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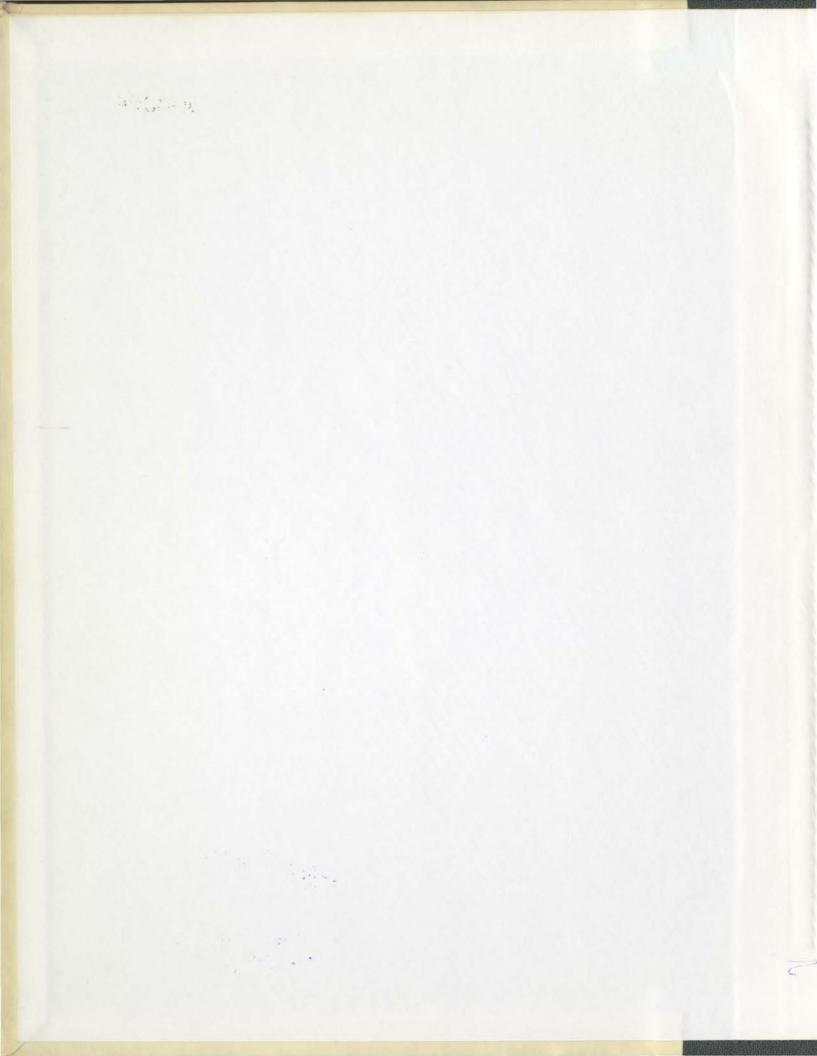THE PUPIL CONTROL ATTITUDES OF STUDENT-TEACHERS
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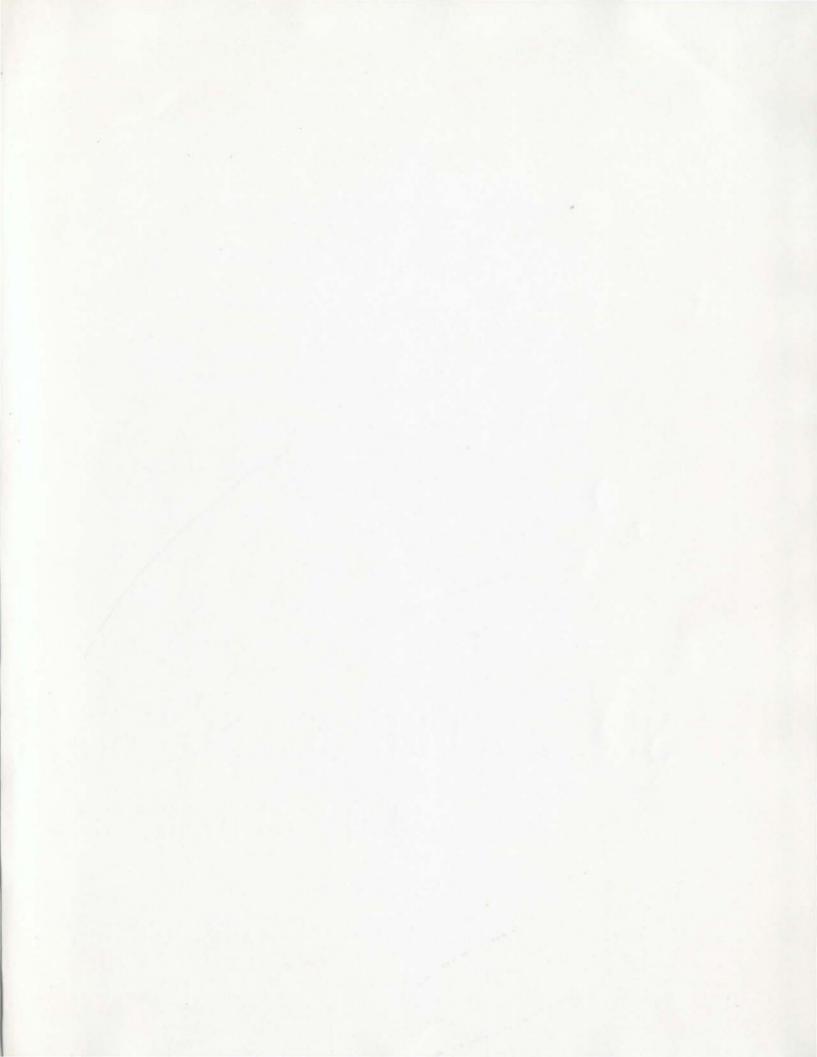
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DIFFERENCES IN PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY: AN ANALYSIS OF

THE PUPIL CONTROL ATTITUDES OF STUDENT-TEACHERS

AT MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

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A Thesis

Presented to

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Master of Education

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by

© Dorothy Jean Walker

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To Mom and Dad with fondest memories

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ABSTRACT

One of the most critical components of the competent teacher is his/her attitude toward children. All facets of teacher-training programs then, should be researched in terms of their effect on the attitudes of the participants. Because of the importance of these attitudes, this study focuses on a comparison between student-teachers in the first undergraduate year and those in the final undergraduate year of their preparation program, in an attempt to discover what attitudes toward pupil control are crystallized and/or developed by student-teachers during the training period.

The major problem of this study was to determine whether there were differences between the attitudes toward pupil control of junior and senior students in teacher-training, and to show the relationships between such differences of attitudes and certain situational factors or variables. It was hypothesized that the attitudes of junior (first year) student-teachers toward pupil control would be different from those of senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter would be more humanistic.

The 322 student-teachers who were randomly selected to participate in the study were requested to

complete two questionnaires dealing with certain aspects of pupil control. Form A of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument consisted of 20 items and the response categories were scored 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, on a continuum ranging from extreme custodialism to extreme humanism. Form B of the instrument contained 60 items and was used to measure other aspects of pupil control ideology not measured by Form A. On each form of the instrument, the lower the score obtained, the more humanistic the respondent was deemed to be.

As hypothesized, there were significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control of junior and senior student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter were much more humanistic, even when controlling for the variable, years of teaching experience.

The implications of this study are quite clear.. Student-teachers who had spent four or five years at Memorial University of Newfoundland had mellowed somewhat in their attitudes toward instruction and guidance of pupils at school, school discipline and general views on child psychology, when compared with student-teachers who were just starting their training at the institution. Thus, undergraduate training had a considerable impact upon the socialization of student-teachers with respect to their attitudes toward pupil control or their pupil control ideology.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

INTRODUCTION

A burgeoning society, whose expansive technology and spiralling material affluence precipitate social ferment and change at a rapid rate places stresses upon the fabric and framework of its institutions. Teacher education has been in a position to be acutely sensitive to these pressures, reflecting and responding to the cross-cultural currents and changing needs of a mobile population in a state of flux.

As a part of the effort to adjust to these needs and to meet the demands for increasingly higher levels of training and excellence, education as a process for learning and a vehicle for preparing teachers is being examined more closely than ever it has been in the past. The continuing search to determine what constitutes effective teaching has led to an increased appraisal of the goals and structure of teacher education programs and the self-evaluation incumbent upon the training institutions responsible.

As we labour in a system of free public education with the idealistic goal of educating every child from

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age six to sixteen, most educators recognize and are continually conscious of the fact that our success will be somewhat limited by the magnitude of the undertaking. As a consequence of our limited success, education suffers from an enormity of criticism, even from the ranks of its teachers.

The critics of education recognize no facet of the system to be innocent of their charges and the criticism touches all educators from the provincial Department of Education to the classroom teacher. When the criticism begins to descend on the classroom teacher, however, it lands most heavily upon their training institutions as indicated in this recent article:

> Sadly we must concur with our educational critics that we do have an absurdly antiquated educational system, unresponsive to mass social and techno- logical changes, and that teacher education serves as a major reinforcer of the stagnation and traditionalism permeating this system.[1]

Teachers respond to the need to control their pupils by developing their own classroom style. Some establish complex, ironclad rules of student classroom behaviour that are enforced in an impersonal detached manner. Others seek to establish a student-teacher rapport based on their knowledge of the individual student

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[1]Dwight W. Allen and Robert A. Mackin, "Toward '76: A Revolution in Teacher Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. LI, No. 9 (May, 1970), p. 485.

and general psychological and sociological concepts.
Evidence of these different student control approaches
may be seen in any classroom by even the most inexpert
observer.

Recent investigations have confirmed the fact that
teachers differ in their pupil control ideologies.
Furthermore, these beliefs have been found to differ
systematically according to a number of factors including
the age-grade organization of the school./ Comparisons
have been made between the pupil control ideologies of
teachers in elementary schools and those of teachers in
secondary schools;[2] also, between the pupil control ideol-
ogies of teachers in elementary and those in middle schools[3].
However, little has been done in this area with regard to
student-teachers, especially with reference to a comparison
between student-teachers in the first undergraduate year
and those in the final undergraduate year of their teacher
preparation program.

This study focuses on just such a comparison in
an attempt to discover what attitudes toward pupil control

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[2]Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K.
Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (Penn State
Studies, Monograph No. XXIV, University Park: Penn State
University Press, 1967), P. 53.

[3]Edward J. Leppert, "Pupil Control Ideology and
Teacher Personality" (unpublished doctoral dissertation,
Rutgers University, The State University of New Jersey,
1971), P. 50.

are crystallized and/or developed by student-teachers
during the teacher-training period. Basic to the study
is the realization that our educational system must con-
tinue to change to keep pace with the rapidly changing
world. Curricular and organizational changes, although
necessary, are hardly sufficient; change in the attitudes
of educational personnel, more specifically principals
and teachers, concerning pupils and the control of pupils'
behaviour is more crucial.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The Problem

The central problem of this study is to determine
the differences between the attitudes toward pupil control
of junior and senior students in teacher-training and to
show the relationships between such differences of attitudes
and certain situational factors or variables.

The Purposes

Specifically, the purposes of the study are:

(1) To investigate the differences between the
pupil control ideology of junior student-
teachers and that of senior student-teachers.

(2) To determine the attitudes towards pupil
control held by students at the beginning of
their teacher-training at Memorial University

of Newfoundland and to analyze these attitudes in relation to such background factors as:

(a) age and sex of student;

(b) size and type of school where the student received his/her elementary and secondary education;

(c) kind of education program which student has entered;

(d) amount of teaching experience student has had.

(3) To determine what student background factors are related to the pupil control ideology of fourth and fifth year student-teachers.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

One of the major difficulties faced by an institution engaged in the training of personnel for particular functions in society is that of acquainting the initiate with as firm a notion as possible of what his future role will entail. This training includes not only a knowledge of the skills and abilities required but also a set of attitudes that may be either implicitly or explicitly communicated by the training institution. Such attitudes are often critical determinants of the kinds of behaviours that attend later performance in the role.

To consciously develop this attitudinal aspect of

role is a subtle and demanding task and one that is, in many cases, largely ignored. Many training institutions concentrate on the skills involved and hope or assume that insights about role will develop in the socializing process that takes place during this skill training.

This would appear to be true of teacher-training institutions. It seems that in many programs very little feedback is systematically sought or obtained in regard to a student's attitudes about his or her role as a prospective teacher. Thus, attitude formation is either haphazardly or unconsciously accumulated during the various stages of training.

Teachers should learn to respond to children in such a way as to help them feel liked, wanted, acceptable, and able. Such response enables the children in our schools to regard themselves as persons of dignity and integrity, of worth and importance, and this is of paramount importance. As Arthur Coombs describes the development of a positive self, he makes quite clear the critical nature of the teacher's attitude toward children as he states:

> People <u>learn</u> who they are and what they are from
> the ways in which they have been treated by those
> who surround them in the process of growing up.
> People discover their self concepts from the kinds
> of experiences they have had with life; not from
> telling, but from experience. People develop
> feelings that they are liked, wanted, acceptable,

and able from having been liked, wanted, accepted,
and from having been successful. To produce a
positive self, it is necessary to provide
experiences that teach individuals that they
are positive people.[4]

Then too, Pupil Control Ideology appears as a
useful concept for viewing the ever present problem of
pupil control. The need for further research focusing
on pupil control has been cited by Willower.[5] Willower
and Jones noted this limitation in their study:

This reasearch, among other things, points to pupil
control as an integrative concept of some value in
studying educational organizations. However, we
have only scratched the surface. Further studies
which focus on pupil control in schools are needed
to reveal other useful integrative concepts.[6]

Eidell suggested that his Pupil Control Ideology (P.C.I.)
Form be employed along with other appropriate instruments
for future investigations of the problems of control,
indicating the potential fruitfulness of this conceptual
framework.[7]

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[4]Arthur W. Coombs, "A Perceptual View of the
Adequate Personality", a monograph distributed at the
Mott Colloquim, Southwestern High School, Flint, Michigan
(March 11, 1971), pp. 3-4.

[5]Donald J. Willower, "Hypotheses on the School as
a Social System", Educational Administration Quarterly,
Vol. I, No. 5 (Autumn, 1965), p. 40.

[6]Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "When
Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme", Phi Delta
Kappan, Vol. XLV, No. 2 (November, 1963), P. 109.

[7]Terry L. Eidell, "The Development and Test of a
Measure of the Pupil Control Ideology of Public School
Professional Staff Members" (Doctoral Thesis, Graduate
School, Department of Educational Services, The
Pennsylvania State University, 1965).

CONCEPTUAL REFERENCE

In order to gain clear insight into the meaning of the concepts and propositions central to the study, the basic terms must be defined in relationship to their use in this investigation. Throughout this study reference is made to attitudes, pupil control, control ideology, custodialism, humanism, social system, status, role, role expectations, and role performance. Further consideration of the major concepts presented will be provided in the theoretical framework and in the review of the literature.

While <u>attitudes</u> themselves are not the equivalents of behavioural action they can be thought of as motivational perceptual states which direct action. An <u>attitude</u> may be defined as a learned and relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation disposing a person toward some preferred response.[8] How an individual views his world and acts toward it can be understood in great measure through the attitudes that make up his psychological field.

<u>Pupil Control</u> refers to the process by which the behaviour of pupils is established, ordered, and

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[8]Milton Rokeach, <u>Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values</u> (San Francisco: Jassy-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1970), p. 112.

maintained within an organizational setting. Pupil con-
trol is derived from the concept of social control, and
Landis defines the latter as the process by which social
order is organized and maintained.[9] Thus, it can be
stated that pupil control is particular to educational
organizations.

Control Ideology refers to the attitudes held
by a superordinate role incumbent in a hierarchical
organizational setting in regard to the control of a
subordinate's behaviour. The performance of the role
incumbent toward his subordinates is dependent upon both
his personality and his behavioural expectation prescribed
by the organization.[10] Individual attitudes toward con-
trol, therefore, are related to the manner in which role
performance is expressed in the organization.

Custodialism refers to an ideological orientation
of teachers toward pupils and the school. Teachers who
hold a custodial orientation perceive the school as a
highly structured organization emphasizing rules and
regulations, social positioning or status differences
with little concern for individual needs and desires.

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[9]Paul H. Landis, Social Control (New York:
J. B. Lippincott Company, 1956), p. 4.

[10]Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social
Process", in Andrew W. Halpin (ed.) Administrative
Theory in Education (Chicago: Midwest Administration
Centre, University of Chicago, 1957), pp. 150-165.

Students are perceived as undisciplined persons who must be controlled through the impersonal mechanisms of punitive sanctions and an autocratic organization.[11]

Humanism refers to an ideological orientation of teachers which is the direct opposite of custodialism. Teachers holding a humanistic orientation perceive the school as a loosely structured organization that provides for individual needs while promoting a sense of task achievement and fulfillment of educational goals. Such teachers view with optimism the ability of their students to understand and control themselves in an atmosphere of close personal relationships, mutual respect, and friendship. They also encourage democratic behaviour in psychological and sociological terms,[12]

Social System refers to an organization or structure of society which is unified and consists of individuals and the interactions of individuals. Homans describes " . . . the activities, the interactions, and sentiments of group members, together with the mutual relations of these elements with one another during the time the group is active . . ." as a social system.[13]

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[11]Eidell, op. cit., p. 10.

[12]Ibid.

[13]George C. Homans, The Human Group (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1950),p. 87.

Getzels conceives of the social system as comprised of institutions (roles and expectations for goal fulfillment) and individuals (personality and needs disposition) the interactions of which are observed as social behaviour.[14] When a school is viewed as a social system, attention is given to the interactions of individuals within an integrated structure. The effects of each upon the other must be recognized.

Role and Status are two concepts fundamental to the analysis of a social structure.[15] The term status refers to a position described by ". . . a set of cultural definitions that specify how a person is supposed to perceive and respond to objects and people when he is in a particular relationship with them."[16] The term role refers to ". . . a set of expectations oriented toward people who occupy a certain 'position' in a social system or group."[17] An early, and somewhat classic discussion

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[14]Getzels, op. cit., p. 152.

[15]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), p. 368.

[16]Harry C. Bredemier and Richard M. Stephenson, The Analysis of Social Systems (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1962), p. 30.

[17]Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles - I", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. II (December, 1957), p. 282.

of these concepts is provided by Linton.[18]

Getzels views social systems in terms of two factors (the institution and the individual) and describes social behaviour as a result of the interaction of the two.[19] In this analysis role is said to be "The most important subunit of the institution...."[20]

An individual who occupies a position (status) is said to be a role incumbent. The behaviour of a role incumbent is referred to as his role performance. Role expectations, the obligations or responsibilities which are ascribed to a given position are the "institutional" controls over role performance. "Personal" factors, determined by the personality of the incumbent, are also determinants of role performance.[21] Thus, role performance is subject to control by both the expectations of the formal organization and by the particular role incumbent.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Human organizations with persons, offices, role

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[18]Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1936).

[19]Getzels, op. cit., p. 153.

[20]Ibid., p. 152.

[21]Ibid., pp. 154-156

expectations, may be defined as role systems and the process of socialization into an organization may be approached from a theory of roles.[22] Educational institutions are important organizations in the social system, therefore, a fruitful way of investigating teacher socialization and its administrative significance would be through a study of control in its relationship to roles.

Control as an Organizational Theme Related to Roles

Attitudes and role behaviour are dependent upon situational factors. These situational factors are dependent upon the nature and type of organization.

Human organizations exist in a social system. Organizations which exist to provide service to clients are designated service organizations, for example, the church, the school, the army, the medical profession, the hospital, the penitentiary, etc. These service organizations' relationships to the larger society can be compared and contrasted on the basis of two criteria, viz.:

1. The organization's control over the admission of clients to the organization, and

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[22]Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966).

2. the clients'' control over their partici-
pation in the organization.[23]

A major focus of this study is the socialization
of student-teachers with regard to pupil control ideology.

Control is an essential ingredient of all group
life, but it is salient in service organizations in
which clients are unselected and participation is manda-
tory. Carlson's typology of service organizations
identifies the public school as a "domesticated" organi-
zation. Domesticated organizations are those which have
no choice in the selection of their clients and whose
clients have no choice over their participation in the
organization. Additionally, these organizations are
assured continued existence by the society, a condition
which functions to produce hesitancy toward change and
also adaptive mechanisms to cope with the environment.
Schools as domesticated organizations are similar to
prisons and mental hospitals in certain respects, parti-
cularly their person-serving and person-changing nature
and their emphasis on client control as a response to
unselected and often unwilling clients.[24] However, schools'

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[23]Richard O. Carlson, "Environmental Constraints
and Organizational Consequences," in Daniel E. Griffiths,
(ed.), Behavioural Science and Educational Administration,
The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the
Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press,
1964), pp. 262-276.

[24]Ibid., p. 266.

differ from prisons and mental hospitals in that the latter are total institutions and the schools are not; furthermore, students may have control over their participation in the school, whereas prisoners and mental hospital patients may not have such control.

A classification of client control ideology employed by Gilbert and Levinson[25] to study staff ideology in mental hospitals has been adapted for use in the study of pupil control ideology in public schools.[26] Control ideology was conceptualized along a continuum ranging from custodialism at one extreme to humanism at the other. These terms refer to contrasting types of individual ideology and to the types of school organization that they seek to rationalize and justify.

The rigidly traditional school serves as a model for the custodial orientation. A custodial pupil control ideology is characterized by stress on the maintenance of order; distrust of students; and a punitive, moralistic orientation toward pupil control.

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[25]Doris C. Gilbert and Daniel J. Levinson, "Custodialism and Humanism in Mental Hospital Structure and in Staff Ideology", in The Patient and The Mental Hospital, (ed.), Milton Greenblatt, Daniel J. Levinson, Richard H. Williams (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), pp. 20-34.

[26]Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (Penn State Studies Monograph No. XXIV, University Park: Penn State University Press, 1967).

Humanistic orientation is used in the socio-psychological sense suggested by Fromm:[27] It indicates an orientation which stresses the importance of each student and a creation of an atmosphere to meet the wide range of student needs. A humanistic pupil control ideology is marked by an accepting trustful view of students and confidence in their ability to be self-disciplining and responsible.

The problem of pupil control is not new, nor is there any lack of opinion or prescription on the subject. However, until recently there has been little systematic study of pupil control in schools, espicially study which views the school as a social system. Those few studies which have focused on the school as a social institution have described antagonistic subcultures with conflict and control problems.[28]

In a classic study, Waller portrays the student culture and the teacher culture in an uneasy and antagonistic confrontation.[29] He maintains that the teacher and the pupil confront each other with an original

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[27]Eric Fromm, Man For Himself (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1948).

[28]Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher", School Review (Autumn, 1968), p. 312.

[29]Willard W. Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1932), p. 12.

conflict of desires, each with his own definition of the situation. The teacher tries to "impose" his definition of the situation upon his class quickly, before any alternatives have had an opportunity to be considered.[30]

Parsons suggested that control is a major concern in all organizations, since organizations cannot count on most of their participants to carry out their assignments voluntarily. In a sense, organizational structure is one of control and the hierarchy of control is the most central element of the organizational structure.[31]

Becker pictures the teacher as "striving to maintain what she regards as her legitimate sphere of authority in the face of possible challenge by others."[32] It should not be surprising that pupil control should be a major concern of teachers. Teacher peer group pressures have been remarked upon by Gordon in his 'Wabash Study':

> The duty of the teacher was to maintain order, both as a condition for learning and because it symbolized his competence. Teaching competence was difficult to assess, but disorder was taken as a visible sign of incompetence by colleagues. . . . In a situation of conflict, the teacher

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[30]Ibid., p. 297.

[31]Talcott Parsons, "Suggestions for a Sociological Approach to the Theory of Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. I (1956), pp. 63-85.

[32]Howard S. Becker, "Social Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationship," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. XXV (December, 1951), p. 24.

had constant anxiety for his ability to control.[33]

Prescott, in his description of the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland, has commented on the peer pressures on the teacher to maintain his control.[34] Furthermore, in a recent study of the public schools, Silberman reports that teachers' competence is judged by how well they control their classes.[35]

The saliency of pupil control has been underscored by Willower and Jones, in their study of the school as a social system.[36] They found that the "integrative theme" of the school was clearly that of pupil control. Problems of pupil control dominated much of the talk of the faculty; in fact, the general school structure seemed to be designed to facilitate pupil control. Indeed, the major part of the interaction between teachers and between teachers and principals focused on pupil control.[37]

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[33]C. Wayne Gordon, The Social System of The High School (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), p. 42.

[34]Daniel A. Prescott, The Child in the Educative Process (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957).

[35]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 8.

[36]Willower and Jones, op. cit., p. 107.

[37]Ibid., pp. 107-109.

Organizational Socialization

The part of the learning process which deals with the acquisition of the requisite orientations for satisfactory functioning in a role is referred to as the process of socialization.[38] Socialization is a continuous process which begins early in childhood and continues throughout life. Although primary socialization usually is well completed by adulthood, the learning of new role orientations accompanies each change of status. A common example is socialization into an occupational role. In modern society, occupational roles are characteristically embedded in an organizational setting.

Organizational socialization is concerned with the processes by which requisite role orientation of offices, statuses, and positions is acquired by participants in the organization. Few members can escape the formative influence of the values, norms, expectations, and sanctions of the organization which mold role ideology and role performance of personnel.

Public school teachers go through various phases of socialization. Initial socialization to the professional norms and values occurs during college preparation, where teaching and learning are likely to focus on ideal

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[38]Talcott Parsons, The Social System (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1951) p. 205.

images and practices. Another phase of socialization begins as new teachers become members of a school organization. Here neophytes may suddenly be confronted with norms and values of the teacher subculture, a subculture which tends to emphasize the need for strong control of students.[39] However, it is with the initial socialization that this study is concerned.

Normative Behaviours of Teachers that relate to Pupil Control

Linton proposed that a social system is "the sum total of the ideal patterns which control the reciprocal behaviour between individuals and between the individual and society. . . ."[40] Central to the view of the school as a social system are the normative behaviours of teachers that relate to pupil control. Norms, or standards of behaviour, may be defined in terms of the role expectations of group members. According to Young and Mack, the role is aggressive with status; the expectations are a consequence of occupying a given position in a social structure.[41] Role expectations,

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[39]Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Counselor and The School as a Social Organization", Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. LXVI (November, 1967), pp. 23-24.

[40]Linton, op. cit., p. 105.

[41]Kimball Young and Raymond Mack, Sociology and Social Life (New York: American Book Company, 1962), p.494.

therefore, refer to "the rights and obligations of those in a given social position or status."[42] Implicit in this definition of role expectations are the attitudes and values ascribed by the group to any and all persons occupying a particular status.

Homans noted that the degree of concurrence among group members on role expectations may vary. He defined norms as "the expected behaviour of a number of men,"[43] and maintained that the norms accepted in a group vary somewhat from one person to another, and from one subgroup to another, and yet, the members of the group are more alike in what they say they ought to do than in what they do in fact.[44] Being an idea, the norm comes closer to having an independent life of its own than does man's social activity.

Several studies related to individual perceptions of others deal with the individual's value orientation and the impressions he forms of those perceived.

In a study by Kerber, it was assumed that a functional relationship existed between a person's value-attitude structure and role perception. The study measured the manner in which role relationships were

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[42]Willower, op. cit., p. 41

[43]Homans, op. cit., p. 124.

[44]Ibid., pp. 126-127.

perceived and defined within the organizational structure
of the school. Some of the findings were that each group
was marked by varying degrees of internal consistency
with regard to its value-attitude structure. Different
school roles, such as teacher or administrator, did not
have a significant effect upon the basic value orientation
of the individual. An individual's value-attitude
structure was highly predictive of his whole view of
education and in-school relationships.[45]

In addition, other studies indicated that indi-
viduals tend to prefer others who hold a value orientation
similar to the perceiver's projected values.[46] In the
perception of others the individual has his own various
internal states that can serve as a source of reference
in making judgements about the internal states of others.
Thus, interpersonal perception maximizes the similarity
of perceiver and perceived.[47]

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[45]August F. Kerber, "The Interrelation of Value-
Attitude Structure and Role Perception Among School Teachers
and Administrators", Dissertation Abstracts, XVII, 1957,
p. 93.

[46]Herbert Fensterheim and Margaret E. Tresselt,
"The Influence of Value Systems on the Perception of
People", Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, Vol.XLVIII
(January, 1953), pp. 93-98; Ross Stagner, "Psychological
Aspects of Industrial Conflict: I. Perceptions", Personnel
Psychology, I (Summer, 1948), pp. 131-144.

[47]Jerome S. Bruner and Renato Taguiri, "The
Perception of People", in Handbook of Social Psychology,
Vol.II, (ed.), Garner Lindzey (Reading, Mass.: Addison-
Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1954), p. 649.

Horowitz, in discussing the difference between the beliefs of student-teacher and cooperating teacher, pointed out that, while the real difference may be important, even more important are the assumed differences that the student-teacher perceives between his views and those of his cooperating teacher.[48]

HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses stated below were generated from a theory of client control adapted by Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, for application in the milieu of public schools.[49] One major variable, pupil control ideology, is involved in all of the hypotheses. The major hypothesis of the study deals with the differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, as stated in hypothesis one.

> (H₁) The attitudes of junior student-teachers toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) are different from thoses of senior student-teachers in that the attitudes of the latter are more humanistic.

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[48]Meyer Horowitz, "Student Teaching Experience and Attitudes of Student Teachers," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XXIX (Autumn, 1968)., pp. 31-62.

[49]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, op. cit., pp. 2-53.

(H$_2$) There are differences in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers relative to age; also, younger student-teachers are less humanistic in their attitudes toward pupil control than the older ones.

(H$_3$) Female student-teachers have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than do male student-teachers.

(H$_4$) Student-teachers who attended a large elementary school have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than those who attended a small elementary school.

(H$_5$) Student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools for their secondary education have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools.

(H$_6$) Student-teachers registered in the Primary Education Program have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than those registered in the High School Education Program.

(H$_7$) Student-teachers registered in the Elementary Education Program have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than those registered in the High School Program.

(H$_8$) Student-teachers who had no teaching experience

are more humanistic in pupil control
ideology than those who had teaching
experience.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study makes the following assumptions:

1. Attitudes do change.

2. Attitudes can be measured.

3. Answers to the questionnaires will reflect the
classroom behaviour of student-teachers towards
pupils.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has the following limitations:

1. The primary instrument used in this investi-
gation was the Pupil Control Ideology (P.C.I.)
Form A, developed by Terry L. Eidell,[50]
and the Pupil Control Ideology Form B, developed
by Dr. G. Llewellyn Parsons.[51] As its name
indicates, it measures only the ideology of
teachers' pupil control. While research states
that such a set of beliefs acts as a guide to

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[50]Eidell, op. cit., pp. 31-62

[51]G. Llewellyn Parsons, "Pupil Control Ideology of
Teachers-in-Training, Student and In-Service Teachers in
a Social-Psychological Setting" (Unpublished paper, Memorial
Univeristy of Newfoundland, 1967).

action, it still is a measurement of a set of
beliefs and not a direct measure of behaviour.

2. Analyses of data are reported as significant,
   or not significant, hypotheses confirmed or
   rejected, but these results are not to be
   considered as establishing cause and effect.
   If significance is reported, only a relation-
   ship may be inferred.

3. Only situational variables which the theory
   adapted by Eidell[52] indicates will be most
   relevant to the pupil control ideology of
   student-teachers are utilized. The degree of
   causal relationship between the variables
   remains problematic.

4. Finally, generalizations drawn from the
   findings should be limited to the population
   sampled, or applied cautiously to a population
   similar to the one in the sample.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the introduction to the
present study, followed by a statement of the problem and
the purposes of the study; the need for the study; the
conceptual reference; the conceptual framework; the

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[52]Eidell, op. cit., pp. 2-61

hypotheses; and the assumptions and the limitations of the study.

The next chapter deals with a review of literature pertinent to the topics of attitudes and pupil control. In ensuing chapters the procedures followed are described and a statistical analysis of data is presented. The final chapter includes analyses of both general and specific implications generated by the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

There does not seem to be a body of literature that deals specifically with control as a factor in organization-client relationships. Yet, if one places this study in the broader perspective of investigations about the impact of organizational structures and practices upon the beliefs or attitudes of individual members, one finds not only a multitude of studies but a lengthy historical tradition. In this section literature related to the sources of that tradition will be examined, and some of the ensuing investigations that lead up to the more recent research that has prompted this study will be reviewed.

EARLY STUDIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The classical model of bureaucratic organizations had its origins in the writings of Max Weber and its most practical development in the pioneering work of Frederick Taylor.[53] Taylor proposed that workers could be induced

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[53]Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 71.

to change their work patterns through increased economic incentive. In much of his early research, especially the time and motion studies, the problem was treated in almost mechanical terms. Subsequent studies by proponents of this approach were concerned with such concepts as the division of labour, pyramid of control, or the centre of authority, i.e., the focus was upon the formal organization structure.[54]

Disagreements over the narrowness of this vision and the lack of concern given to emotional-psychological considerations led to the development of what has been called the Human Relations approach. Inspired by the work of Elton Mayo and others, proponents of this school of thought emphasized the importance of lines of communication, increased participation, and the impact of the informal organization.[55]

Etzioni, in contrasting the two viewpoints, suggests that the difference lay along the means-ends continuum. The Classical School saw increased _efficiency_ as leading to increased _satisfaction_ and thus a greater acceptance of organizational goals. In contrast, the Human Relationists reversed the process, seeing satisfaction

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[54]Ibid., pp. 72-77.

[55]Amitai Etzioni, _Modern Organizations_. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964), pp. 32-48.

as the means to efficiency and goal attainment.[56] The latter view was strongly supported by the Hawthorne studies, the results of which caused many of the basic assumptions of the Classical School to be called into question.[57]

Further research attempting to buttress this newer view followed. It was in this climate that Lippitt and White produced their study of authoritarian, laissez-faire, and democratic leadership, concluding that the latter had the most beneficial effects upon group behaviour and work patterns.[58] In more recent works, the basic concepts of both groups have been accepted and challenged. Katz and Kahn, in critically evaluating the Classical Approach, observe that it was consistently unable to cope with the complexities of organizational structure and functioning.[59]

The specificity of the view, its implicit assumptions about human behaviour and the essentially

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[56]Ibid., pp. 39-40

[57]F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939).

[58]R. Lippitt and R. K. White, "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," in Readings in Social Psychology, (ed.), G. E. Swanson, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1952), pp. 340-355.

[59]Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 73.

isolated nature of events, were simply deemed too narrow and confining. As March and Simon point out, "It is because activities are conditional, and not fixed in advance, that problems of organization, over and above the assignment problem, arise."[60]

The assumptions made by the Human Relations advocates were similarly challenged. While critics accepted "their insights into the significance of social rewards in industry, . . . they criticized the use to which these insights were put in those instances in which management sought to placate the worker by inexpensive symbols of prestige and affection."[61]

The approach was also criticized for its manipulative overtones and its tendency to view the place of employment as a "family rather than a power struggle among groups with some conflicting values and interests as well as some shared ones."[62]

Despite all criticisms, however, this early research clearly demonstrated that both the knowledge and techniques of psychology and sociology could be applied to increase our understanding of how organizational

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[60]James March and Herbert Simon, Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958), p. 27.

[61]Etzioni, op. cit., p. 43.

[62]Ibid., p. 42.

settings affect the way men behave. The Hawthorne studies, particularly those of the bank wiring room, clearly demonstrated that individual behaviour is closely regulated and directed by norms established within the group.[63] Subsequent work by Sherif indicated that not only the behaviour but also the beliefs and values that sustain them are predominantly group determined.[64] The results of several experiments by Lewin caused him to conclude that workers react to change not as individuals but as members of groups. "As long as group standards are unchanged, the individual will resist change more strongly the farther he is to depart from group standards."[65]

Thus, much of this research contributed to the conclusion that an individual's beliefs and attitudes were strongly influenced or modified by his involvement in and loyalty to his own group. It appears a worker's attitudes are clearly and closely related to those views generally accepted by his peers.

Lewin believed that even levels of aspiration are

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[63]Homans, op. cit., pp. 48-80.

[64]Muzafer Sherif, The Psychology of Social Norms (New York: Harper and Row, 1936).

[65]Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," in Readings in Social Psychology, (ed.), G. E. Swanson, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1952), p. 452.

strongly influenced by the standards of the group.[66] This influence, of course, extends to new members, and thus their goals and their behaviours increasingly come to resemble those of the other members of the group.

Role theory has both refined and added a new dimension to many of these findings. It is not only the fact of an individual's membership in a group but also the particular <u>role</u> he assumes there that is of interest to the researcher. As Lieberman has pointed out: "One of the fundamental postulates of role theory is that a person's attitudes will be influenced by the role that he occupies in a social system."[67]

The results of one study clearly indicated that a change in role was accompanied by similar changes in attitudes associated with the role. In addition, it was found that a return to the former role resulted in another attitude shift back to those views which were originally held. The author concludes that there is a clear and fixed relationship between an individual's attitude and the position he assumes at a particular moment.[68]

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[66]Morton Deutsch, "Field Theory in Social Psychology," in <u>Handbook of Social Psychology</u>, (ed.), Gardner Lindzey (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1966), p. 208.

[67]Seymour Lieberman, "The Effects of Changes of Roles on the Attitudes of Role Occupants," in <u>Basic Studies in Social Psychology</u>, (ed.), Harold Prosbansky and Bernard Seidenberg (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966), p. 487.

[68]<u>Ibid.</u>

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Although persons may not be consistent throughout
a day or even an hour in their educational attitudes, at
least not in logically derivable behaviours, "progressivism"
versus "traditionalism" or "humanism" versus "custodialism"
has been discussed as an important educational issue for
many years. Kerlinger from his extensive investigations of
educational attitudes has found substantial statistical
undergirding of these factors as being "real" entities.
If attitudes are to be considered predispositions toward
begaviour, these entities have practical relevance in that
they affect educational decisions and interactions among
persons on educational matters.[69]

Beginning with studies of groups having well known
attitudes towards education, Kerlinger and his students
have developed and refined an instrument which has proved
to be substantially successful in studying educational
attitudes of groups. Terms such as "democratic-autocratic"
or "permissive-restrictive" are common, but whatever the
label, Kerlinger has established out of his initial use of
Q-methodology that two dimensions underlying a person's
philosophy of education emerge. Further, the two attitudes,

[69]F. N. Kerlinger, "Progressivism and Traditionalism:
Basic Educational Attitudes," School Review, Vol. LXXXI,
No. 1 (1958 a), pp. 1-11.

"Progressivism" and "traditionalism," appear to be
independent factors rather than opposite poles of the
same dimensions.[70,71,72,73]

Della-Dora studied pre-service teachers at Wayne
State University and in-service teachers in the metro-
politan Detroit area regarding attitude factors using
Kerlinger's Educational Scale II (ES-II).[74] Pre-service
teachers were found to be more progressive in educational
attitudes than in-service teachers and significantly more
so than secondary teachers.

The ES-II was used to divide New York teachers into
two groups, "subject-oriented" and "pupil-oriented," for
purposes of testing hypotheses regarding attitudes and

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[70]F. N. Kerlinger, "The Attitude Structure of the
Individual: A Q-Study of the Educational Attitudes of
Professors and Laymen," Genetic Psychological Monographs,
No. 53 (1956), pp. 283-329.

[71]F. N. Kerlinger, "Factor Invariance in the Measure-
ment of Attitudes Toward Education," Educational and
Psychological Measurement, No. 21 (1961), pp. 273-285.

[72]F. N. Kerlinger, "Attitudes Toward Education and
Perceptions of Teacher Characteristics: A Q-Study,"
American Educational Research Journal, Vol. III (1966)
pp. 159-168.

[73]F. N. Kerlinger, "The First and Second Order
Factor Structure of Attitudes Toward Education," American
Educational Research Journal, Vol. IV (1967), pp. 191-205.

[74]Delmo Della-Dora, "A Comparison of the Personality
of Elementary School Teachers and Secondary School Teachers
Measured in Terms of Extraversion-Intraversion and
Progressive-Traditional Attitudes," Dissertation Abstracts,
21:96, 1960.

personality through use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude
Inventory (M.T.A.I.) and the Rorschach.[75] The M.T.A.I.
differentiated teachers·at the .02 level, supporting the
two classifications of "cognitive" and "affective"
orientations. The Rorschach, in differentiating the
groups as being "constricted" and "dilated," indicated
restraint, renunciation, and intellection on the part of
the subject-oriented teachers while the pupil-oriented
group appeared more receptive to affect.[76]

Johnston investigated dimensions of teacher
attitude as related to various aspects of teacher per-
formance in the classroom instructional situation by
developing the Teacher Attitude Inventory. Analyzing a
sample of 284 teachers with respect to educational back-
ground, sex, experience, and grade level, six factors
were identified. Two of these were pupil-centered with
regard to individual instructional attention and importance
of pupil interest.[77]

Using Kerlinger's subject-centered and child-centered

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[75]D. M. Kaplan, "Differences in Attitudes and
Personality of Subject-Oriented and Pupil-Oriented Secondary
School Teachers with the M.T.A.I. and the Rorschach,"
Dissertation Abstracts, 21:2988, 1961.

[76]Ibid.

[77]Lloyd B. Johnston, "The Identification of Basic
Dimensions of Teacher Attitude," Dissertation Abstracts,
25:1382, 1964.

factors and a school-community cooperation factor with
"favourable" and "unfavourable" subgroupings, Miller found
differences between defined subgroups of professional
educators in attitudes.[78]

An investigation of educational values and attitudes
of school teachers as related to "open-minded" and "close-
minded" classifications based on Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale
was undertaken by Kramer.[79] From a Northeastern United
States metropolis and its suburbs, 107 teachers with a
mimimum of three years of teaching experience made up the
sample. He found that teachers as a total group showed
varied levels of attitude integration, "open-minded" teachers
being most consistent and "close-minded" teachers varying
most in their attitudes. Teachers classified as "open-
minded" held permissive-progressive or humanistic attitudes,
and the more "open-minded" the belief system, the greater
was the likelihood for internal consistency in a permissive-
progressive direction.[80]

Hughes found that student-teachers regressed in

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[78]Robert S. Miller, "Educators' Attitudes Toward
Educational Practices," Journal of Educational Research,
Vol. LVI (1963),pp. 424-427.

[79]A. S. Kramer, "The Interrelation of Belief Systems
and Educational Values: A Study of the Educational Attitudes
of Individual School Teachers," Dissertation Abstracts, 25:
1382, 1964.

[80]Ibid.

child-centered attitudes and became more subject-centered
as well as less settled in their attitudes during student-
teaching, males being the more crystallized in educational
philosophy. Elementary teachers had the higher progress-
ivism mean score; however, they showed the most negative
change. Hughes concludes that this may be due to a clash
of idealized expectations with the reality of the teaching
situation.[81]

Among the findings from a study of ten publics in
education, Ewing determined that the females in his sample
were more child-centered in their attitudes toward
education. Teacher education faculties, as might be
expected, were the most child-centered and the least
subject-centered, while boards of education were the
opposite of this on measures of both factors.[82]

Smith in a study of social attitudes and educational
attitudes found general support for a liberal-progressive
and conservative-traditional pattern; that is, she found
congruence between liberal social and progressive edu-
cational attitudes and between conservative social and

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[81]Arthur E. Hughes, "Selected Perceptions and
Attitudes of Teacher Trainees Before and After Student
Teaching," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University
of Georgia, 1966).

[82]David L. Smith, "Attitudes Toward Education of
Ten Selected Publics Having Various Official Responsibil-
ities in Education," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation,
University of Georgia, 1967).

traditional educational attitudes.[83]

Sontag divided 80 elementary and secondary teachers into "progressive," "traditionalist," and "intermediate" classifications. Using a Q-sort concerning teacher behaviours, it was found that "progressives" tended to load on concern for pupils, while "traditionalists" loaded on subject matter and structure. Sontag concluded that "progressivism" and "traditionalism" underlie perceptions of teacher behaviour.[84]

From these studies "progressivism" or "humanism" and "traditionalism" or "custodialism" seem to be empirically established as two independent factors of attitudes toward education. These two attitudinal dimensions have yielded differentiating results as group measures, and beginning research appears to have linked these attitudes to perceptions of desirable teacher behaviours.

RECENT RESEARCH IN TEACHER AND STUDENT-TEACHER ATTITUDES

A review of the literature in the professional

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[83]Inez L. Smith, "Attitudes Toward Education and General Attitudes: A Q-Study," 1967, 9 p. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service; order no. ED 013 498.

[84]Marvin Sontag, "Attitudes Toward Education and Perceptions of Desirable Teacher Behaviours: A Q-Study," 1967, 7 p. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service; order no. ED 011 881.

education of teachers finds many professional educators, lay critics, and professional organizations who agree that teachers' attitudes toward children and the teaching role are critical determinants of success in the classroom. It is important, then, that the positions of authors of professional organizations in regard to teacher attitudes be reviewed, as well as research conducted in the area of, teachers' and future teachers' attitudes.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, in their publication Teachers for the Real World, make the following representative statements concerning teachers' attitudes in relation to their training program:

> The theoretical preparation of the teacher should, all in all, reconstruct the teachers' attitudes so that they come to see the children, regardless of social origin, as having extended potential. To help bring this about, the teacher educator must have a rich supply of realistic descriptions and reproductions of actual situations as instructional material.
>
> Teachers' attitudes and their effects are too important to be left to accidents of human association. A definite plan for identifying personality problems and attitudes should be developed in every program of teacher education.[85]

Even more strongly stated, in the Times Educational Supplement, is that "Right attitudes are more important

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[85]Teachers for the Real World. (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1966), pp. 61 and 92.

than right techniques . . ."[86]

Many kinds of attitude measurement devices have been developed in an attempt to identify those attitudes and groups of attitudes that might distinguish the poor teacher from the better one. Much of the research conducted in the area of teacher attitudes uses as a part of the instrumentation, the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, (M.T.A.I.).

The research in teacher and student-teacher attitudes seems to fit into one of three types of studies. They are usually studies using attitudes for prediction purposes, studies relating attitudes to other variables, and those studies which investigate attitude changes as a function of some treatment.

Two studies, Michaelis[87] and Gray,[88] using attitude measurement for the purpose of prediction seem to have conflicting results at first glance. John

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[86]"Teachers Need to Alter Their Attitudes," Times Educational Supplement, 2873:3, June, 1970.

[87]John V. Michaelis. The Prediction of Success in Student Teaching from Personality and Attitude Inventories (Berkeley, Cal.: University of California Press, 1954).

[88]Maxine Gray, "The Use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory in Selection, Counseling, and Placement of Student Teachers," (Unpublished doctoral disseration, Wayne University, 1956), in An Analysis and Projection of Research in Teacher Education, (ed.), Frederick R. Cyphert and Ernest Spaights (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1964), pp. 70-71.

Michaelis, in 1954, used the <u>Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory</u>, the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u>, and the <u>Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory</u> to predict success in student-teaching. Using grades in student-teaching as a measure of success, the statistical analysis yielded a correlation coefficient of .82. He concluded that these three measures could yield a fairly accurate prediction of success in student-teaching.

Maxine Gray, in 1956, found no prediction correlation between the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and any other instrument and concluded that no one method is adequate for use in prediction. She suggests, however, that multiple measurements may be a more valid approach to prediction.

Representative research relating teacher attitude to other variables includes studies by Riccio and Peters,[89] Wannamaker and Tennyson,[90] and Henrikson.[91]

Anthony Riccio and Herman Peters conducted research

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[89]Anthony Riccio and Herman J. Peters, "The Study of Values and the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u>," <u>Educational Research Bulletin</u>, Vol. XXXIX (March, 1960), pp. 101-103.

[90]Mary Wannamaker and W. Wesley Tennyson, "The Value Orientation of Beginning Elementary Teacher Education Students," <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u>, Vol. XXI (Winter, 1970), pp. 544-550.

[91]Harold Henrikson, "Role of Teacher Attitude in Educating the Disadvantaged Child," <u>Educational Leadership</u>, Vol. XXVIII (January, 1971), pp. 425-429.

to ascertain the relationship of values to scores on the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. Only two areas,
"aesthetic," and "political," on the value scale were
found to be correlated with the Minnesota Teacher Attitude
Inventory. Correlation of these two areas were significant
at the .01 level of confidence.

Mary Wannamaker and W. Wesley Tennyson used the
Differential Values Inventory and found that elementary
education students were more emergent than traditional.
They suggest that for obtaining better evidence in regard
to students' value orientation, the Minnesota Teacher
Attitude Inventory would be useful.

Harold Henrikson, using a pre-test--post-test,
experimental versus control design, demonstrated a positive
17.1 point difference in achievement scores between
groups. In comparing the two groups of kindergarten
children, using teacher attitude as the independent
variable, Henrikson concluded that his study supported
the self-fulfilling prophecy studied by Rosenthal and
Jacobson.[92]

The following studies are recent representative
research efforts which examine the gain or loss in the

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[92]Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, Pygmalion
in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils'
Intellectual Development (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and
Winston, 1968).

measurement of attitude as a function of some type of treatment.

Wilbur Dutton,[93] relating attitude and anxiety to the student-teaching experience using the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> as the attitude instrument, concluded:

(1) there was no difference in changes between anxious and non-anxious students,

(2) both anxious and non-anxious groups had regressive scores, and

(3) the control group not taking student-teaching maintained high positive scores.

George Pinkney,[94] in his study of the effects of an introductory educational psychology course on the attitudes of students during student-teaching, found that those who took the course had statistically significant higher scores on a test of behaviour traits than those who were student-teaching only.

Elmer Jacobs,[95] using the Valenti-Nelson <u>Survey of</u>

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[93]Wilbur H. Dutton, "Attitude Change of Elementary School Student Teachers and Anxiety," <u>Journal of Educational Research</u>, Vol. LV (May, 1962), pp.380-382.

[94]George A. Pinkney, "Changes in Student Teachers' Attitudes Toward Childhood Behaviour Problems," <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u>, Vol. LIII (December, 1962), pp. 275-78.

[95]Elmer B. Jacobs, "Attitude Changes in Teacher Education: An Inquiry into the Role of Attitudes in Changing Teachers' Behaviour," <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u>, Vol. XIX (Winter, 1968), pp. 410-415.

Teaching Practices, found that significant changes took place both during the initial professional education course and student-teaching.

Herbert Walberg, et al.,[96] compared the attitudes of 77 education majors engaged in tutoring to the attitudes of 64 practice teachers. After the experience, the tutors scored lower on the variables of neat, stable, good, controlling, and authoritarian, and higher on the variable of pupil-centered. The practice teachers scored higher on the variables of expressive, narcissistic, controlling, and puritanical. The tutors became less controlling and authoritarian and more pupil-centered.

Lusty and Wood,[97] through a self-prepared questionnaire, found few significant changes had occurred in attitudes as a function of an N.D.E.A. Institute. They remark, however, that "The very fact that attitudes can be influenced in eight weeks should be of interest to teacher trainers."[98]

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[96]Herbert J. Walberg, et al., "Effects of Tutoring and Practice Teaching on Self-Concept and Attitudes in Education Students," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIX (Fall, 1968), pp. 283-291.

[97]Beverly L. Lusty and Barbara S. Wood, "Effects of and N.D.E.A. Institute Upon Attitudes of Inner City Elementary Teachers," The Speech Teacher, Vol. XVIII (September, 1969), pp. 217-222.

[98]Ibid., p. 221.

Thus, whatever type the studies may be, research shows those attitudes to have a direct effect on pupil behaviour and that positive attitudes are critical to effective teaching. The research also indicates that these attitudes can be changed as a result of training. Most research recommends that since attitudes toward children can be altered, teacher preparation programs should embark upon a purposeful endeavour to change those attitudes of future teachers in a positive direction and not to leave the developments of attitudes to chance.

TEACHER CONTROL IDEOLOGY

The image of the teacher as either a severe disciplinarian (Oliver Goldsmith's, "Village Schoolmaster", for example) or as a curmudgeon with a slow wit and a fast switch (Washington Irving's, "Ichabod Crane", for example) is part of our cultural heritage. At the same time tales of classroom pranks played at the expense of teachers are endemic in our society.

Thus, a part of the cultural context of social interactions in school is less than complimentary to the teacher and a threat to his/her status.

The personalities of some teachers, especially the

authoritarian[99] and the dogmatic,[100] also contribute

negative factors in the pupil-teacher relationship.

Related to the cultural factors and the personality

variables in the school are the norms and values generated

out of the interactions of teachers with members of their

own role-set. These norms and values place stress upon

keeping students at a distance, "getting their attention

first," and "not smiling before Christmas." Waller

described these as part of the teacher code, and stated:

> The teacher's acceptability to other teachers depends
> on his adherence to the teacher code, upon his
> keeping students at a distance, and observing the
> proper ritual of aggression and recession contacts
> with other teachers.[101]

A teacher whose ideology about control of students

is humanistically oriented, views student learning and

behaviour in psychological and sociological rather than

moralistic terms. Learning is looked upon as an engage-

ment in worthwhile activities, rather than the passive

absorption of facts. The withdrawn student is seen as a

problem, equal to that of the overactive, troublesome one.

The humanistic teacher is optimistic that through close

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[99]H. Sandford, "The Theory of the Authoritarian
Personality," in Contemporary Issues in Social Psychology.
(ed.), L. S. Wrightman, Jr. (Belmont, Cal.: Brooks,
Cole, 1968), pp. 129-141.

[100]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil
Control Ideology, op. cit., pp. 15-17.

[101]Waller, op. cit., p. 29.

personal relationships with his pupils and the positive aspects of friendship and respect, his students will be self-disciplining rather than disciplined. A humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic classroom climate with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two-way communication, and increased student self-determination. Teachers and students alike are willing to act upon their own volition and to accept responsibilities for their own actions.

Anderson and others[102] studied the effect of teachers' personalities upon the social climate of classroom groups with children of various ages. They concluded that both dominative behaviour and socially integrative (democratic) behaviour on the part of the teacher were "circular" in their effect. Each type of behaviour tended to produce its like within the classroom group.

Much of the descriptive literature that deals with discipline can be listed with the more general topic of teacher behaviour. Since the concept of control ideology is assumed to be related to role enactment of teachers in the classroom, studies of teacher behaviour are of some

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[102]H. H. Anderson and J. E. Brewer, Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities, II (American Psychological Association, Stanford University Press, 1946), p. 128; and, Mary F. Reed, Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities, III (American Psychological Association, Stanford University Press, 1946), p. 156.

importance.

In one study by Kounin and Gump, the influences of "punitive and nonpunitive" teachers upon pupils' concepts of school misconduct were compared.[103] It was found that punitive teachers ". . . create or activate more aggression-tension than nonpunitive teachers,"[104] while pupils who have punitive teachers are ". . . more unsettled and conflicted about misbehaviour in school."[105] To some degree the punitive-nonpunitive dimension developed and used in the Kounin and Gump study, parallels at the behavioural level, the custodial-humanistic ideological dimension of the present study.

The custodial-humanistic dimension relates to a typology of pupil control proposed by Willower that denotes the control styles of teachers.[106] Control styles are classed as "external" or "internal" according to the sanctions employed by the teacher. Willower stated:

> When control is based upon sanctions which are punitive, employing devices such as coercion, ridicule, and the withholding of rewards, we speak

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[103]Jacob S. Kounin and Paul U. Gump, "The Comparative Influence of Punitive and Nonpunitive Teachers upon Children's Concepts of School Misconduct," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. LII (February, 1961), pp. 44-49.

[104]Ibid., p. 48.

[105]Ibid.

[106]Willower, op. cit., pp. 41-42.

of external control. When control is based
upon sanctions which are more personal and appeal
to the individual's sense of right or wrong,
stressing self-discipline rather than imposed
discipline, we speak of internal control.
Internal control is nonpunitive and implies an
optimistic view of those being controlled, while
external control implies a pessimistic view of
those being controlled.[107]

Additional studies have applied the concept of
pupil control ideology to other areas of investigation.
Rexford, in observing teacher verbal behaviour,
demonstrated a direct and significant relationship between
the ideology of teachers on the extremes of the pupil
control ideology continuum and their classroom behaviour
as indicated by a teacher's use of direct or indirect
influence.[108] Hoy, in a longitudinal study of beginning
teachers, noted a progressive increase toward a custodial
orientation following student-teaching and the first year
of teaching.[109] Willower and Landis reported a weak
relationship between a teacher's professional orientation

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[107]Ibid.

[108]Gene E. Rexford, "The Relationship Between Pupil
Control Ideology and Observed Verbal Behaviour of Selected
Secondary Teachers," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation ,
The Pennsylvania State University, 1970).

[109]Wayne K. Hoy, "Organizational Socialization:
The Student Teacher and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal
of Educational Research, Vol. LXI (December, 1967), pp.
153-155; and Hoy, op. cit., pp. 312-323.

and his humanistic control ideology.[110]

CONTROL IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

One of the earliest (and conceptually one of the most far-reaching) studies of the school as a social system was that done by Waller.. In this study, Waller points out that the organization of the school confronts the teacher with two recurring and conflicting tasks. One is that of motivating students to learn, the other is establishing the kind of control and discipline that allows the creation of a proper learning environment. Waller felt that these two functions were often mutually exclusive and thus constituted the central dilemma of teaching. He concluded that one result of this contradiction is the formation of two distinct subcultures centered around students and staff and grounded in conflict and mutual hostility.[111]

A major drawback of this set of circumstances is that there is a constant threat of goal displacement. One such example has been noted by Hollingshead, who pointed out when teachers counsel with parents of lower class children the emphasis is on discipline problems,

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[110]Donald J. Willower and Charles A. Landis, "Pupil Control Ideology and Professional Orientation of School Faculty," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. XLV (March, 1970), pp. 118-123.

[111]Waller, op. cit., p. 270.

while in similar discussions with upper class parents academic work is emphasized.[112] Carlson, reflecting upon these findings, observes that teachers may see education as the goal with middle and upper class children but substitute discipline as a goal for children of the lower classes.[113]

Becker, in discussing the authority problem of teachers, points out that this concern with their ability to control the teaching environment even extends to their relationship with parents.[114] He suggests that the result of this concern is the formation of a set of attitudes and beliefs concerning the protection of the teacher's proper authority. Such attitudes are enforced within the teaching culture by the formal as well as the informal subculture.[115]

Among more recent research expressing a concern with control is a three and a half year study commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation and reported in final form in the book, Crisis in the Classroom.[116] The book, written by

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[112]A. B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949), p. 149.

[113]Carlson, op. cit., p. 270.

[114]Howard S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School," in Complex Organizations, (ed.) Amitai Etzioni (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), pp. 243-251.

[115]Ibid.

[116]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970).

Charles E. Silberman, includes among its major findings
the belief that schools are basically oppressive. A
newspaper review offers the following synopsis of
Silberman's findings:

> That most schools are preoccupied with order,
> control, and routine for the sake of routine;
> that students essentially are subjugated by the
> school; that by practicing systematic repression,
> the schools create many of their own discipline
> problems; and that they promote docility,
> passivity, and conformity in their students.[117]

Much of the present interest in and analysis of
the British "open classroom" concept could reasonably be
viewed as an attempt to change the nature of the pupil-
teacher relationship by altering the amount of compulsion
necessary in the classroom. Indeed, the Summerhill model
posed by Neal is perhaps a good example of an individual's
determination to eliminate control as a factor by doing
away with compulsory attendance.[118] In so doing, Neal
may have well anticipated the direction of much of our
current research in education. It would appear that the
"open classroom" is at least in part, an attempt to
promote a better climate for learning by relinquishing
the tight control that the teacher has traditionally over

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[117]William Stevens, "Study Calls Public Schools
Joyless and Oppressive "(New York Times, September 20,
1970), p. 1.

[118]A. H. Neal. Summerhill (New York: The Hart
Publishing Company, 1960).

the pace and the direction of a child's education. The
result may be a diminution of the need to discipline
students since an increase in choice on their part could
presumably decrease the areas of conflict.

In summary, the central areas of concern in the
present study are student-teacher attitudes and pupil
control, which areas are deemed to be quite closely
related. It is also believed that this aspect of
education requires more thorough examination, and that
much which happens within the educational institution
is inextricably bound up with the need to control
pupils.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with describing the locale of the study and the population from which the sample was drawn, the nature of the instrument, the process of data collection, and finally, the treatment of the data to solve the problems of the study.

LOCALE, POPULATION, AND SAMPLE

The Locale of the Study

This study deals with the attitudes of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers toward pupil control. It also deals with the differences in these attitudes as determined while the students were doing the teacher-training program at Memorial University of Newfoundland and its affiliate--St. Bride's College, Littledale.

The Population of the Study

The population of this study consisted of all students registered in the First Year Education courses at Memorial University of Newfoundland and St. Bride's College, Littledale, and also, all those students in the Fourth or Fifth Year of their teacher-training program at Memorial

University of Newfoundland during the University year of
1967-1968.

There were 529 First Year Education students
registered at Memorial University of Newfoundland and 188
at St. Bride's College giving a total of 717 junior student-
teachers. There were 271 students registered in Fourth Year
Education and 93 students registered in Fifth Year Education,
giving a total of 364 senior student-teachers. This
population was obtained from the lists of student-teachers
at Memorial University of Newfoundland and St. Bride's
College. The exact population was determined by collating
the lists received from the two above mentioned institutions.
At the beginning of the University term so little was known
about First Year Education students that it was difficult to
obtain a valid stratified random sample for each background
factor hypothesized to be important. Therefore during the
second week of the University term it was decided to admin-
ister the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument both Form A and
Form B to all First Year Education students. It was also
decided to administer the above instruments to all Fourth
and Fifth Year Education students at the same time in order
to provide adequate numbers of senior student-teachers from
which to sample, and to prevent their being influenced by

    (1)   acquaintance with some items of the instrument
            through discussions with junior student-teachers,

    (2)   experiences in practice-teaching.

These decisions provided further verification as to the exact

population of student-teachers.

G. Llewellyn Parsons, assisted by the educators from Memorial University of Newfoundland who helped him administer the questionnaires,[119] determined the population of and gathered the data for the present study.

The Sample

From the alphabetical listing obtained by the collation described in the preceding paragraph, 172 First Year Education students or about 24 per cent of the total population for junior student-teachers, and 150 Fourth or Fifth Year Education students or about 40 per cent of the total population for senior student-teachers were randomly selected by using a table of random numbers.

Table 1 shows the distribution of student-teachers according to age in years. In this table, it can be seen that approximately 55 per cent of the sample or more than half of the student-teachers were between 16 and 20 years of age.

Table 1

Student-teachers by Age in Years

Age in Years	Frequency	Per cent
16 - 20 years	176	54.7
21 - 25	114	35.4
26 - 30	19	5.9
31 - 35	2	0.6
36 - 40	7	2.2
41 - 45	3	0.9
46 years and over	1	0.3
Total	322	100.0

[119]Parsons, op. cit., pp. 71-74.

The number of student-teachers according to sex is given in Table 2. Of the three categories used, 0.6 per cent did not identify his/her sex, 53.4 per cent were male, and 46 per cent were female.

Table 2

Student-teachers by Sex

Sex	Frequency	Per cent
Not shown	2	0.6
Male	172	53.4
Female	148	46.0
Total	322	100.0

From Table 3, it can be seen that the majority of the student-teachers are single, as approximately 86 per cent were in that category.

Table 3

Student-teachers by Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Per cent
Single	276	85.7
Married	44	13.7
Other	2	0.6
Total	322	100.0

Table 4 gives the size of the elementary and secondary schools attended by the student-teachers. The table indicates that approximately 62 per cent of the student-teachers attended elementary schools varying in size from one classroom to eight classrooms. It can also be seen from the table that only 15 per cent of the sample attended large elementary schools. The pattern changed somewhat for the size of secondary school attended. Here, approximately three-quarters (3/4) of the student-teachers attended schools with six or more classrooms.

Table 4

Student-teachers by Size of Elementary
and Secondary School

Size	Elementary School		Secondary School	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
1 - 2 classrooms	72	22.4	22	6.8
3 - 5 classrooms	68	21.1	60	18.6
6 - 8 classrooms	59	18.3	81	25.2
9 - 12 classrooms	48	14.9	51	15.8
13 - 18 classrooms	26	8.1	28	8.7
18 classrooms and over	49	15.2	80	24.8
Total	322	100.0	322	100.0

The type of elementary school attended by the
student-teachers is given in Table 5. The table indicates
that approximately 53 per cent of the student-teachers
obtained their elementary education in all-grade schools.
It also shows that about 25 per cent of the student-
teachers obtained their elementary education in schools
having Grades 1 to 8 inclusive. Another interesting fact
is that only about 8 per cent of the sample attended other
types of elementary school than the ones listed.

Table 5

Student-teachers by Type of Elementary
School Attended

Type of Elementary School	Frequency	Per cent
All-grade	169	52.5
Grade 1 - Grade 6	47	14.6
Grade 1 - Grade 8	80	24.8
Other	26	8.1
Total	322	100.0

The type of secondary school which the student-
teachers attended is given in Table 6. It can be seen
from this table that about 36 per cent of the student-
teachers attended all-grade secondary schools. The
table also indicates that approximately 57 per cent of
the student-teachers attended a Central High School
(Grades 7 to 11) or a Regional High School (Grades
9 to 11).

Table 6

Student-teachers by Type of Secondary
School Attended

Type of Secondary School	Frequency	Per cent
All-grade	116	36.0
Central High School (Grades 7 to 11)	80	24.8
Regional High School (Grades 9 to 11)	103	32.0
Other	23	7.1
Total	322	100.0

From Table 7 it can be seen that approximately two-thirds (2/3) of the student-teachers attended elementary school in towns with populations under 5000, and that approximately three-fifths (3/5) of the student-teachers attended secondary school in towns with populations under 5000. It is also significant that about 54 per cent of the sample attended elementary school in towns with populations under 2000, and about 42 per cent of the sample attended secondary school in towns with populations under 2000.

Table 7

Student-teachers by Population of Town
in which Elementary and Secondary
School were attended

Population of Town	Elementary School		Secondary School	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Not shown	1	0.3		
Less than 200	24	7.5	4	1.2
200 - 499	48	14.9	25	7.8
500 - 999	63	19.6	56	17.4
1000 - 1999	40	12.4	51	15.8
2000 - 4999	40	12.4	54	16.8
5000 and over	106	32.9	132	41.0
Total	322	100.0	322	100.0

Table 8 indicates that more than half or 54
per cent of the student-teachers were in the first year
of teacher-training, and that somewhat less than half
or 46 per cent of the sample were in the fourth or
fifth year of their training program. This shows
that the sample is rather evenly weighted with
regard to the numbers of junior and senior student-
teachers.

Table 8

Student-teachers by University Year

University Year	Frequency	Per cent
First	174	54.0
Fourth	110	34.2
Fifth	38	11.8
Total	322	100.0

The university program in which the student-teachers were registered is shown in Table 9. The table indicates that approximately 43 per cent of the sample were registered in the elementary program, while approximately 41 per cent were registered in the high school program, either the four-year or five-year option.

Table 9

Student-teachers by University Program

University Program	Frequency	Per cent
Primary	33	10.2
Elementary	139	43.2
High School (4 years)	71	22.0
High School (5 years)	61	18.9
Other	18	5.6
Total	322	100.0

Table 10 shows that more than half the student-teachers or approximately 57 per cent had English, one of the social sciences, or a foreign language for their major field of study. The table also indicates that only about 8 per cent of the sample had a science, psychology, sociology, religious studies, philosophy, or physical education as their major field of study.

Table 10

Student-teachers by Major Field of Study

Major Field of Study	Frequency	Per cent
Not shown	69	21.4
Economics, Geography, or History	80	24.8
English	80	24.8
French, Latin, Greek, German, or Spanish	24	7.5
Mathematics	43	13.4
Biology, Chemistry, Physics, or Geology	8	2.5
Religious Studies, or Philosophy		
Psychology, or Sociology	2	0.6
Physical Education	16	5.0
Total	322	100.0

Table 11 indicates that more than half the
student-teachers or approximately 54 per cent also had
English, one of the social sciences, or a foreign language
for their minor field of study. It can be seen too, that
only about 13 per cent of the sample had a science,
psychology, sociology, religious studies, philosophy, or
physical education as their minor field of study.

Table 11

Student-teachers by Minor Field of Study

Minor Field of Study	Frequency	Per cent
Not shown	92	28.6
Economics, Geography or History	72	22.4
English	63	19.6
French, Latin, Greek, German, or Spanish	37	11.5
Mathematics	17	5.3
Biology, Chemistry, Physics, or Geology	20	6.2
Religious Studies, or Philosophy	2	0.6
Psychology, or Sociology	18	5.6
Physical Education	1	0.3
Total	322	100.0

The teaching experience of the student-teachers at the primary, elementary, and high school levels is given in Table 12. The table shows that approximately 92 per cent of the sample had no teaching experience at the primary level. At the elementary level, approximately three-quarters (3/4) of the sample had no teaching experience, and of the remaining one-fourth (1/4), about 18 per cent had from one year to three years teaching experience. At the secondary level, approximately 86 per cent of the sample had no teaching experience, and of the remaining 14 per cent, about 11 per cent had from one year to three years teaching experience.

Table 12

Student-teachers by Years of Teaching Experience at the Primary, Elementary, and Secondary Levels

Years of Teaching Experience	Primary		Elementary		Secondary	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
No experience	296	91.9	245	76.1	276	85.7
1 - 3 years	21	6.5	57	17.7	34	10.6
4 - 6 years	4	1.2	17	5.3	8	2.5
7 - 9 years			2	0.6	2	0.6
10 - 12 years	1	0.3				
13 - 15 years					1	0.3
16 - 18 years			1	0.3		
18 years and over					1	0.3
Total	322	100.0	322	100.0	322	100.0

Table 13 indicates that approximately two-thirds
(2/3) of the student-teachers had no total teaching
experience. The table further shows that the majority of
the remaining one-third (1/3) or about 30 per cent had from
one year to six years of total teaching experience.

Table 13

Student-teachers by Years of Total
Teaching Experience

Years of Total Teaching Experience	Frequency	Per cent
No experience	214	66.5
1 - 3 years	68	21.1
4 - 6 years	28	8.7
7 - 9 years	5	1.6
10 - 12 years	1	0.3
13 - 15 years	2	0.6
16 - 18 years	2	0.6
18 years and over	2	0.6
Total	322	100.0

DATA COLLECTION, INSTRUMENT, AND TREATMENT

OF THE DATA

Collection of Data

The main purpose of this study was to determine
the attitudes toward pupil control held by junior and
senior student-teachers and to ascertain the differences
between the pupil control ideology held by students at
the beginning of the teacher-training period and that held

at the end of the period. To achieve this purpose, a process of identifying pupil control ideologies was necessary. Two questionnaires were employed which asked student-teachers to rate a number of aspects of pupil control, specifically those that dealt with attitudes towards the instruction and guidance of pupils at school, school discipline, and general views on child psychology.

The questionnaires were administered by faculty members after a short briefing session. No time limit was set but faculty members found that it took an average of forty minutes to complete the questionnaires. Respondents used a separate answer sheet to make the compilation of scores easier.

All questionnaires for junior student-teachers were then arranged according to the alphabetical listing, and a similar arrangement was made for the senior student-teachers. From these arrangements the random sampling was done.

In addition to collecting the data, G. Llewellyn Parsons stated the hypotheses of this study in 1967.[120] The above mentioned researcher decided that approximately 24 per cent of the junior (first year) and about 40 per cent of the senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers would make an adequate sample. This decision was

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[120]Ibid., pp. 33-35.

based on the fact that the size of the junior group (717) was approximately twice that of the senior group (364).

The present researcher used random sampling to select the designated percentages.

The Nature of the Instrument

As an operational measure of pupil control ideology, an instrument called the Pupil Control Ideology (P.C.I.) Form A was utilized.[121] This instrument was adapted from the work of Gilbert and Levinson.[122] It measured the pupil control ideology of educational personnel on a continuum ranging from extreme custodialism to extreme humanism, and consisted of 20 items. Response categories were scored 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, for "strongly agree", "agree", "undecided", "disagree", "strongly disagree", respectively. Scoring was reversed for items 5 and 13, which are positive to the humanistic viewpoint. The theoretical range of the score varied from 20 to 100. The higher the score, the more custodial the individual was judged to be.[123]

A similar form of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument, known as Form B and developed by G. Llewellyn Parsons[124]

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[121]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, op. cit., pp. 3-54.

[122]Gilbert and Levinson, op. cit., pp. 20-34.

[123]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, op. cit., p. 14.

[124]Parsons, op. cit., pp. 68-69.

from the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (M.T.A.I.), was also used to measure certain other aspects of pupil control ideology not measured by Form A.

The researcher named above, aided by five educators[125] from Memorial University of Newfoundland, selected from the M.T.A.I. certain items which were con- sidered to be measuring some aspects of pupil control. Only those items on which there was unanimous agreement were considered. Altogether, sixty items were selected. (See Pupil Control Ideology Instrument, Form B, in the Appendix)..

It was decided to use the items on a Likert-type instrument with the respondents answering by use of the same response categories as outlined for Form A. Persons on the extreme custodial continuum could theoretically score 300; while persons extremely humanistic could theoretically receive a score of 60.

The index of reliability of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument, Form B, tested by means of the split- half technique, was found to be .904.

The reliability of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument was established by the application of the Pearson-Product Moment statement to a split-half corre- lation test. The result was .91 and the Spearman-Brown formula yielded a coefficient of .95. This first study

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[125]Ibid..

involved a sample of 170. Additional studies using the half-test scores in two schools with 55 teachers produced a coefficient of .83; application of the Spearman-Brown formula showed a corrected coefficient of .91.[126] The results indicated a reliable measure of pupil control ideology.

The procedure used to validate the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument was based upon principals' judgments concerning the pupil control ideology of certain of their teachers. Principals were asked to read descriptions of the custodial and humanistic viewpoints and to identify a specified number of teachers whose ideology was most like each description. The number of teachers of each type was based on the size of the school. A t-test of the difference of the means of two independent samples was applied "to test the prediction that teachers judged to hold a custodial ideology would differ in mean Pupil Control Ideology Instrument scores from teachers judged to have a humanistic ideology."[127] Using a one-tailed test, the calculated t-value was 2.639, indicating a difference in the expected direction significant at the .01 level.[128]

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[126]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, op. cit., p. 12

[127]Ibid., p. 15.

[128]Ibid., p. 17

As a further check on the validity of the Pupil
Control Ideology Instrument the mean scores of personnel
in two schools known to be humanistic were compared with
the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument scores of personnel
in other schools at the same grade level in the sample.
While no statistical analysis was made in this case, a
trend in the expected direction was visible.[129] Finally,
a cross-validation was carried out using the technique
based upon principals' judgment of teacher ideology.
Seven schools, five elementary, and two secondary, were
used for this purpose. Using a one-tailed test, whose
calculated t-value was 3.418, "the difference in mean
Pupil Control Ideology Instrument scores for teachers
judged to be custodial in ideology and teachers judged to
be humanistic was significant at the .001 level."[130]

The Information Sheet was designed to give the
basic information on the background and situational
variables which were to be analyzed in relation to the
dependent variable--pupil control ideology. Each student-
teacher was asked to give his/her name on the sheet to
assist in determining the exact population. The information
was kept in the strictest confidence.

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[129]Ibid., p. 17

[130]Ibid.

The Treatment of the Data

The data were first analyzed to determined which of the situational variables or background factors were related to the hypotheses of the study. The relationships between and among the variables were then considered.

The third step was to relate the variables in the background data to the Pupil Control Ideology scores for Form A of the Instrument. The total Pupil Control Ideology scores for all members of the sample and the mean score for all members of the sample were obtained. Each variable was then related to the Pupil Control Ideology scores using analysis of variance; F-ratio or t-test for significant difference between certain groups or means; the Scheffé test to locate where the difference lies; product-moment correlation (zero order) to find the correlation between a certain variable, for example, age, and Pupil Control Ideology scores; and partial correlation to control for each variable in turn.

The fourth step was an analysis of the items in Form A of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument. In order to do this, the mean, the standard deviation, and the variance for each of the items 1 to 20 were obtained. Then the variables were related to the item which received the lowest score; also, to the item which received the

highest score.

The fifth step was to relate the variables in the background data to the Pupil Control Ideology scores for Form B of the Instrument. The total Pupil Control Ideology scores for all members of the sample were obtained. Each variable was then related to the Pupil Control Ideology scores using analysis of variance; F-ratio or t-test for significant difference between certain groups or means; the Scheffé test to locate where the difference lies; product-moment correstion (zero order) to find the correlation between a certain variable, for example, age; and Pupil Control Ideology scores; and partial correlation to control for each variable in turn.

The sixth step was an analysis of the items in Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument. In order to do this, the mean, the standard deviation, and the variance for each of the items 1 to 60 were obtained. Then the variables were related to the item which received the lowest score; also, to the item which received the highest score.

Finally, the items in Form A and Form B (combined) of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument were analyzed. In order to do this, the mean, the standard deviation, and the variance for each of the items 1 to 80 were obtained. Once again, the variables were related to the item which

received the lowest score; also, to the item which received the highest score.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the procedures and methodology employed in conducting the investigation. Information on the measures of pupil control ideology which were used in testing the hypotheses was presented. It further described the selection of the participants, the administration of the instrument, and the statistical treatment of the data.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS I: TESTING THE HYPOTHESES USING
THE PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY
INSTRUMENT (FORM A)

INTRODUCTION

The variables of this research were analyzed by the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument (Form A), the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument (Form B), and also by a combination of these two instruments. The empirical findings on the hypotheses as measured by the Pupil Control Instrument (Form A), and the results of the statistical analysis of the data relevant to each of these hypotheses are presented in this chapter.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the differences between the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior student-teachers or those in their first year of training and the attitudes of senior student-teachers or those in their fourth and/or fifth year, and to show the relationships between such differences of attitudes and certain situational variables. With this purpose in mind, the chapter will analyze the above mentioned attitudes in relation to such background factors or situational variables as: age and sex of

student-teachers; size and type of school where the student-teacher received his/her elementary and secondary education; kind of education program in which the student-teacher is entered; amount of teaching experience the student-teacher has had.

The hypotheses were tested by the use of analysis of variance, the Scheffé multiple comparison of means test, the t-test, and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The zero order partial correlation coefficient and covariance were used as control techniques. Also, the hypotheses were accepted or rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Rationale for the Major Hypothesis

Restraints upon behaviour are a pervasive part of group life. Such restraints may take the form of rules, norms, or expectations for behaviour in a particular role. The school society has all of these restraints, as well as the sanctions that encourage compliance, to regulate relations among its members. But as has been mentioned in the conceptual framework, the public school is a special type of organization since its clientele is unselected. A college or university on the other hand, does not face the same problem as the public school. Though the service is similar to that offered by the public school, the element of selectivity at this level is

not necessarily the same for either the organization or
the client. In most cases both exert control or choice
in the selection that takes place. Thus, the attitudes
of the college or university and the public school toward
the need for pupil control are probably quite different,
and it was upon this rationale that the major hypothesis
of the study (hypothesis one) was based.

Hypothesis One

It was hypothesized that the attitudes of junior
(first year) student-teachers toward pupil control would
be different from those of senior (fourth and/or fifth
year) student-teachers in that those students in their
final year would have had considerable exposure to a
society wherein both the organization and the client
exert control or choice in the selection that takes place.
As a consequence, the senior student-teachers would be
more humanistic in pupil control ideology.

Using the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument
(Form A), analysis of variance was computed on the
variable, year at university, and it yielded an F-ratio
of 8.0706 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom, which is
significant at the .05 level of confidence. To highlight
the differences between the pupil control ideology of
junior student-teachers and that of student-teachers in
the final year, three t-tests were performed as follows:

(i) between first year student-teachers and fourth year student-teachers, which gave a t-value of 4.52 with 267 degrees of freedom, and this is significant at the .05 level of confidence;

(ii) between first year student-teachers and fifth year student-teachers, which yielded a t-value of 2.94 with 195 degrees of freedom, and this is significant at the .05 level of confidence;

(iii) between first year student-teachers and fourth and fifth year student-teachers combined, which resulted in a t-value of 4.92 with 305 degrees of freedom, and this is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

As a result of the ANOVA and the various t-tests, hypothesis one was accepted, which means that there were significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control of junior (first year) student-teachers and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers in that the attitudes of the latter were more humanistic.

The acceptance of the major hypothesis (hypothesis one) necessitated control for the variable, year at university, when each of the other hypotheses of the study was tested. Hence, an ANOVA was computed for each of the other hypotheses while controlling for year at university,

in an attempt to ensure that the differences in attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) were not caused by the socialization of the training program.

Table 14 presents the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to year at university, and it indicates clearly why hypothesis one was accepted.

Table 14

Year at University by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores as Measured by Form A

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score
First	159	53.792
Fourth	110	49.709
Fifth	38	49.842

Mean Score for the Sample = 51.882

Table 15 presents a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores on the basis of the variable, year at university, as shown by the t-tests.

Table 15

A Comparison of the t-values of the Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores for
Year at University as Measured by Form A

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
First	159	53.7924	7.592	4.52
Fourth	110	49.7091	6.807	
First	159	53.7924	7.592	2.94
Fifth	38	49.8421	6.728	
First	159	53.7924	7.592	4.92
Fourth and Fifth	148	49.7432	6.764	

Level of Significance < .05

Hypothesis Two

Willower, Eidell, and Hoy had shown a relationship
between age and pupil control ideology for elementary and
secondary school teachers in that older elementary and
secondary school teachers (over 50 years) tended to have
a more custodialistic pupil control ideology than younger
elementary and secondary school teachers (20 to 29 years).[131]
That a relationship between age and pupil control ideology

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[131] Ibid., pp. 27-28

would be established for student-teachers was an assumption of this study, but it was thought that younger student-teachers would be less humanistic than their older counterparts. Thus, it was hypothesized that age would make a difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers, and that the younger student-teachers would be less humanistic than the older ones.

Computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology age scores for student-teachers yielded an F-ratio of 3.5798 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom. Performance of a t-test between student-teachers aged 16 to 30 years and those aged 31 years and over gave a t-value of 2.15 with 320 degrees of freedom. Both results are significant at the .05 level of confidence, so hypothesis two was accepted, as age did make a significant difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers. It was also found that the younger student-teachers were not as humanistic as their older colleagues.

Table 16 gives the age groups that were used to determine the F-ratio. It also gives the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to these age groups.

Table 17 gives an analysis of variance summary on the relationship between pupil control ideology scores and the age of student-teachers.

Table 16

Age in Years by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores as Measured by Form A

Age in Years	Number of Cases	Mean Score
16 - 20	176	52.949
21 - 25	114	50.781
26 - 30	19	51.579
31 and over	13	47.538

Mean Score for the Sample = 51.882

Table 17

Results of One-Way Analysis of Variance on
the Relationship between Pupil Control
Ideology Scores and Age as Measured by Form A

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-ratio
Between Groups	586.008	3	195.336	3.5798
Within Groups	17352.055	318	54.566	
Total	17938.063	321		

Hypothesis Three

The roles assigned to men and women by Western society combined with the differences in both mental outlook and physical characteristics of the two sexes, provide a rationale for the hypothesis that female attitudes toward pupil control differ from those of males. Hence, it was hypothesized that female student-teachers would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than would males.

The computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to the sex of the student-teachers gave an F-ratio of 4.5566 with 1 and 318 degrees of freedom. This result is significant at the .05 level of confidence, thus, hypothesis three was accepted. When a t-test was used to dichotomize between the pupil control ideology scores of male and female student-teachers, a t-value of 2.135 with 318 degrees of freedom was found, which result confirmed the acceptance of the hypothesis. Therefore, female student-teachers were found to be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than were males.

Table 18 gives a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores on the basis of the sex of the student-teachers as shown by the t-test.

Table 18

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Male and Female
Student-Teachers as Measured by Form A

Sex	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Male	172	52.721	7.439	2.135
Female	148	50.946	7.398	

Level of Significance <.05.

Hypothesis Four

It was assumed that if there were more teachers in
the school there might be a more diversified school
program. This diversification could lead to meeting the
needs of more students, which diversification could in
turn mean that pupil control would not be as rigid. Thus,
it was hypothesized that the size of the elementary school
from which they came would affect the pupil control
ideology of student-teachers in that those who came from
large elementary schools would be more humanistic than
those who came from small elementary schools.

Analysis of variance computed on the mean pupil
control ideology scores relative to size of elementary
school attended gave an F-ratio of 0.9396 with 4 and 317
degrees of freedom. This result is not significant at
the .05 level of confidence, so hypothesis four was
rejected. Hence, size of elementary school attended did

not make any significant difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers. Two t-tests were used in this way:

(i) between elementary schools of 1 to 8 class-rooms and those of 9 classrooms and over, which gave a t-value of -0.51 with 320 degrees of freedom;

(ii) between elementary schools of 1 to 5 class-rooms and those of 6 classrooms and over, which gave a t-value of -0.79 with 320 degrees of freedom.

These results are not significant at the .05 level of confidence, hence they confirmed the rejection of the hypothesis.

Table 19 presents the size of elementary school by number of classrooms, which categories of size were used to determine the F-ratio. The mean pupil control ideology scores relative to the size of the elementary school attended are also presented.

Table 20 presents a summary of the mean pupil control ideology scores based on the size of elementary school attended as shown by the t-tests.

Table 19

Size of Elementary School Attended by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores as Measured by Form A

Size of Elementary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
1 - 2 classrooms	72	52.167
3 - 5 classrooms	68	52.353
6 - 8 classrooms	59	51.559
9 -12 classrooms	48	50.125
13 classrooms and over	75	52.560

Mean Score for the Sample = 51.882

Table 20

Summary of the Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores for Size of Elementary
School Attended as Measured by Form A

Size of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
1 - 8 classrooms	199	52.0502	7.831	-0.51
9 classrooms and over	123	51.6097	6.884	
1 - 5 classrooms	140	52.2571	8.146	-0.79
6 classrooms and over	182	51.5934	6.924	

Level of Significance > .05

From Table 19 it should be noted that pupil control ideology scores decrease (become more humanistic) as the elementary shcools increase in size from 1 classroom to 12 classrooms, however, these scores become least humanistic for schools of 13 classrooms and over. Use of a Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means Test to make all possible comparisons between the various size categories as listed in Table 19, showed that for the junior (first year) student-teachers, Group 5 (13 classrooms and over) compared well with all the other groups except Group 4 where the comparison was .175. However, for the senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, Group 5 compared well with all the other groups except Group 1 and there the comparison was .756. Also, with the Scheffé Test, for the junior student-teachers there was a significant F-ratio (2.94), while for the senior student-teachers there was a non-significant F-ratio (0.82). Thus did the Scheffé affirm the results of the ANOVA and confirm the rejection of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Five

Relative to secondary education, it was hypothesized with regard to the variable, type of secondary school, that those student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools would have a more humanistic pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools.

Analysis of variance was computed on the mean
pupil control ideology scores concerning the type of
secondary school attended. The computation yielded an
F-ratio of 1.6680 with 3 and 317 degrees of freedom. This
is not significant at the .05 level of confidence and the
hypothesis was rejected. However, it should be noted
that when analysis of variance was computed for junior
(first year) student-teachers only, there was an F-ratio
of 4.1582 with 3 and 168 degrees of freedom, which is
significant at the .05 level of confidence. For senior
(fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers only, the
F-ratio was 2.1395 with 4 and 145 degrees of freedom and
although this result is not significant at the .05 level
of confidence, it does show that student-teachers from
Regional High Schools are generally more humanistic in
pupil control ideology, as does the F-ratio (1.6680) for
all the student-teachers. Also, the performance of t-tests
between

(i) Regional High Schools and All-Grade Schools
gave a t-value of 1.73 with 216 degrees of
freedom, which is not significant at the .05
level of confidence but which does show a
trend in the direction of the hypothesis
(student-teachers who attended Regional High
Schools are more humanistic in pupil

control ideology).

(ii) Regional High Schools and Central High
Schools gave a t-value of 2.02 with 181
degrees of freedom, which is significant at
the .05 level of confidence.

It is necessary to peruse the mean pupil control
ideology scores for all the student-teachers (Table 21),
for the junior student-teachers only (Table 22), and for
the senior student-teachers only (Table 23), in order to
see that there was a significant difference in pupil
control ideology for those student-teachers who attended
Regional High Schools.

Table 21

Type of Secondary School Attended by Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores for All
Student-Teachers as Measured by Form A

Type of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
All-Grade	115	52.209
Central High (Grs. 7 - 11)	80	52.837
Regional High (Grs. 9 - 11)	103	50.553
Other	23	52.565

Mean Score for All Student-teachers = 51.860

Table 22

Type of Secondary School Attended by Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores for Junior
Student-Teachers as Measured by Form A

Type of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
All-Grade	40	55.075
Central High (Grs. 7 - 11)	58	55.155
Regional High (Grs. 9 - 11)	60	55.117
Other	14	55.786

Mean Score for Junior Student-teachers = 53.779

Table 23

Type of Secondary School Attended by Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores for Senior
Student-Teachers as Measured by Form A

Type of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
All-Grade	75	50.680
Central High (Grs. 7 -11)	22	49.767
Regional High (Grs. 9 - 11)	43	46.727
Other	9	47.556

Mean Score for Senior Student-teachers = 49.707

Hypotheses Six and Seven

Willower, Eidell, and Hoy had predicted and tested the prediction or hypothesis that elementary and secondary school teachers would differ with regard to pupil control ideology in that the former would be more humanistic.[132] It seems logical to assume that elementary school pupils, when compared with secondary pupils, are less threatening to teacher status because they are younger, smaller in size, and relatively more immature. This assumption becomes stronger still when primary school pupils are compared with secondary pupils. A trend in this direction was expected among student-teachers, therefore, it was hypothesized that student-teachers registered in the Primary and Elementary education programs would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those registered in the High School education program.

Computation of analysis of variance for the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers registered in the various education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland gave an F-ratio of 0.1632 with 4 and 317 degrees of freedom. This result is not significant at the .05 level of confidence, so hypothesis six and hypothesis seven were rejected. When a t-test was used to dichotomize between student-teachers in the Primary education program

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[132]Ibid., p. 20.

and those in the High School education program, a t-value
of -0.60 with 163 degrees of freedom resulted. Per-
formance of a t-test between student-teachers in the
Elementary education program and those in the High School
education program resulted in a t-value of -0.60 with 269
degrees of freedom. These results are not significant at
the .05 level of confidence, and confirm the rejection of
the two hypotheses, which means that there were no signi-
ficant differences in pupil control ideology among student-
teachers registered in the Primary, Elementary, and High
School education programs at Memorial University of
Newfoundland.

Table 24 gives the mean pupil control ideology
scores according to the education program in which the
student-teachers were registered at Memorial University
of Newfoundland.

Table 24

Education Program in which Registered by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form A

Education Program at M.U.N.	Number of Cases	Mean Score
Primary	33	51.303
Elementary	139	51.655
High School (4 years)	71	52.183
High School (5 years)	61	52.197
Physical Education	18	52.444

Mean Score for the Sample = 51.882

Hypothesis Eight

Willower, Eidell, and Hoy hypothesized and showed that less experienced teachers at both the elementary and the secondary levels were more humanistic in pupil control than their more experienced colleagues. [133] It was assumed that a trend in this direction would be found among student-teachers, and it was hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience.

When analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers with regard to teaching experience, it gave an F-ratio of 1.1934 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Performance of a t-test between student-teachers with teaching experience and those with no teaching experience resulted in a t-value of -1.16 with 320 degrees of freedom, and this is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Thus, hypothesis eight was rejected, which means that student-teachers with no teaching experience were not more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience.

Table 25 presents the years of experience groupings

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[133] Ibid., p. 28.

on which the F-ratio was computed. It also presents the mean pupil control ideology scores with regard to teaching experience or the lack of it, which scores show that as teaching experience increased pupil control ideology became more humanistic.

Table 26 presents a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores as measured by the t-test.

Table 25

Teaching Experience by Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form A

Teaching Experience	Number of Cases	Mean Score
None	214	52.224
1 - 3 years	68	52.000
4 - 6 years	28	50.143
7 years and over	12	49.167

Mean Score for the Sample = 51.882

Table 26

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Teaching Experience
as Measured by Form A

Teaching Experience	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Teaching Experience	108	51.2037	6.661	-1.16
No Teaching Experience	214	52.2243	7.847	

Level of Significance >.05

SUMMARY

This chapter investigated the hypotheses of the study as measured by Form A of the Pupil Control Idedlogy Instrument. The major findings of the investigation are summarized in this section of the chapter. The major hypothesis of this study dealt with differences in the attitudes toward pupil control of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter are more humanistic. This hypothesis was significant at the .05 level of confidence as determined by analysis of variance and several t-tests. Differences in the attitudes toward pupil control of junior and senior student-teachers were also seen in relation to some of the other hypotheses, especially with regard to the variables--size of elementary school and type of secondary school attended. Because of these significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology)of junior and senior student-teachers, it was necessary to control for the variable, year at university, when dealing with hypotheses Two through Eight.

It was hypothesized that age would make a difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers, and that younger student-teachers would be less humanistic in their

attitudes toward pupil control than older student-teachers. This hypothesis was accepted, as age did make a significant difference in pupil control ideology, and younger student-teachers were less humanistic than the older ones.

The hypothesis dealing with male and female student-teachers stated that females would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology, and this hypothesis was accepted as it was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

It was hypothesized that the size of the elementary school attended would affect pupil control ideology in that those student-teachers who attended large elementary schools would be more humanistic in pupil control than those who attended small elementary schools. However, analysis of variance and t-tests showed that there was no significance at the .05 confidence level, so this hypothesis was rejected.

The hypothesis that dealt with secondary education maintained that student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools. Again, there was no significance at the .05 level of confidence, and the

hypothesis was rejected, but it showed that student-teachers from Regional High Schools were generally more humanistic than student-teachers from any other type of High School. Also, when analysis of variance was computed for the junior (first year) student-teachers only, there was a significant F-ratio (4.1582) and the mean pupil control ideology score for those junior student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools was 51.117, whereas the mean score for those who attended other types of High School ranged from 55 to 56.

There were two hypotheses dealing with the education program in which registered and it was thought that those student-teachers in the Primary and Elementary programs would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those in the High School program. However, neither the hypothesis dealing with student-teachers in the Primary education program, nor the hypothesis dealing with student-teachers in the Elementary education program was significant at the .05 level of confidence, so each hypothesis was rejected. This means that there were no significant differences among student-teachers in the Primary, Elementary, and High School education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland with regard to pupil control ideology.

The last hypothesis was concerned with the teaching experience of student-teachers, and it was

hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience. When analysis of variance was computed, the F-ratio found (1.1934) was not significant at the .05 level of confidence, so this hypothesis was rejected. Performance of a t-test showed a trend in the opposite direction to that hypothesized, as student-teachers with no teaching experience were less humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience. Indeed, perusal of the mean pupil control ideology scores showed that as teaching experience increased, the scores became lower or more humanistic.

Chapter V analyzes the variables of the study by using Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS II: TESTING THE HYPOTHESES USING
THE PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY
INSTRUMENT (FORM B)

INTRODUCTION

This chapter tests the hypotheses of the study by
using the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument (Form B), and
presents the results of the Statistical analysis of the
data in its relationship to that form of the instrument.
The dependent variable for each hypothesis is pupil
control ideology, while the independent variables are
those listed and used in the previous chapter. The
methodology for testing the hypotheses and the control
techniques are also the same as those used in Chapter IV.

Hypothesis One

It was hypothesized that the attitudes of junior
(first year) student-teachers toward pupil control would
be different from those of senior (fourth and/or fifth
year) student-teachers in that the attitudes of the
latter would be more humanistic.

By the use of Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology
Instrument, analysis of variance computed on the mean
pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers relative

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to year at university, yielded an F-ratio of 24.4457 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. To emphasize the differences between the pupil control ideology of student-teachers in the first year of university and that of student-teachers in the other years, t-tests were performed in these ways:

(i) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those of student-teachers in the fourth year. This resulted in a t-value of 7.92 with 267 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

(ii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those of student-teachers in the fifth year. This yielded a t-value of 5.04 with 195 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

(iii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those of student-teachers in the fourth and fifth years combined. This gave a t-value of 8.48 with 305 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The results of the analysis of variance and the

t-tests favoured the acceptance of hypothesis one, which means that there were significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter are much more humanistic.

Table 27 gives the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to year at university for student-teachers, and it indicates clearly why the first hypothesis was accepted. This indication is that the mean score of senior student-teachers was about 18 points, or 12% lower than that of juniors.

Table 28 presents a summary of the mean pupil control ideology scores as measured by Form B based on the t-tests.

Table 27

Year at University by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores as measured by Form B

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score
First	159	159.748
Second and Third	15	160.600
Fourth	110	140.555
Fifth	38	141.158

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

Table 28

Summary of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Year at University as Measured by Form B

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
First	159	159.7484	20.376	7.92
Fourth	110	140.5545	18.276	
First	159	159.7484	20.376	5.04
Fifth	38	141.1579	20.714	
First	159	159.7484	20.376	8.48
Fourth and Fifth	148	140.7095	18.861	

Level of Significance <.05

Since the major hypothesis (hypothesis one) showed
that there were significant differences in the attitudes
toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior
(first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-
teachers, it was necessary to control for the variable,
year at university, when testing each of the other hypotheses
of the study. Consequently, the analysis of variance
reported for each of the other hypotheses was computed while
controlling for year at university.

Hypothesis Two

Relative to age and the pupil control ideology of

student-teachers, it was hypothesized that age would make a difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers, and that the younger student-teachers would be less humanistic than their older colleagues.

When analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores, it yielded an F-ratio of 11.0712 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. Performance of a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers aged 16-30 years and of those aged 31 years and over gave a t-value of 2.27 with 320 degrees of freedom. Both results are significant at the .05 level of confidence, hence hypothesis two was accepted as age did make a significant difference in pupil control ideology. Also the younger student-teachers were less humanistic than their older colleagues.

Table 29 gives the age groups that were used to determine the F-ratio. It also gives the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to those age groups.

Table 29

Age in Years by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores as Measured by Form B

Age in Years	Number of Cases	Mean Score
16 - 20	176	156.875
21 - 25	114	143.553
26 - 30	19	151.105
31 and over	13	137.538

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

Hypothesis Three

Because of the characteristic differences in men and women, it was hypothesized that female student-teachers would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than male student-teachers.

The computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to the sex of student-teachers yielded an F-ratio of 0.5081 with 6 and 315 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Using a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of males and females, gave a t-value of -0.71 with 318 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Since neither result was significant, hypothesis three was rejected, which means that for Form B

of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument there was no significant difference between males and females in their attitudes toward pupil control.

Table 30 gives a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores for male and female student-teachers as shown by the t-test.

Table 30

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology Scores for Male and Female Student-teachers as Measured by Form B

Sex	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Male	172	150.2209	21.875	0.71
Female	148	151.9730	21.959	

Level of Significance >.05

Hypothesis Four

For the variable, size of elementary school attended, it was hypothesized that student-teachers who attended large elementary schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended small elementary schools.

Analysis of variance computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers with regard to size of elementary school attended, gave an F-ratio of 0.2640 with 4 and 317 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Two t-tests

were used to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the student-teachers who attended

    (i)   elementary schools of 1 to 8 classrooms and elementary schools of 9 classrooms and over;

    (ii)   elementary schools of 1 to 5 classrooms and elementary schools of 6 classrooms and over.

The former gave a t-value of -0.50 with 320 degrees of freedom, while the latter gave a t-value of -0.41 with 320 degrees of freedom. Neither of these results is significant at the .05 level of confidence. The hypothesis was rejected, which means that size of elementary school attended did not make any significant differences in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers.

Table 31 gives the size of elementary school attended by number of classrooms, which categories of size were used to determine the F-ratio. The mean pupil control ideology scores relative to size of elementary school attended are also given.

Table 32 gives a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores on the basis of size of elementary school attended as shown by the t-tests used.

Table 31

Size of Elementary School Attended by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form B

Size of Elementary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
1 - 2 classrooms	72	151.625
3 - 5 classrooms	68	151.588
6 - 8 classrooms	59	151.322
9 - 12 classrooms	48	148.021
13 classrooms and over	75	151.680

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

Table 32

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Size of Elementary
School Attended
as Measured by Form B

Size of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
1 - 8 classrooms	199	151.5226	22.699	-0.50
9 classrooms and over	123	150.2520	21.009	
1 - 5 classrooms	140	151.6071	23.093	-0.41
6 classrooms and over	182	150.5989	21.257	

Level of Significance > .05

Hypothesis Five

With regard to the variable, type of secondary education, it was hypothesized that those student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools.

Analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to type of secondary school attended--All-Grade, Central High School, Regional High School, or Other--and it yielded an F-ratio of 2.1936 with 3 and 317 degrees of freedom. This result is not significant at the .05 level of confidence, so hypothesis five was rejected. However, two t-tests were performed as follows:

(i) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended All-Grade Schools, resulting in a t-value of -0.31 with 216 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

(ii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended Central High Schools, which resulted in a t-value of 1.98 with 181 degrees of freedom,

and this is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 33 gives the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to the type of secondary school attended. It is interesting to note from a perusal of these mean scores that for Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument, student-teachers who attended All-Grade Schools had the lowest or most humanistic scores.

Table 34 gives a comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores based on the type of secondary school attended as measured by the t-tests used.

Table 33

Type of Secondary School Attended by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form B

Type of Secondary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
All-Grade	115	148.443
Central High School (Grades 7 - 11)	80	155.837
Regional High School (Grades 9 - 11)	103	149.340
Other	23	154.391

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

Table 34

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Type of Secondary
School Attended
as Measured by Form B

Type of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
All-Grade	115	148.4435	21.578	-0.31
Regional High School	103	149.3398	20.422	
Central High School	80	155.8375	23.938	1.98
Regional High School	103	149.3398	20.422	

Hypotheses Six and Seven

It was hypothesized that student-teachers registered
in the Primary education program and in the Elementary
education program would be more humanistic in pupil control
ideology than those registered in the High School education
program at Memorial University of Newfoundland.

When analysis of variance was computed on the mean
pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers
registered in the various education programs, it yielded
an F-ratio of 0.1453 with 4 and 317 degrees of freedom.
This result is not significant at the .05 level of
confidence, thus, hypotheses six and seven were rejected.
Use of a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil

control ideology scores of student-teachers in the Primary education program and those in the High School education program gave a t-value of -0.55 with 163 degrees of freedom, while the dichotomy between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the Elementary education program and those in the High School education program gave a t-value of 0.29 with 269 degrees of freedom. These results are not significant at the .05 level of confidence, thus confirming the rejection of the two hypotheses. This means that no significant differences in pupil control ideology were found among student-teachers registered in the Primary, Elementary, and High School education programs.

Table 35 presents the mean pupil control ideology scores with regard to the education program in which the student-teachers were registered at Memorial University of Newfoundland. From this table it can be seen that although the hypothesis was rejected, the student-teachers in the Primary education program had the lowest mean score or were the most humanistic in pupil control ideology.

A comparison of the mean pupil control ideology scores based on the education program in which registered is given in Table 36.

Table 35

Education Program in which Registered by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form B

Education Program at M.U.N.	Number of Cases	Mean Score
Primary	33	148.515
Elementary	139	151.705
High School (four years)	71	150.705
High School (five years)	61	151.230
Physical Education	18	151.333

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

Table 36

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for the Education Program in
which Registered
as Measured by Form B

Education Program at M.U.N.	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Primary	33	148.5151	20.078	-0.55
High School	132	150.9242	22.922	
Elementary	139	151.7050	21.122	0.29
High School	132	150.9242	22.922	

Level of Significance >.05

Hypotheses Eight

Relative to the variable, teaching experience, it was hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience.

Computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology scores for teaching experience gave an F-ratio of 5.2967 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. Performance of a t-test between student-teachers with teaching experience and those with no teaching experience resulted in a t-value of -3.62 with 320 degrees of freedom, which is also significant at the .05 level of confidence. However, the hypothesis had to be rejected, as the statistical results showed that the significance was in the opposite direction to that hypothesized. A perusal of the mean scores (Table 37) explains the situation for it shows that as teaching experience increased, mean pupil control ideology scores became lower or more humanistic. It is also worthy of note that between the mean scores of the least experienced and the most experienced student-teachers there was a difference of almost 15 points.

Table 37 gives the amount of experience groupings on which the F-ratio was computed, as well as listing the mean pupil control ideology scores referred to in the previous paragraph.

Table 37

Amount of Teaching Experience by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
as Measured by Form B

Teaching Experience	Number of Cases	Mean Score
None	214	154.140
1 - 3 years	68	147.515
4 - 6 years	28	140.821
7 years and over	12	139.500

Mean Score for the Sample = 151.037

SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the hypotheses of the
study as measured by Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology
Instrument and the findings that resulted are recapitulated
here.

The major hypothesis of the study, which states
that there are differences in the attitudes toward pupil
control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year)
and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers
in that the attitudes of the latter are more humanistic,
was shown to be significant at the .05 level of confidence
by use of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control
ideology scores relative to the variable, year at
university, which gave an F-ratio of 24.4457. Three

t-tests performed between mean pupil control ideology
scores of first year and fourth year student-teachers, of
first year and fifth year student teachers, of first year
and fourth and fifth year student-teachers combined, gave
significant t-values of 7.92, 5.04, and 8.48 respectively,
and thus confirmed the result of the ANOVA.

It was hypothesized that age would make a
difference in the pupil control ideology of student-
teachers, and that younger student-teachers would be less
humanistic than older ones. The first part of the hypothesis
was accepted as there was a significant F-ratio (11.0712)
at the .05 level of confidence. Also, from studying the
mean pupil control ideology scores and from a t-test
performed to dichotomize between the mean scores of student-
teachers aged 16-30 years and those aged 31 years and over
with a resulting t-value of 2.27, it was found that
younger student-teachers are less humanistic than older
ones.

With regard to male and female student-teachers,
it was hypothesized that females would be more humanistic
in pupil control ideology. However, the statistical
analyses--an F-ratio of 0.5081 and a t-value of -0.71
showed that there was no significant difference at the
.05 level of confidence, hence the hypothesis was
rejected. Therefore, the pupil control ideology of the
male student-teachers did not differ significantly from

that of the female student-teachers.

The size of elementary school attended was hypothesized to affect pupil control ideology in that the student-teachers who attended large elementary schools would be more humanistic in pupil control than those who attended small elementary schools. Neither the ANOVA nor the t-tests gave any significance at the .05 level of confidence, so this hypothesis was rejected, which means that size of elementary school attended did not significantly affect the pupil control ideology of student-teachers.

Relative to the type of secondary school attended, it was hypothesized that student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools. The F-ratio (2.1936) was not significant at the .05 level of confidence, and the hypothesis was rejected; however, when t-tests were performed, it was found that there was a significant t-value (1.98) when dichotomizing between student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended Central High Schools, and a non-significant t-value (-0.31) when dichotomizing between student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended All-Grade Schools. Here again, significance was at the .05 level of confidence. Scrutiny of the mean pupil

control ideology scores showed that student-teachers who attended All-Grade Schools had the lowest scores or were most humanistic in pupil control ideology.

For the variable, Education Program in which registered, there were two hypotheses--one dealing with the Primary education program and the High School education program, and the other dealing with the Elementary education program and the High School education program. It was hypothesized that those student-teachers in the Primary and Elementary education programs would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those in the High School education program. However, computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers registered in the various education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland (Primary, Elementary, High School, Physical Education) yielded an F-ratio of 0.1453 which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Use of t-tests to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the Primary education program and those in the High School education program gave a t-value of -0.55 which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence, while dichotomizing between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the Elementary education program and those in the High School education program gave a t-value of 0.29, which again is not significant at

the .05 level of confidence. Thus, each hypothesis was rejected, which means that there were no significant differences in pupil control ideology among student-teachers in the Primary, Elementary, and High School education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland.

The last hypothesis dealt with the variable, teaching experience, and it was hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience. When analysis of variance was computed there was an F-ratio of 5.2967, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. However, the hypothesis was rejected, as the t-test performed between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers with no teaching experience and those with teaching experience gave a t-value of -3.62 which is significant at the .05 level of confidence, but the significance is in the opposite direction to that hypothesized--student-teachers with no teaching experience were not found to be _more_ humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience.

It must be noted that each analysis of variance computed for hypotheses TWO through EIGHT controlled for the variable, year at university. This was done to make sure that the differences in pupil control ideology between junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or

fifth year) student-teachers were caused by the particular variable being analyzed and not by their year at university.

Chapter VI analyzes the variables of the study by combining Form A and Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument and using 80 items to determine the mean pupil control ideology scores. It also makes comparisons with the results obtained from the analyses done in the two previous chapters, and analyzes the items of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument relative to ranking by average scores.

CHAPTER V1

ANALYSIS III: FURTHER TESTING OF THE HYPOTHESES, A
COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE THREE ANALYSES
OF DATA, AND AN ANALYSIS OF THE ITEMS OF THE
PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY INSTRUMENT

INTRODUCTION

The empirical findings on the hypotheses as
determined by combining Form A and Form B of the Pupil
Control Ideology Instrument, and the results of the
statistical analyses of data relevant to each of these
hypotheses are presented in the first section of this
chapter.

In the second section of the chapter, the results
obtained from the three analyses of the data are compared.
These analyses are:

(i)   analysis of the data using the Pupil Control
        Ideology Instrument (Form A) to determine
        the mean pupil control ideology scores;

(ii)   analysis of the data using the Pupil Control
        Ideology Instrument (Form B) to determine the
        mean pupil control ideology scores;

(iii)   analysis of the data using the Pupil Control
        Ideology Instrument Form A and Form B

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(combined) to determine the mean pupil control ideology scores.

The items on each of these forms are analyzed in terms of ranking by average scores, in the third section of the chapter.

The methodology and control techniques are the same as those used in Chapters IV and V, and once again, the hypotheses are accepted or rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis One

The major hypothesis of the study stated that there would be differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter would be more humanistic.

Using a combination of Form A and Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument, analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers relative to year at university. This yielded an F-ratio of 22.1390 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence, so the major hypothesis was accepted. It should be noted that the exact significance level was .0003. To give emphasis to the differences between the

pupil control ideology of student-teachers in the first year and that of those in the final years, the following t-tests were performed:

(i) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those in the fourth year. This gave a t-value of 7.55 with 267 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

(ii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those in the fifth year. This resulted in a t-value of 4.80 with 195 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

(iii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the first year and those in the fourth and fifth years combined. This yielded a t-value of 8.10 with 305 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

These results for junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers confirmed the acceptance of hypothesis one, which means that there were significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior and senior student-teachers, and that the attitudes of the latter

were more humanistic.

Table 38 gives the mean pupil control ideology scores for student-teachers with regard to year at university.

Table 39 gives a summary of the mean pupil control ideology scores as determined by the t-tests.

Table 38

Year at University by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score
First	159	213.541
Second and Third	15	213.333
Fourth	110	190.264
Fifth	38	191.000

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.919

Table 39

A Summary of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Year at University
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Year at University	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
First	159	213.5409	25.986	7.55
Fourth	110	190.2636	23.152	
First	159	213.5409	25.986	4.80
Fifth	38	191.0000	26.003	
First	159	213.5409	25.986	8.10
Fourth and Fifth	148	190.4527	23.827	

Level of Significance < .05

Hypothesis Two

This hypothesis dealt with the age of the student-teachers and it stated that age would make a difference in their pupil control ideology. It also stated that the younger student-teachers would be less humanistic in pupil control ideology than the older ones.

Computation of analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology age scores for student-teachers gave an F-ratio of 9.8390 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom. Using a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers aged 16-30 years and those aged 31 years and over gave a t-value of 2.39 with 320 degrees of freedom. Each

result is significant at the .05 level of confidence and hypothesis two was accepted, as age did make a difference in pupil control ideology. With regard to the second part of the hypothesis, it should be noted that the younger student-teachers were less humanistic in pupil control ideology than their older counterparts.

To ensure that age was not affected by the variable, year at university, the data were analyzed while controlling for the latter variable at each of the age levels (see Table 41) for junior and for senior student-teachers. However, there was no change in the direction of the difference between younger and older student-teachers--as age increased the mean pupil control ideology scores decreased, so much so, that between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers aged 16-20 years and those aged 31 years and over, there was a difference of almost 25 points. Also, correlation of the mean scores with the age variable using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient gave an r of -0.2425 with 322 degrees of freedom and a significance of .001.

Table 40 presents the age levels that were used to determine the F-ratio and gives the mean pupil control ideology scores for those age levels.

Table 40

Age in Years
by Mean Pupil Control Ideology Scores
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Age in Years	Number of Cases	Mean Score
16 - 20	176	209.824
21 - 25	114	194.333
26 - 30	19	202.684
31 and over	13	185.077

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.919

Hypothesis Three

Relative to the sex of the student-teachers, it was hypothesized that females would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than males. The use of a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of male and female student-teachers gave a t-value of 0.01 with 318 degrees of freedom which has no significance at the .05 level of confidence. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected, which means that there was no significant difference between the attitudes of male and female student-teachers toward pupil control when the mean pupil control ideology scores were obtained by using Form A and Form B-(combined) of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument. Analysis of variance was also done to control for the variable, year at university, and it

confirmed that the mean pupil control ideology scores of males did not differ significantly from those of females.

This can be seen more easily when the mean pupil control ideology scores of male and female student-teachers are considered. Therefore, Table 41 gives a comparison of these mean scores.

Table 41

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Male and Female
Student-teachers
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Sex	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Male	172	202.942	27.528	0.01
Female	148	202.919	27.634	

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.931
Level of Significance > .05

Hypothesis Four

This hypothesis dealt with the variable, size of elementary school attended, and it stated that student-teachers who attended large elementary schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended small elementary schools.

Computing analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology scores related to this variable while controlling for year at university, gave an F-ratio of 0.4368 with 4 and 317 degrees of freedom which is not

significant at the .05 level of confidence, hence the hypothesis was rejected. Two t-tests were performed as follows:

> (i) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the student-teachers who attended elementary schools of 1-8 classrooms and those who attended elementary schools of 9 class-rooms and upward;

> (ii) between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the student-teachers who attended elementary schools of 1-5 classrooms and those who attended elementary schools of 6 classrooms and upward.

Each of these t-tests yielded a t-value of -0.54 with 320 degrees of freedom which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence. These results confirmed the rejection of the hypothesis, therefore, size of elementary school attended did not make any significant differences in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers.

Table 42 presents the size of elementary school attended on the basis of number of classrooms, and it was on this basis that the F-ratio was computed. It also presents the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to size of elementary school attended.

Table 43 presents a comparison of these mean pupil control ideology scores as shown by the t-tests.

Table 42

Size of Elementary School Attended by Mean Pupil
Control Ideology Scores
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Size of Elementary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
1 - 2 classrooms	72	203.792
3 - 5 classrooms	68	203.941
6 - 8 classrooms	59	202.881
9 - 12 classrooms	48	198.146
13 classrooms and over	75	204.240

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.919

Table 43

A Comparison of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores Size of Elementary
School Attended
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Size of School	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
1 - 8 classrooms	199	203.5729	28.734	-0.54
9 classrooms and over	123	201.8618	26.044	
1 - 5 classrooms	140	203.8643	29.572	-0.54
6 classrooms and over	182	202.1923	26.245	

Level of Significance > .05

Hypothesis Five

Concerning the variable, type of secondary education, the hypothesis stated that student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who attended either Central High Schools or All-Grade Schools.

Analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores relative to type of secondary school attended. When year at university was controlled for, it yielded an F-ratio of 2.0228 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence, hence, the hypothesis was rejected. Two t-tests were used to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of

(i) student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended All-Grade Schools. The result was a t-value of 0.21 with 216 degrees of freedom, which is not significant at the .05 level of confidence;

(ii) student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools and those who attended Central High Schools. This resulted in a t-value of 2.13 with 181 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

It should be noted from a perusal of Table 44 that, although the hypothesis was rejected, the

student-teachers who attended Regional High Schools had
the lowest or most humanistic mean score.

Table 45 gives a summary of the mean pupil control
ideology scores based on the type of secondary school
attended as shown by the t-tests.

Table 44

Type of Secondary School Attended by Mean
Pupil Control Ideology Scores
As Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Type of Secondary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score
All-Grade	115	200.652
Central High School (Grades 7 - 11)	80	208.675
Regional High School (Grades 9 - 11)	103	199.893
Other	23	206.957

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.860

Table 45

A Summary of the Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Type of Secondary School
Attended as Measured by Form A and Form B (Combined)

Type of Secondary School	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
All-Grade	115	200.6522	27.136	0.21
Regional High School	103	199.8932	25.393	
Central High School	80	208.6750	30.288	2.13
Regional High School	103	199.8932	25.393	

Hypotheses Six and Seven

For the variable, education program in which
registered at Memorial University of Newfoundland, it was
hypothesized that student-teachers in the Primary education
program and in the Elementary education program would be
more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those
registered in the High School education program.

Controlling for year at university, computation of
analysis of variance on the mean pupil control ideology
scores of student-teachers registered in the various
education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland
yielded an F-ratio of 0.1198 with 4 and 317 degrees of
freedom. This result is not significant at the .05 level
of confidence, so hypotheses six and seven were rejected.

Performance of a t-test to dichotomize between the mean
pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers in the
Primary education program and those in the High School
education program gave a t-value of -0.60 with 163 degrees
of freedom. When a t-test was performed to dichotomize
between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-
teachers in the Elementary education program and those in
the High School education program, it resulted in a t-value
of 0.07 with 269 degrees of freedom. Neither of these
results is significant at the .05 level of confidence,
so each confirmed the rejection of the two hypotheses,
which means that no significant differences were found
in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers regis-
tered in the Primary, Elementary, and High School education
programs.

Although the hypothesis was rejected, Table 46
shows that the student-teachers in the Primary education
program had the lowest or most humanistic mean pupil
control ideology score.

A comparison of the mean pupil control ideology
scores based on the education program in which the
student-teachers were registered at Memorial University
of Newfoundland is given in Table 47.

Table 46

Education Program in which Registered at
Memorial University of Newfoundland
by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores
as measured by Form A and Form B (combined)

Education Program at M.U.N.	Number of Cases	Mean Score
Primary	33	199.818
Elementary	139	203.360
High School (4 years)	71	202.845
High School (5 years)	61	203.426
Physical Education	18	203.778

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.919

Table 47

A Comparison of Mean Pupil Control Ideology
Scores for Education Program in which
Registered at Memorial University
of Newfoundland
as measured by Form A and Form B (combined)

Education Program	Number of Cases	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-value
Primary	33	199.8182	26.128	-0.60
High School	132	203.1136	28.691	
Elementary	139	203.3597	26.367	0.07
High School	132	203.1136	28.691	

Level of Significance >.05

Hypothesis Eight

With regard to the variable, teaching experience, it was hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience.

In order to control for year at university, analysis of variance was computed on the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers with regard to teaching experience. It gave an F-ratio of 4.3751 with 3 and 318 degrees of freedom which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. Use of a t-test to dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology scores of student-teachers with teaching experience and those with none, gave a t-value of -3.13 with 320 degrees of freedom, which is significant at the .05 level of confidence. Nevertheless, the hypothesis was rejected, since the t-test showed that the significance was in the opposite direction to that hypothesized. This was confirmed when the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed and gave an r of -0.1875 with 322 degrees of freedom and a significance of .001. This change of direction can be seen when the mean pupil control ideology scores are perused.

Table 48 gives these mean scores and shows that as teaching experience increased, the scores became lower or more humanistic. It should also be noted that between the mean pupil control ideology scores of the non-experienced

and the most experienced student-teachers there is a difference of almost 18 points.

Table 48

Teaching Experience by Mean Pupil Control
Ideology Scores
as measured by Form A and Form B (combined)

Teaching Experience	Number of Cases	Mean Score
None	214	206.364
1 - 3 years	68	199.515
4 - 6 years	28	190.964
7 years and over	12	188.667

Mean Score for the Sample = 202.919

COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE THREE
ANALYSES OF THE DATA

To provide for sufficient yet succinct examination of the hypotheses, they were subjected to three testings and the data analyzed by using the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument (Form A), the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument (Form B), and the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument with Form A and Form B combined.

The major hypothesis, which stated that there would be differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year)

and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers in
that the attitudes of the latter would be more humanistic,
was shown to be significant at the .05 level of confidence
by each of the three analyses of the data listed in the
preceding paragraph.

With regard to the variable, age, the hypothesis
stated that age would make a difference in the pupil
control ideology of student-teachers, and also that the
younger student-teachers would be less humanistic in
pupil control ideology than their older colleagues.
Each of the three analyses showed that the hypothesis was
significant at the .05 level of confidence in that age
did make a difference in the pupil control ideology of
student-teachers. Use of t-tests to dichotomize between
the mean pupil control ideology scores of younger and
older student-teachers also showed that the younger ones
were not as humanistic as the older.

It was hypothesized that female student-teachers
would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than
male student-teachers. Analyses of the data using Form A
of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument showed that
there was a significant difference at the .05 level of
confidence in the pupil control ideology of male and
female student-teachers, in that the females were more
humanistic. Thus, the hypothesis was accepted for this

form of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument. When Form
B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument and also Forms
A and B (combined) were used to analyze the data, it
was found that there was no significant difference at
the .05 level of confidence between male and female
student-teachers, and the hypothesis was rejected for
these forms of the instrument.

Relative to the variable, size of elementary
school attended, it was hypothesized that student-teachers
who came from large elementary schools would be more
humanistic in pupil control ideology than those who
came from small elementary schools. Each of the three
analyses showed that the hypothesis was not significant
at the .05 level of confidence, hence it was rejected,
as the size of elementary school attended did not signi-
ficantly affect the pupil control ideology of student-
teachers.

The hypothesis that dealt with type of secondary
school attended stated that student-teachers who attended
Regional High Schools would be more humanistic in pupil
control ideology than those who attended either Central
High Schools or All-Grade Schools. The F-ratio obtained
from each of the three analyses of data was not significant
at the .05 level of confidence and the hypothesis was
rejected. However, use of t-tests for each of the three

analyses showed that student-teachers who attended
Regional High Schools were more humanistic in pupil
control ideology than those who attended Central High
Schools, and there were significant t-values at the .05
level of confidence. Although there was no significance
at the .05 level of confidence when t-tests were used to
dichotomize between the mean pupil control ideology
scores of student-teachers who attended Regional High
Schools and those who attended All-Grade Schools, there
was a strong trend in the direction of the hypothesis.

There were two hypotheses dealing with education
program in which registered at Memorial University of
Newfoundland, and they stated that student-teachers
registered in the Primary and Elementary education pro-
grams would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology
than those registered in the High School education program.
The statistical results obtained from each of the three
analyses with regard to the mean pupil control ideology
scores of student-teachers registered in the various
education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland
showed that at the .05 level of confidence no significant
differences were found in the pupil control ideology of
student-teachers registered in the Primary, Elementary,
and High School education programs. However, it should
be noted that, for each of the three analyses, student-

teachers registered in the Primary education program had the lowest or most humanistic mean pupil control ideology score.

Concerning the variable, teaching experience, it was hypothesized that student-teachers with no teaching experience would be more humanistic in pupil control ideology than those with teaching experience. Each of the three analyses showed that this hypothesis was not significant at the .05 level of confidence, and a study of the mean pupil control ideology scores for each analysis showed a trend in the opposite direction to that hypothesized -- as teaching experience increased, mean pupil control ideology scores became lower or more humanistic.

Because the various testings of the major hypothesis (hypothesis one) showed that there were differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers in that the attitudes of the latter were more humanistic, it was assumed that the variable, year at university, might have influenced the results of the other hypotheses. To make sure that this did not happen, analysis of variance was performed for all the hypotheses in turn, while controlling for year at university; this was done

in each of the three analyses of data.

To attempt to determine the effectiveness of Form A of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument as compared with Form B of that instrument with regard to measuring pupil control ideology, the total scores of Form A were correlated with those of Form B. The result was a correlation coefficient of 0.69 with 320 degrees of freedom and a significance of .001, which showed that Form A of the instrument compared favourably with Form B as a measure of pupil control ideology.

Table 49 gives the results of the above correlation, as also the results of further correlations that were done.

Table 49

Correlations Between the Forms of the
Pupil Control Ideology Instrument

Variable Pair	Degrees of Freedom	Correlation Coefficient	Probability
Total A with Total B	320	0.69	.001
Total A with Total A and B (combined)	320	0.82	.001
Total B with Total A and B (combined)	320	0.98	.001

ANALYSIS OF THE ITEMS OF THE PUPIL
CONTROL IDEOLOGY INSTRUMENT

On each of the Forms of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument used in the analyses of data--Form A, Form B, Forms A and B (combined)--the items were ranked by average score and those items receiving the lowest (most humanistic) and highest (more custodialistic) average scores were considered. For Form A, the items receiving the lowest average scores were Numbers 3, 7, and 16.

Number 3: "Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique."

Number 7: "Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class."

Number 16: "A few pupils are just hoodlums and should be treated accordingly."

Concerning the marking of the items, they were arranged on a custodialistic--humanistic continuum, and the points assigned were 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. Thus, the higher the score, the more rigid or custodialistic the individual was deemed to be.

The average scores for Numbers 3, 7, and 16 were 1.49, 1.84, and 1.89 respectively, while the average mean score for all student-teachers was 2.54. Thus, it can be seen that these scores were well below the average mean score.

The items receiving the highest average scores were Numbers 18, 8, and 14.

Number 18:   "A pupil who destroys school property or
             material should be severely punished."

Number 8:   "It is justifiable to have pupils learn many
             facts about a subject even if they have no
             immediate application."

Number 14:   "If a pupil uses obscene or profane language
             in school, it must be considered a moral
             offence."

The average scores for Numbers 18, 8, and 14 were

3.16, 3.16, and 3.31 respectively. When these are

considered in light of the average mean score (2.54), it

can be seen that student-teachers seemed to have a rather

strict or custodialistic viewpoint with regard to the

learning of unrelated or unnecessary facts, use of

profane or obscene language, and severe punishment for

destruction of school material or property.

When the items of Form B of the Pupil Control

Ideology Instrument were ranked, the items receiving the

lowest average scores were Numbers 1, 29, and 59.

Number 1:   "Minor disciplinary situations should never
             be turned into jokes."

Number 29:   "It is not advisable to allow children much
             freedom in the execution of learning
             activities."

Number 59:   "A pupil does not have the right to disagree
             openly with his teachers."

The average score for Numbers 1, 29, and 59 were

0.39, 1.43, and 1.53 respectively. The average mean

score for all student-teachers was 2.52, which showed

that for these three items, especially for Number 1,

the student-teachers strongly disagreed with the statements.

The items receiving the highest average scores were Numbers 2, 10, and 3.

Number 2:   "If the teacher laughs with the pupils in amusing classroom situations, the class tends to get out of control."

Number 10: "A pupil should be required to stand when reciting."

Number 3:   "It sometimes does a child good to be criticized in the presence of other pupils."

The average scores for these items were 3.84, 3.90, 4.48 respectively, and when the average mean score (2.52) is considered, these items rank highly on the custodialistic end of the continuum.

Ranking the items for Forms A and B (combined), gave the lowest average scores to Numbers 21, 49, and 3. It should be noted that Number 21 is Number 1 of Form B and it received the same average score of 0.39; also, Number 3 is the same as Number 3 of Form A and has received the same average score.

Number 49: "Children that cannot meet the school standards should be dropped."

This item received an average score of 1.43, which is considerably lower than the average mean score of 2.54.

The items receiving the highest average scores were Numbers 22, 30, and 23, which average scores were 3.84, 3.90, and 4.48 respectively.

Number 22: "Aggressive children are the greatest problems."

Number 30: "Pupils must learn to respect teachers if for no other reason than that they are teachers."

Number 23: "At times, it is necessary that the whole class suffer when the teacher is unable to identify the culprit."

Considering the mean average score of student-teachers for all items on Form A and Form B combined (2.54), the average scores on these items, especially on Number 23, were quite high or very custodialistic. It is interesting, if not amazing, to note that student-teachers still see the teacher as the "authority figure" to whom one has to render an account of his actions.

SUMMARY

Using the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument with Form A and Form B (combined), this chapter analyzed the variables which the hypotheses of the study investigated.

The results of the statistical analysis of the data relevant to each of these hypotheses were summarized in the second section of this chapter, which section dealt with comparisons of the results of the three analyses of the data.

These comparisons summed up the major findings with regard to the hypotheses and showed that the findings were basically the same for each of the three forms of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument--Form A, Form B,

Form A and Form B (combined).

In the third section of this chapter, the items of the three forms of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument mentioned above were ranked according to average score. From these rankings it should be noted that while student-teachers seemed to be quite humanistic in pupil control ideology with regard to the rights of the pupil as an individual, they seemed to be very custodialistic in pupil control ideology when the authority or the status of the teacher was threatened.

Chapter VII presents a summary of the study and the major findings, implications with regard to these findings, and some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS
FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

This final chapter is devoted to a summary of the study and a reporting of the major findings drawn from the collected data and their analyses, a discussion of the implications of these findings, and some suggestions for further research.

SUMMARY

Statement of the Problem and Purposes of the Study

The central problem of this study was to determine whether there were differences between the attitudes toward pupil control of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) students in teacher-training, and to show the relationships between such differences of attitudes and certain situational factors or variables.

Specifically, the purposes of the study were:

(1) to investigate the differences between the pupil control ideology of junior student-teachers and that of senior student-teachers;

(2) to measure the attitudes toward pupil control

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by students at the beginning of their
teacher-training at Memorial University of
Newfoundland and to analyze these attitudes
in relation to such background factors as:

(a)   age and sex of students;

(b)   size and type of school were students
       received their elementary and secondary
       education;

(c)   kind of education program which students
       have entered;

(d)   amount of teaching experience students
       have had;

(3)   to show what student background factors
       are related to the pupil control ideology of
       senior student-teachers.

Procedures

By means of random sampling from lists provided
by Memorial University of Newfoundland and St. Bride's
College, 172 First Year and 150 Fourth or Fifth Year
education students or a total of 322 students were
selected from a population of 1081 student-teachers
registered at the above named institutions. Two quest-
ionnaires dealing with certain aspects of pupil control,

specifically those that dealt with attitudes toward the instruction and guidance of pupils at school, school discipline, and general views on child psychology, were administered by faculty members after a short briefing session. No time limit was set but faculty members found that it took an average of forty minutes to complete the questionnaires. Respondents used a separate answer sheet to make the compilation of scores easier.

The questionnaires formed the basic parts of the Pupil Control Ideology Instruments used to measure the pupil control ideology of educational personnel on a continuum ranging from extreme custodialism to extreme humanism. Form A consisted of 20 items and the response categories were scored 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, for "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," "strongly disagree," respectively. Scoring was reversed for items 5 and 13, which are positive to the humanistic viewpoint. The theoretical range of the scores varied from 20 to 100. The higher the score, the more custodial the individual was judged to be. Form B contained 60 items and was used to measure certain other aspects of pupil control ideology not measured by Form A. Respondents on the extreme custodial continuum could theoretically score 300, while persons extremely humanistic could receive a minimum score of 60, theoretically.

The Information Sheet used with the Pupil Control

Ideology Instruments was designed to give the basic
information on the background and situational variables
which were analyzed in relation to the dependent variable--
pupil control ideology.

The data were first analyzed to determine which of
the situational variables or background factors were added
to the hypothesis of this study. The next step was to
relate the variables in the background data to the pupil
control ideology scores for Form A and Form B of the
instrument. The total pupil control ideology scores
for all members of the sample and the mean scores for all
members of the sample were obtained. Each variable was
then related to the pupil control ideology scores using
analysis of variance; F-ratio or t-test for significant
difference between certain groups or means; the Scheffé
multiple comparison of means test to locate where the
difference lay; zero order product-moment correlation to
find the correlation between any one of the variables and
pupil control ideology scores. The items in Form A

and form B of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument were analyzed by ranking the average scores for Form A, Form B, and then for Form A and Form B (combined).

Major Findings

Three forms of the Pupil Control Ideology Instrument--Form A, Form B, and Form A and Form B (combined), were used to analyze the variables of this research. The empirical findings on the hypotheses as measured by these three forms of the instrument are presented in this section of the chapter.

1. There were significant differences in the attitudes toward pupil control (pupil control ideology) of junior (first year) and senior (fourth and/or fifth year) student-teachers, in that the attitudes of the latter were more humanistic. This was shown to be so by each of the three analyses of data referred to at the beginning of this section of the chapter.

2. Age made a significant difference in the pupil control ideology of student-teachers, as it was found that older student-teachers were more humanistic than their younger colleagues. Indeed, each of the three analyses of data showed that as age increased,

the mean pupil control ideology scores became
lower or more humanistic.

3. With regard to the sex of student-teachers,
no significant differences were found in the
pupil control ideology of males and females
when Form B of the Pupil Control Ideology
Instrument was used, nor when Form A and Form
B (combined) was used. However, there was a
significant difference when Form A was used, in
that the females were more humanistic.

4. Size of elementary school attended did not
make any difference in the pupil control ideology
of student-teachers. Each of the three analyses
of data showed that student-teachers who attended
small elementary schools were as humanistic in
in pupil control ideology as those who attended
large elementary schools.

5. No significant differences were found relative
to the variable, type of secondary school
attended. However, t-tests showed that student-
teachers who attended Regional High Schools were
more humanistic in pupil control ideology than
those who attended Central High Schools. With
regard to student-teachers who attended Regional
High Schools and those who attended All-Grade

Schools, the former tended to have a lower or
more humanistic mean pupil control ideology score.

6. Education program in which they were registered
at Memorial University of Newfoundland did not
make any significant difference in the pupil
control ideology of student-teachers. The
statistical results obtained from each of the
three analyses with regard to the mean pupil
control ideology scores of student-teachers
registered in the Primary, Elementary, and High
School education programs at Memorial University
of Newfoundland, showed that no significant
differences were found. Nevertheless, it should
be noted that for each of the three analyses of
data, student-teachers registered in the Primary
education program had the lowest or most human-
istic mean pupil control ideology score.

7. For the variable, teaching experience, there was
no significant difference between student-
teachers with teaching experience and those
with none. A perusal of the mean pupil control
ideology scores for each of the three analyses,
however, showed that as teaching experience
increased, mean pupil control ideology scores

became lower or more humanistic.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

As a review of the literature relating to teaching behaviours indicates, teachers' attitudes toward children and their role as a teacher is one of the most critical components of the competent teacher. All facets of teacher-training programs then, should be researched in terms of their effect on the attitudes of the participants. The children in our schools and their parents have the right to expect that every teacher trained in Newfoundland has been trained through a program which attempts to maximize all his/her possible competencies and his/her human qualities.

This research tends to show that undergraduate training has an impace upon the socialization of student-teachers with respect to pupil control ideology, for the mean pupil control ideology scores of senior (fourth and/ or fifth year) student-teachers were lower or more humanistic than those of junior (first year) student-teachers. Also, when using the variable, age, and controlling for the variable, year at university, the research showed that older student-teachers had lower mean pupil control ideology scores or were more humanistic in pupil control ideology than younger student-teachers. So much so, that the oldest

student-teachers (those aged 31 years and over) had the
lowest mean score. Again, when using the variable, teaching
experience, and controlling for the variable, year at
university, this research showed that as teaching experience
increased, mean pupil control ideology scores decreased or
became more humanistic.

Thus, the evidence gathered in the present study
lends itself to a direct indication of the impact which
university training, age, and teaching experience have upon
the attitudes of student-teachers toward pupil control,
in that these variables tend to humanize the pupil control
ideology of both male and female student-teachers.

Training programs for primary and/or elementary
student-teachers are usually considered to be more "pupil-
centered" than those for secondary student-teachers. The
expected effect of this difference is that primary and/or.
elementary student teachers would have a more humanistic
pupil control ideology than would secondary student-
teachers. However, the data of the present study showed
no significant difference in the pupil control ideology
of student teachers registered in the Primary, Elementary,
and High School (Secondary) education programs at Memorial
University of Newfoundland.

Pupil control, since it has long been considered central to the teaching art, [134]may be deemed as essential issue in the preparation and training of prospective teachers. It would appear certain that educational objectives, methodology, and philosophy are affected by the teacher's attitudes toward pupil control.

It is very necessary for the teacher-training institution to ensure that its verbal humanism is translated into practical application. It must also be realized that the very real limitations on humanism posed by the compulsory educational structure may have adverse effects on the teacher-training programs. This implies that while the teacher-training institution is trying to modify the behaviour of its students with regard to pupil control, it must also account for the influence of the teaching culture, which may be and very probably is less humanistic.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

One of the values of theoretical research is its ability to raise more questions than it answers and to generate researchable problems for further study. The results of the present research would appear to indicate

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[134]Don L. Emblen, "For a Disciplinarian's Manual," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. L (February, 1969), pp. 339-340.

that differences in pupil control were not random for the population under study but seemed to follow certain predictable patterns. While the hypotheses were not all confirmed, the theory employed proved to be reasonably powerful. Its use provided an operational perspective and allowed hypotheses to be generated that could be empirically tested. Pursuing the results of the present study, the following questions could possibly lead to some profitable avenues of exploration.

1. What is the relationship between the expressed attitudes toward pupil control of student-teachers and teachers and their actual performance in the classroom? The possible gap between teacher self-perception and overt behaviour is in need of close observation. It is equally possible that some individuals overstate, as many may understate, the degree of pupil control they actually demand of students.

2. This study has shown that the pupil control ideology of undergraduate education students modified significantly (became more human-istic) during their professional training. What factors caused this modification?

3. Does the pupil control ideology of graduate
   education students undergo significant change
   during or after any portion of their graduate
   training program?

4. Is there a relationship between a more
   humanistic pupil control ideology on the part
   of teachers and student achievement? The
   controversy over the type and degree of
   discipline required by teachers to educate
   students is in need of further exploration.
   In particular, it would be important to
   determine to what degree pupil control serves
   the status maintenance needs of teachers as
   opposed to the academic needs of pupils.

5. Do teachers of children from lower socio-
   economic backgrounds express a more custodial
   pupil control ideology than those teachers who
   instruct pupils from higher socio-economic
   levels? It is possible that teachers of so-
   called disadvantaged children view their role
   differently. Such teachers may hold not only
   a different view of the disciplinary needs of
   their classroom, but of the academic needs of
   their pupils as well. In this same vein, a

comparison of the pupil control ideology of
teachers in inner city as opposed to suburban
schools might also prove productive.

6. Does eliminating or modifying compulsory school
attendance make a difference in the pupil control
ideology of teachers? It may be that teachers
in Summerhill type schools, or schools that
allow students to exert a greater degree of
choice over their participation, will be more
humanistic in their approach. Conversely, is
it possible to "humanize" the behaviour of
teachers whose clients are forced to accept
the service?

7. Early in this thesis, it was noted that the
concept of pupil control could be dealt with
in terms of either ideology or behaviour and
that this study focused on ideology. It thus
seems proper to ask: Does humanism in pupil
control ideology parallel humanism in behaviour?

8. Recent innovations in education, such as non-
graded classrooms, team teaching, and "schools
without walls," may well serve to affect the
variables of teacher attitudes and pupil control.
Hence, the following question:

Will the ideology of teachers toward pupil
control become more or less humanistic as
the quantity and quality of teacher-pupil
interactions change?

9. Investigations into the effectiveness of
various field and/or student-teaching
experiences remain practically unlimited.
The question arises: Would future study of
such field and/or student-teaching experiences
serve to be more valuable to the teacher once
he/she begins teaching in the pupil school?
Such longitudinal studies may also serve to
distinguish those experiences most valuable
to teachers in different grade levels, subject
areas, geographic region or school system.

10. Does the measuring of attitudes require a more
sensitive instrument? Future research of
student-teachers and education programs as
related to changes in attitudes should perhaps
employ a more extensive battery of instruments
to approximate the status of attitudes and
subsequent changes. The Minnesota Teacher
Attitude Inventory, upon which the Pupil
Control Ideology Instrument is based, although

widely used for measurements similar to those in this study, is not particularly sensitive to small changes in attitude.
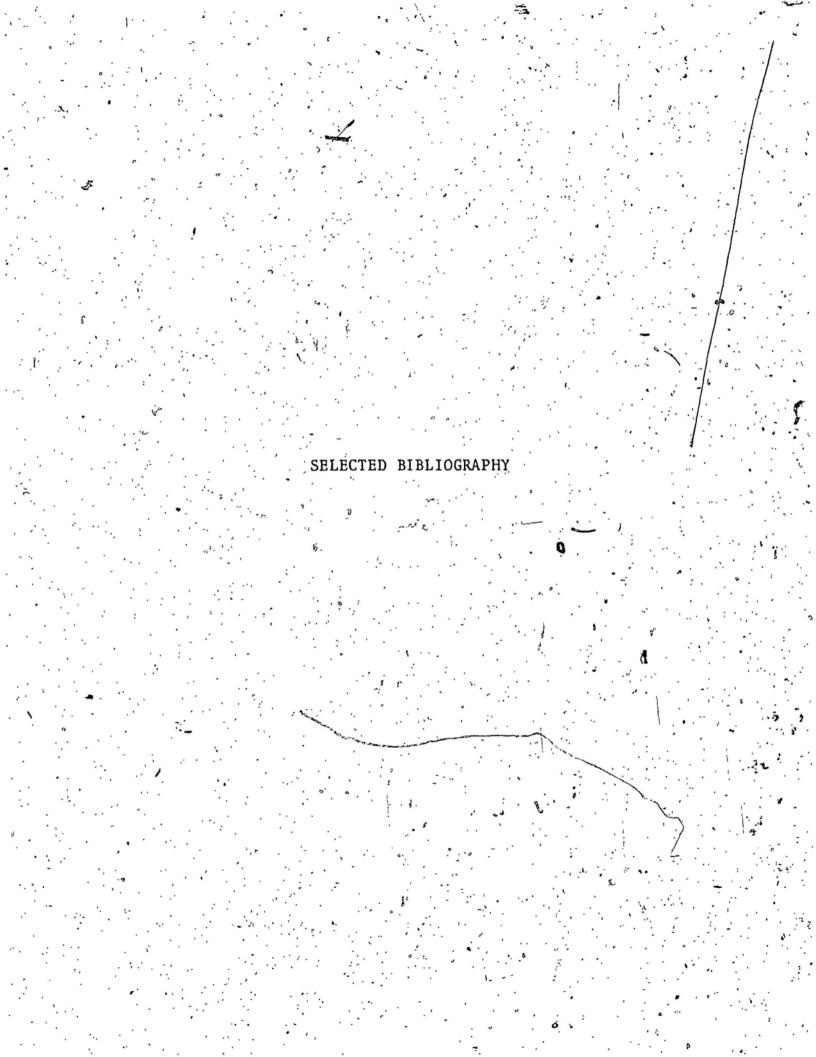
In conclusion, investigations concerned with pupil control are fraught with semantic confusion. One is almost forced to employ terminology which may have heavy cultural and psychological overtones. "It is difficult to conduct a dispassionate inquiry into custodialism and humanisn without idealizing the latter through contrast with the former."[135] There would appear to be a basic presumption in the direction of freedom as an absolute good. This is political preference that corresponds to notions of democracy, but it is also a current social value that may be a function of our fear of an impending conformity.[136] It is a fear that appeared to greatly influence the writing of the 1950's and the life styles of the 60's. Irrespective of the origins or the impact of such attitudes, they must be understood to be a set of beliefs and not a body of facts. It is simply not clear what makes for the best means of educating children. No
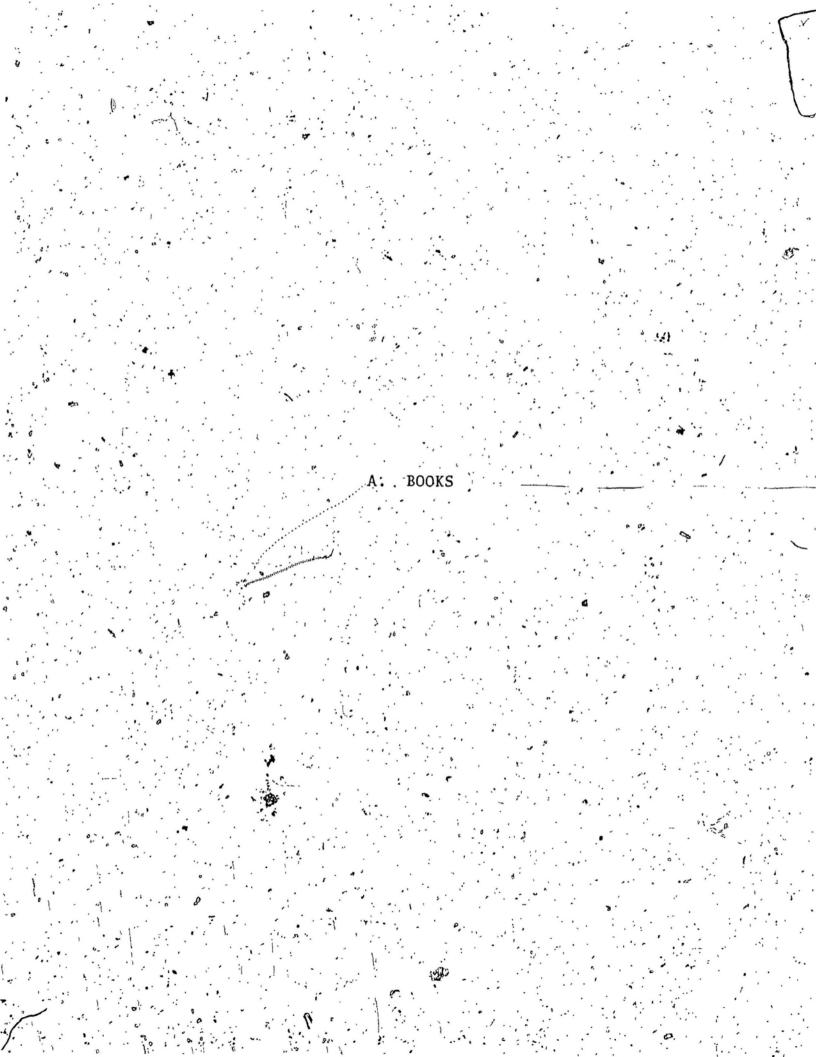
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[135]Gilbert and Levinson, op. cit., p. 23.

[136]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Random House, 1970), pp. 25-26.

one has satisfactorily answered the philosophical question. "what knowledge is of most worth?" This inability to agree on the ends of education holds up progress on developing appropriate means. Thus, there is a need to experiment on both sides of the question of providing freedom for students.

It is clear that there is a need for educators to evaluate a variety of teaching styles and organizational structures with a view to developing programs that are appropriate for different types of students and subject areas. Such investigations must not assume the present structure is without worth. In the same vein, the demands of the current organization must not be unknowingly allowed to place limitations upon the direction of future research.

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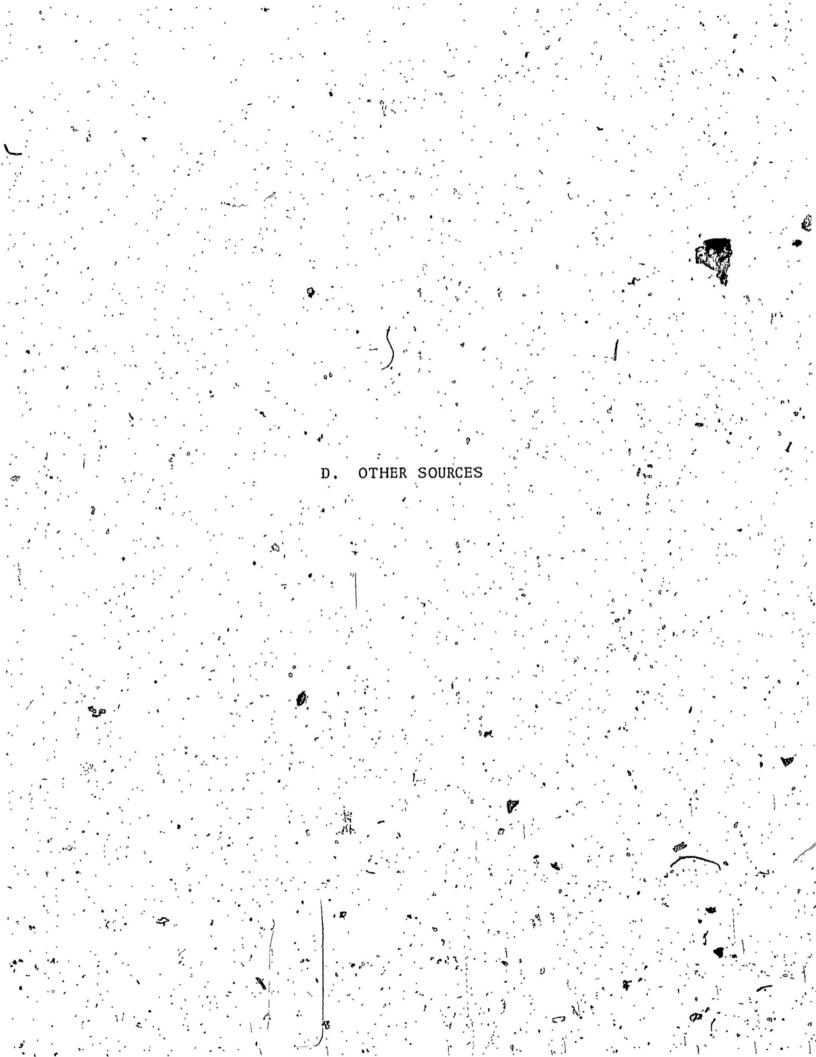Riccio, Anthony; and Peters, Herman J. "The Study of Values and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory", Educational Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXIX, March, 1960, pp. 101-103.

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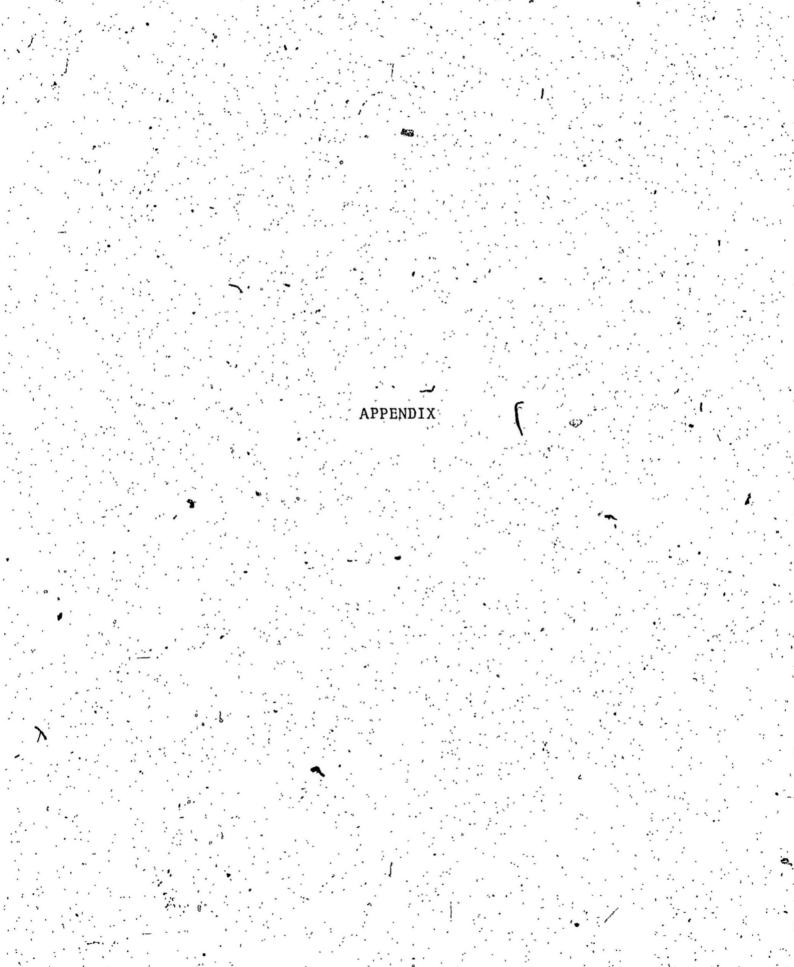
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APPENDIX

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DATA

Directions: Fill in or check the appropriate blank. The information herein given will be treated, along with information from other questionnaires, as grouped data, and will not directly reflect the individual position of the respondent.

1. Your Name _____

2. Date of Birth _____

3. Sex ☐ (1) Male

☐ (2) Female

4. Marital Status ☐ (1) Single

☐ (2) Married

☐ (3) Other

5. Size of school where you received your elementary education.

☐ (1) 1-2 classrooms

☐ (2) 3-5 classrooms

☐ (3) 6-8 classrooms

☐ (4) 9-12 classrooms

☐ (5) 13-18 classrooms

☐ (6) over 18 classrooms

6. Type of school where you received your elementary education.

☐ (1) All-grade

☐ (2) Elementary, Grades 1-6

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☐ (3) Elementary, Grades 1-8

☐ (4) Other (specify)

7. Size of school where you received your secondary education.

☐ (1) 1-2 classrooms

☐ (2) 3-5 classrooms

☐ (3) 6-8 classrooms

☐ (4) 9-12 classrooms

☐ (5) 13-18 classrooms

☐ (6) over 18 classrooms

8. Type of school where you received your secondary education.

☐ (1) All-grade

☐ (2) Central High School (Grades 7-11)

☐ (3) Regional High School (Grades 9-11)

☐ (4) Other (specify)

9. Population of the town where you received your elementary education.

☐ (1) Less than 200

☐ (2) 200 - 499

☐ (3) 500 - 999

☐ (4) 1000 - 1999

☐ (5) 2000 - 4999

☐ (6) 5000 and over

10. Population of the town where you received your secondary education.

☐ (1) Less than 200

☐ (2) 200 - 499

☐ (3) 500 - 999

☐ (4) 1000 - 1999

☐ (5) 2000 - 4999

☐ (6) 5000 and over

11. In which year of university are you now enrolled?

☐ (1) First

☐ (2) Second

☐ (3) Third

☐ (4) Fourth

☐ (5) Fifth

12. In which programme are you presently enrolled?

☐ (1) Primary

☐ (2) Elementary

☐ (3) High School (4 years)

☐ (4) High School (5 years)

☐ (5) Physical Education

13. Your major field outside Education (e.g. English, Mathematics, History) _____

14. Your minor field outside Education (e.g. English, Mathematics, History) _____

15. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

(1) as a teacher of primary grades (kindergarten, 1, 2, 3) _____

(2) as a teacher of elementary grades
(4, 5, 6, 7, 8) _____

(3) as a teacher of secondary grades
(9, 10, 11) _____

(4) your total number of years of experience as a
teacher _____

16. How many years of experience do you have as principal
of

(1) 2 - 5 room school _____

(2) 6 - 10 room school _____

(3) 11 rooms or more _____

17. How many years of experience do you have as vice-
principal of

(1) 6 - 10 room school _____

(2) 11 rooms and over _____

18. Your religion

☐ (1) Roman Catholic

☐ (2) Anglican

☐ (3) United Church

☐ (4) Salvation Army

☐ (5) Pentecostal

☐ (6) Other

SECTION B

Pupil Control Ideology Form A

Instructions: Following are twenty statements about schools, teachers, and pupils. Reach each statement carefully. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by drawing a circle around one of the five letters on the Response Sheet corresponding to each statement to show the answer/you have selected.

A = Strongly Agree

B = Agree

C = Undecided

D = Disagree

E = Strongly Disagree

Mark your answers on the Response Sheet as shown in the example below.

Using the strap on disobedient children teaches them to respect authority.
1. A, (B), C, D, E.

1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies.

2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning.

3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique.

4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.

5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticised by their pupils.

6. The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils.

7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class.

8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application.

9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation.

10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar.

11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions.

12. Student governments are a good "safety valve" but should not have much influence on school policy.

13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision.

14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offence.

15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused.

16. A few pupils are just hoodlums and should be treated accordingly.

17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers.

18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished.

19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.

20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad.

SECTION C

Pupil Control Ideology Form B

Instructions: Following are sixty statements about teacher-pupil relationships. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by drawing a circle around one of the five letters on the Response Sheet corresponding to each statement to show the answer you have selected.

> A = Strongly Agree
>
> B = Agree
>
> C = Undecided
>
> D = Disagree
>
> E = Strongly Disagree

Mark your answers on the Response Sheet as shown in the example below:

> Silence in the classroom is a sign of effective teaching.   1.   A, B, (C), D, E.

1. Minor disciplinary situations should never be turned into jokes.

2. If the teacher laughs with the pupils in amusing classroom situations, the class tends to get out of control.

3. It sometimes does a child good to be criticized in the presence of other pupils.

4. Unquestioning obedience in a child is desirable in the classroom.

5. The first lesson a child needs to learn is to obey the teacher without hesitation.

6. "Keeping order" in the classroom must be emphasized.

7. Too many children nowadays are allowed to have their own way.

8. A child should be taught to obey an adult without question.

9. Some children ask too many questions.

10. A pupil should be required to stand when reciting.

11. A teacher should never acknowledge his ignorance of a topic in the presence of his pupils.

12. Discipline in the modern school is not as strict as it should be.

13. To maintain good discipline in the classroom a teacher needs to be "hard boiled."

14. Imaginative tales demand the same punishment as lying.

15. A good motivating device is the critical comparison of a pupil's work with that of other pupils.

16. Course grades should sometimes be lowered as punishment.

17. More "old fashioned whippings" are needed today.

18. The child must learn that the "teacher knows best."

19. Increased freedom in the classroom creates confusion.

20. A teacher should not be expected to be sympathetic toward truants.

21. Teachers should exercise more authority over their pupils than they do.

22. Aggressive children are the greatest problems.

23. At times it is necessary that the whole class suffer when the teacher is unable to identify the culprit.

24. Many teachers are not severe enough in their dealings with pupils.

25. Children "should be seen and not heard."

26. Children are usually too sociable in the classroom.

27. Pupils who fail to prepare their lessons daily should be kept after school to make this preparation.

28. Assigning additional school work is often an effective means of punishment.

29. It is not advisable to allow children much freedom in the execution of learning activities.

30. Pupils must learn to respect teachers if for no other reason than that they are teachers.

31. Children need not always understand the reasons for social conduct.

32. Pupils usually are not qualified to select their own topics for themes and reports.

33. There is too much leniency today in the handling of children.

34. Children nowadays are allowed too much freedom in school.

35. The child who misbehaves should be made to feel guilty and ashamed of himself.

36. If a child wants to speak or to leave his seat during the class period, he should always get permission from the teacher.

37. Throwing of chalk and erasers should always demand severe punishment.

38. There should be "hard and fast" rules for pupil behaviour in the classroom.

39. Children should not expect talking privileges when adults wish to speak.

40. Children must be told exactly what to do and how to do it.

41. Whispering should not be tolerated.

42. Shy pupils especially should be required to stand when reciting.

43. Teachers should consider problems of conduct more seriously than they do.

44. A teacher should never leave the class to its own management.

45. As a rule teachers are too lenient with their pupils.

46. Classroom rules and regulations must be considered inviolable.

47. A pupil found writing obscene notes should be severely punished.

48. There is usually one best way to do school work which all pupils should follow.

49. Children that cannot meet the school standards should be dropped.

50. Children today are given too much freedom.

51. Children are usually too inquisitive.

52. Children are not mature enough to make their own decisions.

53. A child who bites his nails needs to be shamed.

54. Children cannot be expected to think for themselves even if permitted.

55. Children just cannot be trusted.

56. It is unnecessary to give children reasons for the restrictions placed upon them.

57. It is sometimes a waste of time to make a pupil fully aware of what is expected of him.

58. Aggressive children require the most attention.

59. A pupil does not have the right to disagree openly with his teachers.

60. Most pupil misbehaviour is done to annoy the teacher.

Name _____

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY:

RESPONSE SHEET

Form A

1. A B C D E   6. A B C D E   11. A B C D E   16. A B C D E

2. A B C D E   7. A B C D E   12. A B C D E   17. A B C D E

3. A B C D E   8. A B C D E   13. A B C D E   18. A B C D E

4. A B C D E   9. A B C D E   14. A B C D E   19. A B C D E

5. A B C D E   10. A B C D E   15. A B C D E   20. A B C D E

Form B

1. A B C D E   16. A B C D E   31. A B C D E   46. A B C D E

2. A B C D E   17. A B C D E   32. A B C D E   47. A B C D E

3. A B C D E   18. A B C D E   33. A B C D E   48. A B C D E

4. A B C D E   19. A B C D E   34. A B C D E   49. A B C D E

5. A B C D E   20. A B C D E   35. A B C D E   50. A B C D E

6. A B C D E   21. A B C D E   36. A B C D E   51. A B C D E

7. A B C D E   22. A B C D E   37. A B C D E   52. A B C D E

8. A B C D E   23. A B C D E   38. A B C D E   53. A B C D E

9. A B C D E   24. A B C D E   39. A B C D E   54. A B C D E

10. A B C D E   25. A B C D E   40. A B C D E   55. A B C D E

11. A B C D E   26. A B C D E   41. A B C D E   56. A B C D E

12. A B C D E   27. A B C D E   42. A B C D E   57. A B C D E

13. A B C D E   28. A B C D E   43. A B C D E   58. A B C D E

14. A B C D E   29. A B C D E   44. A B C D E   59. A B C D E

15. A B C D E   30. A B C D E   45. A B C D E   60. A B C D E