please enter in the appropriate space a score from 1 to 5 for your assessment of the teacher on each scale.

(i) KINDLY AND UNDERSTANDING	1 2 3 4 5	ALOOF AND INTOLERANT	☐ 31
(ii) SYSTEMATIC AND BUSINESSLIKE	1 2 3 4 5	UNPLANNED AND DISORGANIZED	☐ 32
(iii) STIMULATING AND IMAGINATIVE	1 2 3 4 5	DULL AND ROUTINE	☐ 33
(iv) ABLE TO TEACH SUBJECT MATTER	1 2 3 4 5	UNABLE TO TEACH SUBJECT MATTER	☐ 34
(v) OUTSTANDINGLY SUPERIOR TEACHER	1 2 3 4 5	NOTABLY POOR TEACHER	☐ 35

9. EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES : Please tick as appropriate the extent of the teacher's involvement in extra-curricular activities. 36

- HIGH INVOLVEMENT ☐
- AVERAGE INVOLVEMENT ☐
- LOW INVOLVEMENT ☐
- NO INVOLVEMENT ☐

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

10. OTHER RESPONSIBILITIES : Please list other significant responsibilities, if any, which the teacher has in your school. 37

NONE ☐

ACADEMIC (specify: _____) ☐

PASTORAL (specify: _____) ☐

OTHER (specify: _____) ☐

11. GENERAL PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES : Please tick as appropriate to indicate your assessment of the teacher for each quality.

(i) RELIABILITY:	GOOD ☐	AVERAGE ☐	POOR ☐	38
(ii) CONSCIENTIOUSNESS:	GOOD ☐	AVERAGE ☐	POOR ☐	39
(iii) COOPERATION WITH COLLEAGUES:	GOOD ☐	AVERAGE ☐	POOR ☐	40
(iv) PUNCTUALITY:	GOOD ☐	AVERAGE ☐	POOR ☐	41

12. COMMITMENT TO TEACHING : Please tick as appropriate to indicate your estimation of the teacher's commitment to a career in teaching. 42

STRONG COMMITMENT ☐

AVERAGE COMMITMENT ☐

WEAK COMMITMENT ☐

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.
PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE STAMPED ADDRESSED ENVELOPE.

LIST OF VARIABLES

The Pre-service variables, In-service: Prestige variables, and the In-service: Esteem variables are shown in three separate lists below. Each list is sub-divided into the variable label and variable name in the form entered on the SPSS control cards for this research.

(a) PRE-SERVICE VARIABLES

Variable Label	Variable Name
Qualification route (BEd or PGCE)	QUAL
Year group: 1972-73; 1973-74; 1974-75; 1975-76.	YEAR
Sex of teacher	SEX
Age (in years) when leaving college	AGE
Marital status at college	MRST
Employment experience (A)	EMPLOYA
Employment experience (B)	EMPLOYB
Number of GCE 'A' level passes	NOALEVEL
Average GCE 'A' level grade	AVAGRAD
Degree classification	DEGCLASS
Degree subject (A)	DEGSUBA
Degree subject (B)	DEGSUBB
Degree subject (C)	DEGSUBC
Institution attended for the degree	INSTIT
Higher degree (if any)	HIDEG
Higher education experience (in years)	HEDYRS
Other qualification (A)	OTHQUALA
Other qualification (B)	OTHQUALB
Ageband training course	AGEBAND
Method course (A)	METHODA

Variable Label	Variable Name
Method course (B)	METHODB
Final assessment of professional theory (grade)	ASSTHY
Final assessment of teaching practice (grade)	ASSTP

(b) IN-SERVICE : PRESTIGE VARIABLES

Variable Label	Variable Name
School type where employed	SCHLTYP
Locality of the school	LOCAL
Socio-economic status of the locality	SOCCLLOC
Number of boys in the school	NOBOY
Number of girls in the school	NOGIRL
Total number of pupils in the school	TOTPUPIL
Pupil age-range in the school	PUPAGES
Number of teaching staff in the school	NOSTAFF
Present role: specialist or generalist (Teacher's reply)	ROLE
Present role: specialist or generalist (Head's reply)	ROLEH
Teaching subject (A) : (Teacher's reply)	TEASUBAT
Teaching subject (A) : (Head's reply)	TEASUBAH
Teaching subject (B) : (Teacher's reply)	TEASUBBT
Teaching subject (B) : (Head's reply)	TEASUBBH
Subject change since college	SUBJCHAN
Reason for subject change	REASSUCH
Ageband change since leaving college	AGECHAN
Reason for ageband change	REASAGCH
Total hours teaching per week	TOTHRTEA
Age-group teaching : group A (most time)	AGEGRPA
Hours teaching group A	HRSGRPA

Variable Label	Variable Name
Above-average ability teaching in hours	ABOVAVHR
Average ability teaching in hours	AVHR
Below-average ability teaching in hours	BELOAVHR
Remedial teaching in hours	REMEDHR
Mixed-ability teaching in hours	MIXABHR
External exam. teaching (A): (Highest level taught)	EXTEXTEA
External exam. (course A) teaching hours	EXTEXHRA
External exam. teaching (B): (Second highest level taught)	EXTEXTEB
External exam. (course B) teaching hours	EXTEXHRB
External exam. teaching (C): (third highest level taught)	EXTEXTEC
External exam. (course C) teaching hours	EXTEXHRC
Other official responsibilities (Teacher's reply)	OTHOFRES
Other official responsibilities (Head's reply)	OTHRESH
Present status of teacher (Teacher's reply)	PRESSTAT
Present status of teacher (Head's reply)	PRESSTAH

(c) IN-SERVICE : ESTEEM VARIABLES

Variable Label	Variable Name
Kindly or aloof (5 point scale)	KINDALOF
Systematic or unplanned (5 point scale)	SYSTUNPL
Stimulating or dull (5 point scale)	STIMDULL
Ability to teach subject matter (5 point scale)	TEACSUBJ
Outstanding or very poor teacher (5 point scale)	OUTSPOOR
Reliability (3 point scale)	RELIAB
Conscientiousness (3 point scale)	CONSCIEN
Co-operation with colleagues (3 point scale)	COOPCOLL

Variable Label	Variable Name
Punctuality (3 point scale)	PUNCT
Commitment to teaching (Teacher's reply)	TEACCOMT
Teacher's commitment to teaching (Head's reply)	TEACCOMH
Extra-curricular activity time (Teacher's reply)	CURACHRS
Teacher's extra-curricular involvement (Head's reply)	INCURACH
Teacher's role satisfaction/dissatisfaction	ROLESAT
Main reason(s) for satisfaction/dissatisfaction	REASSATA
Teaching experience in different schools	EXPNOSCH
Teaching experience in different ageband schools	EXPNOAGE
Number of in-service courses attended	NOINSCOU
Total time spent on in-service training	TOTINSTR
Further qualifications obtained since college	FURQUAL
Further study undertaken since college	FURSTUDY
Teacher's career plans	CAREPLAN
Teacher's preferred promotion route	PROMROUT

January, 1980

Dear Headteacher,

Initial Training Programmes for Graduate Teachers

Schools Inquiry

With a declared commitment to an all-graduate teaching profession, it is currently assumed by the DES that in the 1980s about half the estimated annual input to the teaching force will be trained by the BEd route and the remainder by the PGCE route.

As part of an evaluation of graduate teachers it would be most helpful to have your views of BEd and PGCE trainees as observed within the school situation.

This is a brief inquiry and should not take more than fifteen minutes to complete. I would be most grateful if you could find this time to provide the required information on the enclosed questionnaire. A stamped addressed envelope is provided for your reply.

If you should require more information do please contact me and, if necessary, I will arrange to meet you in school to discuss the project in more detail.

Thank you in anticipation of your help.

Yours sincerely,

T. K. Evans,
Head of Educational and Professional Studies,
Crewe+Alsager College of H.E.

INITIAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR GRADUATE TEACHERS:

SCHOOLS INQUIRY

PLEASE LEAVE BLANK

SCHOOL: _____

AGE RANGE OF PUPILS: _____

LOCALITY OF SCHOOL: Rural or Urban/Suburban (delete)

1. With an all-graduate recruitment to the teaching profession do you consider the four-year BEd and PGCE trained teachers are equivalent in:

   (a) ACADEMIC STATUS? Yes/No (delete)

   (b) PROFESSIONAL STATUS? Yes/No (delete)

2. If there are academic and/or professional differences between the BEd and PGCE recruits what do you consider are the major strengths and weaknesses of

   (a) the BEd trained teacher?

   (b) the PGCE trained teacher?

   (a) The BEd teacher:

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES

   (b) The PGCE teacher:

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES

PTO

3. When allocating teaching duties in your school would you have a preference for the BEd or PGCE trained teacher in the following roles?

(a) Teaching above-average ability pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference*

(b) Teaching average ability pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(c) Teaching below-average ability pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(d) Teaching remedial pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(e) Teaching older pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(f) Teaching younger pupils: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(g) Subject specialist teacher: BEd/PGCE/No preference

(h) General subjects teacher: BEd/PGCE/No preference

*Please delete accordingly

4. If there are academic and/or professional differences between the BEd and PGCE trained teachers what are the implications of these differences:

(a) for programmes of INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING?

(b) for the particular needs of BEd and PGCE teachers within IN-SERVICE TRAINING?

(c) for the professional careers of BEd and PGCE trained teachers in schools?

5. Other comments (if any):

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

REFERENCES

Chapter 1

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2. DES (1973) The Educational System of England and Wales. p 7 HMSO.

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4. TIBBLE, J. W. (1971) The Universities; in HEWETT, S. (ed) (1971), The Training of Teachers: a factual survey. pp 56-67. University of London Press.

5. DENT, H. C. (1971) An Historical Perspective; in HEWETT, S. (ed) (1971), op.cit, pp 12-23.

6. BOARD OF EDUCATION (1904) Training of Teachers Regulations. pp vii and viii.

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9. Ibid. p 93.

10. DOBSON, J. L. (1973) The Training Colleges and their Successors, 1920-1970; in COOK, T. G. (1973), Education and the Professions, pp 49-67 Methuen.

11. BOARD OF EDUCATION (1944) Teachers and Youth Leaders (The McNair Report) p 45. HMSO.

12. Ibid. p 49.

13. BROWNE, J. D. (1979) Teachers of Teachers. p 70 Hodder and Stoughton.

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