

The Development of the Professional Self-Concept  
in Student Teachers

by

Meredith McMahon

A thesis presented to the  
Faculty of Graduate Studies, University of Manitoba  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

Master of Education  
in  
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## Abstract

This is a study of the professional socialization of student teachers, focusing in particular, on the development of the professional self-concept. Data were obtained from 308 undergraduate students from the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba. A stratified random cluster sampling procedure was used to select the classes of students who were administered a questionnaire. Cross-tabular bivariate and multivariate analyses are used to test the relationships between the six independent variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, and the dependent variable, the development of the professional self-concept. Results indicate that year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, and gender are significant in the development of the professional self-concepts of student teachers. Further research on the process of professional socialization of student teachers is suggested.

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

This study examines the professional socialization of student teachers, focusing, in particular, on the development of the professional self-concept. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the competing theories of professional socialization referred to as the induction and reaction models. Research into the professional socialization of other professions, based on the conceptualizations of both theories, has provided us with variables that effect the development of the professional self-concept. It is important to note that both the competing theories of professional socialization and the variables are simply introduced in the first chapter and will be developed and discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. The chapter closes with a discussion of the significance and limitations of the study and an overview of the thesis.

It is commonly assumed that the role of the Faculty of Education is to prepare student teachers to become skilled and committed teachers who will conscientiously do the work of their profession. Basically, the Faculty's job is to socialize student teachers; to mold their role expectations and role performance through a

variety of procedures and mechanisms designed to produce consensus between the student teachers and the rest of the organization (Hoy and Rees, 1977). It is also commonly assumed that this consensus is a gradual process whereby the external norms of the organization become internalized standards. The result of the professional socialization process is the development of a professional self-concept, which is an acceptance by student teachers that the body of prevailing norms is valid and that their behavior related to the organization is based on the standards of the profession.

While many assumptions are made about the professional socialization of student teachers, the lack of research on professional schooling other than the student teaching periods and the first year of teaching (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986), leave many gaps in the understanding of this socialization process. Current research on professional socialization in other professions has provided us with clues to the integral parts of the process. In all other professions studied, the development of the professional identity or professional self-concept was considered to be a necessary outcome of the socialization process.

Studies on professional socialization in other professions suggest that professional self-concept can be

internalized through one of two approaches: the induction approach and the reaction approach. These approaches do not simply apply different theories to the same phenomena. Instead, they study different aspects of professional socialization. The induction approach focuses on the structural arrangements of the professional school with the students and the faculty working together through mutual and complementary interests and role expectations (Simpson, 1979). The reaction approach, on the other hand, views students and faculty as separate groups, each distinguished by their respective objectives and their ability to act collectively to achieve these objectives. The focus here is on the school's social arrangements.

Until the publication of Boys in White, (Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss, 1961) which studied the educational experiences of medical students, it was commonly believed that professional socialization took place during professional education. The assumption had been that professional schools assimilated students into professional roles, a perspective referred to as the induction approach. Becker's study challenged this assumption and established a different perspective on professional socialization which centered on the motivation and commitment of the individual. This

reaction approach is similar to what Bloom (1965) and Elliot (1972) called the situational approach. The reaction approach suggests that students mold their own professional behavior as they react to their educational experiences, while the induction approach suggests that the faculty and other students act as socialization agents, transmitting the professional culture to the students.

Both approaches, however, ignore essential aspects of the socialization process. The research literature suggests that it would be erroneous to portray students as passive agents simply molded by significant others as suggested by the induction approach, and equally erroneous to assume that Faculties of Education have nothing at all to do with the development of their student teachers' professional self-concepts, as suggested by the reaction approach. For the purposes of this study, professional socialization will be defined as the multidimensional process that is made up of the patterns and aspects of action which instill in individuals the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, values, and motives for the performance of the anticipated professional role.

By focusing on all aspects of the professional socialization process, skills, knowledge, and motives and

attitudes, in essence, a combination of the two perspectives, this study should provide a more complete and realistic model of the socialization process of student teachers. The respective contributions of studies using the induction and reaction models have provided us with six conditions or variables that contributed to the development of the professional self-concept in other professions. These variables are: year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status.

In her study of student nurses, Simpson (1979) suggests that year in program and involvement in professional activities serve to increase professional self-concept. However, data from studies of other professions indicate that the year in program does not necessarily increase the professional self-concept through a simple additive time effect. These studies suggest that when involvement in professional activities increases, there is a measurable increase in professional self-concept.

In Faculties of Education, involvement in professional activities, such as student teaching and volunteering in the classroom, tend to increase with each year in the program. As student teachers become more



experienced and receive more training, the program allows them to spend more time in the classroom and also increases the amount of responsibility that they have in the classroom. In order to initiate student teachers into the role of teacher and provide experiential insight into the learning process, the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba provides a program called Seminar and School Experience in the first three years of the Bachelor of Education program.

The Seminar and School Experience Handbook, 1990/91, provides guidelines for increasing professional involvement for student teachers. It suggests that students in their first year are introduced to the classroom and are expected to assume simple teaching tasks. Second year student teachers are given the opportunities to develop problem solving and decision-making skills in classrooms by assuming more and varied teaching tasks. Third year student teachers have the opportunity to explore specialized areas of education in, or outside, regular classroom situations and assume a greater responsibility for planning and implementing quality learning experiences. Fourth year student teachers have increased responsibility as they begin to take over most of the responsibilities of a classroom during their two blocks of student teaching . While

actual experiences in the schools can differ somewhat from the guidelines in the handbook, the intention of increased responsibility in preparation for graduation is evident.

Academic achievement, as measured by grade point average, is another factor that appears to be tied into the development of the professional self-concept. Data from studies of other professions (see Thielens, 1966; Kadushin, 1969) show a positive relationship between grades and the professional self-concept. Students with above average grades had corresponding high professional self-concepts more often than students with average or below average grades.

Grade point averages and grades in general, represent a form of evaluation which should be extremely important in student teacher self-ratings. Grades represent formal judgements by those in authority and have direct and important consequences for student teachers. The manner in which student teachers evaluate themselves and translate this into a professional self-concept is bound to be affected by the judgements of such significant others.

The program in which the students are enrolled can also be a factor in the development of the professional self-concept. In the music profession, the school seemed

to dictate the type of program and the students enrolled in a specific school to receive specific training (Kadushin, 1969). The opportunity for professional performance was controlled by the program. Kadushin (1969) found that increased professional performance led to higher professional self-concepts among music students. For these students, the program in which they were enrolled was a positive factor in the development of their professional self-concepts.

Although Kadushin (1969) suggests a program effect, the fact that he was studying two different schools with different programs makes it unclear if it truly is a program effect. It may, in fact, be a school effect. However, differences in the programs do exist and it is possible that the choice of program in Education could be an important variable in the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers. In Faculties of Education, students enroll in either elementary or secondary programs depending on their areas of specialization and personal choice. Elementary programs are generally considered to be child-centered while secondary programs are considered to be subject-centered. For this reason, there are bound to be differences, not only in the programs, but in the individuals that choose them. For these reasons the

variable program will be examined to see if, in fact, it does make a difference in the development of the professional self-concept in student teachers.

Finally, gender and socioeconomic status affect occupational choice in all professions and education is no exception. Teaching is one of the few professions which offers convenient working hours for women with preschool or school age children. It also provides women with an income that is comparable to the incomes of their male counterparts in the profession

Teaching has historically proven to be a well-travelled, easy access route to the white-collar world of the middle class (Webb and Sherman, 1989). It is a step up the social class ladder for those coming from lower class backgrounds since teaching is generally considered to be a middle class occupation that is easily accessible to individuals from any social class background (Lortie, 1975).

Data collected as part of the 1987 self study of the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, on year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status are examined to determine their effect on the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers. By examining the effects of

these variables on the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers, it should become evident that the contributions of both the induction and reaction models are important to the understanding of the professional socialization of student teachers. These variables, introduced in this chapter, will be developed in greater detail in Chapter 2.

### Significance of the Study

Identification with the professional role is a vital part of the professional socialization process. Simply learning and internalizing the knowledge and skills required to do the job is not enough. The purpose of professional socialization is not only to teach specific skills but to develop, for student teachers, norms, attitudes, values, and self-concepts that govern their behavior in professional activities (Merton, Reader, and Kendall, 1957, p. 287). In this respect, this study is significant for three reasons.

First, while considerable research has been carried out in the general sociological and organizational aspects of professional socialization, and research of the professional socialization process in other professions has been done, the writer was unable to find

any studies that specifically examine the impact of undergraduate study on the development of professional self-concept of student teachers. It is hoped that the results of this study will provide a starting point for more in-depth research in this area.

Second, this study will focus on the essential aspects of both the competing induction and reaction approaches to professional socialization. From this examination, this study isolates variables from the research on the competing theories of professional socialization. As these variables are essential aspects of the professional socialization process in other professions, they provide us with a starting point for this study.

Third, this study will examine the variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender and socioeconomic status, to see how they affect the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers. As these variables come from competing models of professional socialization, it is hoped that the outcome will show that professional socialization is not simply a product of one or other model, but rather a combination of the essential aspects of both conceptualizations. The Faculty of Education devotes

substantial time, effort, equipment, and expense to the transmission of knowledge and skills. In order to do this effectively, it is important to be aware of, and fully understand, all aspects of the professional socialization process and to take them into consideration when planning and implementing policy and program changes.

#### Limitations of the Study

There are three limitations of this study in terms of the contribution it may make to understanding the professional socialization process of undergraduate education students. First, this study represents an analysis of a cross sectional sample of student teachers. All six variables were collected at the same point in time thus limiting the causal connections that can be made between the variables. A longitudinal study, following a group of undergraduates through their program, would allow for a more thorough examination of the variables that affect the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers. This would be particularly important for the year in program variable. The longitudinal study could trace the development of professional self-concepts of groups of students as they moved through the years in the program

rather than having to rely on a snapshot of student teachers in different years taken at one point in time.

Second, the sample was selected from one university. Specifically, the data were obtained from a sample of 308 undergraduate students in the Faculty of Education during the 1986/87 academic year. It is important to note that there may be factors which are unique to these undergraduate students during this time period which may affect other variables in the study. The study examines the experiences of undergraduate students in one university in the City of Winnipeg, and while there is nothing to suggest that these students differ markedly from undergraduate students in other universities, there is also no assurance that the professional socialization experiences described in this study is representative of other education students. While the sample appears to be quite representative of the general population (Office of Institutional Analysis, University of Manitoba, 1987), it is important to note that this sample and the results may not be generalizable to other faculties of education or to any other sample selected from another year within this Faculty of Education.

Third, limitations also exist in relation to the nature of the data used in this study. The data were collected as part of the 1987 Faculty of Education self



study (Clifton, Jenkinson, Marshall, Roberts, & Webster, 1987). The measures of some of the variables are not based on a systematic review of the literature related to professional socialization. A prior review of the literature may have resulted in more sophisticated measures of some of the variables. However, given the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, it seems evident that the variables are adequately measured and, as a result, have produced data that will be useful in gaining insight into the professional socialization process and development of a professional self-concept of student teachers.

### Overview of the Study

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduced the study. The importance of the professional self-concept in relation to professional socialization was discussed and the variables from the competing induction and reaction approaches were identified. This was followed by a discussion of the significance of the study, as well as the limitations of the study.

In Chapter 2 the relevant research literature is reviewed. The chapter begins with an overview of the social-psychological literature related to role theory

and socialization. The socialization process is then related to role theory and social identities. An overview of the competing perspectives on professional socialization is followed by a discussion of the theoretical relationship between the variables and how they affect the development of the professional self-concept.

Chapter 3 describes the sample, the operationalization of the variables, and the procedures used to analyze the data. The six variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, are presented and descriptive statistics for these variables are presented.

The results of the study are reported in Chapter 4. The statistical methods used in the analysis are reported. Various relationships between the six independent variables and the professional self-concept of the student teachers are examined.

In Chapter 5, the thesis is summarized and the results are discussed. Implications of the findings in relation to the professional socialization of student teachers, as well as for the profession in general, and suggestions for future research are presented.

## Chapter 2

### Review of Literature

This study examines the development of the professional self-concept of undergraduate education students. This chapter provides a review of literature related to the variables included in the study and provides the framework for the theory to be tested. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the social-psychological literature related to role theory, socialization, and the development of social identities. These concepts are then specifically related to professional socialization. An overview of the competing perspectives on professional socialization is followed by a discussion of the theoretical relationship between the variables and how they affect the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers.

### Status and Roles

From birth, pressures are applied to people to make their behavior conform to the expectations and rules of society. This is an ongoing process through which individuals learn prescriptions for behavior which tell

them how to act in particular situations. Daily life brings individuals into many different situations, each with their own particular set of social norms, demands, rules, and expectations that specify the behaviors that are appropriate. Within these situations, individuals hold different positions and perform different functions. These positions are called statuses (Webb and Sherman, 1989, p. 265). In a school, for example, one would find individuals holding the statuses of: principal, teacher, student, and custodian. Statuses are arranged hierarchically within the organizations according to the authority assigned to them. This authority outlines the responsibilities of individuals holding these statuses.

While individuals are likely to hold just one status within a particular organization, it is possible to hold many statuses in a number of organizations. For example, a person could be a teacher in a school, a part-time graduate student at the university, a wife and mother at home, and a runner in a club. The total number of statuses that individuals hold at any given time is called their status set.

Each status within an individual's status set has associated with it expectations, norms, and rules that specify the behavior that the occupant of that status may appropriately initiate towards an occupant of some other

status within the organization and vice versa (Johnson, 1970). These patterns of behavior that govern the interaction of one status holder with another are called roles and are learned through the socialization process (Webb and Sherman, 1989, p. 266). As these roles are internalized, individuals develop identities or self-concepts of themselves in these statuses.

### Socialization and Roles

Role acquisition is achieved primarily by modelling the behavior of significant others of similar status. Bandura (1969, 1971) has suggested that this modelling process requires individuals to attend to the behaviors of others, remembering what has been observed, in order to acquire the corresponding necessary skills and motivation to enact the behavior.

Bandura, Grusec, and Menlove (1966) cite four related processes that are involved in modelling. First, for the modeling to occur, the individual must attend to the behavior of a model. Many factors affect the availability of models one encounters and this, in turn, affects what will be learned. Following this rationale, the schools in which student teachers are placed will affect the teaching styles that they will encounter and adopt. For example, student teachers in Elementary

schools are more likely to observe teachers using "the whole language approach" than student teachers placed in Junior High schools. Bandura et al. (1966) also note that attention to modelling alone does not produce a modification of behavior. For modelling to occur, the act must be remembered.

Second, in order to remember what one has observed, individuals use two representational systems, imaginal and verbal (Bandura et al, 1966). Imagery can be used to help recall an observed enactment, for example, by imagining what a person looks like when one attempts to recall a name. Behavior to be modelled can also be coded verbally. Verbally coded behavior tends to be retained in both a more abstract and precise form for longer periods of time than imagery coded conduct. Bandura (1966, 1971) goes on to point out that more complex social behavior is itself primarily verbal and is thus grasped in verbal terms when observed.

Third, in order to duplicate the observed behavior, individuals must have the capacity in their behavioral repertoire, and be able to enact them in a manner coordinated with what has been observed. This stage of the modelling process usually requires considerable practice for a smooth performance.

Finally, while more traditional reinforcement-oriented learning theories stated that learning could only occur in the presence of reinforcement, Bandura (1969, 1971) suggests that imitative learning can occur without reinforcement. Individuals can observe, code, and retain behavior patterns to be reproduced at later times without being rewarded at the time of observation. Reinforcement may have occurred at any of the stages, but it need not be so. It is also possible that individuals may anticipate a future need for learning the behavior of a model and consequently, may be motivated to attend closely, code, and rehearse the behavior systematically and carefully.

As the behavior associated with a status is learned and internalized, individuals create role identities or self-concepts for themselves. These identities are the way individuals think of themselves being and acting in the status (McCall and Simmons, 1966). They are a part of anticipatory socialization which Clausen (1968) defines as a variety of mental activities which include daydreaming, forecasting future situations, and role rehearsing. Role identities are a somewhat idealized conceptions of their performances which serve as blueprints for further plans of action. A key element in the formation of role identities is the role prescription

or expectations that others have for the individuals in question, which involves a change in, or addition to, those individuals' attitudes, behavior, motives or values, with reference to some social situation (Brim and Wheeler, 1966).

The demands of others are, however, only a part of the picture. As adults, individuals have many self-initiated ideas and prescriptions for their personalities and behavior change. The demands of others are augmented by the demands of the self through self-initiated socialization which can be in accordance with or opposition to the expectations of others. Both demands from others and from oneself encompass two theoretical kinds of change: 1) an alteration of the role associated with it's original status and the assumption of a new status; and, 2) the learning of a new role related to that status. In the first case, the new socialization would come from someone that the individual was already involved with in a continuing relationship such as an employer. For example, a teacher promoted to an administrative position would assume a new status within the organization and take on the role that came with the new position. In the second case, individuals would have to learn to meet the new demands of a change of employment. For example, a teacher moving to a new



school would have the same status but would likely find that the role expectations, while generally similar, would have their own local flavor.

The prescriptions of role behavior within the statuses defines the rights and obligations of individuals enacting the particular roles (Johnson, 1970). It is important to note that a role is characterized by a relationship between two people or groups of people. One could not be a teacher without students or a husband without a wife. Therefore, roles are often reciprocal and rights and obligations are often complimentary. For example, teachers have the right to expect students to concentrate in class and complete their homework, and they themselves have the obligation to prepare for class and communicate effectively. Students have the complementary rights to expect teachers to be prepared and communicate effectively and they themselves have the obligation to work hard and complete their work.

Role demands are communicated through these role relationships. The demands can be clear and specific or vague and ambiguous. Some role demands allow for greater flexibility of interpretation than others, but no matter how explicit role demands may be, role performance is likely to vary depending on the individual occupying the

role (Saks and Krupat, 1988). Individuals' personalities, experience, and capabilities all affect their interpretation and the way they shape their role.

Getzels (1963) identified two essential components of role behavior, the ideographic or individual personality component and the nomothetic or institutional component. In essence, while some traditional aspects of role behavior must be adhered to, individuals bring their own idiosyncrasies to the role. In schools, for example, the behavior of teachers, principals, and students all reveal certain standard behaviors. This standard behavior arises out of shared expectations which group members have in common with each other and that are developed over time. Therefore, individuals behave much as they are expected to behave.

### Professional Socialization

Socialization is a lifelong process and while individuals enter professional training of their choice with some anticipatory socialization, the socialization experienced in childhood is not enough to meet the demands of a profession. Learning a profession is one of the great demands after childhood. Related skills and information as well as values, attitudes, and

orientations of the profession make great demands on the learning capacity of adults (Brim, 1968).

Professional socialization involves the imparting of motives and attitudes, skills, and knowledge to do the work of an occupation, the values that inform behavior in a professional role, and the identities that distinguish individuals as members of the profession. Professional socialization occurs primarily during formal education for prospective teachers. The faculty controls the inflow of teachers into the profession. It performs three basic jobs. It selects the candidates for admission; it educates them in professional knowledge and skills; and it instills in them the appropriate professional viewpoints (Simpson, 1979). It is assumed that this occurs as student teachers progress through the years of the program, gaining experience in the classroom and in school related activities and as they interact with their professors, other professionals, and their peers.

How professional socialization actually takes place has been the subject of much debate in the last twenty years. Donovan (1920, 1929, 1938), Sutherland (1937), Dornbusch (1955), Merton (1957), Gouldner (1962), Sherlock and Morris (1967), and Kadushin (1969) see the socialization process as one of induction.

### The Induction Model

The induction model of professional socialization focuses on the acquisition of the professional role by students during their professional education. This process includes direct learning through didactic teaching and indirect learning through example and sustained involvement with others in the profession. The model rests on four basic assumptions. Proponents of the induction approach believe that first, a profession is institutionalized in society and a professional subculture develops around it (Merton, 1957). Second, the professional school and its faculty are the source of this subculture, and it is their responsibility to introduce students to the norms of the profession and the knowledge and skills required for professional practice. Third, the professional school is seen as a subordinate of the larger professional organization where faculty and students are united through complementary interests. Students follow the lead of the faculty and accept their definitions of professional culture and their expectations of professional development. Fourth, students enrolled in a professional school are looked upon as professionals in the making. The faculty awards students the status of student-professionals. This status is seen as transitional and developmental and

students are treated accordingly. The induction model takes a professional outcome for granted. Proponents of this model view socialization as a long term process, one of transmitting professional culture to students who are eager to learn it.

There is, however, another school of thought which fundamentally opposes the basic assumptions of the induction model. This is generally referred to as the reaction model. In this model, researchers like Becker et al., (1961), Davis and Olesen (1963), Olesen and Whittaker (1968), Freidson (1970), and Elliot (1972), view the socialization process as a situational response to the immediate environment.

#### The Reaction Model

The reaction model focuses on the students themselves rather than the acquisition of the professional role. It looks at their identities and commitments, as well as the motivations that sustain them during their professional education, areas assumed or ignored by those who advocate the induction model. The reaction model sees students as reacting to their educational experiences rather than being inducted into a role.

In response to the four basic assumptions that underpin the induction model, proponents of the reaction

model doubt that the profession is institutionalized in society. They do not see the professional school as a subordinate of its parent profession. Instead they see the professional school as an independently organized social unit where the faculty and students are separate groups distinguished by their respective objectives and their ability to act collectively to further those objectives.

They see students views as adaptive responses to their subordinate position in professional schools where they are regarded and treated as students rather than junior colleagues. They accept that students are educated in attitudes as well as skills and knowledge. They do not, however, think that the attitudes and behaviors learned during professional education are major influences on the behavior of in-service professionals whose status and power are very different from the status and power of the students. They suggest that the immediate environment is responsible for professional performance rather than the socialization process itself. Learning to behave in a status occurs after the person (student teacher in this case) occupies the status (teacher in this case), and not before. It is impossible, according to proponents of the reaction model

to develop a professional self-concept until the students graduate and become practicing professionals.

### The Development of the Professional Self-Concept

As suggested earlier, the process of professional socialization and, in particular, the development of the professional self-concept, is a topic of much debate. Merton et al. (1957) in his study of student physicians notes that students gradually acquire the self-concept of a professional. Over the years of their professional education, students internalize the knowledge and skills of professional practice. Behavior patterns are learned and internalized through direct and indirect learning. Huntington (1957) reports that medical students are more likely to feel like doctors at the end of medical school than at the beginning. Thielens (1965) draws similar conclusions in his study of law students.

On the other hand, Becker et al's (1961) findings differ somewhat from the induction model studies. From his study of medical students, he concludes that students do not take on the professional role because the system does not allow them to do so. Students are constantly reminded of their status through denied responsibility and that, while they may fantasize about the role, they are not in reality doctors.

While the studies of Becker (1961) and Merton (1957) may initially appear to be in direct conflict, Simpson (1979) and Kadushin (1969) argue that both the structure of a profession, as suggested by the inductionists, and the social arrangements of a professional school, as proposed by the reactionists, may, in fact, be responsible for the creation of a professional self-concept. Simpson (1979, p. 5) suggests that the main variables studied by each of the perspectives are both essential aspects of socialization. She argues that studying acquisitions of cognitive sets, apart from motivation to persist in a role, is insufficient as a view of socialization, as is looking at motivation to pursue a role apart from the learning of outlooks that inform behavior once it is acquired. Simpson (1979) is of the opinion that all aspects of socialization should be included in a model of professional socialization. For that reason, she developed and applied such a model in her study of the professional socialization of student nurses.

In his study of music students Kadushin (1969) found that both actual professional activity and the effects of the school of music contributed to the development of the professional self-concept. Based on the results of that study, Kadushin feels that socialization to a



professional self-concept does not take place directly through the role-model phenomena as suggested by the proponents of the induction model; neither contacts with teachers nor time spent with students directly contributes to a professional self-concept. Anticipatory socialization takes place only when the social structure of the school allows one to actually play the role that will eventually be one's full-time concern (Kadushin, 1969: p. 403).

All of the studies, whether based on the induction model, the reaction model, or a combination of the two models, identify variables that influence the development of the professional self-concept in students in their respective professions. By examining the variables that are important in other professions, in relation to student teachers, it is possible to determine if these variables are also instrumental in the development of the professional self-concept in student teachers.

The literature suggests that six variables-- year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status--can affect the development of the professional self-concept. In the following section, these variables are examined in greater detail.

### The Independent Variables

In Chapter 1 it was suggested that the professional socialization process was best described by a combination of the essential components of the induction and reaction models. For that reason, variables that influence the development of the professional self-concept of students in other professional schools are taken from representative studies of each of the models. The variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, and program, come from studies that were basically induction model studies. The variables gender and socioeconomic status are used to examine the concepts of motivation and identity that are considered to be important concepts in the reaction model studies. These studies did not specifically suggest variables to be tested, but rather, aspects of motivation and identity that are important to the professional socialization process. Gender and socioeconomic status are identified as issues that warrant consideration in the professional socialization process and will therefore, be used as reaction model variables in this study.

Year in Program

According to the findings of Kadushin (1969), Thielens (1966), Merton et al.(1957), Huntington (1957) and Simpson (1979), there are several factors that are present in professional training that facilitate the development of the professional self-concept. Huntington (1957) and Kadushin (1969) found the year in program to be closely related to the development of the professional self-concept. They also indicated that increased professional enactment of the role increased professional self-concept. Thielens (1966: p. 279) was able to measure law students' growing self-concept as lawyers using a "barometer" with the descriptor "layman" on the left and "lawyer" on the right. Professional self-concept scores were determined by having the students "draw a line through the place on the scale which represented how they viewed themselves". While he found that the change in professional self-concept was not necessarily a monotonic increase by year, it did, in fact, increase through the three years in the program.

Simpson's (1979) study of student nurses, like Thielen's study of law students, concluded that professional identification may not be a continuous process the result of passive reaction to professional situations, but could jump substantially when the

opportunity arose for those students to be viewed by others as professionals, in clinical practice, for example. It would seem logical that for education students, with their incremental increases in responsibility in the classroom over the years in the program, that professional self-concept would increase when their role as a professional in the classroom increased. Therefore, it is hypothesized that increases in professional self-concept will result as students move through the years in the program.

#### Academic Achievement

Academic achievement appears to have some important effects upon the development of the professional self-concept. In his study of the socialization of law students at Columbia University, Thielens (1966) showed that the relationship between grades and the professional self-concept was quite strong. He found that students with grades in the top quartile of their class had high self-concept scores 20 percent more often than students whose grades were in the bottom quartile. Students with average grades had self-concept scores somewhere between the two extremes. High self-concept scores dropped correspondingly with the grades: 47 percent in the top quartile, 42 percent in the second quartile, 34 percent

in the third quartile and 27 percent in the fourth quartile had high self-concept scores.

Kadushin (1969) also related ability to professional self-concept scores. He combined actual ability and subjective evaluation of ability into an "excellence measure" making it difficult to identify the effects of each variable. However, when these confounding variables were controlled for, students with high excellence scores were more likely to have high self-concept scores than were students with lower scores.

The Faculty of Education produces teachers, who, by virtue of their profession, should encourage academic excellence in their students. It would seem logical that these individuals would attach a great deal of importance to their own academic achievement. If grades were considered important, student teachers with high grade point averages would be more likely to feel prepared for the profession and in turn feel more confident. Student teachers who felt more confident about teaching would be more likely to have a greater orientation towards the profession. On that basis, student teachers with high grade point averages would be more likely to have higher professional self-concepts than student teachers with lower grade point averages. It is therefore hypothesized

that increases in professional self-concept will result as the grade point average increases.

#### Involvement in Professional Activities

Both Kadushin (1969) and Thielens (1966) found that participation in professional activities had an impact on students' professional self-concepts. Thielen's study identified two types of activities, formal and informal activities. Formal activities, like working on the "Law Review" for student lawyers, or being research assistants for professors, tended to be considered more important by students. However, informal activities such as working in law offices or forming study groups also had an impact on the professional self-concept. Kadushin (1969) found that among music students, the number of professional engagements in which students were involved, had affected their professional self-concepts. The more engagements, the higher the average professional self-concept scores. Simpson (1979) found that student nurses felt more orientation toward the profession when they wore their uniforms in clinical practice and when they were involved in activities that involved role enactment. Lortie (1975), Mason (1961), and Hermanowicz (1966) found that practice teaching was considered to be more valuable than education courses by student teachers as it gave them a

sense of professional reality and a distinct feeling of moving closer to their ultimate goal of teaching. These findings were augmented by a recent Canadian study on teacher preparedness for the profession. A study at the University of British Columbia looked at student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach. Housego (1990) found that increased time in the classroom as well as increased teacher education time significantly improved students' feelings of preparedness to teach. It would follow that this would translate into a better self-rating and, therefore, a higher professional self-concept.

Based on these studies, it could be argued that education students who are involved in professional activities such as volunteering in schools, tutoring, or other work that is directly child related would have a higher professional self-concept than those who are not involved in these types of activities, as they have had more child-related or classroom related experience and would feel more confident in their ability to teach . Therefore, it is hypothesized that increases in professional self-concept will result as involvement in professional activities increase.

### Program

In order to have a high professional self-concept, student teachers need to feel competent in the classroom. They need to feel that they can handle the day-to-day situations that occur in classrooms. In a recent comparative study of student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach, the programs in which the students were involved were found to make significant differences in their feelings of preparedness to teach (Housego, 1990). Additional class time and an increased practicum in a new teacher education program increased the feelings of preparedness to teach, as did some subject specific programs such as secondary art/music and secondary English/social studies which involved greater subject area preparation.

Kadushin (1969) found that students initial choice of music school depended upon the type of training that the students wanted. The opportunity for professional performance was controlled by the type of program that the different schools offered. Kadushin (1969) found that increased professional performance led to higher professional self-concept among music students. The choice of program by the student had a great impact upon the development of their professional self-concepts.



Based on these studies, it could be argued that the programs chosen by student teachers could have a significant effect on the development of their professional self-concept. The child-centered focus of the elementary program and the subject-centered focus of the secondary program, as well as the different student teaching options available at these levels, would likely attract student teachers with different motivations. While there is no direct evidence to indicate the type of program effects that might exist, the differences between the types of student teachers that might choose one or other program suggests that differences may exist. Therefore, it is hypothesized that significant differences in professional self-concept will be found in student teachers participating in the different programs offered by the Faculty of Education.

### Gender

Teaching is generally considered to be a female dominated profession, particularly in the elementary grades. R.W. Connell (1985, p. 153) in his study of Australian teachers, describes the structure of gender relations as one of the major social forces shaping education. He goes on to say:

As jobs go, this is generally regarded as a soft one. The element of emotional manipulation, that is inevitable in teaching, is defined as feminine in our culture. Caring for children is, other things being equal, regarded as women's work (p. 155).

Judith Adkison (1981) in her study of women in educational administration noted that:

From earliest childhood girls are rewarded for behavior appropriate to this adult role [passive and conformist] and, consequently, they do not learn the behaviors essential to success in the management of large organizations. . . . Women who attempt managerial careers are faced with role conflict; however, such conflict is reduced if they enter occupations which have been sex typed as appropriate for people with women's stereotypic behavior and traits. (p. 312)

Until recently, teaching was one of the few occupations easily accessible to women. Professional schools such as Law and Medicine did not encourage female applicants and women were socialized to believe that they were not only incapable of "men's work" but should not be

interested in it to begin with (Webb and Sherman, 1989, p. 198). Women were encouraged to enter "female occupations" such as nursing, home economics and teaching. Teaching offered women respectability and security and tended to pay better than other female dominated occupations.

Historically, teaching has also offered women advantages not present in other professions. It tended not to conflict with other role demands placed on women by their families, it was a respectable job for a young woman before marriage and provided, in recent years, a second income once married, and, one could move in and out of teaching fairly easily once the decision was made to have a family. Webb and Sherman (1989, p. 198) also note that teaching and motherhood are quite compatible. Both the school day and the summer holidays of school age children are identical to those of teachers, allowing mothers who teach to be at home when their children are at home.

While there is no direct evidence to suggest a relationship between gender and professional self-concept, one might postulate, indirectly, that men would perceive themselves more as professionals than women as they would be more likely to view teaching as a career instead of as a stopgap before marriage and motherhood.

Times, however, are changing and women now have more access to professions of their choice. Women who choose teaching rather than entering it by default may also give their professional self-concept a higher priority in their lives.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that significant differences will be found in the development of the professional self-concept of males and the professional self-concept of females.

#### Socioeconomic Status

Dan Lortie (1975), in his "Five Towns" study of American teachers, describes the teaching profession as clearly white-collar, middle-class work that offers upward mobility for people who grew up in blue-collar or lower-class families. While accepting the difficulty of precise measurement of this upward mobility, Lortie (1975) argues that teaching appears to be one of the more important routes into the middle-class.

Based on this information, it could be argued that the desire for upward mobility would affect the development of the professional self-concept. Students from lower social classes would place more importance on the profession and the attainment of the professional status than those of higher social classes since the profession promises a significant step up the social

ladder. Therefore, it is hypothesized that significant differences will be found in the development of the professional self-concept of students of lower socioeconomic status and students of higher socioeconomic status.

### Summary

The theoretical framework in this study examines undergraduate education students' development of their professional self-concept. As shown in the review of literature, several factors contribute to the students' development as professionals. Specifically, it has been argued that year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, all affect the development of the professional self-concept. The next section describes the methodology used to test this theoretical framework.

## CHAPTER 3

## Methodology

This chapter describes the sample of students, the operationalization of the variables, and the procedures used to analyze the data. The sample is taken from a study of education students at the University of Manitoba in 1987. As noted in Chapter 2, the independent variables are the year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender and socioeconomic status. The dependent variable is the professional self-concept.

The Sample

In 1987, the Faculty of Education commissioned a study of its students and its programs. As part of that study, a sub-committee collected data on undergraduate and graduate students in the faculty (see Clifton et al., 1987). At the time the data were collected, there were 1467 undergraduate students and 1381 graduate students enrolled in the Faculty of Education. Questionnaires were administered to a sample of the students representing 21 percent of the undergraduate students and 18 percent of the graduate students. Three hundred and eight, or 76 percent of the undergraduate students who received questionnaires responded, and 245, or 49 percent, of the

graduate students who received questionnaires responded. For the purposes of this study, only the data collected on undergraduate students is used because there are important differences between the two samples. For instance, most graduate students are also teachers, either actively involved in the profession and studying on a part-time basis to upgrade their qualifications, or are on leave from a teaching position while they engage in post-graduate studies. These individuals have already developed a professional self-concept and have been through a socialization process. While their perceptions might be quite interesting, they are not relevant to this study which focuses on the initial development of the professional self-concept of student teachers.

The sample of undergraduate students who received questionnaires were selected from the total population of students enrolled in the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and Bachelor of Education, After Degree (B.Ed./A.D.) programs. Students enrolled in the B.Ed program are admitted to the four year program subsequent to high school graduation. Students enrolled in the B.Ed/A.D. program are admitted to the two year program upon completion of a first degree.

A stratified random cluster sampling procedure was used to select students for the sample from the total

population of students enrolled in the B.Ed and B.Ed/A.D. programs. The procedure involved randomly selecting students from all the courses that students are required to take within each year of the undergraduate B.Ed and B.Ed/A.D. programs. The random selection of classes identified a sample representing approximately 27 percent of the population of students within each academic year. Students who were registered in more than one of the selected classes answered only once.

The gender distribution was approximately 35 percent male and 65 percent female and is quite similar to the population of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Education in the academic year 1986-1987. According to the Office of Institutional Analysis (1987) of the University of Manitoba, the breakdown of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Education was approximately 27 percent male and 73 percent female.

The sample of undergraduate students surveyed included 397 of the 1467 students registered as undergraduates in the Faculty of Education in February, 1987. Three hundred and eight students responded. Of those surveyed, the response rate represented approximately 76 percent - a rate that is within the normal rates for research using questionnaires (Backstrom and Hirsh-Ceser, 1981). According to the report of the



Sub-Committee on Students, some of the students were not present in the classroom when the questionnaires were distributed and a few students chose not to complete the questionnaire. Detailed information was not kept on these non-completions so it is impossible to determine how many of the 89 non-responses were simple absences and refusals.

A questionnaire designed by the Sub-Committee on Students was given to the undergraduate sample in the identified classes. The 13 instructors of the 19 classes selected were notified by the Dean of the Faculty of Education and arrangements were made for the questionnaire to be distributed and completed during class time. Instructions for the completion of the questionnaire were given verbally to each of the classes. Students were given the option of not completing the questionnaire, and all questionnaires were picked up at the end of each class. The students were also asked to supply their names and addresses if they wanted to receive a short report about the study or if they were willing to participate in a follow-up study in the future. Sixty percent of the students chose to supply that information.

### The Variables

As indicated in the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 2, this study has six independent variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender and socioeconomic status, and one dependent variable, professional self-concept. All variables, with the exception of gender, have been recoded so that a cross-tabular procedure could be used to analyze the data. The procedure for reclassifying the data are described later in this chapter.

#### Year in Program

The number of years of university education of respondents was requested in question 8 of Part III of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked "How many years of university education do you have? If you have been a part-time student, then estimate the number of equivalent full-time years." Respondents reported from 1 to 6 years of university level education. The responses were recoded into three categories: 1 or 2 years, 3 or 4 years, and 5 or 6 years (see Table 1). The greatest number of respondents, approximately 42 percent (126 students) have 3 or 4 years of university education. Approximately 34 percent (102 students) have 1 or 2 years

of university education and approximately 24 percent (73 students) have 5 or 6 years of university education.

Data are missing for 7 respondents.

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Table 1

Frequencies for Year in Program

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Year in Program	Frequency	Percentage
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A. Original

1	48	16
2	54	18
3	55	18
4	71	24
5	42	14
6	31	10

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B. Recoded

1 & 2	102	34
3 & 4	126	42
5 & 6	73	24

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Total	301	100
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Academic Achievement

Question 11 of Part III of the questionnaire asked students to indicate their grade point average. Respondents selected one of eight choices, each of which represents a range of grade point averages. Responses

were recoded into two categories (see Table 2). Specifically, the first five responses, from 0.0 - 0.9 to 2.5 - 2.9, or grade point averages less than 3.0, included 33 percent or 98 students. Sixty-seven percent or 199 respondents fell into category two, indicating a grade point average of 3.0 or higher. Data are missing for 11 respondents.

Table 2

## Frequencies for Grade Point Average

Grade Point Range	Frequency	Percentage
A. Original		
0.0 - 1.9	6	2
2.0 - 2.4	15	5
2.5 - 2.9	77	26
3.0 - 3.4	115	39
3.5 - 3.9	77	26
4.0 - 4.5	7	2
B. Recoded		
Less than 3.0	98	33
More than 3.0	199	67
Total	297	100

### Involvement in Professional Activities

Question 13 of Part III of the questionnaire asked students to estimate the number of hours spent on student teaching or voluntary time in schools in a typical week. The 4 original response choices were, 0 hours, 1 to 5 hours, 6 to 10 hours, and 11 to 40 hours. These were recoded into two categories (see Table 3). The first category represents 1 to 5 hours per week. The second category represents 6 to 40 hours per week.

Table 3

Frequencies for Time Spent in Schools

Hours per Week	Frequency	Percentage
<b>A. Original</b>		
0	104	35
1 - 5	109	36
6 - 10	67	22
11 - 40	20	7
<b>B. Recoded</b>		
0	104	35
1 - 5	109	36
6 - 40	87	29
Total	300	100

Approximately 35 percent (104 students) were involved in less than 6 hours of student teaching or voluntary work

in schools per week, while approximately 36 percent (109 students) spent between 6 and 40 hours per week in the schools. Data are missing for 8 respondents.

### Program

Question 4(a) in Part III of the questionnaire asks, "What undergraduate program are you enrolled in?". The original responses from seven categories were recoded into two categories: elementary and secondary education (see Table 4).

Table 4

Frequencies for Program

Program	Frequency	Percentage
<b>A. Original</b>		
Undecided	17	6
Elementary	133	45
Secondary	103	35
B. Ed / B. Mus	11	4
B. Ed / B. Hc	5	2
U of M / RRCC	13	4
Winnipeg Educational Centre	15	5
<b>B. Recoded</b>		
Elementary	165	56
Secondary	132	44
Total	297	100

Almost 56 percent (165 respondents) indicated that they were enrolled in the elementary program and approximately 44 percent (132 respondents) indicated that they were enrolled in the secondary program. Data are missing for 11 respondents.

### Gender

Question 15 of Part III of the questionnaire asked respondents to indicate whether they were male or female (see Table 5). Approximately 35 percent (107 students) indicated that they were male. Approximately 65 percent (200 students) indicated that they were female. One respondent failed to specify his or her gender.

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Table 5

#### Frequencies for Gender

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Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	107	35
Female	200	65
Total	307	100

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### Father's Education

Question 18 of Part III of the questionnaire asked respondent to choose, from a list of nine alternatives,

the highest educational level attained by each of their parents. Responses to the Fathers education were recoded into two categories (see Table 6). The first category represents the first three choices: elementary school to

Table 6

## Frequencies for Father's Education

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
A. Original		
Elementary School	50	17
Some High School	84	28
Completed High School	36	12
Some technical , vocational training	37	12
Completed Community College	11	4
Some University	12	4
Completed a Bachelors Degree	39	13
Some education at Graduate level	9	3
Completed Graduate Degree	22	7
B. Recoded		
Less than High School	170	57
More than High School	130	43
Total	300	100

completion of high school. The second category represents all post secondary education, from some technical/vocational training to completion of a graduate



degree. Almost 57 percent (170 respondents) indicated that the highest level of education received by their fathers was high school completion or less.

Approximately 43 percent (130 respondents) indicated that their fathers had received some level of post-secondary education. Data are missing for 8 respondents.

#### Professional Self-Concept

In the section on social identities in Part III of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to read the definition of seven social identity categories: kinship, peer, associational, teaching profession, religious/spiritual, romantic and recreational. They were instructed to think about the seven categories and ask themselves "How important is each identity in my life from week to week?" After rank ordering the different identities in order of importance, they were asked to rate each identity using a "barometer scale" from 0, "of no importance to me", to 100, "as important to me as I can imagine". Respondents were free to use any number from 0 to 100 and could assign the same numbers to two or more role identities.

The responses for the identity "teaching profession" were recoded into two categories (see Table 7). The first category represents responses from 0-75. The second category represents responses from 76-100. Two

hundred and seventy respondents answered this part of the questionnaire. Data are missing for 38 respondents.

Of those who responded, approximately 54 percent (147 students) indicated the "teaching profession" fell into category 1--from 0 to 75, of no importance to quite important. Almost 46 percent (123 students) indicated that "teaching profession" ranged from "quite important" to "as important to me as I can imagine" which ranked 76 to 100 on the scale.

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Table 7

Frequencies for Professional Self-Concept

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Range	Frequency	Percentage
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A. Original

0 - 10	4	2
11 - 20	2	1
21 - 30	5	2
31 - 40	8	3
41 - 50	23	9
51 - 60	21	8
61 - 70	14	5
71 - 80	100	37
81 - 90	52	19
91 - 100	41	15

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B. Recoded

1 - 75	147	54
76 - 100	123	46

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Total	270	100
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### The Procedure

In order to test the hypotheses derived from the theoretical framework described in Chapter 2, the data are analyzed by cross-tabulation. This procedure produces tables that are the combined grouping of two or more variables that have a limited number of distinct values. In other words, the frequency distribution of two variables, an independent variable and a dependent variable, are cross-tabulated with the values of one or two control variables.

Initially, the relationship between the original two variables in the hypothesis is examined. This relationship is categorized as representing no relationship, a direct relationship, an indirect relationship, or a curvilinear relationship. Once the form of the bivariate relationship has been established, it is interpreted with respect to the original hypothesis. In order to test the hypothesis, a difference of proportions test is calculated. The hypothesis is tested at the .05 level of significance. The critical value of  $z$  is 1.96. If the standard deviate of the observed difference of proportion is greater than 1.96 or less than -1.96, the null hypothesis is rejected

and the directional or non-directional hypothesis is accepted (Mueller, Schuessler, and Costner, 1977).

The bivariate analysis of each independent variable is followed by multivariate analysis as an elaboration model is applied to the original bivariate relationship. Elaborations are used to determine if the original relationship is affected by a third variable or test factor. By holding this test factor constant, one can compare the relationships in the contingent associations with the original relationship (Rosenberg, 1968).

The steps used to analyze the original bivariate relationship are repeated for all the partial tables of each of the test factors. At the end of each elaboration, conclusions are drawn about the effect of the test factors on the original bivariate relationship. These effects are then related back to the original hypothesis.

Statistical analysis can take many forms, including analysis of variance, correlation, path analysis and cross-tabular analysis. Although there are reasons for using more powerful forms of analysis, cross-tabulations have the advantage of being a clear and simple way to present conclusions.

A disadvantage of cross-tabular analysis for the present data set is that, typically, only three

independent variables can be analyzed at once. However, once the most important variables have been identified through previous analysis (See Clifton, Mandzuk, and Roberts, 1990), and their causal status made plausible, then showing their combined distribution in multivariate tables allows the analyst to describe their interaction effects with greater clarity than with the more powerful statistical methods (Hirschi and Selvin, 1967).

#### Summary

This chapter has described the sample, the operationalization of the variables, and the procedures used in this study. The sample for this study is undergraduate students from the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba. Six independent variables, year in program, academic ability, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, and one dependent variable, professional self-concept, are analyzed in the study. Cross tabular analyses are used to test the theoretical framework.

## CHAPTER 4

## Results

This study is concerned with the development of the professional self-concept of undergraduate education students. In this chapter, the effects of six variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, on the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers are reported. Initially, the variable's bivariate relationship with the dependent variable is reported. This is followed by a report of the relationships of the multivariate elaborations of that particular variable and the implications of these relationships with respect to the original hypothesis.

Year in Program

In Chapter 2, it is hypothesized that the professional self-concept of student teachers would increase as the year in program increases. Table 8 illustrates that year in program has a direct relationship with professional self-concept. This means that as year in program increases, the percentage of

students reporting a high professional self-concept also increases.

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Table 8

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program

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Year in Program	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
	33 (88)	55 (113)	49 (65)

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Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

The direct relationship evident between years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4 is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.14$ , which means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance.

It should be noted that the After Degree students included in the table are not included in the description of this relationship. Students in the After Degree stream are students that have already completed a degree in another discipline. While they are similar to first and second year education students in terms of the length of time they have spent in the professional faculty, there are also many important differences. They have already been exposed to university and the aspects of

socialization involved in such an exposure. While these effects are not necessarily the same as professional socialization, they do exist. Also, these students are generally older and therefore more likely to be settled in their career choice. Finally, these students must complete their professional education in 2 years as compared to the 4 years for students in the regular B.Ed program. For these reasons, they cannot be slotted into years 1 and 2 or years 3 and 4. Therefore, they have not been included in the analysis of the year in program variable.

Initially, elementary and secondary program is used as the test factor to determine whether or not the relationship in the original table between year in program and professional self-concept is, in fact, due to the year in program in which the students were enrolled. The percentage of high professional self-concept scores by year in program and program are reported in Table 9. There is a direct relationship between year in program and professional self-concept for students in the elementary program. The direct relationship between years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4 in this partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.1$ , which means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance. There is also a direct relationship between year in



program and professional self-concept for students in the secondary program. This means that the percentage of secondary students reporting a high professional self-concept increases through the years of study. This relationship is not significant

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Table 9

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program and Program

---

Program	Year in Program		
	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
Elementary	31 (55)	59 (63)	65 (26)
Secondary	38 (29)	50 (46)	40 (38)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

at the .05 level as  $z=.4$ .

The direct relationship found in the original table is replicated to some degree, by both partial tables in the program elaboration. This means that as year in program increases, so does professional self-concept, independent of the program in which the students are

enrolled. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by this program.

A second test variable, the time student teachers spent volunteering in schools and in other school related activities, is introduced into the year in program and professional self-concept relationship. The percentage of student teachers with high professional self-concept by year in program and time spent in schools are reported in Table 10.

---

Table 10

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program and Time Spent in Schools

---

Time Spent in Schools	Year in Program		
	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
1 - 5 Hours	27 (66)	48 (29)	33 (3)
6 - 40 Hours	80 (10)	65 (40)	42 (24)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For student teachers who spend between 1 and 5 hours in school related activities, there is a direct relationship between year in program and professional self-concept. This means that as year in program

increases, professional self-concept also increases. This relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.1$ . For students who spend between 6 and 40 hours in school related activities, there is an indirect relationship between year and program and time spent in schools, which means that the number of student teachers reporting a high professional self-concept decreases as year in program increases and the time they spent volunteering in schools is held constant. It is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.88$ . The sample in this relationship is too small to accurately reflect the percentage in the population, making it impossible to generalize.

The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is not replicated by both partial tables. This means that the year in program and the professional self-concept relationship is affected by the time student teachers spent volunteering in schools.

Academic achievement, measured by grade point average is the third test variable introduced into the professional self-concept by year in program relationship. The percentage of high professional self-concept by year in program and grade point average are reported in Table 11. For students with low grade point averages, there is a direct relationship between year in program and high professional self-concept . This means

that for student teachers with low grade point averages, as year in program increases, the professional self-concept increases. The direct relationship in this partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.7$ , which means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance.

---

Table 11  
Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program  
and Grade Point Average

---

Grade Point Average	Year in Program		
	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
Less than 3.0	28 (29)	55 (38)	58 (12)
More than 3.0	37 (54)	55 (73)	47 (53)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is also a direct relationship between year in program and high professional self-concept for students with grade point averages higher than 3.0. This means that there is an increase in the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts between years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4. The increase in the relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.0$ .

The relationships exhibited in these partial tables replicate the original bivariate table. This means that, independent of the grade point averages of students, as year in program increases, so does professional self-concept. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by grade point average.

The fourth test variable introduced into this relationship is gender. The percentage of high professional self-concept by year in program and gender is reported in Table 12. For male students, there is a direct relationship between year in program and professional self-concept. That means that, between years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4, there is an increase in the percentage of male students reporting a high professional self-concept.

---

Table 12

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program and Gender

---

Gender	Year in Program		
	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
Male	29 (21)	51 (35)	32 (37)
Female	34 (67)	56 (78)	71 (28)

---

Note: Number of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

This direct relationship in this partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.2$ . For female students, there is also a direct relationship between year in program and professional self-concept. This direct relationship in this partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.2$ .

The direct relationship found in the original table is replicated in both partial tables. Independent of gender, this means that as year in program increases, so does professional self-concept. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by gender, the fourth test variable.

The last test variable introduced into this two variable relationship is father's education as a measure of socioeconomic status. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by year in program and father's education are reported in Table 13.

For students with fathers having less than a high school education, there is a direct relationship between year in program and professional self-concept. This means that for these students, the percentage reporting a high professional self-concept increases over the years in the program. The direct relationship in the partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.2$ ,

Table 13

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Year in Program and Father's Education

Father's Education	Year in Program		
	1 & 2	3 & 4	After Degree
Less than High School	36 (56)	58 (55)	49 (37)
More than High School	29 (31)	52 (58)	52 (27)

Note: Number of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

which means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance. For students with fathers having more than high school education, there is also a direct relationship between year and program and professional self-concept. This direct relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.3$

The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated by both partial tables in the father's education elaboration. This means that independent of the level of the students father's education, as year in program increases, so does professional self-concept. This suggests that the

original bivariate relationship is unaffected by this final test variable.

The only test variable that affected the year in program and professional self-concept relationship is the high time spent in schools variable and it possible that this discrepancy could be, in part, due to the academic load of first and second year students as well as the minimal opportunities to participate in schools and school related activities. The results of this study support the hypothesis that as students move through the years in the program, increases in professional self-concept will result.

#### Academic Achievement

The second hypothesis in Chapter 2 suggested that student teachers with high grade point averages would be more likely to report high professional self-concepts than those with lower grade point averages. In this study, grade point average exhibited no relationship with professional self-concept in the original bivariate table. This means that there is no change in the number of students reporting high professional self-concepts despite increases in grade point average (see Table 14).



Table 14

## Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average

---

Grade Point Average	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
	44 (81)	47 (182)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is only a 3 percent a small increase between years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4. Five percent is the generally accepted increase required to assume a direct relationship.

While there appeared to be no relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept in the bivariate analysis, it is possible that the absence of a relationship may be due to the intrusion of a third variable that cancels out, reduces, or conceals the true relationship between two variables (Rosenberg, 1968, p. 68). By performing multivariate elaborations, one can determine whether or not this noncorrelation between the two variables is real.

Program is the first test factor used in this elaboration. The percentage of high professional self-

concept scores by grade point average and program are reported in table 15.

Table 15

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average and Program

Program	Grade Point Average	
	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
Elementary	42 (43)	53 (96)
Secondary	51 (35)	39 (79)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

Despite the lack of relationship in the original table, for students in the elementary program, there is a direct relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept. This means that as grade point average increases, the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts increases. This direct relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.2$ . This is, however, an indirect relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept for students in the secondary program. This means that

as grade point average increases, the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts decreases. This relationship is also not significant.

The lack of relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated in either partial table in the elaboration, suggesting that the original table is misleading. It also means that as grade point average increases, professional self-concept increases only for the students in the elementary program. Evidently, most students in the secondary program do not equate high professional self-concepts with high academic achievement.

The second test factor in this elaboration is time spent in schools. The percentage of high professional self-concept scores by grade point average and time spent in schools are reported in Table 16. Again, the lack of relationship in the original table is not supported. For students spending between 1 and 5 hours per week in schools, there is a direct relationship between grade point average and high professional self-concept. This means that for students spending between 1 and 5 hours in schools as grade point average increases, the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts also increases. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.1$ .

For students spending between 6 and 40 hours per week in schools, there is an indirect relationship between grade point average and high professional self-concept. However, the sample of students with low grade point averages is too small to accurately reflect the percentage in the population. In other words, it is almost impossible to generalize.

---

Table 16

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average  
and Time Spent in Schools

---

Time Spent in Schools	Grade Point Average	
	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
1 - 5 hours	27 (33)	38 (61)
6 - 40 hours	67 (18)	56 (57)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For this reason, this relationship cannot be used as it gives a false impression of a negative relationship when this, in fact, may not be the case.

The third test factor is gender. The percentage of high professional self-concept scores by grade point average and gender are reported in Table 17.

---

Table 17

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average and Gender

---

Gender	Grade Point Average	
	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
Males	60 (25)	30 (69)
Females	38 (56)	57 (113)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

Despite the lack of relationship in the original table, there is an inverse relationship for male students in the sample between grade point average and professional self-concept. This means that as grade point average increases, male students reporting high professional self-concepts decreases. This relationship in the partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z = (-2.73)$ . There is, however, a positive relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept

for the females. This means that the percentage of female students reporting high professional self-concepts increases as grade point average increases. The direct relationship in this partial table is also significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.1$ .

The existence of the inverse and positive relationships when this test variable is included suggest that the lack of a relationship in the original table is misleading. Both partial tables exhibit large percentage changes: -30 percent for males and +19 percent for females. These relationships seem to indicate that high grade point average is significant in the development of the professional self-concept for females. The males identification of high professional self-concept with low grade point average, in a profession that should, by its nature, encourage academic excellence, is problematic and will be examined in greater detail in Chapter 5.

To further examine the relationship between high professional self-concept and grade point average, a fourth test variable is introduced. This variable is father's education. The percentage of high professional self-concept scores by grade point average and father's education are reported in Table 18.

Table 18

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average  
and Father's Education

Father's Education	Grade Point Average	
	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
Less than High School	49 (43)	47 (102)
More than High School	40 (38)	47 (78)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is no relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept for students whose fathers had less than a high school education. This means that the percentage change from years 1 and 2 and years 3 and 4 is not great enough to be significant. There is, however, a direct relationship between grade point average and high professional self-concept for students with fathers with more than a high school education. This means that, for these students, as grade point increases, professional self-concept also increases. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.7$ .

The final test factor in this elaboration is year in program. The percentage high professional self-concept

scores by grade point average and year in program are reported in Table 19.

Table 19

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Grade Point Average  
and Year in Program

Year in Program	Grade Point Average	
	Less than 3.0	More than 3.0
1 & 2	28 (29)	37 (54)
3 & 4	55 (38)	55 (73)
After Degree	58 (12)	47 (53)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is a direct relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept for student teachers in years 1 and 2. This means that as grade point average increases, the percentage of student teachers in the first two years of the program reporting high professional self-concepts increases. This is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.5$ . There is no relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept for student teachers in years 3 and 4.



There is an indirect relationship between grade point average and professional self-concept for student teachers in the After Degree Program. This means that, for after Degree students, as grade point average increases, the percentage reporting high professional self-concepts decreases. This is significant at the .05 level as  $z=-2.0$ .

The lack of a relationship in the original bivariate analysis is replicated by the partial table for third and fourth year students but not for first and second year students or After Degree students. This means that grade point average is significant in the development of the professional self-concept for only the students in the first two years of the program.

The lack of a relationship in the original table is supported by only two of the partial tables in this elaboration. This suggests that grade point average can be important to some student teachers, particularly those in the elementary program, those who spend between 1 and 5 hours in schools, and those in the first and second year of their teacher education program. However, the hypothesis that professional self-concept would increase as grade point average increases, seems to be true for only the females. Why male students are more likely to report a high professional self-concept when they have

grade point averages lower than 3.0, is an issue that will be examined later in greater detail. Student teachers associating a high professional self-concept with low grade point averages appears more than once in this elaboration. We see it in secondary program students, After Degree students, and in students spending between 6 and 40 hours in the schools.

#### Involvement in Professional Activities

The third hypothesis in Chapter 2 suggested that increases in the involvement in professional activities as measured by the amount of time spent volunteering in schools, would result in increases in professional self-concept. In this study, there is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept which means that as time spent in schools increases, professional self-concept also increases. The direct relationship evident in the original table (see Table 20) is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.7$ . This means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance.

Program is used as the first test factor to determine whether or not the relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept is, in

fact, due to the program in which the students were enrolled.

---

Table 20

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools

---

Time Spent in Schools	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 Hours
	33 (100)	59 (75)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

The percentage high professional self-concept scores by time spent in schools and program are reported in Table 21.

---

Table 21

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools and Program

---

Program	Time Spent in Schools	
	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 hours
Elementary	33 (61)	70 (37)
Secondary	34 (35)	47 (34)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students in the elementary program. This means that for students in the elementary program, as the time spent in schools increases, the percentage reporting high professional self-concepts also increases. This is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.7$ , which means that it is unlikely that this relationship is due to chance. There is also a direct relationship for students in the secondary program. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z= 1.3$ . The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in both partial tables. This means that as time spent in schools increases, so does professional self-concept, independent of the program in which the students are enrolled.

Grade point average is used as the second test factor in this elaboration. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by time spent in schools and grade point average are reported in Table 22.

There is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students with grade point averages less than 3.0. This means that as time spent in schools increases, professional self-concept for students with low grades also increases. The direct

Table 22

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools  
and Grade Point Average

Grade Point Average	Time Spent in Schools	
	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 Hours
Less than 3.0	27 (33)	67 (18)
More than 3.0	38 (61)	56 (57)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

relationship in this partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=2.86$ , which means that it is unlikely that the relationship is due to chance. There is also a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students with grade point averages greater than 3.0. The direct relationship in this partial table is also significant as  $z=2.0$ .

The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in both partial tables. This means that as time spent in schools increases so does professional self-concept, independent of the

student grades. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is not affected by this test variable.

The third test variable introduced into this relationship is gender. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by time spent in schools and gender are reported in Table 23.

---

Table 23

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools and Gender

---

Gender	Time Spent in Schools	
	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 Hours
Males	24 (21)	42 (36)
Females	35 (79)	74 (39)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For male students, there is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept. This means that as the time spent in schools increases, the percentage reporting high professional self-concepts increases. The direct relationship in this partial table is not significant as  $z=1.8$ . For females,

there is also a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept. The direct relationship in the partial table is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.0$ .

The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in both partial tables. This means that, independent of gender, as time spent in schools increases, so does professional self-concept. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is not affected by this test variable.

The fourth test variable in this elaboration is father's education. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by time spent in schools and father's education are reported in Table 24.

---

Table 24

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools  
and Father's Education

---

Father's Education	Time Spent in Schools	
	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 Hours
Less than High School	30 (54)	60 (45)
More than High School	38 (45)	57 (30)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students whose fathers have less than a high school education. This means that for students with low father's education, as time spent in schools increases, the percentage reporting high professional self-concepts increases. This relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.0$ . There is also a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students whose fathers have more than a high school education. This direct relationship is not significant as  $z=1.35$ .

Again, the direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in both partial tables. This means that, independent of the level of father's education, as time spent in schools increases, so does professional self-concept. The results suggest that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by father's education.

The final test variable in this elaboration is year in program. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by time spent in schools and year in program are reported in Table 25. There is a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students in the first two



years of the program. This means that as the amount of time spent in schools increases, the percentage of students in those years reporting high professional self-concepts also increases. This is significant as  $z=2.6$ .

---

Table 25

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Time Spent in Schools and Year in Program

---

Year in Program	Time Spent in Schools	
	1 - 5 Hours	6 - 40 Hours
1 & 2	27 (66)	80 (10)
3 & 4	48 (29)	65 (40)
After Degree	33 (3)	42 (24)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is also a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students in years three and four. This is not significant as  $z=1.7$ . There is also a direct relationship between time spent in schools and professional self-concept for students in the After Degree program. This is not significant as  $z=.3$ .

The direct relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in all partial tables. This means that, independent of year in program, as time

spent in schools increases, so does professional self-concept. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by year in program. Thus, it would appear that the results support the hypothesis that increases in involvement in professional activities result in increases in professional self-concept.

### Program

The fourth hypothesis in Chapter 2 suggested that significant differences in professional self-concept would be found in student teachers enrolled in the Elementary and Secondary programs offered by the Faculty of Education. In this study, there is a greater percentage of students in the elementary program reporting high professional self-concepts than students in the secondary program. The inverse relationship evident in Table 26 is not significant at the .05 level as  $z = -.86$ . Time spent in schools is used as the first test factor to determine whether or not the relationship between program and professional self-concept is, in

Table 26

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Program

Program	Elementary	Secondary
	49 (146)	43 (114)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

fact, due to the amount of time students were involved in professional activities. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by program and time spent in schools are reported in Table 27. There is no relationship between professional self-concept for students who spent between 1 and 5 hours per week in schools as the percentage increase of 1 percent is not enough to warrant consideration. This is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.11$ . There is, however, an inverse relationship between high time spent in schools and professional self-concept. This means that a greater percentage of students in the elementary program reported high professional self-concepts than

Table 27

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Program and Time Spent in Schools

Time Spent in Schools	Program	
	Elementary	Secondary
1 - 5 Hours	33 (61)	34 (35)
6 - 40 Hours	70 (37)	47 (34)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

students in the secondary students when these students spent between 6 and 40 hours per week in schools. This inverse relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z = -1.92$ , although it is very close to the critical value of 1.96.

The inverse relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated by both partial tables. This means that as program changes, professional self-concept differs only if the amount of time spent in schools is between 6 and 40 hours. This also means that the original program relationship is affected by the amount of time spent in schools, particularly for students in the elementary program.

The second test variable in this elaboration is grade point average. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by program and grade point average are reported in Table 28.

There is a positive relationship between program and professional self-concept for students with grade point averages less than 3.0. This means that a lower percentage of students in the elementary program reported high professional self-concepts than did students in the secondary program when these students had low grade point averages. This relationship is not significant as  $z=.9$ .

---

Table 28

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Program and Grade Point Average

---

Grade Point Average	Program	
	Elementary	Secondary
Less than 3.0	42 (43)	51 (35)
More than 3.0	53 (96)	39 (79)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

There is an inverse relationship between program and professional self-concept for students with grade point

averages higher than 3.0. This means that a greater percentage of students in the elementary program reported high professional self-concepts than did students in the secondary program when these students had high grade point averages. This inverse relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z=-2.0$ .

The inverse relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated by both partial tables. This means that as program changes, professional self-concept changes for secondary students with low grade point averages and elementary students with high grade point averages. Again, the original relationship is affected by the test variable.

The third test variable in this elaboration is gender. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by program and gender are reported in Table 29. There is no relationship between program and professional self-concept for male students which means that the percentage decrease of 2 percent is not significant as  $z=-.2$ . There is also no relationship between program and professional self-concept for female students.

Table 29

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Program and Gender

Gender	Program	
	Elementary	Secondary
Male	41 (22)	39 (70)
Female	50 (124)	50 (44)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

The fourth test variable in this elaboration is father's education. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by program and father's education are reported in Table 30.

Table 30

Percentage High Professional Self Concept by Program and Father's Education

Father's Education	Program	
	Elementary	Secondary
Less than High School	44 (82)	51 (61)
More than High School	56 (63)	35 (52)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For those students whose fathers have less than a high school education, there is a positive relationship between program and professional self-concept. This means that a lesser percentage of students in the elementary program reported high professional self-concepts when their fathers had less than a high school education than did secondary students with similar backgrounds. This relationship is not significant as  $z=.78$ . There is, however, an inverse relationship between program and professional self-concept for students whose fathers had more than a high school education. This means that when the students fathers had more than a high school education, a greater percentage reported high professional self-concepts than the students in the secondary program. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=-.01$ .

The inverse relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated by either partial table. This means that as program changes, professional self-concept increases only for students whose fathers have more than high school education.

The final test variable in this elaboration is year in program. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by program and year in program are reported in Table 31. There is a positive relationship



between program and professional self-concept for students in years 1 and 2. This means that a greater percentage of first and second year students in the secondary program reported high

---

Table 31

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Program and Year in Program

---

Year in Program	Program	
	Elementary	Secondary
1 & 2	31 (55)	38 (29)
3 & 4	59 (63)	50 (46)
After Degree	65 (26)	40 (38)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

professional self-concepts than did students in the elementary program. This is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.7$ . There is an inverse relationship between program and professional self-concept for students in the third and fourth years of the program. This means that a greater percentage of elementary students in third and fourth year reported high professional self-concepts than

did their secondary counterparts. This inverse relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z = -.9$ . There is also an inverse relationship between program and professional self-concept for students in the After Degree program. This is not significant as  $z = -.11$ .

The inverse relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated by all the partial tables. This means that, for students in the first two years of the program, as program changes, professional self-concept changes.

Generally, it would appear that program itself has little direct effect on most of the students in the Faculty of Education in this study. It would seem that most of the differences are the result of the different test factors. Therefore, these results do not support the hypothesis that the different programs offered by the Faculty of Education create significant differences in professional self-concept.

### Gender

The fifth hypothesis in Chapter 2 suggested that the gender of the student teachers would create significant differences in the professional self-concept. In this study, there is a positive relationship between gender

and professional self-concept, which means that a lesser percentage of male students reported high professional self-concepts than female students. The positive relationship evident in the original bivariate table (See Table 32) is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.2$ .

---

Table 32

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender

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Gender	Male	Female
	38 (95)	51 (75)

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Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

Program is used as the first test factor to determine whether or not the relationship between gender and professional self-concept is, in fact, due to the program in which the students were enrolled. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by gender and program are reported in Table 33.

There is a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept for students in the elementary program. This means that there is a greater percentage of female students in the elementary program reporting high professional self-concepts.

Table 33

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender and Program

Program	Gender	
	Male	Female
Elementary	41 (22)	50 (124)
Secondary	39 (70)	50 (44)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

This is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.9$ .

For students in the secondary program, there is also a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This relationship is also not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.1$ .

The positive relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated in both partial tables. This means that, independent of the program in which they are enrolled, as gender changes, so does the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by program.

The second test factor in this elaboration is time spent in schools. The percentage high professional self-

concept by gender and time spent in schools are reported in Table 34.

Table 34

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender and Time Spent in Schools

Time Spent in Schools	Gender	
	Male	Female
1 - 5 Hours	24 (21)	35 (79)
6 - 40 Hours	42 (36)	74 (39)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For students who spend between 1 and 5 hours in school per week, there is a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that there is a greater percentage of female students in those years reporting high professional self-concepts. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.1$ . For students who spend between 6 and 40 hours per week in schools, there is also a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This is significant at the .05 level as  $z=3.2$ .

The positive relationships found in the original bivariate table is replicated by both partial tables in the time spent in schools elaboration. This means that, independent of the amount of time spent in schools, as gender changes, so does the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by time spent in schools.

The third test variable in this elaboration is grade point average. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by gender and grade point average are reported in Table 35. For students with grade point averages less than 3.0, there is an inverse relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that a greater percentage of male students with low grade point averages report high professional self-concepts. This relationship is significant at the .05 level as  $z = -2.2$ . For students with grade point averages greater than 3.0, there is a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that

Table 35

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender and Grade Point Average

Grade Point Average	Gender	
	Male	Female
Less than 3.0	60 (25)	38 (56)
More than 3.0	30 (69)	57 (113)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

a greater percentage of female students with high grade point averages report high professional self-concepts. This is not significant at the .05 level as  $z = .3$ .

The positive relationship found in the original bivariate table is not replicated by both partial tables in this elaboration. This suggests that for the males grade point average can affect the relationship between gender and professional self-concept.

The fourth test factor in this elaboration is father's education. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by gender and father's education are reported in Table 36.

Table 36  
 Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender  
 and Father's Education

Father's Education	Gender	
	Males	Females
Less than High School	44 (48)	49 (101)
More than High School	33 (46)	52 (73)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For students whose fathers have less than a high school education, there is a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that a lesser percentage of male students with low father's education reported high professional self-concepts. This relationship is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.6$ . For students whose fathers have more than a high school education, there is also a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that again, a lesser percentage of males students with high father's education reported high professional self-concepts. This relationship is also not significant at the .05 level as  $z=1.90$ .



The positive relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated by both partial tables in the father's education elaboration. This means that, independent of the level of their father's education, as gender changes, so does the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is unaffected by the level of father's education.

The final test factor in this elaboration is year in program. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by gender and year in program are reported in Table 37.

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Table 37

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Gender and Year in Program

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Year in Program	Gender	
	Male	Female
1 & 2	29 (21)	34 (67)
3 & 4	51 (35)	56 (78)
After Degree	32 (37)	71 (28)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

For students in the first two years of the program, there is a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This means that a greater percentage of first and second year female students reported high professional self-concepts. This is not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.5$ . For students in the third and fourth years of the program, there is also a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept. This is also not significant at the .05 level as  $z=.5$ . For student sin the After Degree program, there is also a positive relationship between gender and professional self-concept which is significant as  $z=2.78$ .

The positive relationship found in the original bivariate table is replicated by all partial tables in the year in program elaboration. This means that, independent of the year in program, as gender changes, so does the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts. This suggests that the original bivariate relationship is also unaffected by the year in program. It would appear that the results of this study strongly support the hypothesis that the gender of the student teachers will create significant differences in their professional self-concepts.

### Father's Education

The final hypothesis in Chapter 2 suggested that socioeconomic status would create significant differences in the professional self-concepts of student teachers in the Faculty of Education. In this study, there is no relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means that for students of varying socioeconomic groups, there is no significant change in the percentage reporting high professional self-concepts (See Table 38).

Initially, program is used as a test factor to determine whether or not the relationship between father's education and professional self-concept is, in fact, due to the program in which the students were enrolled. The percentage high professional self-concept

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Table 38

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education

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Father's Education	Less than High School	More than High School
	47 (149)	45 (119)

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Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

scores by father's education and program are reported in Table 39.

Table 39

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education and Program

Program	Father's Education	
	Less than High School	More than High School
Elementary	44 (82)	56 (63)
Secondary	51 (61)	35 (52)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

Despite the lack of a relationship in the original table, for students in the elementary program, there is a direct relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means that a greater percentage of elementary students whose fathers have more than a high school education report high professional self-concepts. This is not significant as  $z=1.5$ . For students in the secondary program, there is an indirect relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means that a greater percentage of

secondary students whose fathers have less than a high school education report high professional self-concepts. This is also not significant as  $z=1.6$ .

The lack of relationship in the original bivariate table is not replicated by either of the partial tables in the program elaboration. This suggests that the lack of an original bivariate relationship is misleading. It also suggests that, for students in both the elementary and secondary programs, the level of father's education is significant in the development of the professional self-concept. While an increase in the level of the father's education increases the percentage of elementary students who reported high professional self-concepts, the reverse occurred for students in the secondary program.

The second test factor in this elaboration is time spent in schools. The percentage high professional self-concept by father's education and time spent in schools are reported in Table 40. For students who spent between 1 and 5 hours in schools per week, there is a direct relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means the higher the level of the father's education, the greater the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts.

Table 40

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education  
and Time Spent in Schools

Time Spent in Schools	Father's Education	
	Less than High School	More than High School
1 - 5 Hours	30 (54)	38 (45)
6 - 40 Hours	60 (45)	57 (30)

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

This is not significant as  $z=.89$ . However, for students who spent between 6 and 40 hours per week in schools, there is no relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This is also not significant as  $z=-.3$ .

The lack of a relationship in the original bivariate table is replicated by one of the partial tables in this elaboration. This suggests that, for students spending between 1 and 5 hours per week in schools, the level of father's education makes a difference .

The third test factor in this elaboration is grade point average. The percentage high self-concept scores by father's education and grade point average are reported in Table 41. For students with low grade point averages, there is an indirect relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means that as the students fathers education increases, the percentage of students reporting high professional self-concepts decreases. This is not significant as  $z = -.9$ . For students with high grade point averages, there is no relationship between father's education and professional self-concept.

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Table 41  
Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education  
and Grade Point Average

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Grade Point Average	Father's Education	
	Less than High School	More than High School
Less than 3.0	49 (43)	40 (38)
More than 3.0	47 (102)	47 (78)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

The lack of a relationship is not replicated by both partial tables in this elaboration. This means that, for students with low grade point averages, the level of the students father's education is significant.

The third test factor in this elaboration is gender. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by father's education and gender are reported in Table 42. For male students, there is an indirect relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This means that the percentage of male students reporting high professional self-concepts decreases as the level of father's education increases. This is not significant as  $z=-1.2$ . For female students, there is no

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Table 42

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education and Gender

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Gender	Father's Education	
	Less than High School	More than High School
Male	44 (48)	33 (46)
Female	49 (101)	52 (73)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.



relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. This is also not significant as  $z=.42$ . Again, the lack of a relationship is not replicated by both the partial tables in this elaboration.

The final test factor in this elaboration is year in program. The percentage high professional self-concept scores by father's education and year in program are reported in Table 43.

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Table 43

Percentage High Professional Self-Concept by Father's Education and Year in Program

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Year in Program	Father's Education	
	Less than High School	More than High School
1 & 2	36 (56)	29 (31)
3 & 4	58 (55)	52 (58)
After Degree	49 (37)	52 (27)

---

Note: Numbers of students on which percentages are based are in parentheses.

In this final elaboration, there are indirect relationships between father's education and professional self-concept for both the students in years 1 and 2,

which is significant at the .05 level as  $z=.7$ , and the students in years 3 and 4, which is also not significant as  $z=-.6$ . For students in the After Degree program however, there is no relationship between father's education and professional self-concept. Only one partial table replicates the lack of an original bivariate relationship which suggests that the level of father's education is not significant for most students in the program.

Generally, it would appear that the level of father's education itself has little direct effect on the students in the Faculty of Education. It would seem that most of the differences are the result of the different test factor effects. Therefore, the results of this study do not support the hypothesis that differences in socioeconomic status would result in differences in professional self-concept.

### Summary

The variables, year in program, involvement in professional activities, and gender were all shown to have effects on the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers as hypothesized in Chapter 2. The hypothesis on academic achievement produced interesting results as it seems to apply to only the

female student teachers. Male students, on the other hand, reported higher professional self-concepts when their grade point averages were below 3.0. Some program effects are evident for students in both the elementary and secondary programs, but in many cases, the results were explained by different test factors rather than the program itself. Neither program nor socioeconomic hypotheses are supported by the results of this study.

## Chapter 5

### Conclusions

This study investigated the effects of six variables, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status, on the development of the professional self-concept in student teachers. In this chapter, the study is summarized, and the findings are discussed.

### Summary

While many assumptions are made about the socialization process of becoming a teacher, there is little research available to substantiate these beliefs. Research on the socialization of other professions has provided us with clues to the integral parts of the process, clues which have become a starting point for this study.

Current research on professional socialization in other professions suggests competing theories on the socialization process. The two theories referred to as the induction and reaction approaches focus on different aspects of the socialization process. The induction approach focuses on the structural arrangements of the

professional school while the reaction approach is more concerned with the school's social arrangements. Despite persuasive arguments by researchers supporting each of the models, it was suggested in Chapter 2, that it is more likely that both the structural and social arrangements of professional schools affect the development of student teachers professional self-concepts.

A brief review of social-psychological literature related to role theory and professional socialization laid the sociological foundation for this study. In order to adapt, people generally conform to the behavioral expectations of society. This ongoing process allows individuals to adjust to many different situations encountered in life and to hold different positions and perform different functions. Each of these positions or statuses has associated with it, norms, rules, and expectations that specify behavior appropriate for that particular status. These patterns of behavior, or roles, are internalized and individuals develop self-concepts of themselves in each status.

Bandura, Grusec and Menlove (1966) suggest that role acquisition is achieved primarily by modelling the behavior of significant others. They cite four processes involved in modelling: attention to the behavior of a

role model, remembering observed behavior, the capacity to enact this behavior, and reinforcement for this behavior. As well as the demands of others, self-initiated ideas impact upon the development of identities or self-concepts for each status.

Preparing for a profession and developing the necessary professional self-concept requires individuals to acquire the attitudes, values and behaviors as well as the necessary skills and knowledge to adequately perform as a member of that particular profession (Brim, 1966). Previous research indicated that this professional socialization occurs primarily during formal education through one of two models, (Merton, 1957, Kadushin, 1969, Becker et al., 1961, Thielens, 1966, Olesen and Whittaker, 1968, and Simpson, 1979), or as suggested earlier, by a combination of the two.

All of the professional socialization studies in the literature identified variables that greatly influenced the development of the professional self-concept regardless of the model. It is hypothesized that the six variables, year in program (Merton, 1957, Thielens, 1966, Kadushin, 1969, and Simpson, 1979), academic achievement, (Thielens, 1966, and Kadushin, 1969), involvement in professional activities (Mason, 1961, Hermanowicz, 1966, Kadushin, 1969, Lortie, 1975, Simpson,

1979 and Housego, 1990), program, (Housego, 1991 and Kadushin, 1969), gender, (Connell, 1985, and Webb and Sherman, 1989) and socioeconomic status (Lortie, 1975) will all have an impact on the development of the professional self-concept. It is hypothesized that year in program, academic achievement, and involvement in professional activities will all have a positive relationship with professional self-concept based on the existing research in other professions. Program, gender, and socioeconomic status are not directly supported by this literature so they are hypothesized to have a non-directional effect on professional self-concept. This study will examine the effects of these variables upon the development of the professional self-concept of education students.

The data for this study were obtained from undergraduate students at the University of Manitoba who participated in the 1987 self study survey of Education students. The sample surveyed was selected using a stratified random cluster sampling procedure. The sample includes 308 undergraduate students who represented a response rate of approximately 76 percent of the undergraduate students surveyed. Approximately 35 percent of the respondents are male and approximately 65 percent are female.

Six independent variables are used, year in program, academic achievement, involvement in professional activities, program, gender, and socioeconomic status measured by father's education. The dependent variable is professional self-concept. Bivariate and multivariate cross tabular analyses are used to test the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

The results of this study suggest that the professional socialization of student teachers is, in fact, a multidimensional process made up of the patterns and aspects of action which instill in student teachers the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, values, and motives for the performance of the anticipated role. Both the structural and social aspects of the professional school played a part in the development of the professional self-concept of the student teachers in this study. Variables taken from both induction and reaction models were found to have an effect on the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers. The induction model variables, year in program, and involvement in professional activities were shown to have an effect on the development of student teachers as hypothesized in Chapter 2. Another induction model variable, academic achievement, produced very



interesting results when it was shown to have a positive effect on only the female segment of the sample. Only one induction model variable, program, did not support it's hypothesis.

Two reaction model variables, socioeconomic status and gender were also tested. Socioeconomic status did not appear to effect the professional self-concept of student teachers in this study. While test factor effects of father's education were seen to exist in particular situations, the hypothesis presented in Chapter 2, generally, was not supported by the results.

### Discussion

The results of this study provide insights into the processes of professional socialization. Those insights contribute to a relatively sparse literature as there has been an apparent lack of new research in the professional socialization literature in the last decade. This is particularly true in Education. Whatever research there is is coming out of other professions. Given the American concern generated by The Nation at Risk, an American report about the quality of education and the quality of teaching, as well as Canadian reports that echo these concerns (Fullan and Connelly, 1986), there appears to be a strong case for more detailed study of Faculties of

Education. What Faculties of Education do has been accepted as largely unproblematic for too long.

The results of this study suggest that the professional school is, in fact, a fundamental part of the professional socialization process, particularly the development of the professional self-concept. If Faculties of Education are, as Fullan and Connelly, 1986 suggest, a substantially understudied area of education, the results of this study seem to indicate that further research is needed. Questions are raised that should be addressed and studied in future research. From these questions come recommendations which are directed to specific groups. The first three recommendations are directed to those individuals who are involved in research and teaching in the field of education in general, and in educational socialization in particular.

First, this study is limited by it's size and design which makes it's findings suggestive rather than conclusive. It has provided a cross-sectional analysis of the professional socialization process in the Faculty of Education. This is not necessarily the most effective way to study professional socialization as socialization by definition, implies individual change. In order to truly see the substantial changes which take place over the four year period that students are in the faculty, a

longitudinal study is required. In a study of this sort, the same groups of individuals could be followed from their first week in the faculty, year by year through the 4 years, and through at least 1 year of in-service practice after graduation. The longitudinal feature of the study would allow the researcher to see if, over time, the changing role arrangements correspond to the influences of the independent variables. It would also allow, through direct observation and interviews, a better understanding of the processes which cause these changes to occur. This increased understanding would enable researchers to see how things could change and could be useful for policy makers and faculty administrators who wish to implement informed change.

Another aspect of this study which tends to limit the generalization of the results should also be taken into consideration. A larger sample size is needed and would enable the researchers to look, in more detail, at the range of variation in professional socialization. Small cell size in this study made this difficult in some cases.

Secondly, the data suggests that significant gender differences exist which affect the development of the professional self-concept. A body of literature in women's studies questions the universality of insights

based primarily on the experiences of men. Gilligan, 1982, points out that, in the past, theorists have focused primarily on the experiences of men. When one studies women, different concepts can emerge. Men and women give different meanings to experiences. She goes on to say that "men and women may speak different languages that they assume are the same, using similar words to encode disparate experiences of self and social relationships" (Gilligan, 1982, p. 173). Gilligan's findings and the findings of this study both suggest that further study of how men and women name their experiences in schools, how they stress the value of those experiences, and in general, how they view their roles in schools, is warranted. If women's experiences are considered important, then the concept of professional socialization must be conceptualized to include that experience. It would seem that questioning accepted assumptions and recognizing rather than denying differences, will provide a step towards a better understanding of the roles of men and women in education.

Thirdly, the data also suggests that for male student teachers, there is a negative relationship between high grade point averages and high professional self-concept. These results are not only interesting but possibly, quite alarming. This could be indicative of

two things. It could be stemming from a problem that is commonly referred to as socialization by default. Webb and Sherman (1989) define this as movement into the traditional role of teacher without conscious choice. These student teachers are not committed to their own acts and are self-consciously aware that they do not believe in what they are doing. Initially, their behavior does not reflect their inner feelings, but as time passes, these student teachers have a greater stake in acting in a convincing manner, and without being aware of it, begin to believe their own propaganda. They become committed by default rather than by choice.

Although this is purely speculation, if a good number of male student teachers chose Education because they were unable to get into other faculties, particularly if their marks held them back, a certain amount of resentment towards the profession could exist. This could be expressed through a negative attitude towards academic standards and a feeling of being "too good" for the profession. If this was so, they might easily rank themselves in the upper ranges of the professional self-concept scale despite seemingly low grade point averages. While it would be difficult to determine whether or not students are choosing education as a fall back position when selecting students for

admission to the faculty, other studies of students already registered in Education could ask this question and that might shed some light on this unusual relationship.

As well, this could be indicative of the different ways in which men and women perceive their experiences and attach value to them. Historically, for women, teaching has been a profession that is compatible with motherhood and is an "acceptable" job for women. Regardless of their grade point averages or ability, the career options available to women have, until recently, been very restricted. Men with high grade point averages, on the other hand, have had many more career options available to them. It could be argued that, in Education, men with high grade point averages would be aware of the options at their disposal and would therefore be less likely to identify with the profession than those male students whose options are restricted by their lower grade point averages.

The fourth and final observation is directed to the faculty administrators who implement policy and change. The findings suggest that both year in program and involvement in professional activities are positively related to the development of a high professional self-concept. This, in turn, suggests that there should be

closer links between the faculty which provides the professional training and the schools in the field that provide an arena for direct involvement in professional activities. Historically, the relationship between the faculty and the field has been tenuous at best. They are geographically and ideologically distanced and do not consider each other to be of much value. This data reaffirms the importance of professional experience and the importance of finding ways of effectively integrating field experience into the faculty's professional training program. Teacher preparation programs could consider the concept of mentoring, either in an extended practicum in the final year of professional education or in the first year of professional teaching. An on-site mentor could provide on-going guidance, support, and counselling for the student teacher or intern as well as providing the student with the opportunity to discuss and evaluate research. The mentor would be a successful teacher with multi-level experience, demonstrated leadership abilities, and a knowledge of current literature. They would have to be selected by school division officials in consultation and collaboration with faculty representatives in order to operate effectively. Joint planning and co-operation between school divisions and faculty is essential for success.

In summary, this study has provided the foundation for future research on the professional socialization process of student teachers. The results of this study indicate that there is a need for more research into the process of professional socialization in Education. To truly do justice to the student teachers in the faculty, it is imperative that those involved in the process are fully aware of all the essential aspects of the professional socialization process. As both the structural and social arrangements of the professional school are responsible for the development of the professional self-concept of student teachers, these aspects must be studied and taken into consideration if changes in the faculty are to be effective.



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