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Teacher education in England and N.S.W. : a comparative study of problems of transition from student to teacher

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TRANSITION FROM STUDENT TO TEACHER

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Department of Education

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This thesis is submitted to the University of Wollongong, and has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other University or Institution.

Cynthia A. Brew
February 26, 1980
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SUMMARY

Teacher education is subject to rapidly changing circumstances in England and N.S.W., the two education systems examined in this comparative study. This study enquires into important issues related to the most critical transition in a teacher's career, that from teacher education student to practising teacher.

The study makes use of Beready's (1964) problem approach to comparative education which requires the description, interpretation and juxtaposition of data before the major problem areas become clear. The problem areas were:

1. the methods and procedures of initial selection of students for teacher preparation courses,
2. the appointment procedures for new teachers entering their first teaching position,
3. the methods of facilitating the new teacher's induction into his first year of full-time service.

It was found that whilst a number of social factors contribute to the similarities and differences in the education systems of England and N.S.W., the differences in administrative practices are the most likely contributors to transitional problems which are experienced by new teachers.

The study tested and verified hypotheses in the three problem areas. It appears that England is further advanced in finding and implementing solutions to the problems of the transition to teaching
than N.S.W. The study offers a number of recommendations for the implementation of improved teacher induction practices in N.S.W.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of Problem and Purpose of Study

This study is an enquiry into issues related to the transition of a person from the role of secondary school student to full time practising teacher. The transitional period is defined as consisting of (1) the phase of transition from secondary school student to teacher education student, (2) the phase covering the period of appointment to the first teaching position, (3) the phase during which the beginning teacher undergoes induction into full time teaching, and including the probationary period of teaching service.

The study is restricted to an examination of transitional problems encountered by students in New South Wales government schools wishing to undertake teacher education in public tertiary institutions with a view subsequently to being appointed as teachers in government schools.

In broad terms, this study enquires into the situation in New South Wales, Australia, and seeks solutions to selected transitional problems as these problems affect students engaged in teacher preparation in tertiary institutions. The central purpose of the study is to identify the more significant factors which exacerbate the transitional problems. This identification is to be accomplished by drawing on comparative data from England and Wales (hereafter referred to as "England") so that the solutions chosen in England may be considered as potential solutions in the N.S.W. situation. Care is taken to avoid
indiscriminate cultural borrowing from the English context (Holmes, 1965, Chapter 1) so that solutions finally suggested for N.S.W. relate to the specific circumstances in that Australian state.

Specifically, this study employs a modified form of Bereday's comparative methodology (Bereday, 1964, 1967; Jones, 1971; Trethewey, 1976) in examining three areas of focus related to the transitional period. Bereday's method does present difficulties, however, in the management of a great bulk of descriptive data and unavoidable recapitulations. The difficulties will be explained in Chapter 6. The areas of focus are:

1. The methods and procedures of initial selection of students for teacher education courses with special emphasis on the treatment of school leavers.

2. The appointment procedures for new teachers entering their first full-time teaching position.

3. The methods of facilitating the new teacher's induction into his first year of full-time service.

1.2 Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into six chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the general and specific aspects of the problem under enquiry, provides an analysis of the significance of the problem as a research issue in education, and outlines the nature and the limitations of the conceptual framework on which the study is based. Chapter 2 surveys a number of traditional and contemporary comparative methodologies with a view to identifying that methodology best suited to this study. Because of the
rapidly changing circumstances in the field of educational practice in both England and N.S.W., and the resulting complexity of problems related to the teacher preparation systems in both countries, an inductive methodology is seen to be especially applicable to this investigation. It is argued that Bereday's methodology (Bereday, 1964, 1967) is, generally speaking, the most suitable one for this study. Chapters 3, 4 and 5 apply a modified Bereday methodology to the specific research issues of this study. Chapter 3 deals with the description and interpretation phases of the study. These phases constitute separate area studies of England and N.S.W. According to Bereday (1964, p. 13) the purpose of area studies is to establish a basis for comparison. In Chapter 4 the juxtaposition phase of the methodology is carried out. The comparison phase is treated in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 summarises the educational comparisons between England and N.S.W., highlights the important transitions in the preparation and development of teachers during the period spanning their completion of training and entry into full time practice, recommends proposals for change in aspects of educational and administrative policy, and offers a number of suggestions for further study. Because certain difficulties were encountered in the application of Bereday's method to the problem area of this study, a brief evaluation of the adequacy and limitations of this method is provided.

1.3 Significance of the Study

In the Editor's Preface to the seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Kevin Ryan summarised the problems of teacher education in the following way:
The problems of teacher education are among those nagging realities which simply will not go away. How to prepare large numbers of young people to be effective teachers of our children and, then, how to keep those teachers performing at a high level are perennials in education. Because the tasks of intervening in someone's life and working with him to improve his teaching are so complex and elusive, they wear down both the practitioner and the researcher of teacher education. While teacher training has its fads and frills, it is basically an unglamorous subject. It is, nevertheless, a burning presence that lurks at the edge of all proposals to improve schools and cannot be ignored. Whether the issue is a new science curriculum, open education, moral education, or career education, the ungracious question is eventually asked, "Where do we get the teachers who can do these things?"

(Ryan, 1975, p. ix)

While Ryan is referring to the situation in the U.S.A., his remarks seem especially applicable to current problems in N.S.W. and in England. The preparation of teachers and the induction of new teachers into full time practice is an issue which needs attention at the present time. A gulf between the environment of training and that of full time teaching does seem to exist. Training experiences of necessity are contrived; that is, they are extracted from the total environment of full time teaching experience so that trainees can develop incrementally, particular skills and understandings of their future role. That such contrived experiences generally fail to provide the trainee with an adequate set of skills and understandings needed for full time teaching is a situation that is generally recognised by staff in both schools and tertiary institutions. This study attempts to identify particular types of deficiency related to the transitional problem. It is assumed that deficiencies related to the three areas of focus mentioned on page 2 form an adequate basis of enquiry. Tables 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 below summarise both the literature and the explicit kinds of deficiencies related to the study's areas of focus.
### Table 1.1

**Deficiencies in Selection of Students for Teacher Education in England and N.S.W.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information is not sent back to schools about how their students fared in the first year of teacher education.</td>
<td>All qualified aspirants to tertiary education gain a place but there is insufficient help for them in adjustment (Schonell, 1962, pp. 253, 211).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection criteria consider personal qualities and suitability for teaching (Gr. Brit., 1963, p. 84).</td>
<td>Only very limited time is available to make career decision between H.S.C. results and enrolment (Powell, 1976, p. 5). Too much faith is placed on the H.S.C. aggregate mark (Powell, 1976, p. 4). Selection criteria give insufficient emphasis to personal qualities and suitability for teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One quarter of students enter teaching for negative reasons, e.g. teaching was not their first career choice (Anderson, 1974, pp. 22-25).</td>
<td>Co-ordination between the university and college admission centres is lacking (Katz and Powell, 1975, pp. 66-71).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are separate clearing houses for universities and colleges so applicants' range of choices is not known fully (A.T.C.D.E., 1975, pp. 16-17).
Table 1.2
Deficiencies in Appointment and Placement of Teachers in England and N.S.W.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facing an interview for a position with experienced teachers can be</td>
<td>If the applicant is interviewed at all his interview is not for a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traumatic for a beginner (Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson, 1976, p. 35).</td>
<td>particular position therefore the teacher is not necessarily fitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>into a position that suits him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information from the training institution is given to the employing</td>
<td>The Department of Education as the employing authority selects teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.E.A. but the L.E.A. does not pass it on to the head of school</td>
<td>on their availability and to a lesser extent on information they supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 56).</td>
<td>from their training institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 per cent of teachers are not given their teaching appointment</td>
<td>New teachers receive their appointment from three weeks to a few days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before the end of the preceding school year (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p.</td>
<td>before the beginning of the school year. Anxiety builds up during the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64).</td>
<td>waiting time. The appointment notice is impersonal (N.S.W., 1971, p. 40).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 per cent of teachers did not know of their classes until the first</td>
<td>No contact is made with the principal until the first day of term of a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day nor had they met the head teacher. 7 per cent did not visit their</td>
<td>few days earlier. No knowledge of classes is possible until the first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school before the first day (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 64-69).</td>
<td>day. Often the first time-table is a temporary one.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18 per cent received no information on the level of their classes and of teaching work in time to prepare for the school term (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 65).

Some probationers are appointed to schools with problems. Some of them receive difficult classes, maladjusted pupils and begin their career in a school with a high staff turnover (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 118).

Probationers are expected to teach age groups or subjects in which they have no interest or experience (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 62, 129).

Some probationers are given temporary and insecure appointments (Hanson and Herrington, 1976, p. 6).

10 per cent are not reasonably satisfied with their appointment (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 75).

It is unlikely that any first year teacher would receive prior information about classes and work.

Many probationers are appointed to large schools in outer metropolitan areas with a high staff turnover. Smaller schools would be more supportive (Wollongong T.E.A.O., 1977; Hughes, 1972, p. 33).

Many probationers are expected to specialise in E.S.L., Craft or the teaching of slow learner classes in which they have no experience or when they have no interest (Fielding, Cavanagh and Widdowson, 1977, p. 99).

Reserve teachers may feel emotionally and professionally insecure as they expect to be transferred.

19.7 per cent are not reasonably satisfied with their appointment (Wollongong T.E.A.O., 1977).
The probationer who has problems is more likely to leave teaching after one year or less (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 258).

Teacher loss between course completion and entry on the first appointment is attributed to stress associated with appointments (N.S.W., 1971, p. 53).

### Table 1.3

**Deficiencies in the Transition to Teaching in England and N.S.W.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistance is available to beginning teachers but it is poorly organised, and it needs planning and co-ordination (Taylor and Dale, 1971).</td>
<td>Assistance is available to beginning teachers but there is insufficient involvement of the employing authority with pre-service students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support in dealing with the problems of pupils in the classroom is lacking (Bolam, 1971, p. 41).</td>
<td>A serious problem is lack of communication among colleagues in schools (Coulter, 1973, p. 44).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A full teaching load in the probationary year is a cause of inability to cope with teaching (Gr. Brit., 1972b, p. 2).</td>
<td>Beginners have a full load unless they are reserves. This full teaching load creates stress (N.S.W., 1971, p. 54; Schools Commission, 1973, p. 121).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The release of probationers for 25 per cent of their normal teaching time causes problems associated with costs (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 2).</td>
<td>At present probationers are not released regularly for any portion of their time unless they are reserve teachers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some head teachers do not observe probationers enough. They are unwilling to supervise directly (Gr. Brit., 1972a, p. 21).

Various induction courses are held in and out of school time (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 85-86).

Geographical difficulties discourage the training institution from maintaining contact but contact between the institution and the first school would be valuable (Kelly, 1973, p. 3).

Only 21 per cent of L.E.A.'s had a teachers' centre (Bolam, 1971, p. 42).

Only 36 per cent of probationers attended an induction course (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 89-91).

Supervision involves observation by the immediate supervisor. The principal may not be involved in observation (Connolly, 1973, p. 37).

Discontinuity between preparation and actual teaching is a problem (Coulter, 1973, p. 47).

Seldom is any connection maintained with the tertiary institution (Crane, 1975, p. 59). Tertiary institutions can support the probationer (Turney, 1977, p. 252).

Each region in N.S.W. has a teachers' centre. All provide inservice courses. Not all provide courses specifically for beginners.

Availability of region-based induction courses varies. Some hold one day courses, some residential, others leave induction to the school.
Courses are not necessarily meeting probationers' needs. They may be spoon-feeding information (Edmonds, 1966, p. 9). Preservice education is duplicated in inservice courses to some extent (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 2).

Externally-based courses are not an adequate orientation because they are remote from immediate problems (Crane, 1975, p. 59). Induction should not over-emphasise problems (Lambert, 1977, pp. 2, 69).

It is evident that the deficiencies outlined in the three tables above are similar in the two countries. It is evident also that the problems in the three transitional areas are interrelated. When the similarities and differences in teacher education are examined, the unifying concept of a series of transitions that have to be achieved in becoming a teacher is expected to emerge. The beginning teacher's problems are associated with these transitions. The solutions which the countries adopt to meet the deficiencies vary. In England greater advances seem to have been made in finding and implementing solutions than in N.S.W. Therefore a comparative study should lead to a broader understanding of the similar problems in N.S.W. and generate a set of potential solutions to these problems.

It should be noted that the study makes use of an inductive approach. Thus the precision of statement of the problem will undergo refinement as generalisations emerge from an inductive treatment of descriptive data (see Chapters 3 and 4). For the present purposes the literature survey indicates a number of deficiencies related to the transitional problem. By applying Bereday's methodology, a more precise analysis of the scope and significance of these deficiencies should be
obtained. In Chapter 4 the inductive treatment of descriptive data is expected to generate supportable hypotheses which may be tested in the subsequent comparison phase of the study.

1.4 Conceptual Framework Adopted for this Study

Tables 1.1 to 1.3 indicate that a number of administrative procedures and practices may be linked to the transitional deficiencies which are experienced initially by teachers and eventually by communities and their schools. It would appear that whilst factors of geography, history, economics, sociology, politics organisation and curricular practices have their own significant impacts upon the transitional problems to be investigated, a context for enquiry which considers administrative procedures and practices promises to shed much light on the nature of the transitional deficiencies and, therefore, on the potential means of resolving these deficiencies. In this study the administration of teacher education, especially at the two interfaces of school and entry to the tertiary institution, and tertiary institution and first full time teaching appointment, will be taken as the conceptual framework for analysis. Levels of administration and corresponding procedures and practices to be considered include:

1. National and/or state. In the case of England this will require consideration of policies, procedures and practices developed by the Department of Education and Science. In N.S.W. the corresponding level will be the State Department of Education. In both cases some attention will need to be paid to government influences, especially as these relate to their legislative functions.
2. Local Education Authorities in England and Regional Directorates of Education in N.S.W.

3. Tertiary institutions both college and university, involved in teacher preparation.

4. Statutory government bodies such as the Higher Education Board in N.S.W. and independent bodies such as the Schools' Council in England.

5. Professional teacher organisations.

6. Local schools and their communities.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of this Study

This study makes use of the problem approach developed by Bereday (1964). In order to show that an analysis of administrative practices and procedures forms an adequate conceptual framework for this study it will be necessary to describe, interpret and juxtapose data drawn from a number of social science areas. It is the task of Chapters 3 and 4 to achieve this. Thus, while the areas of geography, history, politics, economics, sociology, organisation and curricular practices will be surveyed, the study will be limited to an identification of data from these areas which have demonstrable connections with existing administrative practices and procedures which bear on the transitional problems. The investigation recognises that a total analysis of problems in comparative education cannot be achieved by delimiting the study this way. The approach selected, however, is compatible with Popper's suggested method of "piecemeal social engineering" (Popper, 1962) and with the views of other authorities in the field, (e.g., Holmes, 1965). It is also a
position supported by Bereday (1964, p. 23) who writes:

No student of comparative education attempts the total comparative approach ... without a lifelong, fulltime preparation for the task. Hence the justification for the problem approach ... [The problem approach] involves a selection of one theme, one topic, and the examination of its persistence and variability throughout the representative educational systems.

Thus this study is limited to a treatment of the theme of transitional deficiencies and their relation to administrative practices and procedures in two education systems.

The scope of the study encompasses the following areas:

1. A description of the levels of administration directly or indirectly influencing the transitional problem.

2. A selection of factors drawn from social science areas which are specifically linked with administrative procedures and practices carried out within the levels.

3. A demonstration of the influence of 1. and 2. on the transitional problem under investigation.


5. An interpretation of the pertinence of these solutions in the context of N.S.W.

6. The formulation of hypotheses which connects the variables of administrative practices and procedures with deficiencies in the treatment of the transitional problem.
7. The testing of the hypotheses in the comparison phase of the research with a view to determining their validity and as a means of selecting one or more potential solutions to the transitional problem in N.S.W.

It is envisaged that the hypotheses will be valid, for the large part, in England and that they will be invalid for N.S.W. It is largely for this reason that England has been chosen as the country for comparison. These claims will be substantiated by application of inductive reasoning during the remainder of the study.

It should be noted that a psychological frame of reference, for example, would illuminate a different class of transitional problems from those which are likely to emerge from this study. Similarly, emphasis on ethnic, religious and other classes of factors connected with the phenomenon of cultural pluralism that are currently affecting education in both England and N.S.W. could form yet another theme for investigation. Recommendations for further studies which might complement this one and lead towards a more complete analysis are provided in the concluding chapter of the study.
CHAPTER 2

SURVEY OF METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

2.1 Introduction

Anderson (1969, p. 27) defines comparative education as the "... cross-cultural comparison of the structure, operation, aims and achievements of various educational systems and the societal correlates of these systems and their elements." The terms used by Anderson in his definition highlight the range of parameters that comparativists consider in seeking solutions to educational problems. Since educational problems are of great complexity and diversity in modern societies, especially in industrially developed societies such as are the subject of this enquiry, there appears to be no single methodology that can claim to have universal application within the field of comparative education. A problem for investigators is to select an appropriate methodology for the particular problem concerned.

This investigator has decided to carry out a survey analysis of major methodologies in order to identify that methodology which is best suited to the purposes of this study. In order to assist the reader, Table 2.1, below, is inserted prior to the detailed treatment of methodology in historical sequence.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Methodological Style</th>
<th>Problem Application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Jullien</td>
<td>systematic collection of descriptive data</td>
<td>area study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mann, Barnard,</td>
<td>description, wholesale</td>
<td>area study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arnold</td>
<td>borrowing</td>
<td>area study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadler</td>
<td>selective borrowing, melioristic</td>
<td>area study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kandel, Hans</td>
<td>historical analysis, antecedent causes, determining factors, cultural traditions, national character</td>
<td>area study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mallinson</td>
<td>national character</td>
<td>problems, themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lauwerys</td>
<td>country's philosophical movements</td>
<td>problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson</td>
<td>interaction of social science factors, deductive</td>
<td>problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beredey</td>
<td>systematic analysis, cross disciplinary, inductive</td>
<td>problem or total analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Holmes</td>
<td>isolation of relevant factors, hypothetico-deductive, prediction</td>
<td>problem</td>
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Table 2.1 (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Methodological Style</th>
<th>Problem Application</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>commitment and decision-making</td>
<td>problem approach in total cultural environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noah and</td>
<td>scientific, systematic, controlled, inter-disciplinary, hypothetico-inductive</td>
<td>comparison of factors on micro-cosmic scale but applied cross-nationally or globally</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eckstein</td>
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2.2 Survey of Methodologies

The purposes to which comparative education studies may be applied range from "that of academic interest" to practical attempts at solving educational problems. These purposes "are inevitably intertwined and dependent on one another" (Jones, 1971, p. 26). Comparative education can provide a "rational basis for planning" and if it is to take this part it "must be concerned with the practical problems of educational development, education's role in providing better communication and understanding, and its humanitarian responsibilities" (Jones, 1971, p. 25). Gezi sees that the application of comparative education in the present situation "will yield models and paradigms by which human endeavours in education can be meaningfully understood in the context of world societies (Gezi, 1971, p. 6). A major asset of the comparativist as a source of guidance to a team
of educational planners is that "he sees educational problems in world perspective" (Jones, 1971, p. 26).

According to Bereday (1964) and King (1967) the study of comparative education is linked historically with the development of national or recently established international institutions and systems of education. According to these authors, the history of comparative education can be divided into four phases each of which has its prominent participants.

2.21 Nineteenth Century Borrowing

In the nineteenth century a phase of borrowing involved the cataloguing of descriptive educational data so as to establish institutions in one country by transplanting the best practices of another.

Marc-Antoine Jullien is generally recognised as the founder of comparative education. His Plan and Preliminary Views for a Work on Comparative Education was published in 1817. This work was a collection by questionnaires of data on areas which he considered to be important for investigation (Jones, 1971, p. 38). Other nineteenth century educators who used description, intuitive observations and selective borrowing as their means of comparison were Victor Cousin (France), Matthew Arnold (England) and the Americans Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. The French and Americans borrowed from the Prussian school system and they aimed at improving conditions for the children of the working classes. Their purposes were melioristic, utilitarian, and they were intended to assist national development (Jones, 1971, p. 47).
2.22 Early Twentieth Century

In the early twentieth century comparative educationists concentrated on the relationship between society and educational practices. For example, Sir Michael Sadler, Director of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports in England (1895-1903), in which post he assessed educational efficiency as compared with that in other nations, "added a socio­logical dimension to the historical perspective of the earlier pioneers" (Holmes, 1965, p. 21). In a lecture in 1900 he maintained that "things outside the school matter even more than the things inside the schools" (quoted in Trethewey, 1976, p. 18). Isaac Kandel's Studies in Comparative Education (1933) described the educational practices in six countries with an emphasis on explaining "why events occurred when they did and why certain characteristics occurred in the places they did" (Jones, 1971, p. 59). He wrote of the significant differences between nations and linked causally the concept of national character with certain educational characteristics (Jones, 1971, pp. 64-65). He identified forces and factors of political ideology and historical antecedents that explained total educational systems (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 51).

2.23 Post World War II, Comparative Analysis

When countries were establishing universal systems of education and particularly after World War II, the practices which were observed in one country were used to predict how successful a system might be in another. Kandel (1933) emphasised explanation, Hans (1949) and Mallinson (1960) looked at the factors which shape education, and Lauwerys (1959) was concerned with the country's philosophical movements as a basis for its comparison with others.
Mallinson emphasised national tradition and dealt with problems or themes. He asserted that the national character determines the kind of education a country enjoys and this is determined by heredity, the national environment, social heritage and education (Jones, 1971, p. 70). He saw changes in the national character being brought about slowly by new beliefs, scientific discoveries and competition from progressive outsiders. Mallinson looked at the similarities and differences equally then analysed his country's educational environment to help to reform its national system (Jones, 1971, p. 71). Lauwerys was a contemporary of Mallinson who showed that while nationalism was important many of the influences on education were international. Lauwerys was concerned with understanding the dominant philosophical movements in a country in order to understand its education. Such understanding was regarded as a first step towards prediction (Lauwerys, 1959, p. 293).

Nicholas Hans, like Kandel, aimed at the explanation of educational problems by a search for antecedent causes or determining factors that shape education (Holmes, 1965, p. 48). Hans's method of comparing education in two or more countries was firstly "to study each national system separately in its historical setting and its connection with the development of national character and culture" and secondly "to collect data on existing systems of education in various countries" (Hans, 1949, p. 7). This would include statistics on administration, organisation and pupil achievement. He found difficulties for comparison because countries had their own terminology, classification and methods of compiling statistics. A national system of education, Hans maintained, is an outward expression of the national character and represents something distinctive about the nation. Its problems
may be compared with those of the national systems of other countries. The main purpose of comparative education, in Hans's view, is the study of the factors of national development from an historical perspective and the comparison of attempted solutions to problems (Hans, 1959, p. 10). The factors which should be analysed are:

1. Natural, including race, language and environment,

2. Religious, since most religious movements led to changes in educational theory and practice and the amelioration of the social conditions of the masses,

3. Secular factors including the movements of humanism, socialism and nationalism (Hans, 1949, pp. 11-16).

Finally, Hans looked at the development of positive democracy in education. He established five factors which he maintained make an ideal nation, unity of race, of language, of religion, of territory and political independence (Hans, 1949, p. 9). In his article *Nationalism and Education in Asia* (1958), Hans explained how certain Asian countries have emphasised or enforced policies based on these factors to achieve a national identity (Hans, 1958, pp. 5-12). For Hans, the purpose of comparative education was reform. Kazamias commended Hans's studies for providing educators with a rich source of data to focus on similarities and differences but he doubted that the national character explained institutional forms and practices (Kazamias, 1971, p. 12). Lauwerys observed that the notion "national character ... could be made to explain anything", however it has heuristic value by helping to formulate hypotheses and guide enquiries. In fact, "any hypothesis ... no matter how weak ... is better than no hypothesis at all" (Lauwerys, 1959, pp. 286-87).
C. Arnold Anderson contended that comparative education needs to make greater use of the present mature social science methods to give an empirical approach and greater rigour to enquiries (Anderson, 1969, p. 24). A more systematic knowledge of education as well as the societal determinants of educational systems should result. He was aware of the restrictions on quantitative evaluations resulting from the lack of information about the outcomes or products of education systems (Anderson, 1969, p. 30). Anderson set out a three-step process of comparative enquiry:

1. identify the patterns of relationships among the various aspects of education systems,

2. develop a typology of systems, examine the features of diverse systems and compress the data,

3. show the relationships between educational characteristics and associated sociological, economic and other features (Anderson, 1969, p. 30).

When he analyses the educational-societal relationships the investigator formulates hypotheses concerning the interaction processes and their causes. The hypothesis is derived from empirical findings and deductive reasoning (Anderson, 1969, p. 36). An example of an hypothesis which Anderson stated in a study of an élite system was "as the amount and quality of education received by the élite is raised, this exerts an influence that encourages the devotion of more resources to education" (Anderson, 1969, p. 34).
2.24 Post 1960, Scientific Application

Since 1960 attempts have been made to use educational research and information from the social sciences to analyse systems and to guide political, economic and social decisions in international perspective (Bereday, 1964, p. 8; King, 1967, p. 56). Each of the comparative educationists in this recent period has his particular point of emphasis. For Bereday it is analysis and an inductive approach, Holmes isolates the main problems, King's emphasis is on commitment and decision-making while Noah and Eckstein use cross national data with a hypothetico-deductive approach to test propositions about the relationship of education to society (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 113).

George Bereday, Professor of Comparative Education at Teachers' College, Columbia University enters the present phase of study on this subject with his use of analysis. He asserts that before any prediction can be made there is a need for "a systematisation of the field in order to expose the whole panorama of national practices in education" (Bereday, 1964, p. 9). Bereday's views about the purpose of the study of comparative education are that it is to gain knowledge for its own sake and for practical application (Bereday, 1964, p. 5). The comparative educationalist needs "to explore systematically the quality of foreign schools as a means of evaluating one's own education system" (Bereday, 1964, p. 4) as "comparative education seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems" (Bereday, 1964, p. 5). There is a need for interdisciplinary study. Comparative educationalists thus should work with experts in geography, political science, sociology, history and economics. Area studies of single countries or regions are necessary to provide the resources for
comparative studies later. The student arrives at generalisations as a result of collecting and selecting data, first-hand recording of visual impressions and a feeling for the different cultures. Bereday emphasises that in order to make a thorough study the investigator needs a knowledge of the language, residence abroad, and he must be aware of and control his own cultural biases (Bereday, 1964, p. 10).

Bereday proposes that prior to employing a four step comparative method the general purpose of the investigation be defined. The four steps are: description, interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison. See Figure 2.1 below.

Fig. 2.1 Bereday's Steps in Comparative Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>II. INTERPRETATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical Data only</td>
<td>Evaluation of Pedagogical Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country A</td>
<td>Historical Political Economic Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country B</td>
<td>Historical Political Economic Social</td>
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III. JUXTAPOSITION

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<th>Criteria</th>
<th>III. JUXTAPOSITION</th>
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<tr>
<td>comparability</td>
<td>Establishing Similarities and Differences</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
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IV. COMPARISON

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>IV. COMPARISON</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
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Conclusion

Finally he proposes that comparative judgements be made.

Bereday's inductive approach may be summarised as follows:

**Description.** This phase is concerned with pedagogical information, especially the details of a country's education systems and its practices. The investigator would read extensively from primary and secondary educational sources, study physical and human features, form a working hypothesis then undertake interviews, observations and testing to outline the whole educational system.

**Interpretation.** This stage aims to show the interrelations of school and society. "All of the humanities and social sciences should be used to broaden the vistas of comparative education" (Bereday, 1964, p. 21). A school programme must be explained with reference to philosophy, geography and environment, historical setting, sociological opinion, economic practice and political interpretation of the society. Interpretation exposes descriptive data to "a test of social relevance." This interdisciplinary interpretation sheds light upon the pedagogical evidence of the descriptive phase to explain "why" in addition to "how" (Bereday, 1964, p. 21).

**Juxtaposition** is the "preliminary matching of data from different countries to prepare for comparison" (Bereday, 1967, p. 171). The data are systematised and grouped into similarities and differences for each country. The process includes a search for a unifying concept and an hypothesis. Juxtaposition is a process for ordering material for comparison (Bereday, 1967, p. 172).
Comparison is the simultaneous discussion of the countries to test the hypothesis that was derived from the previous stage. The hypothesis assists in discerning a regularity which may be of similarities or of differences, for example Bereday's hypothesis regarding education in France and Turkey, "the strong executive in both countries does not guarantee rapid progress; in fact the conservatism of the respective bureaucracies acts as a break (sic)* upon too rapid changes" (Bereday, 1964, p. 46). The comparison is made by matching and balancing information from one country with comparable information from others.

Bereday intends his comparative method to be used with one of two types of approach. The problem approach selects one theme and examines its persistence and variability throughout educational systems, such as church and state in education (Bereday, 1964, p. 23). Total analysis examines the whole impact of education upon society in a world perspective and the formulation of laws and typologies that permit an international understanding. Bereday contends that total analysis of the whole educational panorama is fittingly accomplished by the most eminent workers (Bereday, 1964, p. 25). Lauwerys has attempted problem studies on a world scale if not a total analysis. He has been a co-editor of the World Year Book of Education for some years and his editorials and introductory chapters are micro-studies of an educational problem as it applies in a number of countries.

Bereday (1964, p. 24) proposes that the conclusions from a comparative problem approach would furnish "... educational planners with a set of alternatives from which to select an appropriate policy." There is

*Bereday evidently means "brake", not "break".
criticism of Bereday's method in that the steps of description and interpretation cannot be taken in isolation since pedagogical facts are inseparable from other disciplines. Bereday himself contends that "educational facts are deeply emmeshed in a matrix of other social circumstances. They cannot be compared without a careful accounting for the total situation" (Bereday, 1964, p. ix). Jones has found this in the attempts by students to follow Bereday's scheme (Jones, 1971, p. 89). When educational facts are stated separately recapitulation is necessary to evaluate them in terms of other data, thus in practice, description would involve more than educational facts (Jones, 1971, p. 90).

Bereday's methodological assumption is inductive. The processes of inductive reasoning, which is reasoning from the particular to the general, according to Mill, are observation, description and colligation (the bringing together into generalisations of facts to make tentative hypotheses) (Mill, 1959, p. 424). Holmes notes the parallel of Mill's framework for induction with Bereday's steps but maintains that the method of induction cannot be applied to the social sciences without difficulties (Holmes, 1972, p. 209).

Brian Holmes of London University Institute of Education, emphasises the problem approach which enables goals to be set and factors weighted according to their relevance. The comparativist's data must be selected and ordered into manageable proportions and his method is forward-looking as it uses prediction and verification rather than an emphasis on antecedent causes (Holmes, 1965, p. 92). The problem approach is scientific, pragmatic and at the same time it can be used as an instrument for reform.
Holmes' aim: Planned Reform of Education.

1. Problem selection and analysis

Adaption of Dewey's reflective thinking

2. Formulation of policy proposals

3. Identification of relevant factors

Adaption of Popper's critical dualism

4. Prediction

5. Policy adoption and problem solution


Holmes bases his selection of a problem on Dewey's analysis of reflective thinking:

Between the pre-reflective situation (confusion or perplexity) and the post-reflective situation (perplexity resolved), a number of reflective processes takes place. These may be grouped under i) hypothesis or solution formulation, ii) problem intellectualisation or analysis, iii) analysis and specification of context, iv) logical deduction of consequences, and v) practical verification.

(Holmes, 1965, pp. 32-33)

Holmes' problem approach may be summarised as follows:

1. Problem selection and analysis. A problem which is important in the investigator's own culture and of international significance is
studied in its social, economic, political and historical contexts. The examples of the explosions of expectations, population and knowledge in the emerging countries are given as world problems (Holmes, 1965, p. 37).

2. **Formulation of policy proposals** by the process of analysis of the problem to enable a government to adopt the best choice of policy.

3. **Identification of relevant factors.** The large number of factors affecting education must be reduced to those that are relevant to the problem. The factors may be classified as ideological, including norms, attitudes and values; institutional, including organisations and practices; and natural or environmental.

4. **Prediction.** Comparative educationists can establish causal relationships and explain why things are as they are. After careful deductions from the hypotheses it is possible "to predict and compare cross-culturally the educational consequences of a reform" (Holmes, 1965, p. 44). It is important to establish criteria of success and the outcomes of the long and short term objectives must be measurable and comparable from one society to another (Holmes, 1965, p. 45).

The problem approach should be set within a conceptual framework of factors likely to affect the study in which historical and scientific investigation are complementary and which provides a continual reference point. Holmes modifies the notion of critical dualism developed by Sir Karl Popper (1962) whose view of social planning was that it should not be total or laissez-faire but that it should proceed by "piecemeal social engineering". This emphasises the eradication of the most urgent
evils of society rather than working towards the larger needs (Popper, 1962, p. 158). Popper identifies two types of laws in a society, normative, which people are free to accept, change or reject apart from the legal restraints placed upon some, and sociological or natural, which are less under man's control. Critical dualism is a dualism of facts (natural laws) and decisions (normative laws). From these types of laws Holmes forms two major patterns for the study of society, the normative and the institutional, with a minor pattern, the physical (Holmes, 1965, p. 53). The patterns enable data to be classified and the relevant factors to be identified. For the normative pattern, data are collected from empirical testing, and qualitative data come from reading the works of the society's philosophers (Holmes, 1965, pp. 54-55). The sources of data for the institutional pattern include the family, schools, cultural organisations, and political systems (Holmes, 1965, p. 62). The information for the physical pattern comes from natural resources and the demography. Holmes investigates problems in a dynamic not a static situation. The latter is one which Holmes would present by graphs or statistics, while a dynamic one is constantly changing.

Holmes is critical of an inductive method of enquiry in which observations are made of all data initially without the aid of a directing problem or hypothesis (Holmes, 1965, p. 43) and in this era of post-relativity science when laws are no longer unconditionally valid the idea of "induction as the process of discovery is now questioned" (Jones, 1971, p. 95). Popper's lectures convinced Holmes that the hypothetico-deductive method was more suitable in the natural and social sciences since its procedure is to identify a problem before collecting data (Holmes, 1972, p. 206), and this is better when policies
on a large scale need to be compared. Logically-deduced events are compared with actual experience by the use of empirical testing (Holmes, 1972, p. 211).

As a comparative educationist, Holmes feels that he is able to help educational reformers in accurate prediction by anticipating the outcomes of policy in specific national contexts" (Holmes, 1972, p. 216). His framework is a "significant attempt to wed a theoretical-type approach to practical needs" (Jones, 1971, p. 117). In Problems in Education Holmes' case studies in four countries are not area studies in the Bereday sense, they are limited to the "material essential to the illumination of a problem" (Jones, 1971, p. 117) and such studies reveal why different systems have similar features as well as differences (Holmes, 1965, p. 65).

Edmund King has investigated other countries first-hand and has written prolifically on comparative education which he asserts "is above all the discipline which systematises our observations and conclusions in relation to the shaping of the future" (King, 1965b, p. xi), and that it is interested in the vagaries of the total educative process. Comparative education deals with behaviour the cause of which is "the confluence of factors that motivates decision at any moment" (King, 1965a, p. 150). Decision is one of the key elements in King's conceptual framework and commitment is the other. Thus, according to King, comparative educationists are involved in differential levels of commitment to their study. At the first level there is a need for information to be distributed. Teachers in particular need this information. At the second level, practical
questions are raised by administrators. At the third level, criteria need to be established for special enquiries often requiring national and international surveys which perhaps could be carried out by postgraduate students. At the fourth level there must be commitment to inform the public and to institute reform (King, 1968, pp. 97-101). These levels show a continuum of concern extending from specific research to a wide scope of public service (King, 1968, p. 100) and this commitment needs to be accepted both nationally and internationally (King, 1965b, p. xi). The results of comparative studies can lead to changes in educational policies which are "the most peaceful and constructive of social and political changes" and which may serve to co-ordinate policy decisions (King, 1967, p. 51). The comparative educationist's role is to provide the evidence for review and alternatives for continuous decision making while it is the politicians who make the decisions (Jones, 1971, p. 125). The educationist would conceptualise a theme for his enquiry and consider it from the aspects of other disciplines, then institutionalise this problem and operationalise it (King, 1967, p. 58). For the evaluation of the analysis King recommends that "parliaments for educational policy", bodies of experts such as the Schools' Council, be utilised since politicians do not understand all the recommendations of the experts (King, 1967, p. 62).

King favours a problem approach but this should be employed in the total cultural environment and the aims and methods of the approach should be rational since the commitment of expenditure on education by all countries is so considerable. The stages in King's systematic comparison are:
1. the skilled acquisition of knowledge while there is some kind of problem hunch in mind,

2. analysis of the data into meaningful patterns taking account of interacting forces,

3. comparative analysis which takes sets of data for each country side by side while there is an awareness of cultural bias,

4. the development of ideas for policy making (King, 1968, p. 17).

These stages are shown in Figure 2.3.

**Figure 2.3 The Methodology of Edmund King**

King's conceptual framework of factors which are likely to affect education indicates that an organism's "ecological context" or environment interacts with it, and that each person lives in a "cultural envelope" which influences his life, habits and emotions (King, 1968, p. 15). His decision-making involves a pragmatic approach and rejects the idea of laws but commends the use of hypotheses (Jones, 1971, p. 128). The element of commitment in a democracy is intended to assist reform. The comparative study of education relies on an interpretation of disciplines (King, 1959, p. 36) and it cannot be governed by laws or certainties as if it were in the physical sciences. Therefore there cannot be an exact science of long-term prediction in education.

King and Holmes have been working along parallel paths and there is much agreement between them as well as disagreement. The points on which they agree are the effects of rapid social change, education as a concern for national governments and the need for reform. Their points of disagreement are largely word interpretations including reference to "laws", Holmes' use of "theory" and King's preference for "hypothesis", their differing interpretations of Popper's critical dualism, and the use of scientific study in education. King maintains that the social sciences cannot produce the empirical results of the natural sciences but Holmes believes that they can. King would take an overall view of problems while Holmes would specify a problem and reduce his data to what is most relevant.

Recent approaches to comparative education, observes Sheehan (1974), have tended to become microcosmic, "more analytical, more rigorous". Noah and Eckstein's method is a "within system analysis", and shows that comparative education has more meaning if its proportions
are limited (Sheehan, 1974, p. 26). Noah (quoted in Sheehan), claims that the historic method is not sufficient. The social sciences should be used:

to explain and predict rather than merely to identify and describe ... the characteristic comparative approach to solving a problem, testing an hypothesis or formulating a theory involves establishing the analysis so that within system relations are explained as fully as possible ... comparing the characteristics and differences ... across systems.

(Sheehan, 1974, p. 28).

Noah and Eckstein explain their methodology in Toward a Science of Comparative Education in which they show how cross-national data are used to test propositions about the relationship of education to society (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 113). They see representatives of different disciplines working together in comparative education which should develop "a systematic, controlled, empirical and critical methodology" (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 122). The steps in Noah and Eckstein's method are,

1. Identification of the problem within its field. This determines the relevant data (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 127).

2. Formulation of tentative hypotheses in the form of a statement about the relationship between two or more variables such as educational and societal variables (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 93). In the authors' two examples the study of economics and education gives a more precise hypothesis than the theme of religious outlook. In neither case can causality be posited since extraneous factors affect variables in indeterminate ways (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 134). The hypothesis (or hypotheses) is used to review the problem.
3. Definition of the concepts and indicators, such as "openness" in education (Trethewey, 1976, p. 103).

4. Selection of cases for study. Noah and Eckstein work with a large number of cases as they believe that a two-country comparison tends to highlight the differences which may be unimportant in a larger sample while a wider range can improve the accuracy with which hypotheses may be tested thus aiding in the control of extraneous factors. Countries should be chosen from those to which the hypothesis applies and which are expected to show contrasts. As an example the authors choose sixteen countries with high economic growth rates to examine against twenty-six with low growth rates (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 147).

5. Collection of data. National statistics can supply data and educational inputs can be obtained from such sources as school enrolments and expenditure on education. An example of an outcome measurement would be the percentage of the population over fifteen which is illiterate. Factors in the social and economic environment also are measured.

6. Manipulation of data. Original findings such as correlations are used to test the hypothesis and to clarify the problem.

7. Implication of the results. The more focussed data are used to test the validity of the increasingly precise hypothesis and to formulate a theory which enables "if-then" statements to be made with assurance (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 176).
By its application on a large scale, comparative education attempts to construct a "map" of relationships between education and society (Noah and Eckstein, 1969, p. 108). The authors realise the limitation on merely establishing correlations among certain data in the process of hypothesis testing and that this does not show causal relationships (Gezi, 1971, p. 2). They disagree with Bereday that data should be collected by observation prior to the formulation of an hypothesis but they do not reject induction, "indeed they refer to their method as hypothetico-inductive" (Holmes, 1972, p. 209).

There is a proliferation of methodologies which have different purposes. Some aim at making large scale global surveys of a problem while others study a problem as a microcomparison, such as Fielding and Sheehan's comparison (1975, pp. 58-59) of teacher preparation programmes in an Australian and a Canadian university. The levels of complexity of the problems which are studied range from microcosmic items to macrocosmic concerns, while the comparative educationist's style may be inductive or hypothetico-deductive.

2.3 Selection and Justification of Methodology

In periods of rapid social and economic change new problems are constantly emerging. Teacher training, teacher selection and the induction of new teachers into full-time service comprise problem areas which are especially sensitive to social and economic changes (see Australian Education Council Report, Teacher Supply and Demand in Australian Schools, 1978; Browne, McGaw and Turner, 1973).
Inductive methods of research seem better able to isolate problems of an emerging rather than of a long-standing nature. From the range of methodologies, that of Bereday seems especially applicable to the problem area of this study. Bereday's inductive method should be workable as it is designed to proceed by articulated steps through a number of particulars to lead to generalisations which are clearly focussed.

Noah and Eckstein's method would be suitable when a study is aimed at testing an hypothesis cross-nationally, using a large number of countries to arrive at a comprehensive theory. Bereday recommends the global approach as a task for only the most eminent workers at the culmination of their studies. Jones adds that comparisons on a microcosmic level would allow a more "valid means of comparison, both of a quantitative and qualitative kind" (Jones, 1971, p. 164). Bereday's problem approach will be applied in this comparison. The problem analysis as defined by Bereday (1964, p. 23) involves the selection of one theme, in this study the problems are those which are generated for students during the time they are in transition from the preservice training environment to that of full-time professional practice, and the examination of the persistence and variability of this theme throughout the educational systems of each country.

The countries which have been chosen are England (referring to England and Wales) and N.S.W. Jones (1971, p. 163) is explicit that "... proper comparisons can only be made when there is a considerable degree of cultural similarity between nations". Developmentally, Australia's culture has retained much that is similar to England's, while the present economic climates and political backgrounds highlight
the similarity. This is supported by Hughes, who argues that, "in teacher education in particular the currents of thought and practice are of special interest and value. We find much the same problems and issues occurring ..." (Hughes, 1973, p. 15). The countries should demonstrate contrasts as well as similarities to allow a balanced comparative study to develop (Jones, 1971, p. 113), but solutions which are proposed for one country may not be suitable for the other. Browne, McGaw and Turner (1973, p. 1) point to certain significant issues yet to be resolved in Australia, which include the aims and responsibilities of the various institutions involved in teacher education, the length of programmes, and the balance between professional and general studies in preservice programmes.

When a student is choosing a problem, Bereday advocates that it should be one which is living and relevant in his own country. Insights into the possible solutions of this problem can be gained from examining how another country is dealing with similar problems (Bereday, 1964, pp. 23-24). The problem of the preservice student's transition to the role of a teacher is particularly significant in N.S.W. at the present time and it has been the subject of a considerable amount of study and action in England. What are the similarities in teacher education? Each country can foresee a decline in the growth of its population. Borrie (quoted in Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 130) has suggested that this decline will occur in Australia during the next twenty-five years. Educational trends become apparent in Australia about five years later than they occur in England. Both countries experienced rapid rates of growth in tertiary enrolments during the 1960's, especially in teacher education courses to meet the demands for teachers. Now this rate of growth in enrolments will diminish as the demand for
additional teachers has declined and this will affect the planning for those tertiary institutions which enrol a significant proportion of potential teachers. Reorganisation has begun in England and it seems to be necessary in Australian teacher education, with probably less concentration on pre-service and more on in-service education (Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 132). The need for new teachers will continue even if the numbers that are employed each year decline, and these new teachers will need guidance at least during their first year of teaching.
CHAPTER 3

DESCRIPTION AND INTERPRETATION

3.1 Introduction

3.11 Chapter 3 Methodology

Bereday proposes a methodology comprised of four stages: description, interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison. The first two stages serve as area studies undertaken for each country separately prior to the true comparative stages of juxtaposition and comparison. The descriptive stage is concerned with gathering pedagogical information and details of the major components of a country's education system. The interpretive stage aims to show the interrelations between education and society. In Chapter 3, the first two stages of the Bereday methodology are carried out. It is important to note, however, that descriptions of an education system and interpretive explanations of why that system has its particular characteristics and practices, do not exist in isolation from one another. Inevitably, descriptions will overlap with interpretations. Indeed, as the investigator outlines descriptive data, he is simultaneously analysing those data for their explanatory meanings. In Chapter 3, then, Bereday's method is modified by treating the descriptive and interpretive stages concurrently. This seems a much more natural and indeed more efficient way of dealing with the first two stages. Also, because of the great bulk of descriptive data that are accumulated in Chapter 3, those data are presented in tabular rather than textual form. However, Bereday's objective for description and interpretation is retained; that is,
pedagogical information is collected and analysed in terms of social science factors by "... exposing the data to a rosette of different disciplines ..." (Bereday, 1964, p. 21). This is so as to produce an evaluation not only of educational happenings, but also of their causes and connections.

3.12 **Survey of Social Science Factors**

Bereday suggests that a range of social science factors be considered so as to define the limits of descriptive and interpretive data needed for the preliminary area studies. These are:

1. **Historical factors** - these indicate the lines of a country's development and progress, and also the nature and contemporary influence of earlier educational reforms. In the cases considered - England and N.S.W. - historical factors also indicate something of the extent to which the newer country has inherited and preserved the traditions and institutional characteristics of the mother country.

2. **Political factors** - these indicate how ideology, distribution of power and organisation within government influence education systems, their organisation, patterns and styles of practice, and aims. Indeed, educational activity must be considered in relation to a country's political objectives since governments of all political complexions have tended to assume more deliberate control over education during the Twentieth Century (Faure, 1972, p. 31). Also, education has been seen as a socio-political tool for the achievement of political objectives (Bereday, 1964, p. 40). In the U.S.S.R.,
for example, the political nature of education nowadays is taken
for granted (Grant, 1968).

3. Economic factors - these have become of great significance during
the past hundred or so years; that is, the period of universal,
compulsory education. Education is involved increasingly in a
country's economy, and any spur to the national economy "... pre­
supposes a parallel effort in education" (Faure, 1972, p. 28).
Also, there is the influence of the world economy on a country's
education system, an influence which creates advantages for some
countries while creating disadvantages for other, less developed
countries.

4. Social factors - these typically are varied and complex. In
particularly, factors reflecting social expectations of individuals
and groups, factors representing assumptions held in society about
the nature of that society, and factors related to cultural history
and tradition, the national character of a country and life-style,
all influence the ultimate form taken by education.

5. Geographic factors - these offer explanations in part for different
patterns of organisation and administration of education adopted in
different countries, for example, geographic factors clearly have
influenced the development of a decentralised system of administration
in England.

6. Administrative factors - these help to explain existing organisational
structure and procedural rules in education systems, the methods
by which various sectors of education articulate with each other and how education systems attempt to manage their internal and community affairs.

7. Factors related to curricular patterns of teacher education - these factors are important since they govern levels of professional skills acquired, and attitudes developed towards educational practice by the neophyte teacher during the period when the neophyte is searching for a personal and professional frame of reference within which he might generate understanding of his own personal and professional role in education.

The presenting of seven categories of factors will be considered in detail both descriptively and interpretively in Chapter 3 (also see Appendix 1). In addition to these seven categories, the category of "Organisational factors" will be considered since it has been found that this category involves factors sufficiently different from the Administrative category that it needs separate treatment. Moreover, it is stressed that at the present stage of the study, the categories of factors of greatest significance to the problem under enquiry cannot be presupposed. It is expected that such categories will emerge out of the analysis in Chapter 3 and the Juxtaposition in Chapter 4. A further point to note is that Bereday (1964, p. 20) suggests that the comparativist may include additional factors derived from philosophy, demography and religion. However, whilst such factors may be significant, Bereday suggests that they are less likely to influence educational practices than those categories of factors mentioned above. At any rate, whilst these factors should not be ignored, they are implied significantly in the categories that have been established. For example,
demographic factors will influence social, economic and geographic categories, while religion will influence historical, political and social categories.

In Chapter 3 then, the following eight categories of factors and their relation to schools and teacher preparation will be considered:

1. Geographical
2. Historical
3. Political
4. Organisational
5. Administrative
6. Curricular practices in teacher education
7. Economic
8. Social

In the interpretation column of the following tables it has been found desirable to include further elaborations of descriptive material interspersed with interpretations. This merging of the treatment of descriptive and interpretive material has been predicted earlier (see p. 41).
### 3.2 TABULATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL DATA AND
INTERPRETIVE CONCLUSIONS

#### 3.21 SUMMARY OF GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLAND</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homogeneity of physical geography with small distances.</td>
<td>Vast area with scattered resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dense population.</th>
<th>Overall population distribution is 2 persons per square kilometre.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>289 persons per square kilometre.</td>
<td>Population is unevenly distributed with the concentration being in coastal urban centres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The population is fairly evenly distributed.</td>
<td>Sydney, the N.S.W. capital, dominates by having some 55 per cent of the State's population in its metropolitan region.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources**


### INTERPRETATION OF GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

The size and distances of the country suggest that England's communication problems are less severe than those of N.S.W.

When natural resources are scattered, the size of a country can be a disadvantage to communication and to educational provision.

Demographic factors in N.S.W. have influenced the centralisation of educational administration, whereas in England decentralisation has been the dominant mode of administration in the Twentieth Century.

Urbanised. 77.7 per cent of the population reside in urban boroughs or their equivalent (English local government classification of urbanisation).

Urbanised. 85.6 per cent live in centres of 1,000 population or more (Australian census definition of urbanisation) but there is contrasting isolation. Geographic mobility is a feature of Australian population of England allows most families to have a choice of schools at primary and secondary levels within their area to which their children could be sent. Most students who aim at a tertiary education have a choice of institutions which would be within reasonable access to their homes. There are some isolated children, particularly those of itinerant gypsy and canal boat
life, from country town to city or from city to city, usually for occupa-
tional opportunity. families and these are among the most socially and educationally deprived in the country.

The measures of urbanisation and population density in N.S.W. indicate that there is a contrast between the opportunities of the urban and non-urban population as some of the latter are extremely isolated. When distances are so great, students have no choice of secondary school or tertiary institution. The problems faced by teachers in sparsely settled areas are isolation from colleagues, inadequate housing, difficulty in reaching educational centres and the inadequate education system support services for their schools. When people change the location of their work they expect uniform provisions to be available in their children's schools. Service by a teacher in the country is often transient, in which case the teacher has little opportunity to serve the community.

Sources


Ebert, 1964, p. 159.
Maclaine, 1974, p. 301.
Schools Commission, 1975, pp. 103, 105-106.

Accessibility to and a sharing of, economic, industrial and cultural enter-
prises with the European Economic Community has tended to produce a reorientation of England's outlook from that of a dispersed Commonwealth to that of being a politically and economically organised confederation of European states.

In England the interaction of people with those from common European cultures but with different languages has widened educational horizons. The mingling of cultures from Europe and North America has created a more modern and international outlook among English people.

The association of Australia with the older, distant and the newer Asian countries has introduced an awareness of the different cultures. International links and better communications are closing the geographical gap of distance and travel time and bringing the country closer to the world centres of intellectual and social activity. This awareness of internationalism is a trend in the modernising and development of a world outlook that is reflected in education.
3.22 SUMMARY OF HISTORICAL DATA

Education was the responsibility of the church before 1870. Parish schools of all denominations in convict society were subsidised on a half and half basis by state aid. National Board, Denominational Board and local Schools Boards were established before 1850.

Sources
Zainu’ddin, 1964, pp. 72, 82.

Maclaine, 1974, pp. 20, 34.

Teacher training was by the monitorial system 1803 to 1840's. The teacher instructed a group of pupils who passed on what they had learned to a row of children.

Sources
Wardle, 1970, p. 64.
Maclaine, 1974, p. 220.

The position of teacher in the early colony was undertaken by anyone who was literate.

The monitorial system from 1811 to 1850's followed the English example.

In each country the monitorial system met the problem of the schools' sponsors' inability to pay more than one adult teacher.

3.23 INTERPRETATION OF HISTORICAL DATA

In England before 1870 the upper and middle social classes had been provided with an education in the independent schools but the lowest tier of the social classes began to be catered for when England believed that its laissez-faire attitude towards education should be substituted for by a national effort to combat ignorance.

In the colony of N.S.W. the clergy took the responsibility for educating children in an acceptable social environment to counter the bad morals of convict society. State aid to all schools created sectarian rivalry and the smaller religious groups opposed it in favour of "voluntaryism".

The pupil teacher system was in operation from 1846 - 1902. In the 1850's, Wilkins introduced the pupil-teacher system from England. The system was continued until 1906.

The pupil-teacher system in England and N.S.W. employed selected pupils aged fourteen and over to give instruction under the supervision of the principal teacher. About half of these apprentice teachers were able to undertake supplementary training in a college.

Sources
Teachers colleges were established by Kay-Shuttleworth in 1840. Financial support was made available to students.

Sources
Burgess, 1971, pp. 148-149.

Fort Street Model School was established in the 1850's. Trainees received financial support.

Sources
Maclaine, 1974, pp. 220-221.

Teacher training colleges in England enabled the monitorial system to be abolished, while the pupil-teacher system continued for a time. The first colleges were provided by voluntary bodies and L.E.A.'s were required to provide teacher training where it was needed. The financial support enabled students to complete four years of secondary schooling before they commenced teacher training.

In N.S.W. the Fort Street Model School and later the Normal School trained pupil-teachers and some maturer students. Financial support had been made available to some teacher trainees in N.S.W. since the 1850's.

Teachers were paid by results from 1862-1897.

Sources

Introduction of a "payment by results" system in 1862.

Sources
Maclaine, 1974, p. 222.

In both countries the system of payment of teachers by results was an attempt to improve the quality of school teaching. The teachers’ basic salary was supplemented by the inspector’s assessment of the pupils’ results in reading, writing and arithmetic.

University education was for the élite.

Sources
Maclaine, 1974, p. 238.

University of Sydney was established in 1850. Its purposes were liberal and utilitarian.

Sources
Maclaine, 1974, p. 238.

English universities were attended by a minority of the population who were typically from the higher social groups.

English universities were attended by a minority of the population who were typically from the higher social groups.

Australian universities were similar but the utilitarian aspect of professional training was evident. Australian higher education institutions relied on British educators or Australians who had received their higher education in Britain, for their staffing, and this perpetuated the likeness to British higher education.
The 1870 Act required that government support be given to primary schools. This national system of primary education was introduced reluctantly.

In N.S.W., the denominational schools received no state aid after 1880 and the rivalry among the different denominations ceased. The Protestant churches closed most of their primary schools but the Catholic Church maintained its separate system and began to agitate for the reintroduction of state aid. The free, compulsory and secular objectives were not achieved fully. Fees were charged, there were insufficient teachers for compulsion to be enforced and teachers were required to give non-denominational religious instruction while visiting clergy gave denominational instruction.

As a result of the 1870 Education Act, Local schools boards were established but were never successful. The management and control of Education in England were weak, both under school boards and under the government as each lacked the experience of administering education. Each school board determined whether schooling in its areas would be compulsory and free, depending on the priority given to education. The local school boards in N.S.W. were disinterested in education and the people of the colony were apathetic to educational matters. There was never a strong tradition of local government and the framers of the constitution were reluctant to give local boards any real power.

Harsh climatic conditions required the government to remain centralised. In England, it would appear that parents were prepared to leave educational responsibility to the government. Education was not regarded as an investment offering long term economic returns for
Local councils. L.E.A.'s were responsible for primary and secondary schools and the secular instruction in voluntary schools.

Sources

Independent secondary schools followed the English tradition.

Sources

1902-1944 saw the final development of universal secondary education.

Sources
Cramer and Browne, 1965, p. 69.

Secondary school fees were abolished in 1911. Educational provision for rural children was

Sources
Cunningham, 1972, p. 106.

Educational provision for rural children was

Sources
Cunningham, 1972, p. 106.

The secondary church schools in N.S.W. imitated the English Public School tradition.

Sources
Cunningham, 1972, p. 106.

There was no formalised articulation between primary and secondary education in England until the 1944 Act. In that Act L.E.A.'s were required to give all children access to secondary education.

Sources
Cunningham, 1972, p. 106.
1944 Act. Secondary education for all. Pupils were selected for one of grammar, technical and secondary modern education. made by the establishment of the correspondence school. The number of one-teacher schools declined from over 1,000 in 1960's to 489 in 1974. which would suit "their different ages, abilities and aptitudes" (1944 Education Act, quoted in D.E.S., 1977a, p. 1). The earlier Hadow, Spens and Norwood reports (1926, 1938 and 1943) on education for adolescents recommended three types of schools. Placement into grammar and technical schools depended on the availability of places in the child's area.

Fees were abolished in N.S.W. secondary schools in 1911; this was earlier than in England and it stimulated higher attendance at secondary school. The N.S.W. school curriculum imitated other countries but some progress occurred in primary education with the introduction of project methods and of more creative subjects. In N.S.W., however, there was no equivalent legislation concerning secondary education to that of the 1944 Act in England and Wales.

Selection for secondary school occurred at the age of 11+. Grammar school education was for the training of leaders. Selective secondary schools were all that existed before World War II. Comprehensive schools were introduced in the 1950's. The Wyndham Scheme was implemented in 1961. The selection tests for English secondary schools were intended to give deserving children an opportunity of a grammar school education. R.A. Butler, the architect of the 1944 Act, ensured that the "uncommon child" received special opportunities for this growth. The 11+ selection was the first level of a series of selections in the training of an academic élite.

From the 1930's the system in N.S.W. catered for the intellectually superior child by allowing him to proceed to university or college. The replacement of compulsory external secondary examinations by school examinations began in 1943 and progressed to all except the N.S.W. Higher School Certificate. In N.S.W. schooling has become comprehensive more quickly than it has in England. The major change in secondary education instituted

Sources
Bessant, 1972, p. 192.
Lawry, 1972, p. 6.
Minister for Education, 1974, p. 29.
Turney, 1972, pp. 45, 47.
Corporate worship was mandatory in all schools.

Instruction in State schools is secular with the exception of non-denominational religious instruction or by offering visiting clergy the opportunity to give weekly denominational religious instruction. Denominational independent schools offer religious education.

English state schools have never been entirely secular as they are required to begin each day with an act of corporate worship and to include a non-denominational syllabus of religious studies at each level. Church schools are able to teach lessons in their own denomination but in all schools there is freedom for parents to have their children exempt from religious instruction.

Sources
Barcan, 1972, pp. 172, 178, 196.

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Source
Cramer and Browne, 1965, p. 69.

Teacher training under a bursary system was instituted in 1911 and abolished in 1951. Students signed a pledge to teach for a specified number of years.

Bonded teachers' scholarships were inaugurated in N.S.W. prior to World War I. They continued until 1976.

The training of teachers for English primary schools progressed from the apprentice-type pupil-teacher system to one under which a pupil was awarded a bursary to attend secondary school and subsequently to train in a college on the condition that he signed a pledge to teach. From 1911 a student could be awarded a grant to undertake a university degree and one year of training if he signed a pledge.

The bonded scholarships ensured N.S.W. its supply of teacher recruits without necessarily making the actual conditions of teaching more attractive. The Martin Committee recalled the help that was given "... to a large number of excellent teachers who, without the assistance
From the inception of the L.E.A. system, Training Colleges and voluntary colleges were supported financially from local and central sources. From the inception of the L.E.A. system, Training Colleges and voluntary colleges were supported financially from local and central sources.

**Sources**
- Dent, 1977, pp. 70, 131.
- Bassett, 1964, p. 156.
- Maclaine, 1974, pp. 223, 229.

Elvin (1974) contrasts the primary teacher who, up until the 1950's, was trained but did not need an education, with the secondary teacher who was educated in a university but needed no training.

Prior to World War II a sharp distinction existed between primary and secondary teacher training. Primary training in colleges consisted of general education, professional training, observation and teaching practice. Teachers for secondary schools received postgraduate training in a university or in a combined university-

of studentship allowance, would have been unable to attend a university or a teachers' college" (A.U.C., 1964, p. 107). The bond was intended to ensure that students did not use the scholarship to prepare for other careers, however the benefits attracted some who were not willing to teach. Allied to the N.S.W. scholarship system was the much-criticised inbreeding in teachers' colleges. The students came from state schools mainly, into colleges and they went back to state schools, while their lecturers were former teachers in the same school system. In the 1950's and 1960's attempts to improve the quality of teaching were difficult to achieve until the supply of teachers was able to meet the demand.

*This criticism could refer also to England prior to the 1960's.*

Elvin (1974) contrasts the primary teacher who, up until the 1950's, was trained but did not need an education, with the secondary teacher who was educated in a university but needed no training.

**Sources**

Primary teacher training in England was given from a centrally prescribed syllabus and Her Majesty's Inspectors (H.M.I.'s) examined the trainees. While the teachers' colleges were responsible for the training of primary school teachers the universities were concerned only with the the teachers who would work in secondary schools, a division which existed well into the Twentieth Century. Elvin (1974) emphasises the poverty of the early colleges in their facilities, standards of education and remuneration for their staffs. One year professional training courses were offered in universities but many grammar school teachers preferred not to take them and no school-master in an independent school was
College courses were extended to three years in 1972. The Australian Universities Commission was established in 1959 as a co-ordinating body. The McNair Report (1944) on the Training of Teachers improved the status of Colleges of Education by recommending their association with a university, and it narrowed the gap between primary and secondary teachers by accrediting colleges' academic work and awarding the Certificate in Education. Progress towards a higher standard of teacher education was marked by the raising of entrance requirements, the lengthening of courses and the greater independence of colleges.

The N.S.W. teacher training courses in the 1920's and 1930's were of one or two years duration depending upon the demand for teachers. The colleges gave the students a knowledge of the curriculum and methods of teaching as well as expected to have undertaken such preservice training. There was a social and academic division in England between teachers in selective secondary schools which prepared their pupils for universities and those in primary and non-selective secondary schools. Once comprehensive secondary schools became common, the qualifications of the teaching profession became more unified.

The distinction was similar in N.S.W. The proportion of graduate teachers on secondary staffs decreased in the 1950's when the teacher shortage required that two year college courses be introduced for general secondary preparation. Two effects of this introduction remain, the lower average academic qualifications of secondary teachers and the levelling of differences in academic attainments and professional status between secondary and primary school teachers. Teachers who wished to improve their qualifications for promotion eligibility were expected to study in their own time.

The McNair Report 1944, established Institutes of Education. The Robbins Report 1963, recommended the introduction of a four year B.Ed. as an alternative to the three year training programme.

Sources
a personal education to prepare them for their responsibilities in society.

3.23 SUMMARY OF POLITICAL DATA

Decentralisation of education in a centralised system of government.

Education is a state responsibility and while it is politically centralised it has tended to become increasingly administratively decentralised.

Sources

Walker, 1975, pp. 80-81.

INTERPRETATION OF POLITICAL DATA

England is able to preserve its decentralised education system because the governance of education at all levels continues traditionally to show restraint and respect for the autonomy of the individual institution.

The centralised system in N.S.W. assumes that uniformity in policy is desirable.

Walker (1975) contrasts political centralisation at the State Government level and administrative decentralisation of education at the regional and school levels. Walker points out that political representation is effectively restricted to the state level in N.S.W., whereas there has been much devolution of power to regional directors, inspectors and principals of schools during the 1960's and 1970's. Certainly this creates tensions between the State and Regional Authorities and at the time of writing, efforts at rationalising the allocation of decision making power continue to be made.

The Secretary of State for Education is responsible for national education policy. He is supported by a team of administrators in the Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.) who are permanent.

The Minister for Education, together with other State Ministers, shares a collective responsibility for the decisions of the Cabinet and for the actions of the Government. The Director-General of Education with his

In his execution of national policy on education, the Secretary of State for Education is responsible for broad policy matters, the approval of L.E.A. building plans, the maintenance, through the Inspectorate, of adequate standards of teaching in state and independent schools, the registration of teachers and their qualifications, the acceptance or rejection of national teachers' salary recommendations and the teaching of religion. The Secretary sets a minimum
civil servants. The D.E.S. institutes Advisory Councils to examine specific educational issues. The Plowden Committee was such an Advisory Council (1967).

Sources

Assistant Directors-General, inform the Minister for Education and determine educational policy. The Plowden Committee (Jecks, 1971, p. 142). The Director-General of Education in N.S.W. is responsible to the Minister "for the maintaining, consistently with sound educational practice, of a proper standard of efficiency in the Teaching Service" (Working Party, 1978, p. 33). Some of the Director-General's most important functions are the classification of schools, the determining of teaching staff establishments for schools and the determining of teachers' status.

Since N.S.W. teachers are public servants they are placed under the regulations of the Teaching Service Act (1970) which sets out regulations governing the duties and the conduct of teachers. For example, the criteria for the promotion of teachers are set out in the Act, and through the Act, the Director-General maintains discipline within the Teaching Service.
Whilst political parties emphasise different issues and formulate different policies, problems of rationalisation of powers between federal and state governments do not exist.

English party politics affect education. The Labour Party favours comprehensive schools while the Conservative Party moves more slowly on this issue and supports the retention of independent schools. The opposing parties seldom differ radically about fundamental education questions and successive governments rarely change what a former government has begun. This is probably less true since World War II than before.

In the Australian case, the two main Commonwealth and State political parties show different attitudes to education. In the federal area the Liberal/National Country Party Coalition is less willing to become involved in the school sector and its provisions tend to be piecemeal. The non-labour states fear that the greater involvement by a federal government in education would upset the balance of power between federal and the state governments, while the Labour Party favours direct financial aid on the grounds of needs and reforms in education such as comprehensive schooling. The political parties do not formulate overall policies for education, they tend to focus on issues of the moment.

In England, there is a two-tier system of government and educational administration - national and local. As a sovereign state within a confederation of States, N.S.W. participates in three tiers of government - federal, state and local. There are no equivalents to L.E.A.'s; local government bodies do not participate formally in public education, and whilst England's support for local administration allows a balance of power to exist between national and local levels of government.

N.S.W. lacks this balance. Existing local government structures in N.S.W. have no legal powers to administer local public education. The English-type L.E.A. probably would not suit the population distribution of N.S.W. but Partridge (1973), for example, believes that local bodies should share some of the responsibilities of education. The advantages of a centralised system, ideally, are that a similar standard of

Sources
Dent, 1971, p. 81.
Jecks, 1971, p. 132.
Selby Smith, 1975a, p. 124.
Regionalisation is a policy receiving some support, the State Ministry of Education and its Department of Education retain centralised decision making power. (A diagram showing the central administration of education in N.S.W. is given in Appendix 2).

Sources
Howe and Moore, 1976, p. 70.
Maclaine, 1974, pp. 35-36.
Walker, 1964, p. 293.

Local party politics consistently influence local education policies. Many local councils in England are elected on party political grounds and policies which are similar to those of the national parties are supported locally.

In N.S.W., local party politics may influence education or they may not. Whether they do depends upon the extent to which education is regarded as a significant political issue to an election. Educational issues at local government levels have tended to be of little significance in N.S.W., largely because education is seen as a state rather than a local government responsibility. Moreover, the state is the funding base for education. Occasionally, however, it is true that education receives attention at the local government level. For example, the allocation of funds to education can be achieved for children living in a wide variety of environments, efficiency can be maintained at a standard level, teachers of equivalent quality can be appointed throughout the state and similar guidance and support services can be made available. The advantages for teachers are security of tenure and uniform promotion opportunities. On the other hand, centralisation often results in slowness of response to needed changes, discouragement of independent thought and action by teachers, some instability and mobility of staffing, mediocrity in standards, and tends to create vertical decision making hierarchies which operate in a "top-down" rather than two-way flow of communications. Whilst a centrally administered system should be able to link the objectives of each phase of education to those of the next, the N.S.W. Chapter of the Australian College of Education (A.C.E., 1973) claims that this is not occurring.

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A trend towards greater control by the National Government is evident.

The Commonwealth Government remained outside the educational sphere until after World War I when it made specific provisions in response to emergencies. Greater involvement occurred after World War II. During the early 1970's, the Commonwealth Government became heavily involved in education spending.

The English central administration facilitates the overall national planning of education and the Secretary of State is able to prescribe standards to which institutions must conform. Planning involves collaboration and consultation with local authorities rather than direction by the Secretary. Elvin (1970), however, indicates that in matters of planning which are national in scope, there is an increasing tendency towards control by the elected central government.

In 1946 the Australian Constitution, Section 51, was amended so that the Commonwealth could provide "benefits to students" (See Appendix 3). Under this broad provision the Commonwealth could become the guarantor of the formal education of many groups of students. During the 1960's and 1970's the Federal Government has supported state and independent schools in specific needs, such as science laboratories, libraries, English teaching to migrant children and aboriginal education. The Schools Commission (1975) decided that provision should be made for the whole school community on the basis of needs of children in place of the earlier piecemeal allocations and it proposed that the federal programs should include recurrent grants to schools, building grants, grants to disadvantaged schools, special education, teacher development and special projects. The Commonwealth established its Department of
Sources

The National Union of Teachers (N.U.T.) is the largest professional body of teachers. Despite its name it is not primarily a trade union and it concerns itself with the professional needs of its members and with standards in education.

Sources
N.U.T., 1972,

The N.S.W. Teachers' Federation (N.S.W.T.F.) is the largest and most powerful association of teachers in the State. As a registered trade union it tends to emphasise in its operations the welfare, salaries and working conditions of its members. The activities of the Federation, so far as education is concerned tend to have a basis in the political aspects of education rather than in the purely professional aspects of education.

Sources
Jones, 1974, p. 127.

The N.S.W. Higher Education Board (H.E.B.) is the co-ordinating body which regulates Education in 1967. There is lack of national planning in education but it may develop with the Commonwealth's greater responsibility.

According to Jecks (1971), there is no Education Act in Australia which goes as close as does the 1944 Act of England "... to stating the purpose of education upon which structure and practice are to be based."

Whilst it appears that the N.U.T. and the N.S.W.T.F. differ in their assumptions about the roles and responsibilities of professional teacher organisations, both do develop educational policies which are expected to be considered by governments. In short, both organisations represent powerful political lobbies. For example, in the N.S.W.T.F. 1949 policy statement on Teacher Training (1977), the following policy was endorsed by the Annual Conference:

Existing methods of professional preparation, already inadequate, will be totally incapable of equipping would-be teachers with the training essential for them to meet [the] demands of a socially-conscious, democratic system of education. A complete overhaul of all matters pertaining to teacher training and a re-orientation of professional preparation for teaching would appear essential ... (N.S.W.T.F., 1977, p. 2).

The N.U.T. (1972) published a statement of its views on the James Report for English teacher education. The Union welcomed the greater involvement of the profession in the education of teachers but it criticised the professional cycle and it rejected the idea of licensed teachers (N.U.T., 1972, pp. 4, 8, 11).

Because of the external controls exercised by the D.E.S., the L.E.A.'s and the university, colleges of education in England tend to be prevented from developing their own distinctive
but they depend upon the D.E.S. for finance if they are voluntary (private colleges) or upon the department through their L.E.A. if they are maintained colleges, and all may be subject to pressures from one or more of three external bodies, the D.E.S., the local authority and a university's academic body.

the courses in C's A.E. and determines their staff establishments. institutional character. Such controls exercise a levelling effect which gives rise to uniformity in style and structure of management, organisation and curriculum. Often those who have power to influence institutional operations are not experienced in tertiary education and frequently misunderstand the needs of tertiary institutions. Goldman's (1973) solution is to retain local representation on the governing bodies of colleges but to remove financial control from the L.E.A. He would see the college itself as the appropriate authority to manage its financial affairs.

In N.S.W. a similar disjunction exists between the controlling authority (H.E.B.) and C.A.E. administration. By having the power to determine both staff establishments and approved courses in colleges, little effective autonomy is left to the colleges. It appears that in attempting to rationalise the allocation of resources, the H.E.B. in collaboration with the State Government may not always take decisions which are educationally sound. For example, the decision taken in 1977 to confine the award of incremental allowances to teacher scholarship holders to institutions offering concurrent preservice degrees, was apparently taken in order (1) to reduce budget allocations to teacher scholarships in a period of teacher surplus, (2) to influence enrolment levels in tertiary institutions, especially universities, and, (3) to avoid subsidising students who may not be committed to teaching.

Sources

There are different Administration of higher education varies patterns and styles with the type of of administration between universities institution. Univer-

Partly as a result of the pattern of administration, English colleges tend to be conservative, arid and isolated from other institutions of higher education (Burgess,
Universities enjoy greater autonomy than C's. A.E., but with the establishment of the Tertiary Education Commission by the Commonwealth Government in June, 1977, there are indications that the degree of this autonomy might be reduced in the future.

In Australia, the Martin Report (1964) mapped the area of tertiary education for the first time and the binary arrangement of universities and C's A.E. was established. McCaig (1970, p. 116) disagrees with this division and suggests an alternative structure comprising a "... unified, integrated and comprehensive higher education system which in turn should be integrated with education at all other levels." Greater co-operation among institutions could facilitate the transfer of students. The Tertiary Education Commission is expected to permit a co-ordinated approach to the development and funding of institutions and to reduce duplication between the three post-secondary sectors (Universities, Colleges of Advanced Education and Technical and Further Education). This Commission and the Schools Commission have been set up as expert bodies to promote balanced development. The State governments have immediate access to and enjoy close co-operation with the Commission. The Universities Council of the Tertiary Education Commission has recently (1977, 1978) required universities to seek formal Council approval for new courses. It appears that the constraints on teaching programmes in universities are now to be similar to the constraints placed on C's A.E.

Sources
Summary

England's two-tier system of government - National and Local - reduces the complexity of the problem of decentralization of educational decision making.

Changes have occurred in administration recently including greater devolution of responsibility to the schools, the introduction of parent and community participation balanced with teacher involvement, and consultation between the Commonwealth and State.

It would appear that the system of educational administration in England has certain advantages compared with the system adopted in N.S.W. The balance between the functions of England's central government and local bodies in education forms a sound administration which is responsible for the development and success of certain aspects of teacher education in which there is a balance between control and autonomy. However, the colleges are in a state of change and they have still to find their most suitable form of organisation.

The initiation of changes in N.S.W. has come from the Head Office more frequently than from regions, schools or institutions. N.S.W., however, has yet to develop a regional system of educational administration in which devolution of power has become a reality. On the other hand, attempts by the N.S.W. Education Department to establish a three-tier system of administration - state, region and school - promise eventual success in this regard at least in the sectors of public primary and secondary education. Clearly, such regionalisation moves carry implications for the role of tertiary institutions in teacher education, especially in linking teacher preparation programmes concurrently with local and state needs.

Sources

Harman, 1976, p. 25.

3.24 SUMMARY OF ORGANISATIONAL DATA

List of Priorities in Education (no preferred order implied). In order to obtain a rational account of organisational patterns and practices in English and N.S.W. education, this section commences with a list of educational priorities as determined largely by government.

INTERPRETATION OF ORGANISATIONAL DATA

In determining its priorities the English government has placed emphasis on the adequate preparation of teachers. The expansion of in-service education is seen as an important means of improving the quality of teaching, of fostering a desire for continuing professional development and particularly of providing successful induction
1. Quality of teaching
2. Teaching staff
3. Nursery education
4. Higher education
5. School facilities

1. Teacher education
2. Formulation of objectives at all levels
3. The co-ordination of each phase of education to the next phase
4. The senior secondary student
5. The transition from school to work
6. Continuing education
7. Disadvantaged groups
8. Community education

Sources
Times Educational Supplement, 15.10.76, p. 2.

The Upper Secondary School

20.3 per cent of pupils remain to the final sixth form year. The tradition continues that education in sixth form is seen as preparation for tertiary study. Despite the prolif-
eration of secondary modern schools and more recently of comprehensive secondary schools, English secondary education tends to be more academically selective and meritocratic than N.S.W. education.

Sources


In Australia is part of a continuing process which is not intended to be solely a preparation for tertiary or pre-vocational study although the strongest emphasis is in this direction. It should provide a general education to prepare the young person for his role in society and to assist him in making intelligent decisions about occupations.

Reform of the Higher School Certificate (H.S.C.) courses were reformed in 1975. They differ in terms of the purposes and interests of pupils rather than in terms of levels of ability, and they are organised on the basis of units of study, with each unit representing three class periods of study a week. Year 11 work is less specialised than it was formerly since each pupil now studies at least six subjects. England's secondary education pattern, one is a new terminating examination resulting in the award of a Certificate of Extended Education for pupils who remain at school beyond sixteen but whose abilities are not inclined towards A Level courses. The second is the replacement of the G.C.E. Ordinary Level and the Certificate of Secondary Education with one common examination at age sixteen.

The restructured senior secondary school course in N.S.W. is designed to promote freedom and flexibility of approach to the curriculum. The introduction of Other Approved Studies allows for the diverse interests of many pupils. These studies are designed and evaluated by the individual schools.

Sources

Comprehensive schooling was almost completely established by 1957. Spolton's (1967, p. 35) view of the effect of comprehensive education on the upper secondary school is that benefits would result from educating all pupils in one school from the ages of eleven to eighteen years and that comprehensive schools can provide academic sixth form work with appropriate courses for the less academically inclined senior pupils. The N.S.W. government does not intend to separate the education of Year 11 and 12 pupils from that of junior secondary pupils but an opportunity to observe the development of senior colleges is available in certain independent schools as well as in the A.C.T. and Tasmania.

Sources

3.25 SUMMARY OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA

A clear distinction exists between roles of teachers and of administrators. Administrators are promoted from the teaching ranks to administrative teaching positions which for some of them lead further to purely administrative positions.

INTERPRETATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA

As a general rule, English educational administrators have had some teaching but not headmastership experience and they tend to branch into administrative work early in their careers. The advantage of this experience in teaching is that they understand the educational aspects of the school's role.

The distinction between the function of a school administrator and the function of a teacher is less clear in N.S.W. than it is in England. As a teacher moves through the levels of promotion his position becomes increasingly more administratively
The L.E.A. Education Committee is responsible for educational policy and administration. It is responsible for employment and promotion of teachers and for pupil welfare services.

Devolution of administrative functions to the regions is occurring, but not devolution of policy making. Regional directors of education administer centrally derived policies.

The membership of L.E.A. Education Committees represents educational and lay interests. Each L.E.A. decides its own policy on the organisation of schools. Selby Smith (1969, p. 106) commends the balanced English system for its stimulation of local interest and dynamic activity in giving the responsibility for schools to the local area.

The devolution of certain administrative responsibilities to the regions was initiated by the N.S.W. Education Department's planners in Head Office so that the impetus did not come from any local demand for greater participation. The advantages of regionalisation are (1) teachers and the community can have closer personal contact with regional administrative staff, (2) more flexible communication networks can be established, and (3) identified problems can be solved more quickly for greater interest in education at the local community level is encouraged to develop. There are indications that these advantages are more widely recognised in the late 1970's and there appears to be a greater willingness on the part of Head Office to facilitate these developments. Of significance is the fact that regions are now able to develop curricula to suit local community needs.

The N.S.W. Department of Education establishes a state-wide teacher-pupil ratio for government schools. The policy of a staffing ratio in England ensures that the wealthier areas do not keep bettering their teacher-pupil ratios in comparison with deprived areas.

A similar policy pertains in N.S.W. In England, however, since the employment of teachers is under the control of L.E.A.'s, the distribution...
of experience and qualifications of teachers tends to be heterogeneous. Whilst this effect is not as noticeable in N.S.W., it does exist to the extent that the more experienced teachers tend to become concentrated in the more favourable districts of the urban centres. Moreover, new teachers in England negotiate for appointment directly with their preferred L.E.A.; thus they have a high level of control over where they will teach. Also promotion tends to be based more on merit than on seniority. In N.S.W., first appointment is largely determined by the Head Office, although beginning teachers are given some opportunity to select the regions within the state in which they prefer to work. Some allowance is also made for married teachers wishing to be appointed in the same district as their spouse's place of employment. While eligibility for promotion in N.S.W. is based on qualifications and performance, the attainment of a promotion position is almost exclusively based on a seniority system. All teachers are public servants and they carry an official public service seniority rating.

Kogan's (1971, p. 12) statement "the ways in which different countries govern their education ... relate to the philosophies and practices predominant in their schools" suggests that the impetus of the philosophy and practice of education is at the grass roots in the schools. In English schools, the head and the teachers have considerable freedom in determining their objectives, curricula and teaching methods. Schools are required by law to have a Board for their administration and the membership of boards varies from L.E.A. appointed to school-selected. Such school boards ensure
The head teacher and staff have considerable freedom to devise their school curriculum. The principal and staff are being encouraged to take greater responsibility for determining curriculum. Australian Capital Territory, and N.S.W. educators are watching decisions are shared. Composition and strengths of boards vary. The head teacher and staff have considerable freedom to devise their school curriculum. The principal and staff are being encouraged to take greater responsibility for determining curriculum. Australian Capital Territory, and N.S.W. educators are watching decisions are shared. Composition and strengths of boards vary. The head teacher and staff have considerable freedom to devise their school curriculum. The principal and staff are being encouraged to take greater responsibility for determining curriculum. Australian Capital Territory, and N.S.W. educators are watching decisions are shared. Composition and strengths of boards vary.

Sources
Baron, 1965, p. 64.
Dent, 1971, p. 47.
Willey, 1964, p. 51.

Schools Commission, 1975, p. 7.

In the 1960's and 1970's, there has been a national trend in Australian education towards school-based curriculum development. The N.S.W. Base Paper on the Total Curriculum, Years 7-10 (1975, p. 4), for example, gave clear implications for the development of local school boards and the involvement of the community in education.
Teachers are on curriculum committees. There are, however, external controls on the school curriculum, such as the examination system and community representation on L.E.A.'s. The H.S.C. examination, however, exercises great control over what is taught in the senior secondary school and in the academic stream of the junior secondary school. For increased curriculum development initiatives at the school level. Clearly, N.S.W. primary and secondary education is involved at the present time in a major reorientation of the whole issue of curriculum practices and loci of control. With the retention of a public examination system, however, tensions are evident between the need for flexibilities in curricula and the need to conform with prescribed syllabuses especially for H.S.C. students in secondary schools. Whilst local control over the curriculum in England has existed for a longer period, similar tensions exist especially at the senior secondary school level. It is clear that teacher training institutions in both countries are experiencing a number of associated problems. Perhaps the most significant problem is that of determining the scope of the teacher role in the school and then of reconstructing training programmes accordingly. Generally speaking, the problem of the teacher role remains unsolved at this time.

Sources

Inspectors have advisory functions but are not directly concerned with promotions of teachers. Probationary teachers are assessed by their head teachers. This assessment is approved by the Chief Education Officer of the L.E.A. The influential H.M. Inspectorate in English education is independent of but responsive to the D.E.S. policy. Inspectors have had successful teaching careers and are responsible for the assessment of educational and curricular standards in schools as well as for furthering teachers' professional development, disseminating new ideas and conducting in-service courses. They do not assess individual teachers' performance since teacher promotion is by application and interview, not by inspection as in N.S.W.

The role of the N.S.W. inspector is less flexible than that of his English counterpart, largely due to the heavy load of teacher inspections that he must carry out each year. It would appear that the English inspector can make himself
England abandoned its apprenticeship system in the late 19th Century but recent proposals support the reintroduction of a modified apprenticeship system. Many teacher educators in N.S.W. and in England are commending the internship system. The objective, generally speaking, is to attain a balance between the theoretical and practical components in teacher preparation programmes. It will be shown in Chapter 4 that some writers also give attention to the transition problems which they claim are the result of inadequate attention being given to practitioner needs of beginning teachers.

The reorganisation of teacher education has become necessary because of the fall in birth numbers in England from approximately 783,000 in 1971 to 583,000 in 1976. The contraction in teacher supply which is necessitated by this demographic situation may result in a higher standard of teacher education and the consolidation of colleges into the higher education sphere. The rate of growth of the Australian population is declining, and Borrie (1976) expects that this decline will continue. Demographic predictions show that pupil enrolments in N.S.W. primary schools will reach their peak in 1980 and then they will decline. Secondary enrolments peaked in 1976, they declined and will reach another peak in 1985. Within the guidelines of present class sizes, an oversupply of teachers exists already in some subject fields. At the tertiary level, manpower planning may need to be applied more firmly. Diversification of, and association

A reorganisation of teacher education is being adopted within the total higher education context. Institutions are diversifying their courses and the association of Colleges of Education with other institutions is proceeding. The administrative reorganisation of teacher education within the total higher education context. Institutions are diversifying their courses and the association of Colleges of Education with other institutions is proceeding.
Sources
D.E.S., 1972b, pp. 43-45.
Peck, 1975, p. 430.

Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 130 (citing Borrie).
Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 131.
Imison, 1976, pp. 28-29.
Schools Commission, 1976, p. 100.

3.26 SUMMAR Y OF CURRICULAR PRACTICES IN TEACHER TRAINING

According to the T.E.S. (1976, p. 3) the objectives of teacher education are determined largely by those of the D.E.S. for teacher education. They are to match as far as possible the academic and curricular needs of the schools and to provide a secure and well-founded initiation into professional teaching skills. The objectives of teacher education have not been stated specifically. Statements are left to individual institutions. There is an apparent absence of National or State policies on objectives in both countries. In England there is some evidence that the D.E.S. has looked at objectives (T.E.S., 1976, p. 1). There are similarities in objectives in the two countries. The study of education theory in a teacher education course may be based on separate discipline or by an integrated approach. Taylor (1975, p. 7) favours a middle stance between these in order to satisfy the diverse needs and aspirations of students. "The college course which has a professional objective cannot altogether separate academic study from the professional content" contends Higginbotham (1969, p. 57). Musgrave's view (1973, p. 22) is that the teacher of today is no longer an imparter of knowledge whose approaches are classroom-centred and subject oriented. Maclaine (1974, p. 341) argues that the teacher will be "increasingly ... a skilled manager of

provision of external courses in certain colleges. but the former Australian Commission on Advanced Education considered that any association should be formed gradually upon "... a basis of mutual respect, trust and desire" (A.C.A.E., 1973, p. 23). Imison (1976, pp. 28-29) contends that those who are concerned with teacher education and who recognise its necessity for the improvement of education in general should show the governments and the public that teacher education re-planning must not be indiscriminate.
Types of teacher education programmes which are offered in England are:

1. the three year non-degree college course,
2. the university degree and end-on Postgraduate Certificate (P.G.C.E.),
3. the university concurrent four year degree, and
4. the college three or four year B.Ed. degree.

Examples of specific programmes are given in Appendix 4.

Sources
Higginbotham, 1969, p. 57.
Maclaine, 1974, p. 341.

As in England, four types of teacher education programmes are offered:

1. the three year non-degree college course,
2. the university degree and end-on Diploma in Education (Dip. Ed.),
3. the university concurrent four year degree, and
4. the college four year B.Ed. degree.

Examples of specific programmes are given in Appendix 5.

Sources
D.E.S., 1972, pp. 21-23.
Gr. Brit., 1963, p. 27.
Simon, 1976, p. 27.
Crane, 1973, p. 15.
Hughes, 1972, p. 15.
N.S.W., 1971, p. 52.

The James Committee enumerated the deficiencies in teacher education.
The Committee contended (1) that too much emphasis is placed on initial teacher subject matter, techniques and materials and will increasingly serve as a student consultant, facilitator ... centred on effective learning by the child".

The courses offered by teacher education institutions in both systems are very similar. In both systems universities approve their own awards while similar bodies are organised for the determination of standards and awards in colleges.

Accreditation of courses in English colleges which are not associated with Universities is by the Council for National Academic Awards (C.N.A.A.). Courses in N.S.W. C's.A.E. are required to be submitted to the H.E.B. for approval.

It would seem that as a result of these deficiencies, English teacher education (1) is not providing the social experience that is required for understanding children, (2) is remote from reality, (3) provides insufficient practice in methods of teaching and, (4) courses lack rigour and intellectual challenge (Burgess, 1971b, pp. 10-11). Similar remarks may be made about teacher education in N.S.W.
preparation at the expense of in-service education, (2) that separation between graduate and non-graduate preparation is unsatisfactory, (3) that too much theoretical study precedes practical experience with children, and (4) that the support of the new teacher in his first year is neglected. Cope (1973, p. 247) found that (5) there was additional deficiency is inadequate liaison between teacher education and (6) the inflexible organisation of practical teaching experience. An (1973, p. 247) found that (5) there was the lack of flexibility in courses in single purpose C's.A.E. co-operating schools.

Webber (1974, pp. 2-6) comments on (6) the dissatisfaction of students and schools with the systems of teaching practice.

Sources
Burgess, 1971b, pp. 10-11.
Webber, 1974, pp. 2-6.

The James Committee's proposal for reform (1972) recommends three consecutive cycles: Proposed reform comes from individual institutions. However, the National and State enquiries into teacher

Clearly there are dissatisfactions in both systems with current patterns in teacher education. It seems evident that suggestions for reform are imminent in the Australian systems as a result of the National and State enquiries currently
(1) Personal education, currently under way, are almost certain to suggest reforms. Institutional changes show a trend towards multi-vocational institutions. A new diploma in Higher Education (Dip.H.E.) reforms. Institutional changes show a trend towards multi-vocational institutions. A new diploma in Higher Education (Dip.H.E.)

(description of this Diploma course is given in Appendix 6). (2) Second cycle is the professional component. First year in a college develops practical teaching competency. Macquarie University's master teacher organisation, for example, is commended but its Second year internship with 75 per cent teaching load and equivalent of one day a week in studies and discussion. (3) Third cycle consists of the continuing education of teachers. A closer integration of education institutions with the community and the involvement by members of the community are developing trends.

Sources
3.27 SUMMARY OF ECONOMIC DATA

Industrialised society. National resources are concentrated on the service sector of the economy.

Sources

INTERPRETATION OF ECONOMIC DATA

Industrialised societies need increasing numbers of skilled and adaptable people, particularly in the information services.

Economic growth is related to patterns of political organisation, demographic changes, the economies of other nations and expenditure on education. An interesting difference between the Australian and English economies is that in Australia there is still considerable development of natural resources, especially in the mining industry, whereas in England the exploitation of natural resources, by necessity, has given way to the development of technological expertise and hardware as the "new" export commodity.

This difference may explain differences in policy making in the technical sector of education in the two countries. It might also suggest part of the rationale for the amalgamation in England of colleges of education with polytechnics (see Crosland quoted in Van der Eyken, 1973, p. 470).

Increase in demand for education at secondary and tertiary level in 1960's and early 1970's is levelling off.

Sources

A growth in England's population between the 1940's and 1960's as a result of earlier marriages and larger families, together with a trend for youths to stay longer in school, has been followed in the 1970's by a decline in population growth. The increase in the demand for secondary and tertiary education in both countries gave special emphasis to the desirability of a high level of general education which aimed at adapting its recipients to the changing requirements of industry and different economic and social conditions. Education assists economic growth by enabling the human resources to be used more effectively in skilled employment.
Economic conditions influence education directly. Economic policies generally are in harmony with educational policies but at times more emphasis may be directed towards economic concerns.

Sources

Barcan, 1972, pp. 176, 178.
Owen, 1977, p. 98.

In England, examples of economic factors dominating educational issues are the timing of the introduction of the sixteen years school leaving age in accordance with pupil population and teacher supply, a decision that was based on economic rather than educational grounds and the introduction of comprehensive secondary education which the N.U.T. claims was undertaken as cheaply as possible.

As in England, changes have been made in N.S.W. on economic grounds rather than on educational grounds in the raising of the school leaving age to fifteen and in the replacing of external school examinations with internal ones.

Sources of finance are local property rates and the central government's block grant for all the services in the local area including education. On the average, 84 per cent of these grants is expended on education. English L.E.A.'s prepare financial estimates for consideration by the D.E.S. The D.E.S. sets standards so that educational provision does not depend on local wealth. It achieves this by applying an equalisation factor with consideration for the population, its density, the age structure and the nature of population increase. A supplement is made to the amounts that are raised by local rates. The reliable allocation of funds is important to ensure the continued provision of teaching and ancillary staff resources.

The Australian Schools Commission has chosen to encourage incentives for action at the grass roots by enabling the individual classroom teacher to gain access to Commonwealth funds through the innovations programme. The focus shifted to determination of need for all types of schools and away from the "... long standing controversy over state aid" (Anderson, 1976, p. 36). A justification for federal financial involvement in education is that such involvement is determined by specific needs and therefore is aimed at fairness in distribution of funds.
under Section 96 of the Constitution which allows financial assistance to be given on such terms and conditions as the parliament thinks fit.
(See Appendix 3).

Sources
Baron, 1965, p. 80.
Kogan, 1971, p. 16.

Anderson, 1976, p. 36.
Bowker, 1972, p. 158.
Maclaine, 1974, p. 6.
Schools' Commission, 1975, p. 132.
Selby Smith, 1975a, pp. 125, 131.

Education is seen as both a consumption good from which immediate benefit may be derived and an investment which gives long term benefits for expenditure.

Education is seen as a consumption good and as an investment for personal fulfilment.

The Martin Committee (1964) stressed the following personal benefits of education:
(1) it is a long term investment in the person developing his ability to make well-informed choices, (2) education enables the person to widen his horizons for enjoyment and the pursuit of knowledge and understanding in the arts and sciences, (3) education increases the potential earning capacity of the individual person.

These benefits are generally similar to those recognised in England. It is important to note that in both countries education is seen also as an economic commodity of the consumption kind.

Short (1967, p. 39) argues that the demand for higher education amounts to a national asset providing an opportunity for the educated population to experience individual fulfilment in part by being able to contribute to national development.

Sources
There is a significant difference between the U.K. and Australia in the proportion of the G.N.P. spent on education. It would appear that the value of education in Australia does not carry the same weight that it does in England.

Colleges of Education and other advanced educational institutions are financed by their L.E.A. from a central pool of funds to which all authorities have contributed. Universities are financed through the Universities Grants Committee (U.G.C.) which preserves their autonomy. The U.G.C. is an elected, non-political body which is a link between the government treasury and the institutions. Universities receive 70 per cent of their Commonwealth grants were made to the C's.A.E. alongside state grants from 1967. These grants were extended to separate state teachers' colleges in 1973. The Commonwealth has financed tertiary education fully since 1974. The Commonwealth ensured that the universities enjoyed their necessary measure of financial freedom by accepting the financial responsibility for university education. The majority of full-time tertiary students are assisted by Commonwealth allowances or State teaching scholarships.
funds from this source. Most students have their fees paid by the government.

Sources
Corbett, 1973, p. 3.

In the late 1970's, fewer teacher education places are needed. The curtailment of financing for teacher education is an economic necessity.

Tuition fees were abolished in 1974.

Sources
A.U.C., 1964, p. 293.
Jones, 1974, p. 87.

Cuts in education spending (including spending on teacher education) necessitate the determination of priorities by the Schools Commission and the Tertiary Education Commission.

Economic control over tertiary education is much more centralised in Australia than in England. There is a tendency, evident in the activities of the newly constituted Tertiary Education Commission in Australia, to exercise jurisdiction over the curricula of all tertiary institutions. A somewhat similar situation, however, exists in England through the activities of the D.E.S. During the late 1970's in England, the reduced financial allocation to teacher education has prevented the implementation of second and third cycle proposals of the James Report. In partial compensation for this, however, the reduction in first cycle enrolments could allow a greater expenditure on in-service education for teachers. At this time of reduction in education spending the areas in Australia which will continue to receive priority federal aid are disadvantaged schools, special education, migrant and multicultural education, the education of girls, in-service teacher development and innovations projects. The cuts in teacher education expenditure appear to affect the changing and uncertain situation in this area. The distribution of funds has to be guided by the forecast requirements for trained professionals in courses such as engineering or teaching.

Sources
3.28 SUMMARY OF SOCIAL DATA

| Immigration into England from the underdeveloped countries of the Commonwealth began in earnest during the early 1960's. Ethnic minorities have been established, 1946, migration was especially in the urban and industrial centres of England. | Australia's population has increased from 7½ million in 1946 to some 14 million in 1978, while in the same period the distribution and extent of its ethnic components have changed. Before 1946, migration was 90 per cent British but since the war Southern European people have made up 50 per cent of the migrant intake. During the 1950's and 1960's there was a major lowering of the age distribution of the population. This trend has not continued, however, into the late 1970's. |

Sources
Cramer and Browne, 1965, p. 60.
Maclaine, 1974, pp. 4,11.
Schools Commission, 1976, p. 100.

Aims of Education
"to guide each generation of children into a full appreciation of our culture, to quicken their social and moral awareness, to guide individual development in the context of society through recognisable stages of development towards perceptive understanding, mature judgement, responsible self-|

INTERPRETATION OF SOCIAL DATA
Both societies demonstrate ethnic and socio-economic divisions. Migration patterns have affected both countries and they have caused similar problems. The outflow of migrants from Britain to the Commonwealth countries has levelled off but recently there has been an influx of migrants into England. Migrants from widely differing backgrounds have brought to Australia alternative ways of life and they have changed the uniform, conforming character of the Australian people. Many of the new immigrants to England and Australia need special educational provision, such as programmes of English as a second language. Programmes of bilingual and cultural education are needed for Australian aboriginal people.

The aims of education of a country are related closely to the politics and ideology or to the social aims of the country. In some countries education is planned to implement the politics and ideology of the country, for example, in England and N.S.W. a social aim of equality of educational opportunity is emphasised. England and N.S.W. have similarities in their aims as well as certain points of difference. The
Aims of teacher education "to match the academic and curricular needs of the schools and to provide a secure and well-founded initiation into professional teaching skills."

Sources
T.E.S., 15.10.1976, p. 3.
N.S.W., 1973, p. 11.

By tradition, English education has emphasised qualities of religion, culture, discipline, athleticism and service. Bereday (1964) adds character training, civic responsibility and moral direction and moral autonomy."

Aims of teacher education are so designed that the teacher understands and is able to implement the general aims of education. English teacher education is liberal and there is a place for academic and for pedagogic preparation. Australian education aims to encourage egalitarianism and its teacher education may be more utilitarian than English teacher education.

McGregor (1966, p. 348) mentions the anti-intellectualism and the stigma that is "... attached to anything so blatantly non-utilitarian as serious intellectual endeavour .... National heroes are drawn from the world of sport, not from the world of ideas." Schools in both countries induct children into the present values of society and so preserve the social and political order.
and intellectual
endeavour.

Sources

The government is now coming to accept the social responsibility to school children who are of average ability and those who are below average, not only in the primary but also in the secondary school sector.

The trend in secondary education is to provide a common liberal course for all adolescents, without specialisation, to the age of about sixteen years. However, there is still much streaming of pupils in terms of ability, and much remains to be done for the slow learner and the socially and economically disadvantaged child.

In both systems, decisions on the type of education for below average secondary pupils are based on opinion which favours vocational and life adjustment education for this particular group. Another opinion is that these children should be learning the traditional subjects such as English, Mathematics and Science, as school is the only place where they will learn them, within a programme that is practical, realistic, vocational, and has an element of choice.

Recent changes in schooling and society in N.S.W. have created disagreement and uncertainty about the ethical and moral bases for individual and community life. Maclaine (1974) contends that educators should help young people to formulate realistic goals to learn to live with change and that teaching should have a spirit of openness and enquiry.

Secondary schooling is being reorganised in a comprehensive pattern on social grounds.

Comprehensive schooling is considered to be socially desirable in both countries as it is expected to equalise educational opportunities. However, even in comprehensive schools the curriculum controls the social experiences of children to a large extent. The formation of educational streams in schools creates a caste system. Schools cannot be socially equal since they are neighbourhood schools and they typify the social character of the neighbourhood. A typical problem in England is that to provide a
viability sixth form, a comprehensive school must be so large that its pupils have difficulty in identifying with their school. The first problem may be reduced in each country by drawing up school catchment areas with some care to create balance. The problem of size is avoided in some English L.E.A.'s by the creation of comprehensive middle schools and upper schools. Other L.E.A.'s have used the strategy of organising large schools into distinct house groups.

Prior to 1960, equality was interpreted in N.S.W. as equal access to schools of the freedom to choose a school irrespective of the family's capacity to support the child's schooling or his family's mobility within the state or interstate. The state system has achieved this uniform provision well. However, equal opportunity is the aim now and this requires additional action.

Sources
Maclaine, 1974, pp. 302-304.

Since the Beveridge Report on social welfare in 1942, England has provided a broad programme of social services. Child health and guidance services are provided directly through the L.E.A. systems.

Australia recognises that children in certain groups of the population are disadvantaged on social, economic and cultural grounds. The Schools Commission and the State Governments are giving attention to this problem.

The redress of imbalances to children in schools has difficulty in succeeding if the attitudes and beliefs in the home differ from those at school. However Moore (1974, p. 1) believes that the cycle of poverty and educational imbalances can be attacked more easily and with less ethical conflict at school than within the family. It remains doubtful though, that of all social agencies the school can seriously hope to deal with profound social issues such as poverty.

Sources
One of England's social priorities in education is the education of deprived children who live in areas which have been designated as Educational Priority Areas (E.P.A.'s). The education authorities in these areas are committed to the alleviation of the effects of disadvantage on school children.

Attention to disadvantaged schools is a special social priority in Australian education. The programme to assist disadvantaged schools which caters for 13 per cent of the Australian pupil population aims to provide an impetus to effort within the school and to stimulate teacher-parent relationships.

The Plowden Committee (1967) maintained that in neighbourhoods where people's work and status owe little to education, children regard school as a brief interlude before work. These areas need good primary schools with stable staffs of enthusiastic teachers. The Plowden Report (1967, p. 50) proposes "... a nationwide scheme for helping those schools and neighbourhoods in which children are most severely handicapped." A larger share of the nation's resources must be devoted to them in the way of supplementary grants for certain social needs with a higher teaching staff and support staff quota. These grants are on the assumption that the E.P.A.'s need positive discrimination beyond an attempt to equalize resources. The first step should be to raise their standards and the second, quite deliberately, make them better than the national average. A formula is suggested for the assessment of deprivation and the schools' needs are for more teachers, teacher aides, housing for teachers, salary incentives, in-service education, nursery schools, links with colleges, social workers, and community-school activities.

Unequal treatment, the Australian Schools Commission maintains, is needed to achieve more equal outcomes of education and this requires action to increase inputs and to supplement the conditions within schools and beyond.

Sources

Schools Commission, 1973, pp. 16, 22, 82.

Five per cent of English children attend independent schools including direct grant schools. In N.S.W. 25 per cent of pupils attend non-government schools (21 per cent nationally).

Many of those independent schools in England which class themselves as "Great Public Schools" continue the Thomas Arnold tradition in which religion and the classics are important in the curriculum and character training is the social ideal (Wardle, 1970, pp. 119-22). The Great
Public Schools receive no aid from the state but the L.E.A.'s contribute funds to the voluntary schools and, following reports by H.M.I.'s, the D.E.S. determines independent schools' efficiency, while some it simply registers (Corbett, 1973, p. 5).

The independent schools in N.S.W. continue to produce a number of the nation's leaders. Most of these schools have a better staff-pupil ratio as well as a higher retention rate than state schools, they emphasise pastoral care and extra-curricular activities and they are subject to inspection by the Department of Education to ensure acceptable standards.

Parent organisations, which are associated with schools, participate in a limited range of activities but they are not involved in school policy as are members of school boards.

Members of the community tend not to be involved with education. Parents play a limited part in the education system by membership in school Parents' and Citizens' Associations.

Although the extent of parent involvement in education in England is limited, occasionally public opinion on an education issue will encourage administrators to inform the community which then becomes a more involved group.

Really interested and active Parents and Citizens (P. & C.) groups in N.S.W. are exceptional. Generally the P. & C. Association is concerned with matters outside the central functions of the school, such as maintenance of grounds, fund raising and canteen work. However, informal parent-teacher contacts are common, especially at the infants level.

The participation rate in teacher education expanded rapidly in the 1960's to meet the demand for teachers but now competition among most colleges has their students allocated to them previously to the establishment of C's.A.E. in the Late 1960's and 1970's. Teacher training

During the 1960's N.S.W. had to overcome teacher shortages by recruiting from overseas, by employing untrained or partly-trained teachers and by expanding enrolments in colleges. The swing has been rapidly towards a supply of qualified teachers who are available but whom the states have not the resources to employ. Some independent teachers' colleges in each
students is keen for the scarcer places.

institutions nowadays compete for students virtually on an open market basis.

country have similar problems. The Catholic Orders are experiencing difficulty in N.S.W. as they are in England in attracting sufficient numbers of teachers from the religious orders so that school staffs must be supplemented by lay teachers who are trained either in the Catholic teachers' colleges or in non-sectarian colleges and universities. The competition among tertiary institutions in both countries for students should encourage their concentration on quality in teacher preparation.

Sources
Hudson, 1976, p. 56.

Teachers have a responsibility to society and to individual children. They enjoy considerable professional freedom.

Society's expectations of teachers are changing to the extent that teachers are expected to be more concerned with the individual needs of children.

The professional freedom which is enjoyed by teachers in England assists in establishing relationships of trust both between teachers and inspectors, and teachers and employers (the L.E.A.'s).

The personal quality of teachers in N.S.W. is regarded as an important factor in meeting social expectations of teachers. A further contribution to the quality of teaching in schools arises from the teaching and research in universities and colleges of advanced education. Short (1967, pp. 26-27) is quite definite that "the teacher is the most vital component in the education system and on his scholarship, skills and understanding depends the effectiveness of schooling and ultimately the common values which shape our society."

Sources

Teaching can be called a profession in many aspects of its work. It performs a social service, it emphasises the

Teaching is a demanding and sophisticated occupation yet it does not enjoy a status comparable with that of other professions. Maclaine (1974, pp. 131-132)

N.S.W. teachers have been supervised closely in the past and some have difficulty in adapting to the trust and responsibility that is being placed upon them in the period of the 1970's.

At the time when pupil enrolments were increasing, youthful teachers received promotion, but the opportunities for promotion are declining with the
duties of the practitioner and it offers individual freedom. However, it differs from other professions in that it does not enjoy self government.

places it on the fringe of the real professions.

stabilising of enrolments, the change in age structure of the service and the risk of unemployment. A study which Campbell (1975) made of practising teachers showed that they were reasonably dedicated, more concerned with the satisfaction that they gained from promoting the development of pupils and from developing a deeper understanding of their subject matter, and interacting with people than with their own status.

Teachers in England have a high regard for their duties and they are consulted by others who share their interests.

A teacher can influence the society in which he works. His influence can be affected by the sharing of his particular expertise with others in the community (Gould, 1973, p. 57).

Sources
Campbell, 1975, p. 42.
Maclaine, 1974, pp. 131-132.
3.3 **Summary and Conclusions**

Factors of geography, history, politics, organisation, administration, teacher education curricula, economics and sociology have been related to descriptive educational material from each country. Each social science factor has been introduced descriptively in its context, selected educational data have been drawn from this context and general conclusions have been interpreted by relating the social science factor to the educational situation. Thus the examination of each factor was presented in a table of educational data and it proceeded to an interpretation of "why" an educational feature is as it is. During this descriptive and interpretive stage it has seemed clear that these social science factors are often related to each other.

Bereday's method suggests that the student of comparative education would present a description of pedagogical information followed by an interpretation phase to show an interrelation of education and society. He exemplifies this method in an observation of educational reform in France and Turkey (Bereday, 1964, pp. 37-42). In his evaluation of Bereday's method, Trethewey (1976, p. 75) suggests that the separation of description and interpretation is unrealistic. He contends that it is difficult to tell "... what depth of area study is necessary before useful comparative studies can be started ..." since the preliminary framework of description, interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison is so broad (Trethewey, 1976, p. 72). Jones (1971, p. 89) is in agreement with Trethewey. He suggests that a complete isolation of pedagogical facts is difficult
and so recapitulation between description and interpretation occurs. Jones (1971, p. 90) would find it more suitable to describe and interpret educational and other data concurrently even if conclusions and evaluations are left for a time. In the study of other subjects the same interdependence is seen to occur. In discussing the context of the historian's work, Carr (1962, pp. 7, 24) asserts that the element of interpretation enters into every fact and that there is a continuous process of integrating facts with interpretations. Descriptive material cannot be independent of its environment. Therefore, in Chapter 3, Bereday's example of the presentation of separate descriptive and interpretive phases was not adopted; instead, the chapter followed Jones' suggestion of describing and interpreting data concurrently.

Certain similarities and differences have emerged from the descriptive observations of two countries which, in fact, do have some similar historical traditions, overlapping cultural values and political systems, and there are broad similarities in their economic and social development. Perhaps as a result of these uniformities, both England and N.S.W. are developing international outlooks in their cultures and economy which transcend geographical barriers. Which factors have appeared to be the most important?

It is apparent that a major factor is the difference between levels of local involvement in administration of education in general and administration of teacher training and the teaching service in particular. In England there is a great deal of local (L.E.A. and school) control over education, appointment of teachers and the continuing education of the teacher. In N.S.W. most administrative
power and control is retained by the central authority in Sydney. In particular, appointments of teachers, allocation of teacher scholarships and hence some control over the location of preservice teacher training, are administrative powers difficult to compete with at local and regional levels. Historically, this divergence in the locus of administrative control can be traced to 1902 when Local Education Authorities were firmly established in England. There was no similar development in N.S.W., and, with the exception of an abortive attempt in the early 1970's by the Buggie administration to introduce School Councils with strong community representation, there has continued to be an emphasis in N.S.W. on the power vested in central Education Department administration. Indeed, it was in 1901 that Australia became a federation of states thus emphasising the belief in centralised political power at the national level, a situation which has been reflected in similar centralised political systems in the separate states.

For the purposes of this study attention will be focussed primarily on factors both directly and indirectly related to differences in administrative organisation of education between the two systems. At the same time it is recognised that other factors may well be of equal importance. However since the study is concerned with problems related to the transition from student to first appointment and since Chapter 3 indicated that these problems are deeply rooted in differences in administrative policies, practices and procedures between the two systems, it is decided that an appropriate point of focus for the study is the area of educational administration.

Chapter 4 (the Juxtaposition phase of the method) examines this factor in specific, analytical detail. In that chapter, factors drawn from
other social science areas that both complement and extend the understanding of administrative factors are also given detailed treatment. In addition, a deliberate attempt will be made in Chapter 4 to narrow the examination of data to areas focusing on teacher preparation, the transition from training to professional practice, and the induction needs of beginning teachers. It is anticipated that Chapter 4 will lead to the formulation of one or more tentative hypotheses related to the problem as stated in Chapter 1. It will then remain the task of this study to test those hypotheses in the comparison phase comprising the content of Chapter 5.
4.1 Introduction

Data have been gathered on teacher education in England and N.S.W. and they have been interpreted in the light of geographical, historical, political, administrative, organisational, curricular, economic and social factors in a way which is interdisciplinary rather than by separate analyses. Bereday's third step, juxtaposition, is the "... preliminary matching of data from different countries to prepare them for comparison" (Bereday, 1967, p. 171). Material from the interpretation stage supports the comparability of the two countries. The aim of the juxtaposition is to search for key features which establish similarities and differences (Jones, 1971, p. 90). Bereday (1964, p. 22) suggests that the juxtaposition procedure serves to generate statements of a number of guiding ideas on particular aspects of the problem under enquiry. Bereday (1967, p. 171) discusses alternative methods of presenting the juxtaposed material, (1) the tabular form in which the data appear side by side in columns, or (2) the textual form. During the process of ordering the information the elements which appear persistently are identified (Bereday, 1967, p. 172) and they form a framework for the fourth stage, the comparison (Bereday, 1964, p. 27). While he is juxtaposing his material the student is seeking one or more unifying concepts or hypotheses and the phase is completed with the statement of hypotheses for testing in the comparative phase (Trethewey, 1976, pp. 73–74). Bereday intended that hypotheses should arise from data which had been juxtaposed although he recognised the need to establish a general theme for the study at
the outset (Trethewey, 1976, p. 77). The hypothesis states the purpose for which the comparison is to be made (Bereday, 1964, p. 42).

The juxtaposition of data for this study will be presented in Bereday's textual form. Juxtaposed data will be grouped into (1) areas which indicate similarities in the two countries, (2) areas in which there is ambiguity or uncertainty as to the degree of similarity or difference and, (3) areas which indicate differences. The juxtaposition concentrates on the search for significant similarities and differences which have common socio-cultural and economic bases for comparison.

Similarities in England and N.S.W. are expected to become evident by considering:

1. efforts that have been made at removing or attempting to reduce role and status distinctions between students training for primary and secondary teaching,
2. the methods and training strategies in teacher education courses,
3. organisation of practice teaching,
4. assessment of practice teaching,
5. single-vocational or multi-vocational institutions,
6. the range of available concurrent and consecutive programme styles,
7. the particular environment of teacher education institutions,
8. the extent of transferability between courses, and
9. the one-year postgraduate teacher education courses.

Areas in which similarities and differences are expected to be indeterminate include:
1. variations in duration of teacher education courses leading to degrees,
2. the place of the internship in teacher education courses,
3. proposed innovative models of teacher education courses,
4. the reorganisation of tertiary education, and
5. the balance between professional and political interests in the administration of teacher education.

Areas in which differences are expected to become evident are:

1. the methods of selection of students for teacher education,
2. the provisions for financial assistance to students,
3. the appointment and placement of new teachers in state schools, and
4. the ways transition into the first year of teaching is facilitated.

It will be contended that both countries have similar problems in relation to teacher preparation and role transition and that these problems clearly relate to key transitional stages at various points in the progression to full time service. Also, whilst the problems are evident in both areas of similarities and differences between the two systems it will be contended that the problems find a clearer focus in the area of differences:

1. because of the different approaches adopted in each system to solve these problems, and
2. because of the striking differences in the locus of administrative control over the preparation and induction into service of the teacher.
4.2 Similarities

**Introduction:** It is clear that similarities in teacher education in England and N.S.W. stem from the historical and cultural linkages between the two countries. To some extent and despite reorientations in Australian cultural life in the Twentieth Century many of the similarities have persisted to the present time. For example, different emphases in methods of training and educating primary and secondary school teachers traditionally created sharp divisions in status and role expectation between these groups as much in N.S.W. as in England. It will not be surprising, therefore, to discover quite marked similarities in the two countries in respect of current policies and practices in the training and education of the teacher. This section, then, identifies and juxtaposes selected similarities.

4.21 Movement Towards an All-Graduate Teaching Profession

The general trend in New South Wales and England until the 1950's was to use teachers colleges as the training base for primary teachers and universities as the training base for secondary teachers. In both systems this division has become quite blurred during the period of the 1960's and 1970's; that is to say, it is possible nowadays to undertake either primary or secondary teacher preparation courses either in tertiary colleges or universities.

**England:** The English pattern of teacher preparation has changed gradually with the introduction of the B.Ed. degree for primary or secondary teaching and the establishment of close links between colleges and university institutes of education. Tibble (1971b, p. 5) suggests
that the dividends which have ensued from these links are (1) the availability of both graduate and post-graduate courses in many colleges, and (2) the involvement of universities in both primary and secondary teacher preparation. The O.E.C.D. Report on the Training of Teachers (1971, p. 393) found that primary trainees need similar opportunities to specialise in their courses as do secondary trainees.

The achievement of an all-graduate profession was the ultimate aim of the James Report (1972a). This aim was affirmed by the D.E.S. White Paper (1972b, p. 16) and was welcomed by the N.U.T. (1973, p. 4). In 1975 the percentage of graduate teachers in England and Wales was 24 (D.E.S., 1977, p. 25). The question arises, will an all-graduate profession, as the James Report envisaged, eliminate the role and status distinctions between primary and secondary teachers? Brown (1973, p. 62) argues that if the James scheme were adopted it would reintroduce divisiveness since it would be clear that there were two types of degrees (Parry, 1972, p. 89), the Dip.H.E. followed by the second cycle for which the Council for National Academic Awards would award a degree, or a three year university degree followed by this cycle. Although the Dip.H.E. is in operation, the D.E.S. was not prepared to adopt the two cycles with their different routes to teacher qualification. The compromise chosen was to grant credit towards the B.Ed. from a completed diploma. Parry (1972, p. 33) commends the idea of an opportunity for all teachers to have four years of preservice education.
N.S.W.: The Martin Committee (A.U.C., 1964, p. 124) warned that any development in training for teachers which separated them into different categories would be a disadvantage to the profession.

Short (1967, p. 29) explains that the rapid expansion in education after World War II blurred the difference between primary and secondary teachers when colleges were called upon to provide for non-graduate secondary teachers (see Chapter 3, p. 55). Whether this was a retrograde step it was essential at the time and these secondary courses have continued. de Lacey (1974, p. 135) claims that "if ever there was any reasonable basis for this difference there is none now ... " and the training of pre-school and primary teachers ought to be as thorough and complex as for high school teachers. Preservice preparation, Evans (1973, p. 49) proposes, should have the same general form for all teachers although the content will differ for different needs.

Short (1967, p. 31) predicted that the first step towards the achievement of degree courses for all teachers was to extend college courses in duration and depth to become equivalent to the university degree and Diploma in Education (Dip.Ed.). This extension is developing, for example in N.S.W. at Mitchell C.A.E. (see Appendix 5), although the college degrees initially have been considered to be inferior in status to university degrees (Short, 1967). The proportion of N.S.W. teachers having graduate qualification closely approximates that in England. Campbell's survey (1975, p. 10) shows that in 1972, 34.3 per cent of N.S.W. teachers had completed four years of preservice preparation while 30.2 per cent of teachers had gained a first degree subsequent to their initial training. The N.S.W. Board of Teacher
Education (1975, pp. 1-2) maintains that since the time taken by the student to reach the required maturity as a professional person is not related to the kind of teaching undertaken, a similar quality of training is required to prepare teachers for teaching of all pupils, that is, infants, primary and secondary. At the same time all teachers should be given an opportunity to acquire a degree.

In summary: there are indications in both systems of a trend towards unification of the teaching profession by allowing both colleges and universities to provide for the professional and academic development of primary and secondary teachers.

4.22 Methods and Training Strategies in Teacher Education

As indicated in Chapter 3 (pp. 75-76) steps towards reform in teacher education have been taken in both England and N.S.W. A review of the current changes, some implemented, some under consideration, in the methods and training strategies of teacher education courses in both systems, will indicate the nature of these similarities more precisely.

England: Chapter 3 (pp. 74-75) summarised the shortcomings in teacher education (Burgess, 1971; Gr. Brit., 1972a). What recent improvements can be claimed for English teacher education? According to Eggleston (1974, p. 88), teacher education institutions have responded to changing situations in schools by recognising the need for and attempting to develop working partnerships with schools. The result appears to be an acceptance of the joint responsibility of schools and institutions for the practitioner needs of student teaching (Turney,
1977, p. 33). Sometimes this sharing includes appointing a teacher both as a practice teaching supervisor and a tutor in the college or university. Such efforts at integrating the theoretical and practical aspects are expected to bring about improvements in teacher education (O.E.C.D., 1971, p. 39). To further ensure these improvements, the O.E.C.D. Report (1971, p. 38) recommends that students should be introduced to the school environment as early in their course as possible, though not at first to teach. In support of these developments, it appears that integrated studies in school curricula have given an impetus to the integration of courses in teacher education, notably in Lancaster University and in three of its associated colleges (Eggleston, 1974, p. 90). Lewis (1975, p. 39) contends, however, that the freedom to organise adequate school experience requires that lecturers be freed from parallel college commitments, and the way to do this would be to separate the students' academic education from their professional preparation, although not necessarily in the way that James recommended. An important point which Webster (1975, p. 144) emphasises is that "theory should ... arise from practice ..." although there is a definite place for the "... study of theoretical principles if students are to become reflective, autonomous teachers" (Renshaw, 1973, p. 229).

Changes have occurred in the relationships between colleges and schools conducting programmes for the education of teachers. The demonstration school concept originated in Britain with the aim of demonstrating selected formal steps in teaching which were followed by student discussion of the theory of teaching. The link between a college and a single demonstration school was thought to produce artificiality and this practice has been discontinued in England in
favour of forming co-operative links between institutions and a range of schools (Turney, 1977, pp. 280-284). If colleges and schools are involved in the development of teachers the relationships between them need to be sympathetic, co-operative and mutually critical (Meighan and Chambers, 1971, p. 173). The interaction is extending to the use of college facilities by schools to break down the former theory-practice dichotomy (Maden, 1971, p. 45).

Some tertiary institutions take a further step in the co-operation with practising teachers by appointing a teacher-tutor who is available to take some part in the institution's theoretical course (Pattison, 1975, p. 243). This practice apparently is becoming more widespread. Evans (1971, pp. 105-106) sees one of the teacher-tutor's functions as the co-ordination of practice teaching. This would allow the tutor to get to know his group of students, enable him to act as an important link between the school and college and encourage him to assist with the planning of teacher education courses in the college.

A special innovation which has developed significantly in the United States as a response to the call for teacher accountability is Competency Based Teacher Education. This is an approach which analyses "... the complex act of teaching into specific behavioural components" which are assessed objectively (Turney, 1977, pp. 16-17). C.B.T.E. has only been marginally accepted in English teacher education. Simon (1976, p. 24), for example, remarks on its resemblance to the Nineteenth Century system, now discredited, of payment by results. Taylor (1975, p. 4) advises that the question of accountability is one which should not be pressed too far. Teacher educators who accept
the principle of accountability, as it is apparently defined in certain sectors of American teacher education, would come under constraints which would have been unnecessary had the element of trust prevailed.

Individualised instruction has a place in any level of education including teacher education. It is a component of C.B.T.E. but it can be adopted independently of C.B.T.E. Small group instruction is used to some extent in most teacher education courses and is a strategy generally preferred by students (Turney, 1977, p. 54).

Microteaching can facilitate the development of specific teaching skills for C.B.T.E. but its introduction has been more widespread than C.B.T.E. It consists of scaled-down teaching in terms of class size, time, task and skill (Turney, 1977, p. 59). Microteaching has been found to be efficient during the initial stages of learning to teach and it can be used as an adequate substitute for part of the school practice. Students gain feedback under controlled conditions and they receive guidance and support from their supervisors and their peers each time they teach (Brown, 1975, p. 78). The students can appraise their own performances and they are freed from the responsibilities of a whole class situation in the early stages. Microteaching is mentioned as being part of the teacher education course work at a number of universities in Britain (Eggleston, 1974, p. 99).
N.S.W.: That teaching methods are learned more successfully when there is a link between theory and practice is a principle generally supported by teacher educators in N.S.W. This could be achieved where a theoretical basis is provided and practical applications follow promptly (Lloyd, 1976, p. 166) or where a guided programme of child study or work with a group of children precedes the study of the contributing disciplines to education (Hughes, 1972, pp. 39-40). It is important that those who are concerned with teacher education - theorists, method specialists and supervisors of practical teaching - share the same view of the practices and problems in schools (Husen, 1974, p. 135). Bassett (1976, p. 31) would agree with Husen as he refers to the difficulty in achieving coherence within college-based courses. The staff become specialists in separate departments causing fragmentation of a course as it is experienced by the student.

An integration of courses occurs when academic subjects are studied within a professional frame of reference which would include aspects of teaching and learning the subject (Turney, 1977, p. 11). Francis (1973, pp. 24-25) maintains that integration is more than a summation of discrete bodies of knowledge and more than "History I, II, III plus History of Education plus Methods of Teaching History" given by the same tutor. It is a communication of ideas among all those who instruct the learner-teacher, cutting across all subject boundaries (Francis, 1973, p. 31).

The potential of school-based teacher education has begun to be realised especially in the aspect of "school and [tertiary] institution co-operation in improving both teacher education and the education of children" (Turney, 1977, p. 136). As well as becoming
involved co-operatively in practice teaching, the schools need to take some of the initiative for assessment and consequent renewal of their classroom practices (Crane, 1973, p. 20). Apparently, all those who are involved benefit, college staff receive a greater challenge, students see more relevance and teachers become more aware of their own and students' professional needs (Turney, 1977, p. 143). Complementary to school co-operation is the possibility of joint appointments such as Macquarie University's master teachers and the English teacher-tutors. Pettit (1975, p. 57) recommends a school-based teacher education programme which begins in the first year and involves a lecturer with his group for three days a week in the school.

The traditional link between college and school has been the demonstration school but its special function has declined in N.S.W. as it has in England. Notably, the N.S.W. Department of Education withdrew funding for such schools in 1974. Other factors have contributed to the decline of the demonstration school, particularly the growing recognition that it presents an artificial situation to students and that students benefit more from experience of a wider range of school settings (Turney, 1977, p. 285). The custom of visits by students to one co-operating demonstration school has been replaced by continuous weekly school experience programmes which begin in first year and incorporate the observation of lessons and student teaching usually at a number of nearby schools. As an example of this type of change, Turney (1977, pp. 377-83) describes the organisation of Armidale Public School (formerly Demonstration School) in a way in which maximum opportunity is provided for students to observe children in teaching situations which are as natural as possible.
Laboratory schools flourished in the U.S. on campuses or near colleges until the 1950's, with the purposes of experimentation into curriculum studies and the provision of observation for student teachers (Turney, 1977, pp. 280-81). They have held a less important place in other countries but Husen (1974, p. 128) contends that each teacher training institution ought to have a laboratory school to serve two purposes, as an experimental setting where new methods of teaching and aids are tested, and to give students the opportunity to observe children systematically. At least one institution in Australia, Salisbury C.A.E., South Australia, has an on-campus laboratory secondary school and an off-campus laboratory primary school which provide facilities for student observations, investigations of teaching, microteaching and remedial practice teaching. Features of the scheme are the use of cross-institutional staff appointments, lecturers as teachers and teachers as tutors (Turney, 1977, p. 136).

Several teacher education institutions in N.S.W. have modified their practice teaching arrangements for various reasons, often in an attempt to compensate for a shortage of school practice locations. The programme at Newcastle C.A.E., for example, comprises four experiences which are undertaken by student groups in rotation, (1) teaching skills theory, the treatment of particular skills in the college, (2) micro-practice, videotaped at specially prepared schools, (3) theory and feedback at college from the micro-practice and preparation for the class lesson, and (4) macro-practice, teaching a planned lesson to a full class. The staff involved includes curriculum specialists, education specialists, two teachers in the microteaching unit and nine teachers who co-operate with macroteaching. The in-school experience is undertaken concurrently with an educational psychology
course in an attempt to integrate theory with practice. At the end of each semester the students are expected to have developed a number of competencies (Turney, 1977, pp. 357-58). Milperra C.A.E. has a similar In-School Experience Programme which develops in students the basic skills of teaching through controlled practice, observation and evaluation during a three year course (Turney, 1977, p. 140).

The University of Sydney is developing a special co-operating relationship with North Sydney Public School. The functions are expected to include special in-school experience, observations, microteaching, counselling for students with problems in teaching, co-operative curriculum development, and in-service education for teachers from a range of schools (Turney, 1977, p. 137). It is envisaged that fourth year B.Ed. primary students will spend three days a week in the school and this should ease them into the full professional role (Turney, 1977, pp. 389-90).

Examples of competency-based teacher education have been set in North America. Some activity in this area is developing in N.S.W. (Turney, 1977, p. 152). The C.B.T.E. programme which is planned by Macquarie University, for example, has a series of individualised learning modules designed to bring about behavioural changes in the trainee teacher (Turney, 1977, pp. 164-65). Microteaching is undertaken in many college and university courses in N.S.W. as it is valuable in leading to a clearer specification of basic teaching behaviours when it precedes a session of practice teaching (Turney, 1977, p. 142). Turney led a team which developed a series of video films and books called Sydney Micro Skills which are used by lecturers and students in many Australian programmes (Turney, 1977, p. 132).
The issue of accountability in teacher education programmes has not been raised to the extent that it has in North America although it arouses discussion in a negative sense. When a student teacher or a new teacher is not performing effectively, the teacher institution tends to be held accountable, the State Department tends to be held responsible if it has not provided a suitable environment for the trainee to practise in, or the new teacher may hold the school accountable for failing to support him in his period of professional role transition. Perhaps if it were to be viewed more positively, accountability could be regarded as a shared responsibility for the improvement of teacher education (Cavanagh, 1977, p. 260).

In summary: recent developments in teacher education in N.S.W. follow a similar pattern to those in England. In both systems special emphasis has been given to attempts at integrating theory and practice, to facilitating co-operation between teacher education institutions and schools, and to mounting special innovations programmes.

4.23 Practice Teaching

Practice teaching is recognised by students, teachers and teacher educators as an important part of teacher education but there is dissatisfaction with its existing organisation (see Chapter 3, p. 75). The need for a close relationship between teacher education institution and school is essential for effective practical experiences of students. The body of professional experiences that includes practice teaching is termed the practicum which is defined by Turney (1977, p. 32) as "... those experiences during which a student applies, tests and
reconstructs the theory which is evolving, and during which he further develops his own competence as a teacher." The practicum may include field experiences, block teaching practice, continuous teaching practice, skills acquisition and internship. The practice teaching component in N.S.W. teacher education generally follows the English tradition. Indeed, its development to the present time has been almost identical with that in England.

**England:** At the time of its report the Plowden Committee (Gr. Brit., 1967, p. 348) stated that the purpose of practice teaching was to enliven theoretical studies in child development and to provide sources from which theory could be derived. The arrangement was a block period of several weeks each year, with a lengthening duration in the final year. Colleges were expected to keep the needs of schools in mind when they planned practice teaching since it was recognised that students contribute to schools but they also make demands on them (Gr. Brit., 1967, pp. 349-50). It has become clear that a serious shortcoming is that school staffs do not understand what a college expects of them and they know nothing of the theoretical content of students' courses (Cope, 1971, p. 23). Hirst (1976, p. 19) supports the Plowden Committee's comment by indicating that work with pupils which may be in the best interests of training students may conflict with work that may be in the best interests of the education of pupils. Co-operative planning, therefore, is important.

The attitude of teachers in schools to student practice has been poor. For their part, while they value teaching practice as a learning experience, students see it as a separate compartment of activity where the prime objective for them is "... to survive the rigours of work on
"a day-to-day basis" and that while the whole course in a college "... is in itself seen as an initial and encapsulated pre-employment experience, the real skills of teaching are to be learnt 'on the job' " (Logan, 1971, p. 29).

The types of practicum which are undertaken in England are block practice, continuous teaching, skills acquisition, group practice, combinations of these and a few small-scale experiments. The advantages of the block practice are that it enables students (1) to work under conditions which approximate those of full-time teaching, (2) to get to know children, staff and the school, (3) to gain confidence, and (4) to correct mistakes once they have been identified (Tibbie, 1971a, p. 105). Tibbie likens the block practice to the better aspects of the apprenticeship association which was embodied in the pupil-teacher system for the learning of practical skills. He adds that this value pertains when the apprentice master is the teacher who is in daily contact with the student (Tibbie, 1971a, p. 105). The simplest deficiency to modify in block practice has been that the pressure of expanding student numbers in the 1960's became greater than the schools could handle so that alternatives had to be sought (Webber, 1974, p. 3). A fault which Webster (1975, p. 149) finds is that block teaching hinders the linking of theory to practice. Ideally, he says, students should be in and out of schools as often as practicable. Continuous practice allows students to spend from one half to two days a week in the same school with regular and progressively involved teaching tasks. If students, teachers and college lecturers work co-operatively on the tasks, theory and practice are related (Tibbie, 1971a, p. 108). Cope (1973, pp. 251-52) believes that differentiated forms of practical experience should be available with short, concentrated periods of
practice during the middle stages of the course followed by lengthier periods to simulate the teacher's role.

Group practice is used sometimes in the day attachment schemes where students in pairs or small groups work in team situations, often including microteaching, to replace the one-student, one-teacher, whole class practice (Cope, 1973, p. 245). Stones (1976, pp. 70-74) sees a need for the practising of specific teaching skills with small groups of children. The students who work together give each other feedback. Such a teaching skills approach could be planned to operate in combination with block practice and theoretical work during the total course.

A key to the revitalisation of practice teaching is the involvement of teachers who can offer practical help, while the lecturers can offer a theoretical understanding (Hirst, 1976, pp. 19-20). It is possible for a school to become the dominant partner in a school experience programme such as in the P.G.C.E. course at Sussex University (see Appendix 4). In this instance, the student is attached to the school under the guidance of a teacher-tutor for his whole course (Eggleston, 1974, p. 98). Lewis (1975, pp. 40-41) summarises the conditions which allow the professional preparation of teachers to take on new meanings. These are the provision of a supportive context in which such learning can take place, the encouragement of school-college co-operation, and letting practice follow theoretical learning.

Reforms in practice teaching can stimulate wider reforms in teacher education courses and many tertiary institutions have changed their approach to the practicum. The objectives of the practice need
to be discussed by staff from the tertiary institution, the head teacher and the teachers who will be concerned so that there is a clear understanding of tasks and purposes of all parties. Hence the students should have orientation visits to meet the staff and pupils (Evans, 1971, p. 104).

**N.S.W.**: It was noted in Chapter 3 (p. 75) that practice teaching is a valued aspect of any course of teacher preparation but that its organisation is generally unsatisfactory. The students who were surveyed by the Bell Committee (N.S.W., 1971, pp. 70-71) agreed that practice teaching had been beneficial and meaningful to them while some Dip.Ed. students claimed that it was the only period in which they learned anything useful at all. This examination of N.S.W. practice teaching will refer to its shortcomings, the types of practice which operate including the different developments occurring within the Australian setting.

The Bell Committee (N.S.W., 1971, p. 52) found that practice teaching lacked co-ordination between the institutions involved. The students perceived the attitudes of teachers in co-operating schools to be helpful in matters relating to subject content but less helpful on personal matters and teaching methods (N.S.W., 1971, p. 70). Turney (1977, pp. 138-39) enumerates other points of criticism, some of these are: (1) lecturers who supervise practice are unhelpful, (2) class teachers regard students as intruders and time-wasters, and (3) practice seems to the students to be threatening, divorced from the college course, artificial, and dominated by the competitively sought teaching mark.
The traditional practice teaching component has been of block periods of about three weeks' duration twice a year. Universities and colleges, however, have supplemented this in recent years with other forms of field experience. This development is in response to empirical data obtained during the last ten years. For example, students whose main experience had been of block practice separated by lengthy periods on the campus wished they had experienced more frequent contact with school situations (N.S.W., 1971, p. 70). When block practice occurs too early in a course the teachers are dissatisfied because the students are too inexperienced and inadequately prepared to face a whole class situation for an extended period (Turney, 1977, p. 196). When students are more experienced, a teaching block does not necessarily ensure that they will perform as class teachers or have continuity with the same class (Evans, 1974, p. 7). Continuous teaching practice is characterised by its concurrence with theoretical aspects of the course, it is planned co-operatively by college staff and teachers in the schools where it is undertaken, and all are involved together in teaching children (Turney, 1977, p. 143). This method of teaching experience eases the students into the teaching situation by having them work with individual children, then with small groups where constant feedback is possible. Students who had experienced short but frequent periods of practice teaching pointed to their inability to develop a theme with a class (N.S.W., 1971, p. 70) while rapport is not so easily developed and the weekly lessons remain disjointed (Turney, 1977, p. 198).

An example of a teaching skills development programme at the Alexander Mackie College is reported by Turney (1977, pp. 194-95). The programme begins with a theoretical study of teaching, microteaching
for the practice of the basic skills, followed by practice teaching. The University of Sydney's micro skills development programme provides instruction in what are perceived as the most important basic skills of teaching (Turney, 1977, pp. 206-207). It seems that in N.S.W. as in England, a combination of regular continuous involvement and block practice is seen as most desirable. Students who have had a fairly long period of continuous practice prefer to round this off with a block practice, while a microteaching cycle appears to have less impact after practice teaching (Turney, 1977, pp. 197, 194). It is noted that because of the much greater size of the geographical area of N.S.W., combined with a diversity of communities (e.g., inner city to remote rural), a responsibility is placed on teacher education institutions to give some of their students a range of experiences in geographically and socioeconomically different practice situations. See also, (1) Chapter 3, pp. 46-47, and (2) Appendix 5 for case study examples.

An approximation to the English teacher-tutor is the position of Master Teacher in Macquarie University's programme (Appendix 5). The student is assigned to a master teacher whom he observed during continuous interaction in school. They meet together for post-lesson discussions and for seminars on teaching, following this activity.

Effective practice teaching does not stand isolated from the teacher education programme; it must be well organised and students must be well prepared for it. The graduated practical experiences need to be articulated with the professional programme in which the college and school share a commitment to teacher education (Turney, 1977, p. 38). In order to integrate theory with practice the practice teaching must
blend into the total programme as far as the institutional organisations will permit (Elvin, 1974, p. 12). At Wollongong University, for example, students are prepared by field experience in the school in which they undertake practice teaching (Appendix 5).

In summary: practice teaching in N.S.W. is similar to that in England by tradition and in its new developments. Similarities exist in the current patterns of practice teaching, the stated reasons for changes, the emphasis on school-based activities and the relationships with co-operating teachers. There are separate provisions in some N.S.W. institutions allowing students to practise in varying locations. The next section will examine the assessment of practice teaching.

4.24 Assessment of Practice Teaching

Three methods of practice teaching assessment are currently in use both in England and N.S.W. The first method, developed in England and adopted in N.S.W., is one in which lecturers take full responsibility for practice teaching assessment. The second has two varieties, firstly experienced teachers supervise practice teaching and also assist lecturers in making assessments, secondly experienced teachers both supervise and assess practice teaching but collaborate with lecturers who play an overall co-ordinating and consultancy role. As a third distinct method, experienced, qualified teachers are effectively appointed as temporary staff members of the training institution for the purposes of practice teaching supervision, associated field experiences, and occasionally for instruction in teaching methods. Each of these three methods of assessment is considered in relation to the two systems of education. It is noted that a great deal of
criticism has been levelled at the organisation and evaluation of practical experience in general (Tibble, 1971a, pp. 100-110; Cope, 1973, pp. 243-61; Turney, 1977, pp. 34-35). Thus, whilst the issue of practice teaching is not central to the thesis, deficiencies in the assessment of practice teaching may have some bearing on the transition from student to full time teacher.

England: The Plowden Report (Gr. Brit., 1967, p. 348) indicates that traditionally, lecturers have been responsible for the supervision of students on a schedule which covers several schools. The lecturer spends much of his time travelling between schools and he has continuing commitments to other courses on campus. As a result, he is restricted to about two short visits to his students each week (Tibble, 1971a, p. 102). Stones and Morris (1972, pp.110-18) surveyed the methods used by colleges of education and universities for the assessment of practice teaching and found that there were considerable differences throughout England. The majority of institutions rate the practice in an impressionistic way on a five-point scale. A rating profile on a number of criteria is used less commonly. Little feedback is given to students apart from comments on individual lessons. The supervisors in most institutions award a teaching mark but little attention is given to what the children actually learn. The authors concluded that great diversity appeared, particularly in the criteria for assessment, which would show that different colleges were awarding their certificates for different student behaviours. What are the difficulties of assessment by lecturers from the tertiary institutions? The organisation of block practice may require lecturers to supervise students in school situations which they have not themselves experienced. "They lack the
expertise to give the necessary advice and guidance to both school staff and students" (Cope, 1973, p. 248). The lecturer could be unfamiliar with the schools so that liaison and understanding are difficult to establish (Cope, 1973, p. 249). When they able to give so little help, the supervisors' function cannot be supportive, it becomes simply that of an assessor and it is resented by teachers who "... collaborate with their students in giving a good impression ..." during the supervisors' visits (Webber, 1974, p. 4).

The person whom Tibble (1971a, p. 102) considers is better able to help the student is the teacher who is on the spot while the students are developing their practical skills, who has the specific knowledge of the situation and who is responsible for the children who are being taught. Evans (1971, p. 102) commends an increasing involvement of teachers in the assessment of practice teaching in England and often this work is done by designated teacher-tutors. In some institutions teachers are paid an allowance for the tasks of student guidance and supervision (Tibble, 1971a, p. 106). The N.U.T. (1972, p. 11) welcomes the acceptance by tertiary institutions of the advisory role of teachers but it affirms that responsibility for assessment should remain with the staffs of colleges and universities. Cope (1973, p. 261) adds that if this were otherwise the theory work would become divorced from practical concepts of teaching. Webster (1975, p. 146) makes the following points about differences in attitudes of lecturers and teachers in relation to assessment of practice teaching: the lecturer is assessing performance, the success or failure of a lesson, but the teacher is concerned with the success or failure of pupils. The teacher will measure progress over weeks or months rather than in single lesson periods. On the other hand, if the contributions of the lecturer
and teacher are complementary the joint supervision of student practice is recommended by Tibble (1971a, p. 108). The supervisory teachers can contribute further if they are members of the planning team for practice teaching (Sutton, 1975, p. 346). Cope (1973, p. 252) explains the benefit of a differentiated supervision of practice. The teacher supervised aspects are fixed on practicalities and they assist the student in assimilating the teaching skills and professional mores while the lecturer-supervised aspect has the potential to diagnose, build on previous experiences and encourage innovatory drive. The evaluation of students' teaching is important in assisting their learning and the benefit of feedback is recognised at the present time. The effectiveness of feedback should not be constrained by an assessment rating (Turney, 1977, p. 51). In a supervised teaching situation neither the class teacher nor the supervisor can see what really goes on between the student teacher and the pupils because the relationship between them will be changed by the presence of another person (Caspari and Eggleston, 1965, p. 43).

An alternative form of supervision which has been tried in some English colleges derives from the training of social workers and is characterised by detachment. The supervisor does not watch the lessons but a detailed discussion takes place between him and the student during which he helps the student to make a self-assessment (Tibble, 1971a, p. 106).

It seems clear that in England, in general, the supervision of practice teaching is tending to become a co-operative undertaking between the school, the training institution and the student teacher.*

*A further point of difference as far as practice teaching is concerned is the use of external examiners in England.
N.S.W.: The efficiency and effectiveness of practice teaching assessment have to be questioned and examined thoroughly by colleges and universities in N.S.W. Each teacher education institution is autonomous and must bear the substantial cost of supervision fees, transport and other organisational expenses. At the present time, it is generally true that institutions are reviewing their objectives and examining the extent to which they are being achieved. Methods of assessment in N.S.W. can be shown clearly by three examples in which the models of English methods are apparent, but as Stones and Morris found diversity in England, so there is a considerable degree of diversity in methods used in N.S.W.

The first two examples are of the two teacher education institutions in the city of Wollongong, N.S.W. Together with the third example, they illustrate the diversity in methods of practice teaching assessment evident in the remainder of the state. Wollongong Institute of Education relies on its lecturers to supervise while Wollongong University uses teachers in the co-operating schools. The W.I.E. teacher education course is outlined in Appendix 5. First year students are introduced to teaching during the "Basic Processes of Teaching" course which includes lesson planning, teaching strategies, microteaching and field observation. Their first practice comes at the beginning of Term 2 in the first year and they are assessed by means of a profile of skills that they have learned during the Basic Processes of Teaching course. (A sample of the evaluation sheet is given in Appendix 7.) This report gives the student some feedback. The second practice for first year students is timed for the beginning of Term 3 and the supervisors write a general report in which they bear in mind suggested guidelines on the achievement of progress in certain skills. (Report form, Appendix 8.) A number of lecturers
have commented personally to this writer that they prefer to make a written report although they agree that its feedback to the student may not be as clear as the profile. A revised report (1978) combines remarks on specific skill performances and a general statement (see Appendix 9). The Institute continues to issue general reports to second, third and fourth year primary and secondary trainees. (Examples in Appendix 10.) No grades are given for practices, the student is either assessed as satisfactory or if it is decided that further practice teaching is needed before a satisfactory assessment can be made, this is arranged. The function of the co-operating teacher is generally to give practical guidance to the student and an appraisal to the supervisor who includes the teacher's evaluation in his report.

The University of Wollongong places the responsibility for the assessment of its students' practice teaching upon the co-operating teachers, as is mentioned in Appendix 5, thus avoiding the problems associated with lecturer-supervision. The principal, with the aid of his subject masters in a high school is asked to select teachers who are to be supervisors, and the university approves the selection, while a senior teacher is appointed by the principal as co-ordinator of practice teaching. In 1978 the supervisors met their students on the five full field experience days prior to the practice and they began to plan their programme together. The supervisory teachers wrote the students' reports. Gradings in practice teaching are "satisfactory"; "needs additional practice"; or "fail". The guidelines to supervisors for assessment have not been devised especially for student practice, they are derived from the criteria that a secondary school principal may use for the assessment of his probationary teachers.
The university lecturers make occasional visits to the schools and they would be consulted if a student were experiencing serious difficulties. They believe that the teacher who has had a close association with the student during his introduction to the practice is more able to assess his performance than lecturers who make brief visits to students in schools. Joint meetings for university staff and co-operating teachers are held before and after practices.

The in-school experience programme at Newcastle College was referred to in Section 4.22 (p. 106) and the assessment of students' teaching work in this programme is considered to be an innovative type of assessment which will be presented as the third example. Teachers in the selected schools have volunteered to act as supervisors. For the microteaching component the teacher supervises the micro lesson, gives general comments and rates his students on a five-point scale according to a guide booklet in an immediate feedback discussion session. In the macroteaching component the students are required to teach a lesson in each of five curriculum areas during a semester, applying the skills practised in microteaching.

The supervisor rates students on six dimensions and he comments on the students' general teaching behaviour, while the group members are expected to undertake an evaluation of their peer. Pupil performance is being used as a criterion for teacher effectiveness to compare this form of continuous practice with block practice. It is recognised that the teachers need to have a common frame of reference to provide accurate, consistent feedback to students and their guide book is designed to give them an understanding of the skills and procedures advocated by the college.
The Cohen Report on Teacher Education (A.C.A.E., 1973, p. 43) recognises the joint responsibilities of colleges and schools for supervision and guidance during the practice teaching and the importance of teacher education students having frequent contacts with the realities of classrooms, schools and the community. The Committee sees the value of colleges enlisting the support of schools for effective practice supervision and it acknowledges the responsibility of colleges for meeting the costs of such co-operative arrangements.

In Summary: As in England, teachers in N.S.W. are playing an increasingly important role in practice teaching supervision and evaluation. The trend seems to be towards a greater involvement of practising teachers.

4.25 Single-Vocational or Multi-Vocational Institutions

It is appropriate to proceed from a review of the content of teacher education programmes, practice teaching and its assessment to an examination of the similarities in institutional aspects in England and N.S.W. The institutional organisation of teacher education in both systems is undergoing change at the present time. Three aspects of organisational change seem to be significant. First, the location of teacher education in universities has been questioned. Is the university the appropriate place within which to train the teacher is one question that has been raised in both systems. Second, colleges have been established solely for the purpose of training teachers, however the tendency in both systems is to keep the number of these colleges at a minimum. Third, teacher education is being located in an increasing number of newly created multidisciplinary colleges.
England: Historically, teacher education was located in universities and in isolated training colleges until the 1960's according to a pattern which was designed when the views about the nature of teaching were different from those at present. Reference was made in Chapter 3 (p. 55) to the linking of colleges with universities which occurred following the McNair Report. Further progress came at the time of the Robbins Report in reducing the diverse nature of teacher education in the different institutions.

The D.E.S. White Paper (1972b) forecast a change in the situation on political, economic and demographic grounds so that the trend in England, as mentioned in Chapter 3 (p. 72) is towards the consolidation of teacher education in colleges which are tending to become multi-disciplinary, bringing swiftly to an end the single-purpose colleges (Light, 1976, p. 150).

The disadvantages in single vocational teachers' colleges are that students have no opportunity to mix with others who are preparing for different vocations and that the staff is isolated from contact with other academic environments (Burgess, 1971, p. 155). The more flexible administration in polytechnics would be an advantage to teacher education (Burgess, 1971, p. 167) as well as the availability of a course which
had a common first year with other disciplines to allow students
the chance to defer their career choice (Tibble, 1971b, p. 3). The
numbers of single-disciplinary colleges of education are declining.
In Turner's view (1976) however, such colleges have made an
undeniable contribution to educational standards in schools.
According to Turner (1976, p. 40), "it will be difficult to retain
this benefit in a very large institution which is only marginally
concerned with teacher education."

If the benefits of multi-vocational institutions are to be
realised, Renshaw (1973, p. 220) claims that these institutions should
organise modular courses within a flexible curriculum and offer a choice
of concurrent or consecutive programmes with a range of options. The
location of teacher education is in a state of change in England and it
may be too early to make reliable assessment of the benefits of multi-
vocational institutions.

N.S.W.: The institutional location of teacher education in N.S.W. is
a subject of continual debate. The views of selected educators on
the advantages and disadvantages of the different types of institutions
will be presented.

Generally speaking, opinion favours the desirability of linking
the education of future teachers with other forms of tertiary education
(Evans, 1973, p. 49). Bassett (1976, p. 30) argues that the influence
of students and staff who are engaged in non-teaching courses on
teacher education students is advantageous in that it broadens their
social perspective and helps them to meet the criticism that teachers
in a sense "never leave school". Economic advantages of a diversified
institution are that the desirable size can be maintained and that staff can be redeployed if the need for certain courses falls.

The Senate Standing Committee on Education, Science and the Arts (1972, p. xvii) recommended that teacher training institutions which were not associated with a university be incorporated as integral parts of colleges of advanced education if it were geographically possible and that any new teacher training institution be planned as a multi-vocational institution. Some N.S.W. colleges have diversified to become multi-vocational. This move appears to have been successfully made in several institutions (see Chapter 3, pp. 72-73).

There is, however, no clear indication that the teacher education programme in a multi-purpose institution benefits from the presence of other programmes. Teacher education could even suffer in the competition for resources (Bassett, 1976, p. 30). Elvin (1974, p. 11) considers that it has been unwise to locate a teachers' college in a C.A.E. since this move itself will not generate a cross-fertilisation of ideas or create a community of diverse and interacting viewpoints. Staff members are likely to come into conflict over their different approaches since teacher education is seen to be humanistic and "softer" than the sciences and technologies (Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 136).

The advantages of segregated institutions for teacher education are found in the common purpose that all staff and students have in learning the role and the tasks of a teacher (Crane, 1973, p. 13), in the sharing of a sense of devotion to the needs of children which can be developed without interference, and in the opportunity to link academic, personal and professional studies (Harman and Selby Smith,
1976, p. 135). The A.C.A.E. (1973, p. 88) calls for patience in changing institutions which have developed their own traditions and strengths, and in general support of this position, Harman and Selby Smith (1976, p. 136) argue that established teachers' colleges should not be forced to become multi-disciplinary within a short space of time. Indeed, some of the single-purpose colleges are competing successfully with universities and multi-purpose colleges. Bassett (1976, p. 30) asserts that if they are first rate institutions they ought to be allowed to continue as before.

While the unique contribution that teachers' colleges make to teacher education is recognised by many educators, some would want the preparation of teachers of all types to be the function of universities (A.U.C., 1964, p. 123). De Lacey (1974, p. 134), a strong advocate of university training for all teachers, claims that trainees need the interaction with university teachers who have a wide range of interests and who can communicate to students the knowledge gained through research. Brown (1973, p. 64) favours the four year concurrent university course for teacher preparation arguing that students in the university situation are stimulated by the new ideas presented to them in their academic courses and that this meshes well with continuing practical experience in schools and regular seminars with educationists. Criticisms of the view that all teachers should be prepared in universities tend to focus on economic issues. For example, public expenditure on student teacher allowances combined with high failure rates in some university courses create wastages of human and economic resources. One possible means of reducing this wastage has been suggested by the Commonwealth and N.S.W. Governments and that is to arrange mergers between single-purpose teachers' colleges and neighbouring universities.
At the time of writing, however, no link of this nature has yet occurred. On the other hand, there is a strong tendency, evident during the 1970's, for C's.A.E. to replicate the university in style and organisation of programmes (Harman and Selby Smith, 1976, p. 135).

4.26 Concurrent or Consecutive Teacher Education Courses

Closely connected with the choice between single-vocational or multi-vocational organisation is the issue of concurrent versus consecutive teacher education courses. The issue has been discussed in England recently when the James Report proposed consecutive courses. The D.E.S., however, favoured the retention of a concurrent pattern (Chapter 3, pp. 75-76). Debate continues on the advantages and disadvantages of each. Traditionally, primary teachers have been educated in a concurrent course in which academic and professional studies run side by side while secondary teachers have undertaken academic degrees followed by a professional course of teacher training. Like the institutional changes, the types of course patterns have undergone changes so that there is less distinction between primary and secondary training. In N.S.W., teacher education courses are available in both concurrent and consecutive patterns as they are in England. College courses for the preparation of teachers in primary and secondary fields are concurrent, the traditional university course is consecutive although after the Martin Report (1964) some universities introduced concurrent degree courses, usually for primary teaching, but in areas of secondary teaching as well. Questions that are related to the concurrency or consecutive issue are (1) at what stage should the student commit himself to a career in teaching, and (2) what amount of
choice within the programme of study should a teacher education course offer? The opinions of certain educators on the advantages and disadvantages of concurrent and consecutive programmes will be discussed.

**England**: Certificate and B.Ed. courses in English colleges of education have continued to follow the concurrent pattern and the advantages are that academic and professional study are able to be related closely, practical school experience can be phased in during the whole course, and education and curriculum subject lecturers can plan their work together (Renshaw, 1971b, pp. 99-100). Although many young students wish to delay their career choices until later in their studies, Bibby (1975, p. 21) contends that suitable courses should be available for those who have decided that they wish to teach and that higher education should not be filled with people who have no idea what they want to do in life. A concurrent course provides a gradual development in the level of career commitment (Parry, 1972, p. 96) as it involves a continuing process of the interpenetration of theory with practice (Bibby, 1975, p. 26). A study by Brown (1975, p. 75) of the subjective rating of student teachers by supervisors showed that concurrent degree students perform better in practice teaching than P.G.C.E. students over a period of six years of testing. Renshaw (1973, p. 229) concludes that a concurrent course provides a genuine professional education for teaching.

A criticism of the concurrent course is the duplication and overlapping that could occur in the elements of general studies, education theory and practical work instead of integration, possible conflict between departments as a result of this and a fragmented course for the student (McDowell, 1971, p. 69). The ideal staff for
the concurrent course would be lecturers who could contribute to a general subject and education theory at a high level but such staff are scarce (Meighan and Chambers, 1971, p. 158).
Concurrent courses in universities face the difficulty of the organisation of block teaching practice and what to do with students who are not taking education (Tuck, 1971, p. 119). York University, which is mentioned in Appendix 4, found that teaching practice had to be left until fourth year. The most common criticism of the concurrent course is that it requires commitment to a teaching career from the beginning of the course, and increasing numbers of students would prefer to leave their career choice open during the early part of their courses (Tuck, 1971, p. 121).

The English course for teacher preparation which is consecutive is the university degree followed by the one year P.G.C.E. The advantages of this course are seen to be the opportunity that students have to construct their own degree course which is appropriate to their interests, to make a career choice at a later stage of their studies instead of being "trapped" into teaching (Hewett, 1971, p. 130) and to mix with students with different interests who will be entering other careers (Elvin, 1974, p. 10). This mixing of students who are differently career-oriented is seen by Eggleston (1974, p. 107) as producing more open-minded, diverse and less "conditioned" teachers. Politically and economically there are advantages of a shorter, end-on teacher preparation as a pool of educated people has been created from which a controlled number could be admitted to the consecutive course according to the need for teachers in one year's time (A.T.C.D.E., 1970, p. 12). The James Report was considering the manpower aspect when the two cycles were proposed, but the committee
saw the merits of concurrent courses and wished to retain the opportunity for some vocationally-oriented education studies to be included in cycle one (Parry, 1971, p. 35). It is clear to Elvin (1974, p. 10) that both concurrent and consecutive courses should be available. Further thought needs to be given to the increasing complexity of initial teacher preparation which makes a course of one year inadequate, and to the question: "What is the latest point in the total teacher education course at which a definite commitment to teaching must be made?" (Turner, 1976, p. 39).

In a teacher education course which has the dual function of educating students and training them for a profession, certain conflicts must arise in the process of achieving a balance between theory and practice (Renshaw, 1971a, p. 57). Although the concurrent course seems to highlight the conflicts this pattern should not be abandoned, but it should be improved and its components be inter-woven more closely so that the best quality concurrent and consecutive courses are available for the choice of the students.

**N.S.W.:** A fairly stable balance has been maintained between consecutive and concurrent patterns of teacher preparation. Prospective teachers in N.S.W. are able to choose reasonably freely a course and an institution which suits their degree of commitment to a teaching career. It is recognised that both patterns of courses may co-exist. Recently, a change in the balance on political and economic grounds has been predicted (N.S.W., 1977). The situation is similar to that in England and it is related to the declining need for new teachers. The N.S.W. government does not wish to alter the availability of consecutive university teacher education courses but, as mentioned in Chapter 3
(p. 62), it will not provide students holding scholarships with an incremental allowance unless they take a concurrent degree.

Opinion on the advantages and disadvantages of teacher education course structures follows the same pattern as in England. Professor Brown of the University of N.S.W. (1973, p. 64) favours concurrency in a university course of academic, professional and practical teaching experience which has the potential also for concurrency in education studies towards personal and social maturity. Teacher education students have, in a school of education environment within the wider university environment, the advantages of both. The smaller environment provides for the development of their "... professional objectives in knowledge, attitudes, values and skills and the larger environment of the university [offers] a continuing challenge to examine old ideas and to critically appraise the new" (Brown, 1973, p. 64). Brown (1973, pp. 66-67) sees the educational advantages of a four year concurrent degree in the continuity and depth that it offers in educational studies as well as a phased experience of contact with pupils in schools over three years usually, and of practical teaching over two years. A source of criticism of concurrent courses is their forcing of an early commitment. Brown disagrees with this. In his opinion the course allows a gradual appraisal of the student's own suitability for teaching as well as the development of a greater interest, and possibly concern, in those subjects which are chosen for teaching. In contrast to this developing self-appraisal, a second cycle or end-on course has only the attitudes and values which have developed during the academic studies and perhaps vocational indecision to build on. A study by Anderson (1974, pp. 61-70) compared certain attitudes of students who were taking a B.Sc. with an end-on Dip.Ed. and students in concurrent B.Sc.(Ed.) courses. The
relative commitment to teaching of the two groups was similar in their first year but among the concurrent students it increased, while among the end-on students it declined. The implication of this type of finding is not necessarily that the concurrent courses are better but that the full advantage of the open university type of environment together with some of the experiences of the teaching situation need to be presented to students within the vocational aspect of their training (Anderson, 1974, p. 80).

When he speaks of the advantages of delaying vocational commitment, Evans (1973, p. 51) implies that all students could benefit from a general study of educational problems together with other important issues, and a first-hand study of schools, but not necessarily in the student-teacher role. There always will be a need for an end-on course of teacher training for those graduates or undergraduates who decide on teaching later in their courses. Crane (1973, p. 17) makes a similar distinction between a concurrent course and an integrated one to that which is made by English educators. Concurrent courses can overlap and cause confusion while the integrated course, which is more difficult to achieve, features joint planning and team teaching with "... strong lines of communication ..." between departments within colleges or universities and schools.

The issue of concurrent or consecutive courses appears to be positioned similarly in England and N.S.W. with concurrent courses favoured, the recognition of choices between each, and the establishment of the need for renewal of the quality of both types of courses.
Alongside the choices between methods of training which have been
described previously there are similarities in the total environment
of teacher education. This section looks at the environment of
colleges of education, university schools of education, the availability
of personal counselling for students, tutoring during practice teaching
and the changing values of teacher education students.

**England**: The English college aims to develop in its students a
commitment to their future work with an emphasis on the social and moral
purposes of teaching. Foundation courses concentrate on interpersonal
relationships. Few political or ideological issues are raised. Colleges
avoid mentioning "failure" and prefer to encourage "withdrawal". This
all "... serves to insulate the colleges from the conflicts and ...
questioning which characterise other areas of higher education."
(McDowell, 1971, pp. 66-71).

Teacher education students require counselling groups so that
discussions with a tutor and a small group of peers can be held quite
frequently. A value of the single-purpose institution is that this
counselling is usually part of the college arrangement, although a
school of teacher education in a multi-purpose institution should be
able to make the same provision. In a college environment which is
more "closed" than a university or a polytechnic environment, the
opportunity for personal guidance to assist the students to develop
social and emotional maturity, a concern for others and a responsibility
to children, their parents, and to the community, is available. A poly-
technic provides a contrasting culture with the college of education.
in its emphasis on mass production and a self-service choice of courses, although student welfare services are available (Farley, 1973, p. 22). However an older college practice of the grouping of students under the same tutor, the "mother hen principle", which depended on an emotional bond rather than on knowledge and learning is to be avoided (McDowell, 1971, p. 69). In the present college arrangements, advisory groups with a tutor are organised separately from subject groups so that students can seek the tutor's assistance if needed. An example of the valuable use of group tutorials is Taylor's (1975, p. 158) in which topics that develop from the concerns of students, instances from their practical experiences, or case studies are expected to lead to an understanding of the general principles of teaching and learning.

Counselling is regarded as an essential aspect of practice teaching and microteaching during which activities the student is encouraged to discuss his personal teaching problems. If there is a teacher-tutor in the school this person can assist the student in a pastoral capacity (Eggleston, 1974, p. 98). It would appear to be generally true that while students are in the college environment they tend to be more progressive in their attitudes but that they tend to adopt traditional ideas and practices when they become involved in full-time teaching (Eggleston, 1974, pp. 92-93).

N.S.W.: Shears (1967, p. 121) writing in the 1960's, proposed that a major responsibility of teacher education institutions was the social and emotional development of the students which could be satisfied by providing a balance between institutional tone, personal guidance and
student independence. Even after the breaking of the ties with the state Department of Education the environment of single-purpose C's.A.E. reflects one of a closed system, so that the students' total educational experiences are encapsulated within the primary school, secondary school, college, and back to teach in the schools. Often they have little contact with the world of work outside the classroom unless they work for a few years. Colleges have a proportion of their staff which has been the product of the same closed system. The staff member has been chosen for his ability in teaching and a capacity to develop teaching skills in others rather than for competency in research.

Warren and Rees (1975, p. 52) questioned college and university students on factors of their campus life to determine a profile which would show the differences in institutional environments. The university was found to stress academic standards and "social/political conscience" in its environment while the college values "practicality and community". The authors considered that the reason for the strength in community attitude was the homogeneity of interest in teaching, the pastoral care and the number of contact hours for student groups. The freedom in universities is beneficial but more effort could be directed towards the development of rapport between staff and students.

The environment of a college includes special advisory services. Traditionally, colleges have placed students in a section or group with a member of the academic staff as a tutor who is available to each student for assistance with academic, personal or social problems in addition to the provision of regular tutorials. Shears (1967, p. 122) claims that colleges have been criticised for "molly-coddling" students
but he retorts that they merely provide the service that is essential and which is underdeveloped in many tertiary institutions.

The Bell Report (N.S.W., 1971, p. 51) recommended that the Education Department should provide student advisers who would take a continuing interest in teacher education scholars and maintain a link between the department and the autonomous universities and colleges. Such advisers, who are all experienced teachers, now work on all campuses, but independently of the institution's control. They act as an additional source of guidance and consultation for students.

4.28 Student Transfer between Teacher Education Courses within Higher Education

Aspects of the reform of teacher education programmes together with their environmental aspects and the opportunities for guidance have been discussed. In both England and N.S.W., attention is being paid also to the need to establish continuity between programmes, and to ensuring that where a total programme requires a transfer from one phase to another or from one institutional base to another, these transfers are smooth and are achieved with the minimum of inconvenience to students. Some comparability exists in course mobility within teacher education and other higher education courses in N.S.W. and England while differences are evident also.

England: The prospects for transfer that interest teacher education students, are transfers (1) from Certificate courses to college degree courses, (2) from the new Diploma in Higher Education (Dip.H.E.) to a B.Ed., and (3) from these two courses to university degree courses.
The three year Certificate in Education is being phased out gradually after which time teacher education courses will be at degree level with an entry requirement of two G.C.E. subjects at A level and two or more at O level, or other qualifications in special cases. Several colleges now, as reported in Appendix 4, allow the better achieving Certificate students to transfer with academic credit to their B.Ed. courses. Some colleges may require the students to transfer at the completion of their first year certificate to the first year of the B.Ed. but without credit transfer (Turner, 1976, p. 38). Students who have taken a Dip.H.E. and have included education units are able to transfer to a B.Ed. degree course which they could complete at pass level in one more year, or at honours level in two more years (D.E.S., 1976, p. 2). If the diploma course included no education studies the completion of a B.Ed. would require one additional year's study (Turner, 1976, p. 38). The Dip.H.E. offers the student the opportunity to change the direction of his vocational intention after two years (Eggleston, 1974, p. 86). Generally, universities will give credit for one year's work to holders of the Dip.H.E. who wish to transfer to a degree course (D.E.S., 1976, p. 2). The Certificate of Education, however, carries no credit towards a university degree, it is considered by universities as an equivalent to A levels for entry to first year (Logan, 1971, pp. 25-26).

Practising teachers are able to raise their qualifications in colleges which will accept them for full-time or part-time study in B.Ed. courses with credit for their original qualifications, or by studying in the Open University. A wider variety of transfer possibilities in higher education would be welcomed by the A.T.C.D.E. (1970, p. 8) as a remedy to the high wastage which it claims occurs despite the rigorous
initial selection (see Section 4.41, p. 159). Peck (1975, p. 429) considers that mobility between institutions and courses will have to be facilitated through all areas of higher education in the new context of the broadening of functions in higher education institutions.

N.S.W.: In N.S.W. colleges such as Mitchell C.A.E. (see Appendix 5) where there is a B.Ed. course in the same teaching specialisation as a Diploma of Teaching course, progression in the three year diploma course with results of a high standard leads directly into the fourth year of the bachelor's degree for those students who wish to continue studying for the additional year. Alternatively, students could leave some C's.A.E. with a diploma and return to their college to undertake the B.Ed. after some teaching experience either in one year full-time or in two years of part-time study while they are teaching. A diplomate from another institution generally is required to spend two years full-time or the equivalent, to gain a B.Ed.

Most universities in N.S.W. give some credit for a Diploma of Teaching to teachers who wish to enrol in an undergraduate degree or to the degree in Education at Sydney University. This degree at Sydney University offers the greatest amount of credit of all universities in N.S.W. The typical credit granted to a diplomate who enrols in a B.A. degree is the equivalent of four unspecified first year subjects. The possibilities of course transfer with credit have improved since the C's.A.E. became autonomous and raised the quality of their courses (see Chapter 3, p. 63). Although the diploma seems to have a better standing than the similar certificate in England, likenesses are evident in other areas of transferability. An area of difference is the Dip.H.E. which has no counterpart in N.S.W., while the acceptance of overall transfer-
ability for students throughout higher education is less developed in N.S.W. than it is in England.

The situation, however, is not static and a state of continual review is evident in the aspect of student transfer between teacher education courses and institutions within tertiary education, while the prospects for international transferability are important considerations.

4.29 The One Year Postgraduate Teacher Education Course

The cases for and against concurrent and consecutive courses have been presented together with other institutional factors, and although the concurrent course has been given greater attention in this juxtaposition, the necessity to continue with the end-on course is recognised. If the end-on course is to continue, English educators have argued for its improvement in answer to the criticisms of students, practising teachers and lecturers. This section will look at some of the deficiencies of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (P.G.C.E.), ideas for its improvement in England, and the similar situation in N.S.W. Teacher Educators in N.S.W. have discussed the English James Report proposals but at the time of writing no implementation of a similar scheme has occurred. The current courses are similar to those in England; that is, (1) a degree followed by a Dip.Ed. (equivalent to England's P.G.C.E. following a degree) and (2) concurrent degree courses such as B.Ed., B.Sc.(Teaching). The characteristics of the one year Dip.Ed. are considered in N.S.W. and England in order to determine whether such a course can fulfil the professional objectives of teacher education.
England: The Postgraduate Certificate in Education is the traditional one-year professional course for graduates to train as teachers. The broad course content consists of foundation education studies, teaching methods, and practice teaching. The course is provided by University Departments of Education, and to a lesser extent by Colleges of Education and Polytechnics (see Appendix 4).

The P.G.C.E. is criticised for its crowding of many subjects into a one-year course resulting in the superficial treatment of each subject, in the disjunction between theory and practice (a criticism which is common to teacher education programmes) and in its "... courses answering ... questions which students are not asking ..." (Fuller, quoted in Taylor, 1975, p. 151). Fuller means by this that the immediate concerns of students are not being satisfied. Taylor (1975, p. 152) found that students' main concerns at the beginning of the course are with practice teaching and especially with classroom discipline. Such concerns remain important at the end of the course and are joined by concerns about theory of teaching, pupils' progress, and curriculum matters. Although a course may appear to be oriented towards practice it does not satisfy students if it does not teach them how to "put over" a subject (Crompton, 1977, p. 42). The quality of the P.G.C.E. course suffers from its shortness and the wide variety of degree courses which have been undertaken by its students. The N.U.T. (1973, p. 5) finds that the new graduate teacher with a P.G.C.E. commences his teaching career with a narrower range of professional and curricular skills than his Certificate in Education fellow, a deficiency seldom fully compensated for by his prowess in his subject specialism. Renshaw (1971b, p. 98) adds that even if a graduate has reached his expected stage of precision, mastery and critical reflection he will not necessarily become a competent teacher after one year of training.
Before the publication of the James Report, Renshaw (1971b, p. 99) suggested a two year course for graduates with the second year to be a school-based training period instead of the probationary year, in a pattern which was similar to the James proposal. The authorities which control the finance for tertiary institutions would not allow more than one year to be spent on the course for graduate training although there was no reason why it should not extend over university vacations (Tuck, 1971, p. 113). The N.U.T. (1973, p. 5) recommends that students who have not undertaken any educational studies during their first degree courses follow a one year, four term course. To complement this, the three term course should be reformed and offered at a more sophisticated level, to take account of the educational and curriculum elements that had been studied to first degree level.

If reforms are to be made in the P.G.C.E., the objectives must be determined in consultation with educators and teachers. Hirst (1976, pp. 9-11) would limit the objectives of the course to the training of students for their first teaching assignment and to satisfy their primary needs to cope with the classroom situation. In the early part of the course, students' personal concerns may be discussed in tutorial groups with the use of field experience and case studies (Taylor, 1975, p. 158). Theoretical elements of education, according to Hirst (1976, p. 8) should figure in the P.G.C.E. course to the extent that they are necessary for professional training. The task of the theory in the course, Simon (1975, p. 29) contends, is to prepare the beginning teacher at three levels, as a class teacher, as a member of the school staff, and as a professional member of society. Changes in course structure which have been proposed are related to economic factors such as those which would utilise campus and school buildings more continuously.
throughout the year (Tuck, 1971, p. 116). Even in this time of teacher surplus England is short of graduate mathematics and science teachers and a graduate may enter these areas of teaching without the P.G.C.E. Recently a substantial part of teacher education courses has been placed in schools and school-based tutors have been utilised. Attention should be focussed on the individual student and his need for a sound interaction of theoretical studies and practical experience (Tuck, 1971, p. 118).

The One Year Diploma in Education Course, N.S.W. The Diploma in Education (Dip.Ed.) is the N.S.W. equivalent to the English P.G.C.E. It is a one-year professional teacher education course for graduates. Its content is similar to that of the English course: foundation education studies, teaching methods, and practice teaching. The Dip.Ed. course is conducted in Universities and C's.A.E. (see Appendix 5).

Brown (1973, pp. 60-61) contends that students in the one year course need an understanding of the relationship between school and society, an insight into childhood and adolescence, and a foundation of research methods so that student teachers are oriented towards experimentation and change. There is a need to develop wide perspectives appropriate to a profession yet these scarcely can be attained prior to wide teaching experience. Difficulties exist in lecturers attempting to advocate educational principles which in a truncated course they are unable themselves to practise, and in the expectation that students have made a vocational choice and sustained an interest in teaching during their undergraduate years in which they are to some extent cut off from the School of Education and the teaching profession. Brown concludes that it is difficult to see how some young graduates "... can be
transformed into teachers responsible enough and emotionally stable enough to give leadership to adolescents in and out of the classroom."

It appears that Dip.Ed. courses of longer than one year are not justifiable on economic grounds in N.S.W. Some educators use and others intend to use the school terms and school vacations. One institution submitted a proposal for a one and a half year Dip.Ed. for primary teaching but the Higher Education Board did not accept it in the extended form on economic grounds. Courses which were shorter than one year were held for a time to train graduates to meet serious shortages in English, mathematics and science teaching while, as in England, graduates had been employed as teachers, mainly in science, without professional training although they were expected to undertake a Dip.Ed. externally while they taught.

Summary: In England and N.S.W. the one year course of professional teacher training for graduates serves the same function of providing training for candidates who decide during their studies that they wish to become teachers. The planners of courses in each country face the same problems of preparing for teaching a group of students with diverse interests, of blending the theoretical and practical components, teaching what the students believe is most relevant to meet their immediate concerns and providing adequate practice teaching. England and N.S.W. are aware of the need for the improvement of this course especially in an extension of carefully phased school experience so that the course continues to be a suitable alternative to the concurrent course.

The juxtaposition of a number of aspects of teacher education in England and N.S.W. has shown that there are areas of similarities. The
similarities are evident in those aspects in which N.S.W. has adopted English practices traditionally, in areas where change is considered to be necessary, such as the diversification of some former single-purpose colleges, and in areas of debate about the most suitable changes.

4.3 Areas of Uncertain Similarities and Differences

The aspects of teacher education in England and N.S.W. which are considered to be neither similar nor dissimilar are (1) the decision between three or four year degrees for teaching, (2) the acceptance of internship, (3) new teacher education courses, (4) the reorganisation of tertiary institutions and (5) the balance in the administration of teacher education. These aspects have been included for the purposes of demonstrating a complete treatment, and of linking the similarities with the differences.

4.3.1 Three or Four Year Degree for Teaching

Both countries are striving for an all-graduate teaching profession. The question raised in both countries is whether the graduate course should be of three or four years' duration. England has accepted, and colleges have commenced, the three year teaching degree while in N.S.W. the matter is still under discussion.

England: The Robbins Committee (1963, pp. 112, 114) determined that the B.Ed. which was introduced into colleges would be a four year course. The D.E.S. White Paper (1972b) recommended a new three year B.Ed. (ordinary) degree which would confer graduate and qualified teacher status. An honours degree was proposed after four years of study. (See outline of Didsbury College's B.Ed., Appendix 4).
Confusion arises about the relative status of teachers who hold four year degrees inclusive of teacher training and those who hold the new three year B.Ed.

N.S.W.: Some C's.A.E. have introduced degree courses which are, however, the same length as university teacher education courses, that is, four years.

The Senate Standing Committee's Report on the Commonwealth's Role in Teacher Education (1972, p. xiv) recommended that institutions encourage four year minimum teacher preparation courses when conditions permitted. The N.S.W. Board of Teacher Education (1975, pp. 2-3) states that it prefers a four year programme but would not oppose the availability alongside this of three year college degrees.

In 1977, Armidale C.A.E. proposed a three year bachelor's degree course for teaching which was rejected by the H.E.B. (Kirkwood, 1977, p. 24). The course is modelled on the present three year English B.Ed. The University of Sydney's Board of Studies in Education issued a report (1977) which expresses concern that if moves towards a three year degree were based on economic grounds there may be some compulsion on institutions presently offering four year degrees to reduce these to three years.

A point of contrast which would allow greater acceptability to a three year degree in England is that after they have completed the upper sixth form, English students are considered to be one year ahead of N.S.W. students who have completed twelfth year. N.S.W. would need to observe the developments in other countries as well as in England if it were to make an educationally sound and not just an economically expedient decision.
4.32 Acceptance of Internship

The issue of internship raises potential problems. These include acceptance by the profession and the status and salary awards of the intern.

**England:** Before the James Report (1972a) was published, Tuck (1971, p. 121) referred to the considerations of representatives of University Departments of Education for two year postgraduate courses for students who could be paid salaries instead of grants. This proposition was to embrace and replace the probationary year, but it was not acceptable at the time.

The James Report's recommendation for an internship year in the second cycle (Chapter 4, p. 76), was rejected by the D.E.S. (1972b) since the position and status of the intern would be unacceptable to the Department (See Chapter 3, p. 72). The D.E.S. alternative to the internship year is the three year degree followed by a revived probationary year during which school-based induction and assistance would be available for the probationer. A criticism which the D.E.S. (see also, Parry 1972, pp. 54-55) expressed of the James Committee's licensed teacher idea is that this teacher will be less well prepared after his limited practice teaching to take the full responsibility for teaching for four days a week than his conventionally trained counterpart.

The internship year is intended to provide a bridge to further inservice education (Brown, 1973, pp. 65, 68). Richer (1976, pp. 177-80) proposes an internship within a consecutive programme. The student completes a first degree, decides to teach, seeks a probationary appointment for one year in a school in which he teaches four days a week on an
appropriate salary, with the fifth day spent in a teachers' centre. In the subsequent year the student seeks with the aid of a grant a place in a course of professional studies, and on the completion of this he gains teacher qualifications. Richer's proposal has a similarity with the James second cycle proposal except that the two years are reversed. The advantages would be that the earlier concerns of student teachers could be worked through during the internship year (Taylor, 1975) and that later selection would give a control over teacher supply. However, these suggested internship patterns fail to consider the way the children in a class would suffer if the intern was not a reasonably good teacher.

N.S.W.: As in England, internship has been considered in response to dissatisfactions with the traditional forms of practice teaching and the probationary year. The Karmel Report (Schools Commission, 1973, p. 121) supported "internships which would enable teachers in their first year of service to have lighter teaching loads in order to receive on-the-job assistance and to continue their relationship with the training authority as part of their certification."

Flinders University, South Australia, offers an internship programme. The B.Ed. for primary teaching is designed for three years on the campus, including eight weeks of practice teaching, and a fourth (internship) year in which the students teach full-time in Adelaide primary schools while close contact is maintained by the university staff with them. The interns receive their B.Ed. degree after they have successfully completed their year as classroom teachers. Assistance within schools is given by the principal, the staff and especially by teaching advisers. These are experienced teachers who are seconded to positions in which
they advise fourteen interns. The internship year "... endeavours to bridge the gap between student teaching and teacherdom" (Turney, 1977, p. 149). Difficulties, however, have arisen in the Flinders programme. The interns teach a full load, the advisers do not know what the students have learned in the first three years, and internship places cannot be found in schools close to the university.

Brown (1973, p. 66) believes that internship would be practicable in N.S.W. in metropolitan centres. It is worth noting that both England and N.S.W. experienced the era of the pupil-teacher system with its apprenticeship training. Both are now considering internship. The idea could become acceptable in N.S.W. but seems unlikely to be accepted in England.

4.33 New Teacher Education Programmes

Innovations in total programmes will be juxtaposed to elicit those aspects which are common and those which are different.

England: The search for reform as well as economic considerations has led to a major nation-wide plan for the reorganisation of programmes. The James Report's proposal for change has been the major suggested reform during the 1970's (see Chapter 3, pp. 75-76). The Report proposed a reorganisation of teacher education in the recent climate of the decline in the need for new teachers as well as to rectify the major shortcomings which were mentioned in Chapter 3 (pp. 74-75). The D.E.S. White Paper, Education, a Framework for Expansion (1972b), which accepts some of the James Committee's proposals, outlines the national policy for teacher education. According to Eggleston (1974, p. 84) the White
Paper is a major innovation. Neither of the two routes to a teaching qualification, that is, (1) by the existing pattern of graduation at a university followed by one year of professional training and (2) by the newly introduced two year Dip.H.E. followed by the completion of the B.Ed., will require a prior commitment to teaching. Both provide a qualification which has wider uses than teaching alone. Eggleston (1974, p. 86) observes that teacher education programmes in universities are unlikely to expand, no new Education Departments are likely to be approved in British universities, therefore undergraduate education studies are unlikely to be extended.

The N.U.T.'s conclusion (1973, p. 11) to its comments on this recent reform is worth quoting: "The future of teacher training and education has reached a crucial state in its development and reforms could be implemented which would fundamentally change and improve the professional lives of teachers." The partners in teacher education have been able to synthesise opposition to the James Report into a constructive policy for reform.

N.S.W.: No large scale reform similar to the English example has been proposed in N.S.W. Innovations in N.S.W. teacher education are occurring nonetheless. They arise from the needs of individual institutions and they may be adopted by other institutions according to their needs (see Chapter 3, p. 76). In order to limit comment on individual institutional reforms in N.S.W. teacher education to those which are on a similar scale to the English reform, this section will look at reforms which Turney (1977, p. 116) calls total programme innovations.
The Diploma in Special Education at Newcastle C.A.E. (N.S.W.) is an innovative programme. The first two years of the Diploma of Teaching course are followed by one year in the specialised course which prepares teachers for work with children who have a variety of intellectual, emotional and physical problems. The same one year course is available as a postgraduate Diploma in Special Education for teachers with at least two years' experience, and probably these people would benefit more from such a course (Turney, 1977, p. 121).

The Northern Rivers C.A.E. (N.S.W.) has proposed a four year degree for primary teaching which has taken the James Committee's proposal as a model although the Northern Rivers model has a concurrent pattern during the first three years, followed by an internship. During the internship year the student would assume increasing responsibility for a class. The interns would be under the co-ordinated supervision of the employing authority and the college. Similarities are discernable in this course with the James proposal and the Flinders University programme. If the Northern Rivers course were introduced it would be the first with an internship pattern in N.S.W. (Joynt, 1977, pp. 23-24).

A final example of an innovative programme is the one proposed by Fielding, Cavanagh and Widdowson (1977, pp. 92-104) at the University of Wollongong as an alternative to the traditional Dip.Ed. The first of three phases would be a general undergraduate degree during which the student is not required to commit himself to teaching although he could observe teaching during university vacations if he were interested. Phase two would be a one year teaching internship in which the students are paired under the supervision of a master-teacher. The third phase would be a year of study of the foundations of education which would
capitalise on the student's practical teaching experiences but which would free the student from the anxieties associated with concurrent teaching practice. Two comments which arise from the proposed course: (1) a graduate who thought he was committed to teaching but who found early in the internship year that he was not, would be able to withdraw, and (2) the master-teacher role in this scheme would demand a very high quality of teacher; it would be disappointing if there were insufficient teachers of this calibre to take this position. Fielding, Cavanagh and Widdowson (1977, p. 96) are certain that theory acquires greater meaning when it follows practical experiences.

The similarities in new teacher education programmes in the two countries arise in the types of innovations which have developed. The dissimilarity is that a nationwide concept of an innovative programme with minor institutional differences is being implemented in England, while innovations in N.S.W. typically are institution-based.

4.34 Reorganisation of Teacher Education within Higher Education

The reorganisation of teacher education has been initiated by demographic changes and economic measures in both countries. The methods of implementing this reorganisation vary with the degree of central or local control.

England: England is reorganising its teacher education provisions into three patterns:
1. The linkage of colleges of education with polytechnics. The college becomes a school or unit within the polytechnic for professional preparation for teaching and other related vocations (Eggleston, 1974, p. 85). The polytechnic sector is presently the one of greatest expansion in higher education.

2. The amalgamation of existing colleges of education to form larger and diversified units in which teacher education and other higher education courses would be offered at diploma and degree level.

3. An association between a college of education and a university. This reorganisation is receiving the least government support (Eggleston, 1974, pp. 85–86).

Burgess (1971a, pp. 68–69) sees advantages for colleges in their association with polytechnics. These would be the national validation of the colleges' awards, education students would share the life of a fuller academic community and the polytechnic institution could provide flexible programmes such as sandwich courses. Elvin's view (1974, p. 7) is that teacher education is being moved from higher education into further education. The N.U.T. (1973, p. 11) urges the government not to hasten mergers of institutions purely on economic grounds. Turner (1976, p. 40) offers the caution that "the absorption of colleges into very large polytechnic institutions seems likely to disperse those inter-disciplinary teams of scholars within the colleges who have been reacting with extreme sensitivity to the changing needs of schools ..."

N.S.W.: The Australian Tertiary Education Commission is expected to co-ordinate a balance between the three sectors, Universities, C's.A.E. and Technical and Further Education (T.A.F.E.). The Australian Commission
on Advanced Education (A.C.A.E.) wishes the autonomy of all institutions to be retained, and if an association between a university and a C.A.E. is proposed, this action should arise out of discussion and mutual agreement. Those single-purpose colleges which will remain viable individually have been encouraged to diversify their fields of study since financial support cannot be maintained for the preparation of trainees for a vocation which is in lessening demand. What changes have occurred in N.S.W.? The Agricultural College at Wagga has been incorporated into the Riverina C.A.E. and the teachers' Colleges in the Sydney metropolitan area are to combine and the reorganised institutions will serve multiple purposes. The instigation of a national enquiry into the preparation of teachers to meet employment needs was announced by the Federal Minister for Education on 12th January, 1978.

The similarity in the reorganisation of teacher education is that governments in both countries are taking positive action to guide and implement reorganisation on demographic and economic grounds while the difference is in the extent and the methods by which changes in the organisation are taking place.

4.35 Balance in the Administration and Organisation of Teacher Education

During a time of many changes there are difficulties in maintaining a balance between professional and the administrative views on the planning of teacher education.

England: Chapter 3 (pp. 54-55) referred to internal and external controls placed on colleges of education. England is developing a national council and regional councils for teacher education which differ from the former
Institutes of Education (N.U.T., 1972, pp. 13, 15). Elvin (1974, pp. 1, 13) expresses the view firmly that there should be dialogue between professional educators and administrators, concerning the overall plan for their respective areas of responsibility. The professional educator should understand the broad public interest and the administrator has to understand more than the compilation of numbers of teachers or the state of financial resources. The organisation of teacher education should, according to Elvin (1974, p. 13), result from a partnership between administrative and professional staff of the institutions, with teachers and representatives from the public, to plan teacher education at the institutional level. A similar partnership should exist for planning at the national level.

N.S.W.: During the present period of change, the tertiary education institutions need to be able to preserve their diversity since there is a likelihood that a number of newly established authorities (e.g., H.E.B.) may impose restrictions and exert pressures towards uniformity (Short, 1967, p. 21). Although diversity and autonomy should be preserved at the institutional level, Brown (1973, p. 68) advocates the desirability of a national council for the planning, co-ordination and review of teacher education similar to the proposed English national council. The Working Party for the N.S.W. Education Commission (1977, p. 3) believes that reforms will facilitate the better provision of educational services for all pupils and students. On its own, however, it is suggested that administrative reform will not change the quality of teaching, nor will it help the individual teacher to understand his objectives.
The organisation of teacher education in N.S.W. is in an earlier phase of development than it is in England. Thus it may still be true that Australian tertiary institutions have greater freedom to develop their individual strengths and interests than do those of England.

4.4 Differences

The preceding sections of this thesis have established that England and N.S.W. represent two systems of education which are clearly sufficiently similar in structure to be used in a comparative study. In particular, the structural similarities in the two systems of teacher training and education are very marked indeed. Section 4.4, then, represents a turning point in the study; that is, it is now possible to begin the comparison proper. In juxtaposing differences between the two systems two tasks will be completed, (1) differences in England concerning that country's solutions to a number of problems of transition for student teachers will be identified and juxtaposed alongside situations in N.S.W. for which no such solutions appear to exist, and (2) a set of hypotheses will be generated which will be tested for their validity in the Comparison chapter (Chapter 5).

Differences between the two systems which relate specifically to the transitional problems of prospective candidates are listed below and are followed by detailed discussion.

1. The selection of students for teacher education.
2. Financial support to tertiary students including trainee teachers.
3. The appointment and placement of new teachers.
4. The transition of beginning teachers into the teaching service.
4.41 Selection of Students for Teacher Education within Higher Education

Ideally, selection for teacher education should be based on the student's suitability for teaching in general plus his compatibility with the particular course he undertakes. Not only is it desirable to have students selected who promise to turn out to be successful teachers, but also the type of teaching, e.g., primary, secondary, inner city, suburban, rural, for which the student seems best equipped, should be considered. Thus, selection is regarded as a key factor in fostering the successful transition into the teacher role.

England: An examination of the English procedures of selection for teacher education shows that while there are some similarities with N.S.W. the differences are more marked and of comparatively greater significance. Three factors will be identified: (1) information supplied to students, (2) the criteria for selection, and (3) admission procedures.

Selection procedures are initiated during the student's last year in secondary school. Following guidance given by school and L.E.A. careers officers, students showing interest in teaching can visit schools where they observe teachers at work. It seems clear that these experiences help students in clarifying their career interests and confirming their career choice (A.T.C.D.E., 1971, p. 8).

Three formal routes to admission to teaching in England are available, (1) the Certificate in Education, (2) the B.Ed., and (3) the Postgraduate Certificate in Education.
As distinct from the use of aggregate marks in the N.S.W. H.S.C., in England, the G.C.E. A levels are examined as separate subjects, and scores are treated independently of one another. It is held, in the English system, that there is no necessary connection between one particular examination result and another (Schools Council, No. 46, 1973, p. 9).

Non-academic criteria for entry, which the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education (A.T.C.D.E., 1971, p. 8) emphasises and makes use of in selecting students are: personal qualities including degree of expressed interest in young people, leadership and leadership experience, and activities outside school work. The assessment depends on school achievement, the head teacher's report or other references on character and suitability, and an interview. Most applicants are interviewed at the college by the principal or a panel of staff during the year before entry. In some colleges the interview is a part of a full day or more of orientation activities. Whilst it seems clear that interviewers make subjective judgements which are likely to be based on past experience and hunches (Taylor, 1969, p. 201) it is thought that the interview provides selection committees with useful information about candidates.

A joint application form for all colleges of education is available from a Central Registry and Clearing House a year ahead of the time of entry. Applicants may give up to six choices. The Registry sends their forms to the college of their first choice while copies are forwarded to other colleges. In October the colleges begin interviewing applicants for selection. Provisional offers are made during the school year and these are confirmed after the A level results are known in
August if the candidates have satisfied the requirements. Mature age applicants need not have the same scholastic attainments. During August-September the clearing house assists college applicants who are still unplaced. Candidates receive full information during the extended admission period (spanning eleven months). This procedure tends to reduce the level of anxiety of sixth formers preparing to write A level examinations. Indeed, those who are awaiting an offer are given personal assistance and reassurance by the clearing house staff (A.T.C.D.E., 1975, pp. 16-17). On the other hand, admission to undergraduate courses at universities or polytechnics is not regarded as admission to teacher education in England, even in degree courses which offer education subjects. Admission procedures operated through the Universities Central Council on Admissions (U.C.C.A.), a body which performs a clearing house function, are similar to those of the Central Registry for Colleges.

In support of the selection system for teaching used in England Drever (1963, pp. 409-19) proposes that a good selection system is one comprising elements of prediction, placement and choice. Criteria to predict success in higher education, however are notoriously elusive, and while scholastic aptitude tests and interviews are even less reliable as predictors they can supplement examination results. Despite these obvious deficiencies, it does seem worthwhile to attempt to develop a student profile based on the most comprehensive information available prior to entry into tertiary studies. It seems necessary, however, to avoid using predictive data in any doctrinaire way because of these widespread uncertainties. Placement may be said to have been achieved satisfactorily when a student agrees he is in the most suitable course for him and is coping successfully with the environment of tertiary
education. Choice is made ideally by the student himself after he has gained advice from his future tertiary teachers. Universities in England place considerable emphasis on retaining an undergraduate for the whole course once he has been accepted (Schools Council, No. 47, 1973, p. 17) and the pass rate in English universities is approximately eighty-six per cent (McDonell, 1975, p. 21).

The other level of teacher education selection is to the P.G.C.E. for which a single registry exists for all P.G.C.E. courses offered in English colleges. The universities and colleges conduct selection interviews. The objective is to identify interest and suitability for teaching (O.E.C.D., 1969, p. 211). If the James Committee's proposals were adopted, selection would be made at the beginning of the second cycle of professional training and this, states the D.E.S. (1976, p. 3) "... would permit easier identification and selection of entrants to teacher training with academic qualifications and qualities of mind most fitted to the schools." At the time of writing, however, it appears unlikely that these proposals will be adopted.

In England the selection of students for teacher education and tertiary education is regarded as an important transitional step in the beginning of a career. Students who aspire to a tertiary education must undergo a rigorous selection procedure which assesses their academic performance, their aptitude for tertiary study, and which includes an interview to determine their personal suitability for a career in teaching.

N.S.W.: Selection procedures for teaching in N.S.W. contrast markedly with those used in England. In particular, senior secondary school students, by comparison with their English counterparts are virtually
rushed into a career choice during the last weeks of their secondary school education, criteria used for selection are quite limited and when students are admitted to a course of study, it will not necessarily be to the institution of choice (Aust. Dept. of Ed., 1976, p. 123). Clearly this contrast offers insight into the transitional problem for N.S.W. secondary school students and will provide the variables and content of hypotheses to be presented at the end of this chapter.

The transition from school to tertiary education requires a smooth orientation for the student. Schonell (1962, pp. 253, 211) contends that the higher institutions are responsible for closing the gap to help the student adjust to environmental changes which affect him intellectually and emotionally. Young people need to develop their goals in study and for a career more clearly. Students have limited time to acquire information and to decide among several offers in what becomes a crisis atmosphere (Powell, 1976, p. 5). There is some justification for agreeing that N.S.W. tertiary institutions provide inadequate services to students seeking information and advice about a career in teaching (cf. Schonell, 1962, pp. 211, 253). According to Pryor and de Lacey (1974, p. 2), of a sample of 109 teacher education students questioned on the advice they had received about teaching as a career, fifty-eight per cent said that their school had supplied information, and fourteen per cent that they had received no information. Whilst that study dealt with a small sample of students (during the mid 1970's some 35,000 to 40,000 students present themselves annually for the N.S.W. H.S.C. examination), it is indicative of the inadequacies in both schools and universities in reference to facilitating students' career choices.
The academic criteria for selection to tertiary education including teacher education is the aggregate mark achieved by the candidate in his best ten units at the H.S.C. examination or the result at an equivalent examination, except in the assessment of mature age applicants who have not completed the normal secondary school course. Australian aptitude tests have been developed that are independent of specific subject content, but their use in N.S.W. either is limited or does not occur at all (Rechter, 1970, pp. 22-23). In N.S.W., the awarding of teacher education scholarships is usually the first step in the selection of students for teaching. Each applicant is interviewed for personal suitability by teachers selected by the school Principal, although difficulties arise in the designing and undertaking of a reliable and reasonably objective assessment of suitability. (Examples of scholarship interview assessment forms are given in Appendix 12.) The selection of trainee teachers does not give sufficient emphasis to personal qualities and teaching interest. For example, in 1970 only 0.9 per cent of school leaver applicants were rejected as a result of their interview for scholarships. A percentage of 7.3 who were assessed as "marginally suitable and recommended only with reservations" were awarded scholarships because their H.S.C. aggregates were adequate, while there would be a number of applicants who were rated "highly suitable and strongly recommended" who failed to gain a scholarship because their aggregates placed them too low in the order of merit (Turnbull, 1977, p. 158).

Selection into Diploma in Education courses may be viewed as a separate selection phase since the one year diploma is the first experience that some students have of a course of professional preparation. Turnbull (1977, p. 162) notes that when universities select their Diploma
in Education candidates, no consideration is given to applicants' suitability for teaching and the universities' Departments of Education, typically, do not interview them. Many of these applicants have held teacher education scholarships for three years; the scholarships were awarded to them on the basis of a satisfactory H.S.C. aggregate and the assumption that they were not obviously unsuitable for teaching. It should be noted, however, that in 1977 the N.S.W. Department of Education, through its Teacher Education Advisory Service in colleges and universities, instituted a rigorous selection interview procedure for teaching scholarship candidates. Both first year undergraduates and graduates entering the Diploma in Education course were interviewed rigorously. It is arguable though that this procedure was brought in so as to cope with the problem of cut-backs in allocated teacher scholarships and that therefore the grounds for using the procedure were economic and political rather than purely educational.

There is no clearing house or joint admission centre for tertiary institutions although the three metropolitan universities co-operate on admissions while the C's.A.E. have instituted a simplified system of applications which is expected to develop into an admission centre*. The admissions procedure is complex, with offers, acceptances and rejections passing between institutions or centres and applicants during a limited period of time until the selections are finalised and most students have been placed.

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*This development has occurred and will be implemented for 1980 admissions. It is to be known as the Universities and Colleges Admissions Centre (U.C.A.C.).
In the selection of students for tertiary education, N.S.W. has modified a system which it adopted from England. The selection procedures in England have developed more comprehensively and successfully than in N.S.W. towards meeting the needs of young people during their transition from school to higher education.

4.42 Financial Support to Tertiary Students

When students have been admitted to tertiary education in England and in N.S.W., the governments of both take the responsibility for their financial support in different ways. For many years each Australian state has offered scholarships to teacher trainees, in return for which the student has signed a bond agreeing to serve the State Department of Education as a teacher for a certain number of years in any part of the state (Bain, 1976, p. 34). While N.S.W. offers a special financial support scheme to teacher education students that differs from the assistance that is available to other tertiary students, England pays undifferentiated grants to all tertiary students. Historically, both countries offered similar forms of scholarships in order to induce sufficient numbers of young people to train for teaching. In England the scholarship with the pledge to teach attached was instituted in 1902 and operated until the 1950's (Chapter 3, p. 53) while N.S.W. abolished the bonding associated with teaching scholarships only in 1976.

England: The present system of financial grants in England, which has been established by law, is inclusive of almost all students who are studying recognised higher education courses in universities, polytechnics or colleges of education which attract grants. The courses include first
degrees, the certificate of education, or other vocational courses. The student applies to the L.E.A. in his home area for the grant which covers tuition fees, living allowance and incidental expenses for each academic year excluding the summer vacation. The full value of the grant may be reduced according to the parents', the spouse's or the student's own means. Students are eligible for mandatory grants, which the government is obliged to pay, for the two year Dip.H.E. and if they transfer to the B.Ed. (ordinary) with one further year of study, or to the B.Ed. (honours) with two further years, the mandatory grant is continued, but if the transfer to the degree entitles them to only one year's credit for the diploma they may receive what is known as a discretionary grant (D.E.S., 1977, pp. 36-37).

There was some differentiation in the administration of grants to students in colleges of education when the colleges were largely residential. The college administered the grant on behalf of the student and gave him the remainder from the cost of board and other expenses. Since a smaller proportion of students is accommodated in halls of residence in the present period these arrangements no longer are of any great significance for the majority of students (Logan, 1971, p. 23).

The English system of undifferentiated grants to almost all tertiary students who have been residents in the country for at least three years is among the most generous in the world. England has not considered that loans would be necessary in place of or in addition to the grants. It is felt that the students have earned their places in tertiary education in strong competition. The high success rate in English institutions of Higher Education seems to support this policy.
N.S.W.: The decision of Australian states to expend large amounts on special scholarships for the preparation of teachers under conditions which obliged the students to serve for a period might have been justified in the 1960's, although the Martin Committee (A.U.C., 1964, p. 104) regretted the "differentiation between young people preparing to be teachers in government schools and those preparing to enter other professions" and it forecast a recognition of the need for comparable scholarships for all tertiary education. The Bell Report (N.S.W., 1971, p. 49) reviewed the scholarship and the teacher supply situation of the 1960's and it claimed that the bond had been ineffective in ensuring a higher retention rate. The Bell Report (N.S.W., 1971, p. 50) opposed the increasing of the penalties of the bond which were intended to reduce the wastage from teaching, but the penalties were increased in 1973. The special system of financial assistance to prospective teachers has an effect on universities and colleges as well as on their students, while the state's direction of students to particular colleges and courses generated among students a sense of being different (Selby Smith, 1975b, p. 387).

The advantages of the differentiated allowances to trainee teachers have been recognised as a means of enabling students from middle to lower income families, females, and country students to gain a tertiary education, and the obligation to serve anywhere has ensured the fairly equitable staffing of remote country and unpopular city schools (Bain, 1976, p. 35). As the state department of education is the largest single employer of tertiary-educated people there is some justification in its maintaining some control over the education of its future employees and since teaching is the only profession in which the graduate has no opportunity to set himself up in private practice he
has appreciated the guarantee of employment which the former bonded scholarship offered him.

Several State and Commonwealth committees of enquiry including the Bell Committee (1971, p. 50) and the Senate Standing Committee (1972, p. 27) have advocated the discontinuance of special teaching scholarships in favour of a national system of allowances for all tertiary students. The recent developments in N.S.W. are that a surplus of teachers exists in all fields except a few special subject areas, that the state has reduced its expenditure in some areas of education, that bonded scholarships have been abolished and previous liabilities have now been waived, and that the state has ceased to guarantee employment to trainees who receive scholarships in 1977 or later. The parallel change which has occurred in the Commonwealth government's assistance to students is the replacement of competitive scholarships by the needs-based Tertiary Education Assistance Scheme (T.E.A.S.) in 1974 (Bain, 1976, p. 35). The N.S.W. Government expects the removal of bonding to encourage students with greater commitment to teaching to enter the service. It is too early for this to become noticeable on a system wide basis but in the professional experience of this writer (occupied as a teacher education adviser with the N.S.W. Department of Education) there appears to be more interest in teaching among the students who are undertaking teacher education courses. The co-operation between the federal and state governments on student assistance is minimal and while the states used to provide $600 for teacher education students who were eligible for a "topping up" of their T.E.A.S. allowance this provision has been reduced so that N.S.W. now requires a student to choose between a scholarship and T.E.A.S. The situation for 1978 in N.S.W. is that unbonded scholarships are available, without guarantee of
employment, at a low annual rate for first year students who would fare better on T.E.A.S. if they could satisfy the means test, but the scholarship rate rises progressively to a rate for fourth year which is about thirty-three per cent of the salary of a three year trained teacher in his first year of service. Scholarship awards to second and later years have been restricted strictly to those subjects studied at tertiary institutions in which there is a need for teachers in schools.

The N.S.W. scholarship system appears to be in a state of instability with sudden changes occurring each year from 1976 onwards and with more changes predicted for 1979. At present, students appear to be choosing between state scholarships and T.E.A.S. on the basis of the financial benefit involved rather than in regard to a career intention. Teacher education awards to first year students are likely to be phased out in N.S.W. as they have been in three other states*. It would seem that now is the time to review state and federal allowance schemes with the view to integrating them into one undifferentiated system - a system long in use in England. If suitable student allowances and four year concurrent teacher education courses were available to students, the teaching profession should acquire new entrants who had become teachers because of vocational orientation and interest (Australian Teachers' Federation, quoted in Senate Standing Committee, 1972, p. 25). An undifferentiated T.E.A.S. would place all tertiary students on the same footing in the requirement that they demonstrate their level of need for financial assistance (Fielding, Cavanagh, Widdowson, 1977, p. 103) although there would be a need to review the current living allowances.

*Indeed, for 1980 the number of scholarships awarded in N.S.W. will be 700 compared with some 2700 awarded in 1979. These scholarships will be awarded only to students studying at C's.A.E.
The possibilities are that once the states abolished scholarships, the Commonwealth could ally its living allowance more closely with present needs, it could make the means test more generous or possibly a proportion of the allowance could be non-means tested. Resources for this betterment could become available from the saving in state allocations when scholarships (some 18,000 of which are held at the present time by students in N.S.W.) were eliminated from state budgets, while the states would be able to devote more resources to special allowances and housing for country teachers as incentives to stability in staffing. Specialised contact could continue to be maintained with intending teachers by the Teacher Education Advisory Service which would be reviewed to ensure that it was fulfilling its requirements of providing academic and personal advice to students. N.S.W. may need to retain temporarily differentiated awards for a small number of students preparing to teach specialist subjects, however, the same provision could be made for the training of persons for any profession which was in demand.

The introduction of a loan system for students has been under discussion for some time. The Bell Committee (N.S.W., 1971, p. 50) proposed that overseas schemes be observed with a view to future considerations in N.S.W. while the Senate Committee (1972, p. 27) indicated the advantage to the student of gaining a qualification for a personally chosen career rather than being committed reluctantly to a career dictated by his economic needs. The Commonwealth government has recommended that loans would be feasible as supplements to allowances or to meet special needs (Education News, 1977, p. 56) and they could become an accepted form of educational financing as they are for example, in Canada and the U.S.A. The present system of generous (when considered over the four years) unbonded scholarships without a means test is being
abused by a minority of students and it is attracting some who do not want to teach. The rapid changes which have occurred in N.S.W. largely on political grounds do not appear to stabilise the situation of financial aid to teacher education students. Bain (1976, p. 42) is hopeful that the changing situation will encourage the adoption of a system which will attract the most suitable and motivated people as teachers in the future.

Summary: England appears to have developed a stable pattern of financial aid to all tertiary students. N.S.W., by comparison, has piecemeal provisions for financial aid. The contrast may be a result of differences in the economic and social contexts. England's economic system is the more dependent on its service sector of the two countries (see Chapter 3, p. 77). English people are more dependent on their government for social welfare than Australians are. There are grounds to believe that N.S.W. and other states may adopt a modified form of the English pattern of financial aid to students. What would seem to be most suitable for N.S.W. is an undifferentiated, mean-tested allowance to all tertiary students, together with loans for those who wish to use them. Whatever system is decided upon, however, there is a need for stability to be established with an appropriate co-ordination of federal and state resources.

4.43 Appointment and Placement of Teachers

In this section the traditional procedures in the appointment and placement of new teachers in state schools as well as the most recent changes in these procedures, which have been influenced by the reduced demand for teachers, will be considered. The teacher's first appointment
and placement are two of the important factors influencing how he settles into the teacher role. The most evident difference between N.S.W. and England is that of the method of appointment and placement of teachers. In N.S.W., it is a highly centralised Education Department that controls appointment and placement for an area vast in geographical size and with an unevenly distributed population. By comparison, in England there is a marked decentralisation of education which is reflected strongly in the allocation of placement and appointment powers to each of the 104 Local Education Authorities. The N.S.W. Department of Education has adopted the policy that a centralised staffing procedure ensures the equitable distribution of teachers - in respect of qualifications, experience and skill. In both systems, however, the recent phenomenon of a teacher surplus has affected policy thinking. In England the response has been quite rapid, resulting in the adoption of new methods of appointing new teachers. At the time of writing there have been no apparent changes in the method of appointment and placement of teachers in N.S.W.

**England:** Certain procedures are traditional in England in the appointment of teachers to their first posts. At least this was so during the 1960's and early 1970's when there were ample teaching positions. The changed situation in the middle and late 1970's of a surplus of teachers has been quite dramatic, it is so recent that few published comments are available on the situation. The findings of a survey of 3,588 probationary teachers by Taylor and Dale (1971) will be referred to in this section.

The traditional pattern of placement of new teachers in schools consists of application by final year students and others, selection
interviews, and appointment. Appointments depend on the resignations from schools by serving teachers who must give three months' notice of their resignations. Before 31st May in each year, students have made their applications, 6.7 per cent of Taylor and Dale's (1971, p. 59) group applied to an L.E.A. and the remainder applied to a particular school. School Boards may interview applicants or the L.E.A. Education Officers may undertake the interviewing on the schools' behalf especially when there are many positions throughout an area to be filled. An effect of the teacher surplus has been a striking change in the interviewing procedure which is exemplified in an incident reported by a teacher to Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson (1976, p. 35). Experienced and new applicants for a position are called in on the same day for interviewing, they are shown around the school together, they wait together for their interviews and finally they wait until the successful applicant is named.

The reasons for students' choices of a particular L.E.A., reported to Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 51), were primarily its proximity to their homes or spouse's place of work (58 per cent) while only five per cent had made their choices on the educational suitability of the post or the area. In some cases, this choice would be based on experience during practice teaching.

The selection of a new teacher to fill a position depends on the interview and on the comprehensive record which the teacher education institution sends to the L.E.A. either as a standard procedure or on request. The L.E.A's. respond that they find the grade in practice teaching the most useful factor in selecting teachers (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 55-56). With the present competition for a limited number of
vacant positions the selection interview is more likely to take place in the school, and Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson (1976, p. 204) mention a case of all members of a subject department being involved in the selection interview, including a probationary member.

An L.E.A. which has a number of vacancies may begin to make offers to potential teachers before the exact vacancies are known and before the students have completed their courses (Collins, 1969, p. 16). According to the study of Taylor and Dale (1971, pp. 59-60) teaching appointments were made to a particular school in seventy-two per cent of secondary teaching appointments and in sixty-three per cent of primary appointments while the remainder were allocated to an L.E.A. "pool" initially and given their exact appointments later. At the present time some L.E.A's. still direct new teachers to a school (Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson, 1976, p. 115). The L.E.A's. respond that the most helpful information from the training institutions in their placement of teachers is the practice teaching report, followed by the grade in academic subjects and the descriptive report, although it is interesting to note that the institutions expect that the descriptive report would be the most useful (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 57). When there were vacancies to be filled, L.E.A's. were obliged to appoint teachers who were considered to be poor risks. Students who had received low teaching marks were appointed selectively to positions so that special help could be given them if needed (Collins, 1969, p. 30). In Taylor and Dale's survey (1971, pp. 53-54) eighty-five per cent of new teachers were appointed to the school or the L.E.A. of their first choice and it was noted that generally the better the student's performance in practice teaching, the more likely he was to obtain his first choice.
By comparison with new teachers in N.S.W., those entering the English system are distinctly advantaged by the system of making early appointments. Thus the new teacher has plenty of opportunity to visit his new school well before the teaching year, meet the head teacher and staff, receive information on the age group of the children and levels in the subjects which are to be taught. Seventy-six per cent of appointments in Taylor and Dale's survey (1971, p. 64) were known by 1st July, a date several months prior to the next school year.

Although the head teacher is not always involved in the initial selection of the new teacher, it is beneficial to both if the head has the opportunity to interview the teacher before the appointment is confirmed. This occurred in approximately fifty per cent of appointments (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 61). At this meeting with the head, the new teacher is able to find out what will be expected of him and the head may begin to notice his relative strengths and weaknesses (Hanson and Herrington, 1976, p. 35). The opportunity to visit the new school during the previous year depends on a sufficiently early notice of appointment. The percentage of new teachers which was invited to visit the school was eighty-three, while ninety-three per cent actually visited irrespective of their receiving invitations (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 68-69). If the visit can be arranged sufficiently early the teacher is able to meet staff colleagues, which occurred on seventy per cent of the visits, and his future pupils, which occurred on thirty-six per cent of visits (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 70), while information which will help him in his preparation for the school year may be obtained first hand. A knowledge of the classes, age groups, levels of ability, subjects to be taught, a syllabus, and information about the school's policy are most helpful to the new teacher, and if this is not available at the time
that a visit is made to the school, the head teacher may send it
during the vacation. A total of eighty-two per cent of teachers
received this information early enough for it to assist them in their
preparation (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 65). In addition to curriculum
information, sometimes a school will send notes about the school's more
informal aspects including the social environment and the background
of the pupils (Maden, 1975, p. 19). Some intending teachers (twenty-
six per cent) were given an opportunity to teach in their appointed
school during the last part of the preceding term but a teacher shortage
might have been the reason rather than a policy of gradual induction
into a school post. Seventy-one per cent of these new teachers were
unpaid for this teaching experience (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 71-72).

When an L.E.A. has a number of vacancies to fill, difficulty is
experienced in placing each teacher in a suitable position, but
authorities do attempt to avoid placing probationers on supply teaching
(which involves transfer and relieving) and school principals avoid
placing them on classes of backward children or on very large and
difficult classes if possible (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 63). It is
thought to be most important for beginning teachers to be informed
fully and guided into their new positions so that (1) their first days
at school are spent in a situation which is already familiar to them,
and (2) a more satisfying and successful beginning may be made. What
is the extent of satisfaction expressed by probationary teachers with
their appointment and the procedures of their placement? Eighty-nine
per cent were reasonably satisfied and ten per cent were not reasonably
satisfied (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 75).
Summary: As a general principle, the L.E.A. is responsible for staffing the schools in its area, an area which is reasonably uniform geographically. Also the quota system (Chapter 3, p. 68), ensures an equitable staffing of schools. The L.E.A. in co-operation with head teachers takes care to make appointments in the best interests of the neophyte, his future pupils, and his teaching colleagues.

N.S.W.: The abolition of bonded scholarships in N.S.W. as a single important innovation of the 1970's in the pattern of teacher appointment has resulted in a considerable change. There are now in effect two methods of teacher appointment, one for ex-students who were formerly bonded scholarship holders (called priority students), and one for private students and students awarded scholarships after 1976. The latter group always comprised a small proportion of applicants for teaching but clearly this group will grow in size each year as the priority students complete their courses. The methods of selection, appointment and placement of both groups will be considered in this section.

The preparation for the appointment of new teachers begins during the final student year. General information-giving meetings are arranged for students by representatives of the employing authority, with emphasis being given to the prospects of students gaining an appointment of their choice. During that year each student is interviewed by a departmental teacher education adviser purely for the purpose of giving the student personal advice about teaching and to answer his questions, a procedure which puts into effect the Bell Committee's Recommendation xxii (N.S.W., 1971, p. 53). This interview is not for the purposes of appointment and placement of the student, however the information from it may be used later on in the sequence of events leading to appointment. Priority
students complete an information sheet [TP98 (primary) or TP98(a) (secondary) (example in Appendix 13)] which requests data on the course which they expect to complete, teaching subjects, other subjects studied, special interests and skills, other qualifications, the type of teaching position sought, for example, infants, special education, library, district relief, and finally the regions of preference. The teacher education adviser writes comments concerning each student's suitability for the position sought, together with a brief impression of his strengths and weaknesses if possible, and the forms are forwarded to the State Education Department's head office in September. The priority students are not interviewed for employment. Private applicants complete a different form which is forwarded to the Department in December and they are interviewed at a later date by a District Inspector of Schools or a Regional Inspector. The interviewer would ask to see these students' practice teaching reports. This interview is not for a particular position, therefore it tends to be less personal than the interview by an English L.E.A. officer for a "pool" appointment.

Teachers who intend to resign are required to give one month's notice. From September to November the promotion of teachers takes place, of principals, deputy principals, then masters and mistresses followed by the transfers of serving teachers. Vacant positions generally are known in December. Principals who have a vacant position will give as clear an indication as possible to the Department of the type of teacher they would need to fill it, particularly in abilities and interests. There is no selection of priority students for positions, Sydney-based staffing officers' have the task of fitting them into a "suitable" position. A factor which clearly has a negative impact on beginning teachers, and as a departmental response to the teacher surplus
problem, may be an appointment to reserve (supernumary) position that is expected to result in a transfer to a vacant full-time position, if and when one becomes available. This matter will be considered in detail in section 4.44. In December the Teacher Education Advisory Office sends the students' completed course qualifications which consist simply of passed or failed, whether they are qualified for three, four or five years' trained status and whether practice teaching was satisfactory. Practice teaching reports or the grades in courses are not requested, however, in order to assist staffing inspectors, the teacher education adviser attempts to obtain information from institutions with concurrent courses about those students who show particular promise and those who would need careful placement.

During middle and late January, priority ex-students receive notices of their teaching appointments which state (1) the subject area of appointment for secondary teachers, (2) whether primary or infants for primary teachers, (3) whether a replacement or a reserve appointment, and (4) the teacher's status for salary purposes. The teacher is asked to forward a brief personal information form to the school principal. In the context of the transitional problem of the new teacher, it is important to note that this is the first contact between the principal and his new staff member. Indeed, if the new teacher does not make contact with the school principal, the principal may not have any information whatsoever about his new staff member until the first day of the new school term. At this time the private applicants remain on the waiting list for an offer of appointment and at the present time the first criterion for their selection is apparently their availability to fill a vacant position in any part of the state for which no reserve teacher is available, not the practice teaching report as it is in England.
If a priority teacher decides not to take the position he is offered, he may take a place on the waiting list after the private applicants, but an exception to this is if a probationer is offered a position in a special school he may consider it, decline to accept it and be offered another position. The majority of teachers are appointed to large metropolitan schools. In a survey of the appointments of graduates from the University of Wollongong and the Wollongong Institute of Education (Wollongong Teacher Education Advisory Office, 1978), of 205 primary teachers, only twelve were appointed to small schools with enrolments of 35 to 180 children, and of 118 secondary teachers, only five were appointed to central schools (combined primary-secondary schools in country towns). In the same year (1978), from a group of 323 new primary and secondary teachers, fifty per cent were appointed to the region of their first choice, fifteen per cent were appointed to their second choice, eighteen per cent to their third choice and seventeen per cent were appointed to a region which was not among their choices. It is also worth noting that sixty-one per cent of the sample gave the reason of "close proximity to home or their spouse's place of work" as the reason for their choice of location for teaching while only four per cent made their choices on educational grounds. By contrast with England, however, N.S.W. students have no opportunity to apply to particular schools.

This pattern of choices and placement has been consistent throughout the state over a number of years and it indicates that consideration is given to the ex-students' choices when this is possible although at the time of the Bell Report (N.S.W., 1971, p. 53) teachers had the impression that their personal wishes were totally ignored. However, the likelihood of a teacher gaining an appointment of his choice does
not depend on the promise that he showed in teaching practice, but rather on his willingness to serve in a region which needs teachers.

Since the new teacher typically receives his appointment notice between three weeks and a few days before the beginning of the school year he has no realistic opportunity to become familiar with the staff and pupils of the school prior to his first day of full-time teaching service. The teacher may, however, visit the Regional Office of Education to have his general enquiries answered, but it is unlikely that the Regional Office would be able to give him any specific information about the class or classes and subjects that he will teach or other general school information. In some regions, however, some efforts are being made to improve these circumstances. For example, in 1977 the teachers who had been appointed to the far western district of the Western Region of N.S.W. were invited to attend a two day induction course to assist in preparing them for the special problems that a far west teacher may face. The course was able to be held immediately before the school year began since the schools in this district, due to climatic factors, have an additional week's vacation compared with regions in more temperate zones. Further reference will be made to this induction course in a later section.

Despite the difficulties of operating a staffing procedure over the large area of the state efforts are made by the Department of Education staffing inspectors to appoint probationary teachers to schools and by principals to place them on classes, such that there would be improved possibility of a more successful induction in teaching (Turney, 1977, p. 81). The Department attempts to avoid first appointments to district relief or other unsettling situations. Beginning teachers at the present
time understand that the Department does its best to meet their reasonable wishes in their placement. According to the Wollongong Study (Wollongong T.E.A.O., 1978), the extent of satisfaction with the appointment to the first teaching position was in the order of 85.4 per cent from a group of eighty-six primary and secondary teachers with 14.6 per cent expressing dissatisfaction with their appointments. This would suggest that a large proportion of teachers were satisfied with the location of their appointments, which is not to say, of course, that they eventually found satisfaction in their work as teachers.

Quite striking differences between the methods of appointment and placement are evident in England and N.S.W. Contrasts with England in the appointment of beginning teachers become apparent when the N.S.W. practices of application, placement, the timing of the appointment, the care which is taken in placing new teachers and the satisfaction that they express, are examined. The juxtaposition of the practices in each country has indicated that this is a problem area in teacher education. That problem will be considered in the comparative stage of this study when the shortcomings will be compared, solutions to the problem will be proposed and the possibility of selective borrowing of solutions will be considered.

4.44 Transition to Teaching

The observations on the appointment of beginning teachers to schools lead to a consideration of the next stage in their transition into the role of teacher. The procedures which are adopted in England and N.S.W. for the induction of beginning teachers will be juxtaposed. Care in the appointment and placement, together with a sympathetic induction are
important in the new teacher's development towards the realisation of his full potential. The most recent developments in the induction of beginning teachers will be juxtaposed for each country. Differences are expected to predominate as was apparent in the appointment and placement of teachers.

**England:** In England the newly trained teacher has always been appointed on probation for his first year which is intended to be a bridge between the initial training and the undertaking of full professional responsibilities (Collins, 1969, p. 2). The head teacher and the L.E.A. are responsible for the assessment and the determination of successful probation or for a recommendation that the teacher's probationary period be extended (Collins, 1969, p. 4). The probationary year has been criticised for failing to assist the teachers satisfactorily (see Chapter 3, p. 75). The provision of assistance to probationary teachers in England prior to the James Report (1972a) will be reviewed as the Report is a distinguishing mark between the traditional provisions and the recent attitudes to induction. The recent developments will be discussed separately then juxtaposed with N.S.W. practices.

The traditional provisions for the probationary year are discussed with reference to (1) the needs and problems of new teachers, (2) school-based programmes, (3) institution-based programmes, (4) the assessment of probation, and (5) the shortcomings in induction before the James Enquiry. Taylor and Dale from Bristol University's survey (1971) of probationary teachers elicited information on seven aspects of the first year of teaching. The survey revealed that much assistance was available to beginning teachers but that the assistance was poorly organised and that it was not necessarily of the kind that was needed most. Suggestions
arose for better planned and co-ordinated approaches. According to Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 117) the "... central and most crucial single problem area or issue of the first year of teaching is concerned with ... performance within the classroom." Collins (1961, p. 77) suggests that performance includes discipline, class management and coping with children of widely-ranging abilities. It is worth noting in reference to the performance issue that teachers want to know the procedures by which they will be assessed and they need someone with whom to discuss their professional and personal problems (Bolam, 1971, p. 43). Also, much of the knowledge about classroom problems and the school environment has to be learned as the teacher goes along (Koerner, 1968, p. 71).

Since the induction of beginning teachers commences by considering their wants and needs the most important induction agency is the school. Taylor and Dale's survey (1971, p. 167) found that probationary teachers were aware that they could approach the head teacher or other members of staff for advice or assistance and that sixty-nine per cent discussed their work or problems with the head and seventy per cent approached a colleague of their choice. Colleagues, particularly younger ones, have always played a valuable part in assisting new teachers (Collins, 1969, p. 12). The practice by head teachers of designating a member of staff to look after the welfare of probationers occurred in seventy-three per cent of secondary schools and in thirty eight per cent of primary schools. In some schools the head himself would have undertaken the task while in others it would have been a shared responsibility (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 73-74). Schools, particularly secondary ones, have policies, rules and traditions which the new teacher needs to understand. Twenty-one per cent of probationary teachers mentioned that they were
given a book or handout on the school policies, thirty-six per cent were told of the policy by the head teacher, fifty-seven per cent sought the advice of colleagues on school policy and twenty-four per cent learned something of the school policy from the children (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 168-69). These figures indicate a more than marginal success in the less formal aspects of induction into teaching.

Collins (1969, p. 6) maintains that the integration of the new teacher into his profession should be the function of the school and its advisers, however it is undesirable that the induction should entail a complete lack of communication with colleges or departments of education. Notable in this regard is the fact that only some eleven per cent of probationary teachers had discussed their progress and teaching problems with someone from their former tertiary institution or from the nearest tertiary institution (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 97). On those occasions that the tertiary institutions were involved in the induction of new teachers it was to make their facilities available for meetings, while staff assisted in organising programmes, lecturing, or leading groups in courses which were arranged by an L.E.A. (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 84).

The L.E.A. has a responsibility to assist the teachers in the schools which it controls. L.E.A. advisory staff may visit the teachers or organise induction courses in a central location, although there is considerable variety in the type and amount of assistance that is provided. In Taylor and Dale's survey (1971, pp. 82-83) fifty-one per cent of L.E.A 's. gave guidance to their probationary teachers through advisers and five per cent used inspectors' assistance. Twenty-five per cent of authorities did not name either of these people as sources of guidance since some authorities leave the task entirely to the schools. Only twenty-one per cent of L.E.A 's. had the facilities of a teachers'
centre and only ten per cent were providing group programmes for beginning teachers at the time of the survey (Bolam, 1971, p. 42). Induction courses were held in school time or in the teachers' own time. Some courses were programmed early in the year, some were held every term while others were held nearer the end of the first year. A typical course programme might have consisted of a talk by an inspector, the head teacher of a local school, a college lecturer or a professional specialist from the L.E.A., plus a demonstration of visual aids or equipment, and group discussions on the identification of general teaching problems (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 85-86). The advantage of a course consisting of a series of meetings was that the general opening discussion might lead to more specific problems to which solutions could be found during workshop sessions (Bolam, 1971, p. 47). A small number of induction courses was held before the school year which six per cent of beginning teachers reported that they had attended. Despite the range of courses which was available only thirty-six per cent of the teachers surveyed attended any course for probationer induction (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 89-91). Informal meetings were arranged by some L.E.A's and the advantage of these was the opportunity for probationers to discuss common problems with others who were experiencing them (Collins, 1969, p. 14). Probationers were encouraged to see as much good teaching as possible by observing teachers in their own school or by visiting other schools (Edmonds, 1966, p. 7). Also, the school representative of the N.U.T. was a point of contact and an additional source of guidance. Sources of assistance to beginning teachers generally have been located within the school, to a much lesser extent the tertiary institutions, the L.E.A., or co-operative arrangements which involve all three sources. Edmonds (1966, p. 9) mentions the importance of avoiding spoon-feeding the teachers by encouraging them to seek help for themselves if they are
experiencing problems, provided that they know from where this help is available.

During the probationary period the new teacher is being assessed as to whether his appointment as a teacher will be confirmed. Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 104) indicated that in many L.E.A's the head teacher is responsible for reporting on the probationers' satisfaction of the requirements as a competent teacher, while in some L.E.A's the head teacher and a local inspector assess jointly. The head teacher must come in to observe some lessons but most of the heads do so unobtrusively. Some have the teacher report to them on lessons afterwards. Some probationers would have felt more satisfied had the head visited their classrooms more frequently (Collins, 1969, pp. 2, 85). At the time of Taylor and Dale's survey (1971, p. 108) 3.9 per cent of all new teachers in England and Wales had their probationary period extended beyond one year. The survey noted that those probationers who had attended an induction course and had talked with an adviser were less likely to have had their probation extended than those who had missed these advantages (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 109).

An examination of the composition of the probationary year during the 1960's and early 1970's presents a variety of impressions. Perhaps the most generalised conclusion that can be drawn is that the informal methods of induction were more successful than those of a formal kind. Of importance is the fact that the James Report gave much criticism of the evident lack of support for new teachers, a condition which was argued to be due to the mistaken belief that interference with the teacher in his new role was unprofessional. The James Report proposed a planned reinforcement of the induction procedure in the first year in
school (Gr. Brit., 1972a, p. 21). The D.E.S. White Paper (1972b, p. 19) supported the need for a more effective induction so that the probationary year would become "... less daunting than it has often been in the past." The James Report and the White Paper have stimulated improvements which will be examined shortly. About seven per cent of all teachers in 1975 were beginners and attempts are made to know what their problems are so that more assistance can be given to them (Price, 1975, p. 2). Schools in a number of L.E.A's have been appointing teacher-tutors who are responsible for the probationers' welfare (Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson, 1976, p. 9). Concurrently with this assistance, teachers need to be given the incentives to enable them to take advantage of all the resources available to them in and out of school (Hewett, 1971, p. 129).

The present pattern of the induction of beginning teachers is next discussed with reference to (1) the aspects of their needs and problems, (2) the introduction of new pilot schemes following the government's White Paper, (3) the teacher-tutor system and the training of tutors, (4) evaluating the pilot schemes, (5) other models which are unsponsored, (6) the advantages of school-based induction programmes, (7) the externally-based programmes, and (8) the present assessment of probationary teachers.

One of the serious problems that new teachers experience is loneliness in the classroom as they attempt to relate what they have learned to the practical situation (Gleeson, 1974, p. 31). Teachers become involved immediately with the responsibility for their pupils, in relationships with parents and fellow teachers, and with personal responsibilities. The mistakes made during probationary teaching, unlike practice teaching, have to be lived with (Bolam, 1971, p. 41).
The deficiencies in probation, which were identified in Taylor and Dale's survey and referred to in the White Paper, led to a planned programme which the D.E.S. has sponsored in two pilot areas, Liverpool and Northumberland. The pilot L.E.A.'s were able to implement certain key recommendations of the D.E.S., these were: (1) the reduction of probationers' teaching load, (2) their release for one day a week for induction, (3) the appointment and training of teacher-tutors to help them, and (4) the organisation of induction courses at centres outside schools. The reduced teaching load was valued by the probationers who were able to use the extra time for lesson preparation and for discussions on their teaching work. A number of them claimed that had they not had light loads they would have left teaching. In the pilot areas the probationers' release time was used for in-school activities with the teacher-tutor early in the year and for centre-based activities later (D.E.S., 1976, p. 2). Teacher-tutors were appointed within most schools which had probationers, while two were appointed if there were more than five probationers (McCabe, 1975, p. 9). The tutors were released from about five per cent of their teaching duties. The idea of itinerant tutors was rejected and, in small schools, the head or the deputy head became the tutor. Liverpool city has established five teachers' centres, four of them are in colleges of education. The tutoring staff for the probationer courses is drawn largely from practising teachers, while colleges provide staff for particular sessions. During second and third terms when induction courses are organised in the centres, teachers are expected to attend on a half day a week as a requirement of their probationary year (Lambert, 1977,1, p. 44). Northumberland is a more rural area in which two teachers' centres are established in colleges where block release residential courses for one week were held to overcome travelling difficulties. Some of the high schools in Northumberland
chose not to be involved in the block courses and they have established their own in-school programmes which would cover the same aspects of induction as the residential courses cover (Lambert, 1977, p. 45). The pilot areas have conducted additional meetings and courses on specific subject areas or themes outside school time at which attendance has been voluntary (Eggleston, 1974, p. 103).

The teachers who have been appointed as tutors within the schools are expected to be good teachers and not too senior in age to the new teachers (Lambert, 1977, p. 43). The appointments are for one year and they carry an allowance (Hill, 1975, p. 32). It is noted that the teacher-tutor who is responsible for probationary teachers is a different post from a teacher-tutor who was mentioned earlier as one who holds a joint appointment in a school and a tertiary institution. The broad function of this teacher-tutor is to continue the training of probationers from the initial course into the first year of teaching (Kelly, 1975, p. 4), to co-ordinate the in-school training, and to be the link between the school and other agencies (Parry, 1972, p. 64). The tutors design a programme for the professional development of each probationer including the guidance for his courses at the teachers' centre. The head teacher and the head of a secondary subject department have responsibilities to the probationer which are not reduced by the presence of a tutor who co-ordinates the supervisory functions of all staff (Lambert, 1977, p. 43). The teacher-tutor is responsible also for the arrangement of a preliminary school visit before the probationer takes up his appointment, assisting with professional or personal problems that may arise and helping the probationer to develop effective teaching techniques (Hill, 1975, p. 36). The tutor familiarises himself with the range of in-service opportunities available so that he may advise the
beginning teachers (Knowlson, 1973, p. 7). Teacher-tutors have not become involved yet in the other areas of responsibility which the James Report has envisaged; that is, a liaison with trainee teachers and work with teachers in their choice and pursuit of in-service opportunities beyond the induction period, but Knowlson (1973, p. 6) sees these as possible long-term developments. The personal qualities which Knowlson (1973, p. 9) sees as being necessary in teacher-tutors are tact, loyalty, restraint, and initiative for their role of liaison between the young teachers and the executive staff. The teacher-tutors in the pilot areas received up to ten days of preliminary training, but some form of continuing training is needed for them also (D.E.S., 1976b, p. 3).

After supporting two innovative pilot schemes for the induction of beginning teachers for two years, the D.E.S. (1976b, p. 7) made some preliminary evaluations. The new teachers found the courses to be helpful while head teachers thought that the probationers' teaching performances had improved as had their professional self-image. The professional stimulation which accompanied the interchanging of ideas was beneficial to a school staff, college staff, and teachers' centre personnel. The probationers felt that the in-school programmes were more worthwhile than the centre-based courses (McCabe, 1975, p. 11). The Liverpool college lecturers who assisted with the courses tended to treat the teachers as if they were still in training, and in this area's second year the amount of out-of-school time was reduced (Lambert, 1977,1, p. 44). All those who are associated with the induction services in England agree that they must be seen as part of in-service, not as part of preservice teacher training (Lambert, 1977,1, p. 47). The state of the British economy has resulted in the postponement of assistance to induction schemes nationally, but some optimum induction may be attained
on a limited budget since the numbers of probationers are declining each year. It should be noted that the teacher-tutor scheme was suggested by James for interning teachers who would have had only about four weeks' in-school experience previously, while the present probationers are qualified teachers. A fully qualified teacher must accept many responsibilities. Probationers therefore would benefit from a gradual involvement with responsibilities. (A sample of responses by probationers to an evaluation of their first year of teaching is presented in Appendix 14.)

Other L.E.A.'s have developed different induction schemes, some of which present interesting models for comparison, but each one must be provided on its own budget and none would be able to finance tutors, teachers' centres or release teachers on the scale of the pilot schemes (Lambert, 1977, 1, p. 45). The D.E.S. Report, Helping New Teachers: The Induction Year (1976b, pp. 5-6) presents five models of induction schemes which are in operation and which range from the traditional informal help by the head and colleagues that was criticised by James, to the Liverpool and Northumberland schemes. (A diagram from the report, showing the five models, is given in Appendix 15.). Three models which lie between the stages of informal help and maximum help represent (1) an in-school programme which is led by a particular advisory teacher, (2) centre-based voluntary courses which are conducted by external tutors, and (3) a model in which peripatetic advisory teachers work with probationers in their own schools as well as in the organising of teachers' centre activities within a district. These projects are making useful contributions in the form of help to probationers in the exploration of alternatives to the two sponsored schemes.
The work in the pilot areas highlights the need for the right balance to be struck between school-based and centre-based activities. The following comments demonstrate that the views and reasons of evaluators favour a school-based emphasis. The individualised help which induction schemes offer should be focussed on the probationers' problems in their own classrooms. Eight per cent of induction time, at least early in the year, in Hill's opinion (1975, p. 39) should be spent in the probationer's own school. The reduction of the probationers' teaching load has caused problems in their replacement by suitable people from among supply teachers who must fit into the total school programme to ensure its success (McCabe, 1975, p. 11). The head is a key figure in the induction procedure but other teachers share responsibilities towards the new teacher. The participation of practising teachers in the induction and in-service training of new colleagues is innovative (Eggleston, 1974, p. 87). Eggleston (1974, p. 106) concludes that "... the main thrust of establishing the teachers' identity will be borne not so much by the training institutions ... but rather by the schools through the development of the probationary year."

For geographical reasons training institutions cannot be involved with their own ex-students, desirable as it would be to create a continuum of the initial course and the probationary year. However, institutions maintain informal contacts with their ex-students and some are involved with induction courses (Kelly, 1973, p. 3). The centre-based courses are organised by the profession with university and college personnel there to assist, but seldom in the forefront (Crane, 1975, p. 63) and it is understood that the new teachers prefer to avoid any feelings that they are going back to college. A teachers' centre or college of education is removed from the area of immediate concern (Kelly, 1973, p. 3) and
when teaching problems are discussed in a group which came from many schools, this discussion would have to be done at a general level. Sometimes the induction courses duplicate work that has been done in college. This need not be a criticism. The main benefit from centre-based courses, however, is the opportunity that they provide for contact with other probationers (D.E.S., 1976, p. 4).

Traditionally the head teacher is responsible for assessing the competence of the probationary teacher in England. The head would consult with other members of staff who are involved with the probationer. Generally, the teacher tutor is not responsible for assessment although he may be consulted (Lambert, 1977,1, p. 44). The confidant should not be the assessor although in those smaller schools where the head teacher is the tutor obviously this dual role does occur (Hill, 1975, p. 32).

Summary: an interaction among experienced and new teachers, teacher educators and L.E.A. personnel has begun with an exchange of ideas and the establishment of valuable programmes of in-service training for beginning teachers. In-service training is an important step in the provision of continuing opportunities for all teachers. This was, in fact, envisaged by James in his third cycle (Parry, 1972, p. 65). The methods of assisting new teachers in their transition to teaching prior to the James Report have been discussed, and the changed approach, which the Report and the White Paper stimulated, has been outlined. Two pilot schemes have been organised to meet the needs of probationers, teacher-tutors have been undertaking their new functions and the schemes have been evaluated progressively. Such evaluations suggest that the best thrust of the assistance to new teachers is in the school-based activities. The transition of new teachers in N.S.W. will be juxtaposed with England.
N.S.W.: The problems associated with transition to teaching in N.S.W. show differences from England although these differences are not substantial. As in England, separate, fragmentary approaches have been made to the induction of beginning teachers in N.S.W. The assistance to first year teachers generally has been the responsibility of the school principal, inspectors or senior staff members. N.S.W. teachers are appointed on probation and the length of their probation used to be in inverse proportion to their length of training. A three-year trained teacher had two years' probation and a two-year trained teacher had three years' probation. Now the normal probation is one year for all teachers. The Bell Report of Inquiry into Teacher Education (1971) may be seen as a parallel to the Taylor and Dale survey in England, as it indicated the shortcomings in all aspects of teacher preparation including the early years of service, and it made recommendations for improvements, some of which have been implemented. Other improvements have had to wait because, until recently, there has been either a shortage or a bare sufficiency of teachers. In this situation every teacher, no matter how inexperienced, was needed to staff the classrooms (Turney, 1977, p. 81). This section will include comments on aspects of the organisation of programmes for the transition to teaching which are similar to those discussed in the English context (1) probationers' needs and problems (2) the recommendations of the Bell Committee, (3) induction programmes during preservice preparation, (4) in-service courses based in schools, and (5) those based outside schools. Examples of programmes will be given and the methods of assessment of probationers will be discussed.

Teachers experience an incongruency between their preservice and actual teaching which is disconcerting if not traumatic (Fyfield, Tisher
and Taylor, 1977, p. 21). The incongruency exists because the teachers have been trained to do a job which is different from what they find they must do (Coulter, 1973, p. 47) although they cannot expect to be told "how to teach" (Kaye, 1975, p. 57). While the beginning teacher usually is keen to have a class of his own, many problems have to be faced in isolation because the teaching situation is an isolated one (Turney, 1977, p. 81). There is a need for beginning teachers to adjust to the social climate of the school. Beginning teachers may be torn between implementing a progressive approach or reverting to the system that they knew as pupils (Anstee, 1976a, p. 56). When the most pressing concern is survival in the classroom a beginning teacher often may adopt the solutions to problems of older colleagues which he wished to reject at first (Coulter, 1973, p. 44). Teachers who attended courses for novices in a Western Australian project stated that the topics which were most useful in such courses were problem children and discipline, motivation in teaching, programming, attitudes of parents and employers, sharing ideas, record keeping, equipment and evaluation techniques (Turney, 1977, p. 256). Additional needs and abilities to be developed are summarised in an Australian Teachers' Federation Working Party paper (Anstee, 1976b, p. 1) as the development of self-confidence, self-awareness, competence, and the ability to maintain staff relationships. Teacher education courses cannot prepare for all the needs of beginning teachers because each teaching situation is different.

The Bell Report (1971, p. 54) recommended a reduction in the work load for new teachers in terms of time and stress, with special consideration for the size and nature of the assigned classes. The Karmel Report (Schools Commission, 1973, p. 121) also recommended a light teaching load so that probationers could receive on-the-job
assistance. The Bell Committee (1971, pp. 53-54) felt that there was a need for a well-organised induction procedure and that teacher-advisers could be appointed to work with first year teachers in the way that some of the English teacher-tutor schemes operate. As well as personal benefits, the economic investment on staff should be considered. The committee had reported a high loss rate in their early teaching years of dissatisfied teachers. The present adequacy of teacher supply should allow the implementation of the policies of reduced work loads for beginners (Turney, 1977, p. 260).

Various programmes for the induction of beginning teachers have been prepared in Australia and one objective must be to achieve a balance between the demands of the school and of the individual, since teachers, unlike other employees, have not been selected to fit a position. The teacher who emerges from a tertiary institution to take his place in a school has satisfying and dissatisfying experiences and if some of the dissatisfiers can be removed the satisfiers will be allowed to operate more easily (Grassie, 1976, p. 9). The responsibility for the smooth induction of a newcomer into the profession is shared in varying degrees by the training institution, the employing authority and members of the profession itself (Fyfield, Tisher and Taylor, 1977, p. 21).

The first pattern to be discussed is a course for preservice students in their final year of teacher education. Two examples, at Newcastle and Wollongong, will be described. At Newcastle College of Advanced Education, Rees and Telfer (reported in Turney, 1977, pp. 134, 189-90) have designed an elective course for final year students in groups of twenty-five. The course presents simulated teaching situations to students with the aid of a typical school policy, a calendar, pupil
record cards, a set of case studies and other materials. The students visit schools and participate in discussions with practising teachers, inspectors, federation representatives, counsellors, teachers' centre representatives and others. The simulation and active participation lead to student discussion and risk-free decision making.

At Wollongong, the inspectorial and other professional staff of the N.S.W. South Coast Region, representatives of the staff and student body of Wollongong Institute of Education and the University of Wollongong, together with the Teacher Education Advisers conferred about the need for a well organised and co-ordinated course to prepare final year students for their teaching role with the N.S.W. Education Department. The regional staff organised separate but similar programmes for the University and Institute students. The format for a two half-day course in 1976 dealt with the following themes: what it means to be employed as a teacher, the structure of the Department of Education, the teachers' handbook and other documents, the assessment of the probationer, superannuation, leave and entitlements. The second day included talks on the primary school or the secondary school, the school executive's expectations of new teachers, the teacher and the law and how the teaching service helps the newcomer in school and beyond school. The programme ended with separate group discussions for intending teachers in each of the subject areas. Additions to the course for 1977 were the services of the Teachers' Federation and parent and community views, responsibilities and involvements. Preservice induction of the types which have been described are not intended to provide all that a student will need in his transition to the role of teacher, but this preparatory course would lead into an in-service phase which would continue through the probationary year.
The Schools Commission (1973, p. 123) comments that the continuing development of teachers should largely be the responsibility of the teaching profession. Many schools which are staffed with a fairly high proportion of probationers do, in fact, organise in-school induction programmes for them. An example of the ways in which a primary school and a secondary school assist their beginning teachers follows. In primary schools the principal is responsible for assisting the young teacher to make the fullest use of the knowledge that he has acquired during training, and for guiding him further towards full professional competence (Connolly, 1973, p. 35). A primary principal or his deputy would prepare a guided programme for his probationers which would comprise special meetings, staff meetings in which probationers would be encouraged to participate, and discussions on the school policy, programming, written records and pupils' work. In a number of secondary schools (from information gathered by this writer by observing and interviewing in schools) an in-school induction programme would consist of a series of meetings which would assist the probationers in becoming familiar with the whole school scene including its policy, the interpersonal relationships involved in it, encouraging the teacher to use initiative in solving problems when he knows whom he can consult for advice, informing the probationer of the lines of communication in the school, the responsibilities of all teachers for the smooth functioning of the school, responsibilities in relation to the law, his responsibilities to other teachers and to pupils. The probationers discuss lesson preparation, problems with discipline, teaching problems, the motivation of pupils, and they are encouraged to contribute fresh ideas from their recent training experiences. N.S.W. schools are developing patterns of in-service courses within their own school for curriculum development and some have received grants for their projects of total staff development.
The most politically influenced change in N.S.W., the abolition of the bonded scholarship has created the new situation of the proliferation of reserve teachers in schools. This situation has advantages and disadvantages. Teachers entering the service who were bonded formerly have been guaranteed a position although there are insufficient vacant positions for them. Therefore they become supernumeraries in their school departments. The advantages are that they teach less than a full load so that they are able to spend more time in preparation and consultation with the master or mistress of their department. A sympathetic master uses this opportunity to guide an uncertain newcomer towards becoming a competent, skilled practitioner who might have left teaching had he commenced with a full timetable as every teacher who is appointed to a firm position is expected to do. Reserve teachers in primary schools relieve other class teachers, assist teachers on a team basis, work with groups of children, or they teach in special subject fields, if possible, in accordance with their greatest strengths. The secondary school reserves teach two or three classes in their own subject field, replace absent teachers or undertake special duties. Reserve teachers can replace school executives on classes so that the executives have time to assist other probationers. The disadvantages for reserve teachers are that they may be transferred to another school so they cannot be used to reduce the school's overall class sizes, they spend as much time "child-minding" as they do teaching, and their status in the eyes of the pupils is somewhat different from that of a "real" teacher (Education, 27.10.76, p. 375).

For the full development of new teachers, some programme of continued, organised contact with a tertiary institution or a teachers' centre in addition to the school-based programme would help them to
conceptualise and solve some of the problems they face (Evans, 1973, p. 54). Seldom is any strong or valuable connection maintained between students and their tertiary institutions. In N.S.W. no in-service courses specifically for new teachers are organised in colleges although other courses such as subject conferences are held in these locations. Colleges in other states do play some part in the induction of teachers. Conferences, workshops, and discussions for probationers are held at central points in a district as they are in England, but Crane (1975, p. 59) believes that these are not an adequate orientation as they are remote from the immediate problems. However, these meetings help the participants to realise that they are not alone in their problems. The centre-based courses become a useful supplement to in-school induction when they are held after about one term of teaching.

Three examples of induction programmes based externally to schools are discussed below. These programmes were implemented in the following educational regions of N.S.W.: (1) the Far Western Division of the Western Region, (2) the Metropolitan West Region of Sydney, and (3) the South Coast Region. All regional in-service courses including induction courses are funded by the Commonwealth Government.

1. In February, 1977, fifty-three new teachers who had been appointed to schools in the far western division of N.S.W. attended a two day course to acquaint them with some of the special features and problems of teaching in this district. The course consultants were teachers and inspectors who were working in the district. They took it as their task to explain the social and environmental aspects of life in small, isolated towns and settlements. The problems which required the most attention were accommodation and teaching the Aboriginal child. After two days of
discussion the teachers' attitudes to the Aboriginal situation were clarified generally towards enthusiasm for teaching in a mixed ethnic environment. The teachers left the course acquainted with many colleagues in similar schools to their own whom they could contact for advice (Inside Education, 1977, pp. 30-41).

2. A course which was organised by a deputy principal for the beginning teachers in his school has developed into a centre-based three-day residential course which is held on ten occasions each year to include all the beginning teachers in the Metropolitan West Region of Sydney. The design of the courses has evolved from the expressed needs of beginning teachers. During the courses the teachers work together to find answers to common problems, participate in role-playing and simulation, and consult with a wide range of resource people (Metropolitan West In-Service, 1977, p. 18).

3. During a similar series of programmes for beginning teachers in the South Coast Region, the first group session required the group to collect a list of the main concerns which members had experienced. A list of the concerns of the beginning teachers appears in Appendix 16. The aim of the course is to help the teachers to form a practical philosophy (1) of themselves as individual teachers, (2) in the wider aspects of the teaching service, and (3) in their own classroom management. The courses comprise talks on key topics and discussion in groups of eight. The group activities include lesson planning, understanding children with problems, the probationer's supervisor and assessor, keeping school records, grouping in the class, the expectations of the teacher by others, case studies, effective discipline, teaching styles, classroom management, and programming. The teachers are introduced to the consultants who are available to help them. For the 1976 course, the four most important
gains perceived by teachers were (1) the opportunity that the course gave them to talk to others with similar experiences and problems, (2) the information that they gained which under normal circumstances was either not available or difficult to obtain, (3) the opportunity to learn about new teaching methods, and (4) the course provided ideas and information that were much more relevant to classroom teaching situations than a great deal of the content of courses at college or university. It became clear to the teachers that certain aspects of their work in schools cannot be assimilated until after the teacher has had some actual experience of teaching full-time in a school. The programmes have been revised each year in accordance with the participants' evaluations.

The assessment of probation is the responsibility of the school principal. It is more appropriate, then, as it is in England that the probationer's main confidant be another teacher, rather than the school principal, perhaps one who is not so distant in age and experience. It is necessary that the probationer should be supervised and this task may be shared by the immediate supervisor and the school principal. Connolly (1973, p. 37) believes that supervision should include the visitation and conference approach so that the supervisor may determine strengths and weaknesses and plan a training programme for the specific needs of each teacher. The supervisor would follow up his visits to the classroom with discussions to encourage the teacher to evaluate his own work. N.S.W. teachers receive their awards from the tertiary institution after the completion of the course; this is an academic qualification for teaching, but the state Teachers' Certificate is awarded as a separate professional qualification after the successful completion of one year of teaching on probation. A proportion of probationers, similar to that
in England, have their probationary period extended. The Schools Commission (1973, p. 121) suggests, and other educators agree that the award of the degree or diploma could be delayed until after the first year of teaching, which would include the provision of assistance in an internship situation.

Summary: since the need for assistance to beginners in their transition to teaching is recognised in N.S.W. the organisation of induction programmes has received much support. Although this topic has been grouped as an area of difference it is noted that there are many similarities with England. The similarities are that in-service courses are promoted in schools, financial support is provided by central governments within the broader context of all in-service education, and the types of programmes in each country are similar. The two English pilot schemes have, however, extended the induction concept much further than has N.S.W. The differences are that N.S.W. has not differentiated the work load for beginning teachers unless they are reserves, it has not granted probationers regular release time for further training and it has not instituted teacher-tutors who would be eligible for release time also.

4.5 Concluding Remarks and Statement of Hypotheses

A selection of data on teacher education from the two countries has been ordered into the three categories of similarities, differences and areas where it is unclear whether differences or similarities predominate according to Trethewey's explanation (1976, pp. 73-74) of the juxtaposition stage (see Appendix 17 for summary of Juxtaposition). Trethewey (1976, p. 77) states that a unifying concept or a set of
hypotheses would not arise from the juxtaposed data as Bereday (1964, p. 42) suggests, without some general hunch about the nature of the problem prior to carrying out the juxtaposition. The introductory section (Section 4.1) of the juxtaposition suggests that key transitions in the progress from student to teacher would be discerned as a unifying concept. An examination of the juxtaposition seeks consistency from the data. The examination asks, is comparison possible at all, and if it is, in what terms? (Bereday, 1967, p. 174). During the juxtaposition of similarities and differences in teacher education the unifying concept clearly is that a series of transitions has to be achieved in becoming a teacher and the beginning teacher's problems are associated with these transitions. The transitional problems have remained a persistent theme throughout the juxtaposition of teacher education data.

In Section 4.4 a number of critical issues in the transition of the student to teaching have been identified. It would appear that these issues have been resolved more adequately and more completely in England than in N.S.W. The comparison stage of this study (Chapter 5) will try to show the extent to which (1) this conclusion is true and (2) the solutions employed in England are applicable within the N.S.W. context of teaching and education.

As a means of developing hypotheses to be tested in the comparison stage of the study, the critical issues in reference to the problems of transition are listed below and are followed by statements of the hypotheses.
Critical Issues in the Transition of the Student to Teaching
(See Chapter 1, p. 2.)

1. The methods and procedures of initial selection of students for teacher preparation courses especially the treatment of school leavers.
2. The appointment procedures for new teachers entering their first full-time teaching position.
3. The methods of facilitating the new teacher's induction into his first year of full-time service.

Hypotheses

1. Selection for Teacher Education

If, (a) students were given adequate information about teacher education in colleges and universities (i) during the final year of secondary school studies, and (ii) in the early stages of their tertiary studies;
(b) adequate time were allocated to assessment procedures for selection of secondary school students (and also mature age students) for teacher education;
(c) students were given extended lead time to reflect on the information given and their suitability for a career in teaching;
(d) a combination of criteria were employed for selection rather than one or two criteria; and
(e) the selection process at pre-tertiary institutions included provided experiences for students in school teaching situations, then, (a) students with greater interest in, motivation and commitment to, and appropriate personal dispositions for, teaching would be selected into teacher education, and;
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(b) the transition from secondary to tertiary studies would occur more smoothly with less wastage in terms of student drop-out rates, and with improved placement of students into appropriate courses of study.

2. Appointment and Placement of New Teachers

If, (a) in appointing beginning teachers to positions in schools, attempts were made to match those positions with the academic strengths, professional skills, professional interests, and location preferred by teachers;

(b) school principals were afforded some decision-making power in the selection of teachers for positions in their schools, and;

(c) the appointments of beginning teachers were made at least several weeks prior to the end of the preceding school term,

then, (a) beginning teachers would experience greater job satisfaction in the early months of their professional careers;

(b) beginning teachers would be better prepared for teaching;

(c) the transition to teaching would be less problematic for the beginning teacher; and

(d) fewer beginning teachers would leave the profession because of job dissatisfaction.

3. Induction into Teaching

If, programmes for induction of beginning teachers into teaching were employed in N.S.W. along the lines of those programmes employed in England, namely, by first demonstrating that

(a) the special needs and problems of probationary teachers are similar in England and N.S.W.,

(b) that preservice induction is modelled on similar lines to that in England,
(c) that school-based induction is based on similar lines to that in England,
(d) that teachers are released for in-service education on similar lines to English practices,
(e) that in-school supervisors have a similar role to that of teacher-tutors in England,
(f) that induction by tertiary institutions in N.S.W. is similar to that in England,
(g) that externally-based induction in N.S.W. follows a similar pattern to that in England,

then, (a) the beginning teacher would enjoy a personally and professionally satisfying experience of teaching in the early months of his career;
(b) the quality of teaching provided by beginning teachers would be professionally acceptable, and;
(c) the quality of education provided for the community would be improved.

It remains the purpose of Chapter 5 - the comparison stage of this study - to show (1) that the hypotheses relate to problems of transition in both the English and N.S.W. systems, (2) that for practical purposes the solutions suggested by the hypotheses have been implemented in England and are, by and large, currently acting to resolve the problems of transition, and (3) that the solutions are pertinent to, and appropriate for, the N.S.W. system.
CHAPTER 5

COMPARISON

5.1 Introduction

Bereday (1967, p. 175) proposes two forms of comparison, (1) "balanced comparison", in which an item of information from one country is matched with a similar item from the other in rotation, or by fusion within the one paragraph or sentence, and (2) "illustrative comparison", involving the drawing of examples from the countries to illustrate points of comparison which may be chosen to support the student's own view. While there is a risk in the balanced form of straining for comparisons when data are not quite matched, thus causing an imbalance of judgement, no generalisations can be drawn from the more superficial illustrative form (Bereday, 1967, p. 177). Illustrative comparison may be useful in adding a comparative dimension if balancing or matching techniques are impossible (Trethewey, 1976, p. 74). A balanced comparison will be attempted in this section. The comparative phase is intended to lead to objective conclusions which should establish whether the hypotheses (Chapter 4, pp. 204-206) are tenable.

Each section of this chapter will examine one hypothesis. The first two hypotheses are divided into a number of sub-hypotheses. Each of the sub-hypotheses will be stated, a balanced comparison will be applied to both countries, and a discussion will follow on the degree of success to which each country satisfies the sub-hypothesis. The third hypothesis is treated as a whole. Points for comparison
related to this hypothesis are selected from the findings of the juxtaposition chapter.

5.2 Selection of Students for Teacher Education

Sub-hypothesis (la) Students are given adequate information about teacher education courses in colleges and universities.

Comparison For English students the transition to teacher education begins ten months before enrolment. The students' visits to colleges or universities for interviews serve both as educative and informative experiences, with an exposure to the future requirements for teaching (O.E.C.D., 1974, p. 87) while the school careers adviser, the L.E.A. careers officer, and the personnel of the admissions centre are sources of advice for the students. The senior school pupils in N.S.W. are advised inadequately about teaching, other careers and tertiary education, they have insufficient time to assess the career situation to make their decisions, while the selection procedure appears to have no educational value for them.

Discussion England seems to be providing students with adequate information about careers in teaching. A range of personnel in the fields of careers advising is responsible for the provision of information and assistance to students. N.S.W. students in secondary schools and during the early stages of their tertiary studies are given inadequate advice about teacher education courses and careers in teaching.
Sub-hypothesis (1b) Adequate time is allocated to the procedures of assessment for selection of secondary school students and mature age students for teacher education courses.

Comparison English students apply for admission to colleges and universities ten months before the time of enrolment. The tertiary institutions have time to examine the students' references, principals' reports and students' academic records. Colleges and universities administer aptitude tests and conduct interviews with applicants during those ten months. By the time that the results of the G.C.E. examination are released a considerable proportion of the students have received provisional offers of admission, and if their results have satisfied the minimum requirements in terms of A levels and of subject requirements for the course, their offers are confirmed. The extended time given to teacher education selection in England enables students to be placed into their most suitable courses. In N.S.W. this placement into courses is not undertaken until the results of the H.S.C. examination are released in the first week of January, after which the greater part of the placement procedure is completed in three weeks. Consequently, English observers such as Wilby (1976, p. 5) have commented that N.S.W. institutions take less personal trouble over the selection of their students than English institutions do. The N.S.W. students' "... applications are scrutinised only by a computer", Wilby observes.

In both countries the time which institutions allocate to the selection of mature age applicants appears to be adequate. The institutions consider different entry criteria such as previous work or study experience. Consequently the institutions are able to offer admission without waiting for current examination results.
Discussion  It appears that both countries are able to give adequate time to the assessment for selection of their small proportion of mature applicants. The time schedule for the application, selection and placement of final year school students into teacher education courses in England allows a reasonable period of ten months for these procedures to be carried out. N.S.W. does not satisfy the requirement of the hypothesis for an adequate time allocation for selection of school leavers for teacher education.

Sub-hypothesis (lc)  Students are given adequate lead time to reflect on the information given and on their suitability for a career in teaching.

Comparison  The successful transition of students from secondary school to a teacher education course depends in part upon the positive guidance that the students receive before and during the early stages of their courses in respect of their future career. In England, sufficient time is available for students to reflect on the information given to assist them in their career choice. Recently, Buchan (1976, p. 1) stated the importance to senior school students and other interested people in N.S.W. of the provision of co-ordinated information so that these students may acquire the confidence "... to make appropriate career decisions based on realistic awareness of themselves and of the full range of options open to them." How does a potential teacher education student assess his personal suitability for teaching? Observation and work experience in schools or with children during school holiday activities are experiences which enable students to assess their interest in and suitability for teaching. These activities are arranged for potential teacher education students
in the English system. In N.S.W., steps are beginning to be taken in these directions. At the time of writing, however, it could hardly be claimed that they have achieved widespread implementation and that therefore they are having any significant impact on the problem of career choice.

Discussion It is reasonable to conclude that the methods employed in England to select students for teacher education courses would tend to identify and select students with those qualities deemed suitable by such bodies as A.C.E.*. The same claim cannot be made with confidence for N.S.W.

Sub-hypothesis (1d) A combination of criteria is employed for selection rather than one or two criteria.

Comparison N.S.W. higher school certificate candidates are selected for teacher education on an established order of academic merit. The aggregate mark in the H.S.C. examination is used as a ranking device. There is no similar ranking in England where the G.C.E. is a measure of performance in separate subjects. The need for tertiary institutions in N.S.W. to develop order of merit lists to facilitate selection has led to an attempt to equate marks from different subjects (Dunn, 1977, p. 12) and N.S.W. pupils appear to be choosing subjects which

*The qualities listed by the Australian College of Education (A.C.E., 1975, p. 63) are as follows: "Teachers should be persons who care for children and enjoy their company. They must also care for the society from which the children come. They should be drawn to the profession by the nature of the task itself and by the responsibility it entrusts to them. Teachers should come from a wide cross-section of the community. The mature person with experience in other forms of work can enrich the profession. This does not mean a diminution of scholastic requirements as teachers require a sense of scholarship."
will maximise their aggregates rather than those which are the most relevant to their interests (McInnes, 1976, p. 6). Powell (1976, p. 4) criticises the use of H.S.C. aggregates as the sole criterion for selection in N.S.W. The Bell Committee Report on Teacher Education (N.S.W., 1971, p. 47) commented that it was "... undesirable that so much depended on purely academic performance." Many students who were "... potentially good teachers because of their personality and motivation ... were unable to gain entry in competition with academically more able students, some of whom did not have any intention of teaching." English tertiary institutions use academic achievement as one of the selection criteria which include aptitude tests and interviews to assess personal qualities. The N.S.W. Bell Committee (1971, p. 49) recommended that selection include school assessment and the use of tests and interviews to take account of other factors relevant to teaching.

Scholastic aptitude tests have not proved to be reliable predictors of success in tertiary and teacher education when they are used on their own, but when they are considered together with G.C.E. results in England or with H.S.C. results in N.S.W. they provide information on potential tertiary performance especially for maturer candidates (Bowles, 1963, p. 160).

A value of the interview is the information that the candidate can obtain from it about his future studies and career. The English system shows that as a part of the orientation procedure, the interview enables students to feel more of a sense of "... belonging than if their admission had been the result of postal correspondence" (Anderson, 1972, p. 119). The staff of N.S.W. tertiary institutions
have insufficient time to interview all their applicants and it is only those seeking mature age admission who are interviewed.

Although the assessment of personal qualities must be subjective it is given consideration in England as a selection criterion and it could be given more weight in N.S.W. The community expects students with the best qualities to be selected for teaching, those who will be reinforced and enhanced by their teacher education (Haberman and Stinnett, 1973, p. 62). Lallez (1974, p. 429) believes that knowledge is not as important in a potential teacher as an aptitude to listen and to absorb, an understanding of ideas and feelings, a sense of human knowledge, a desire for enrichment, and a mature outlook.

According to Balloch (1974, p. 547) selection should concentrate on people who are both sincerely motivated and highly able. As we are able now to assess more carefully the quality of the students who are accepted into teacher education programmes, the inclusion of those who have come in as a second or third choice of career could be reconsidered (Imison, 1976, p. 30). At present selection is far from rigorous yet it should be "... to ensure that those who teach can meet the challenges posed by the changing times" (Maclaine, 1974, p. 306). In a study by Pryor and de Lacey (1976, p. 255) thirty-five per cent of male students and seven per cent of female students who accepted teacher education scholarships in 1973 had not expressed any interest in teaching as a career. The teacher-trainees were among a group of 693 Year 12 pupils who had stated six careers in which they were interested one year previously. Interest and commitment should receive greater priority as factors in selection. Student teachers were less motivated to their profession initially than medical,
engineering, and law students were, in a group which was studied by Anderson (1974, p. 10). One quarter of the teacher education students had entered for negative reasons including persuasion by parents, the availability of scholarships or inability to gain entry to another tertiary course (Anderson, 1974, pp. 22-25). Forced choice in N.S.W. is harming the transition as a result of the discriminatory scholarship system. While the scholarship system is retained, significant numbers of students are likely to accept scholarships when they have no intention of becoming teachers, and with the inadequate screening of applicants this could lead to many students entering teaching who have little commitment and possibly even negative attitudes towards teaching as a career. If a sufficient percentage of students of these kinds are part of the student body in a college or university their attitudes could have a deleterious effect on other types of students, thus aggravating the latter's transition problems. The English system seems not to have these problems because of the general availability of a single grant system. It should be noted, however, that there may be stronger, nationally widespread acceptance of welfare assistance in English education by comparison with N.S.W. in particular and Australia in general. All the same, there do seem to be trends towards a single system of tertiary grant allocation in Australia despite this apparent sociopolitical difference.

The editorial in The Australian (23.10.76) contends that there are many young teachers who entered the profession for the want of anything better and who are so poorly motivated that they do not teach the basic skills soundly. The Australian Senate Standing Committee on Education, Science, and the Arts (1972, p. 22) states the importance of motivation in this way: research should be sponsored "... into
efficient methods of screening applicants for teacher training with a view to training only those with aptitudes, temperament and genuine desire for teaching in order to lower the drop-out rate of trainees and to ensure the highest teaching standards." Undesirable teacher attitudes to school, Whiting (1977, p. 32) claims, would manifest themselves in undesirable attitudes in children, and negative effects on their parents and the community. The entry of numbers of uncommitted young people into teaching is wasteful of human talent and is certainly unfair to children (Maden, 1971, pp. 41-42).

How satisfactory are the selection criteria which are used in each country as predictors of teaching performance? Results in the N.S.W. H.S.C. examination at present are the best single predictors of performance in the first year of tertiary studies. High School results correlate approximately +0.5 with first year academic results but there is insignificant correlation with practice teaching (Van Spies, 1965, p. 18). Start (1978, p. 98) reports that in a 1968 English study the entrance qualifications into colleges and success at the end of courses bore no relation to success as a teacher and these results were of no use in the prediction of teaching success.

The use of a combination of criteria for teacher selection in N.S.W. such as the range that is used in England may provide a selection system which takes into account the individual differences of candidates, although these criteria have not necessarily proved to be satisfactory predictors of teaching success in England.

Discussion It is clear that England has recognised the problems in the selection of students for teacher education and that that country
has devised solutions for a number of them. There are solutions that could be borrowed with care which would suit the N.S.W. context in such aspects as the guidance of students, a greater range of selection criteria, and co-operative admission procedures for the benefit of students in their transition to further study. If the final school examination is one of the selection criteria a single subject assessment like the English G.C.E. may be more appropriate. Katz and Powell (1975, pp. 66-71) recommend a model for selection into tertiary education in N.S.W. in which the H.S.C. as a criterion is phased out, a joint clearing house would handle applications for Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education, the closing date for applications would be 1st June, first round offers would be made on 1st September, which was proposed also by the Bell Committee (1971, p. 48) for teacher education selection, and later offers would be made on 1st December. England appears to satisfy the sub-hypothesis on range of criteria to a greater degree than does N.S.W. By selecting entrants to teacher education on a combination of criteria, English teacher education administrators improve the likelihood of student placement into appropriate courses of study. It is suggested that the key features of the English system may be adopted for selection into teacher education in N.S.W.

Sub-hypothesis (le) The selection procedure at pretertiary institutions includes organised experiences for students in school teaching institutions.

Comparison Since more time is available for senior school students in England to explore different careers, the provision of observation or work experience in schools is much more comprehensive than it is
Discussion  It is suggested that in the transition from school to teacher education greater efforts could be made to integrate the period of twelfth year at school and the first year of tertiary education. The tertiary institutions could aid the transition by combining selection interviews with information visits to their departments. Students would have time to seek information, define their career interests and make their decisions. A number of firm offers could be made before the results of the H.S.C. become available, using a combination of other criteria. These offers could include some to mature people with different experience and not necessarily with the H.S.C.

Selection for teacher education should concentrate on interest and commitment. Selection based on these criteria may be more suitably made at the point where the professional part of the course begins. International conferences such as the O.E.C.D. on Teacher Policies (1976) recommend a policy of self-selection for teacher education. General higher education courses could provide for early contact with children and as some students orient themselves towards the profession, then teaching and other related experiences could be consolidated over a period of one year. There seems to be no aspect of teacher education selection that England could adapt from N.S.W. unless the joint admission centre for all tertiary institutions is tried and found to be satisfactory.
It is clear that a problem which exists in selection for teacher education in both countries is that some unsuitable selection methods are being used. An examination of the practices which are working successfully in England points to improvements which could be transposed to N.S.W. A smoother transition could include a range of experiences to identify those students who had greater motivation. It should be possible to widen the selection criteria and to extend the admissions procedure by certain institutional changes which have been suggested, such as a joint admissions centre. When information and selection are integrated with education, interest and commitment become the important criteria for selection so that the quality of the teachers and the standards of teaching will be enhanced.

5.21 Conclusion to Comparison and Discussion of Hypothesis 1

The hypothesis for the selection of students for teacher education appears to hold true for England to some extent. Time is adequate and a range of selection criteria is used, although guidance provisions could be integrated into the total educative process. An objective measurement of a degree of commitment is not feasible. It appears that in England students with greater interest in, motivation and commitment to, and appropriate personal dispositions for teaching are selected into teacher education. The transition from secondary to tertiary studies appears to occur more smoothly in England and it is evident that there is less wastage through failure, withdrawals or changes of courses. It is considered that N.S.W. does not satisfy this hypothesis at present. Selection criteria in England could be applied to the N.S.W. situation.
5.3 Appointment and Placement of New Teachers

Sub-hypothesis (2a) In appointing beginning teachers to positions in schools, attempts are made to match those positions with the academic strengths, professional skills, professional interests and location preferred by teachers.

Comparison Applicants for teaching positions in England are interviewed by the head teacher and a panel from the school for a particular position, or by a representative of the L.E.A. which has several school vacancies to be filled. The interviewers attempt to select the teacher who is the most suitable for each position. N.S.W. school principals who expect a vacancy in the next year have the opportunity to request the type of teacher who would suit the position, such as a teacher with an interest in lower primary and ability in music, while the priority students (those holding bonded scholarships) have the opportunity to state the regions and districts (but not schools) which they prefer, as well as their special abilities and interests. The only interview given to priority students is the one with the teacher education adviser who assists them with their choices and attempts to facilitate a part of the transition procedure. It is the task of the staffing inspectors to attempt to match these paper requests with the limited picture that they have of applicants, and generally what happens is a matching of requests in terms of the preferred location. Private applicants are interviewed by a representative of the employing body but the interviewer is in the region closest to the students' tertiary institution and the interview is not for a particular position. The inspector gathers his impressions of the prospective teacher on paper to forward it to those who make the appointments, and
again the outcome is likely to be the filling of a vacancy by a teacher who is willing to go to that location. There is little possibility of fitting teachers to positions which would suit them.

English colleges and universities are prepared to supply information in the form of grades and reports on their ex-students to L.E.A.'s or to head teachers. These reports are useful in the placement of teachers and the L.E.A.'s have found that practice teaching grades which are generally on a five point scale, and written reports are most helpful. Very little information from the tertiary institutions is used by N.S.W. staffing inspectors although the institutions would be willing to supply their students with more comprehensive information if the staff of the institutions were assured that it would be used by employing authorities (from information given personally to this writer). When a comment that a prospective teacher "needs careful placement" is made by an institution it is uncertain whether this is taken into account when the individual teacher is appointed. The shortcoming of the English procedure is that while L.E.A.'s find the college information a useful guide to selection and placement, they frequently neglect to pass the information on to head teachers as a possible aid in assisting the progress of the probationary teachers (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 56). If this were done the schools could complete a further link with the colleges by informing them of the teaching progress of their former students. Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 242) suggest that college, L.E.A. and school personnel could discuss together the information that each needs from a teacher education report. N.S.W. has moved into a situation in which not all qualified ex-students will be selected for positions, consequently it is anticipated that applicants will be required to
provide their college or university information, particularly practice teaching reports, as well as references, to the employing authority. Thus the personal reports of a student's progress are likely to become more important in the near future. A reciprocal provision could be considered that the school principal feed information back to the tertiary institution about the teacher's progress.

English investigations into the needs and problems of probationary teachers find that more could be done to encourage intending teachers to apply for the type of school and position on a staff that would be most suited to them and that lecturers in their training institution could advise them on methods of application (Bradley, 1975, p. 16). The L.E.A.'s or heads of schools could help by providing clear descriptions of the kind of position that is available and of what will be expected of the new recruit (Collins, 1969, p. 82).

In N.S.W. the actual matching of persons to positions is the responsibility of the staffing inspectors. In this task, Whiting (1973, p. 31) maintains that the staffing inspectors could give more consideration to the size of school to which new teachers are appointed. Most are appointed to large schools when a smaller staffed school would allow the staff a greater opportunity to support each other. In a large primary school the beginning teacher could be as isolated and lacking in support as the teacher in a one-teacher school. The ideal appointment for beginning primary teachers may be to Class 2 (medium sized) schools. Alternatively a better than average staffing ratio should be provided in the larger schools if they have a large proportion of beginners.
Because the equitable staffing of all types of schools is a difficulty for administrators in both countries, probationers in England are still placed in schools where working conditions are not favourable for their successful entry into teaching (Hanson and Herrington, 1976, p. 6). Taylor and Dale (1971, pp. 52, 118) reported that of the probationers questioned, some were serving in schools which were known to have problems associated with maladjusted or immigrant children, large or difficult classes, a high staff turnover and a high proportion of inexperienced teachers. Similar problems are evident in N.S.W. The Bell Committee (N.S.W., 1971 p. 54) recognises that while experienced teachers feel that they have earned the opportunity to teach the more stable classes, the beginning teachers will continue to receive a considerable share of the difficult classes. However, the loss of teachers during their early years is justification for some reversal of this situation. It is unavoidable that some novice teachers are appointed to the larger schools in the outer metropolitan areas which have a high staff turnover, but unfortunately this situation exacerbates the problems in a school environment which is already unsettled and stressful for them (Hughes, 1972, p. 33). Probationers who wanted to teach in such areas because the location was convenient have found that the pupils are more difficult than they had expected. While probationers have to be appointed to schools in difficult areas, special care could be taken that they receive the support of working in a team situation with an experienced teacher and a beginner on parallel classes such as is practised with thirty per cent of the English probationers in the Liverpool and Northumberland areas (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 3). In N.S.W. it is hoped that the present adequate supply of teachers will allow opportunities for more generous staffing ratios to be applied to schools
with difficult conditions and for teaming or other supportive arrangements to be made within the school.

In England probationers sometimes are allocated to age groups of children for which they have not been prepared, or do not want to teach. Twelve per cent of Taylor and Dale's probationers (1971, p. 62) were teaching an age range other than the one for which they had been trained and this is quite common in N.S.W. also. Secondary teachers in both countries may begin their careers by teaching their subjects of specialisation and one or more subjects outside their training and experience. In Taylor and Dale's study (1971, p. 129) eight per cent of probationers were teaching their subjects of specialisation for only a minority of the time. Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 62) assumed that some probationers who taught unfamiliar age ranges or subjects did this voluntarily, perhaps so that they could teach in a preferred location. N.S.W. secondary probationers are required often to teach subjects in which they have no experience although some have a special interest in the alternative subject and enjoy teaching it. Primary probationers have been expected to cope with the teaching of English as a second language with no training for it, with undertaking the librarian's tasks, with teaching handicapped children or specialising in craft when they have little interest in this work. Teachers can become familiar with age groups and in subjects for which they are inexperienced if they receive guidance from the heads of their departments, but a more harmful introduction to teaching is the allocation of low ability classes to probationers. Ten per cent of Taylor and Dale's (1971, p. 120) surveyed probationers claimed that the pupils whom they taught were below the average of the school and twelve per cent claimed that they spent some
of their teaching time on special backward classes. Fielding, Cavanagh, and Widdowson (1977, p. 99) are critical of the N.S.W. Department's allocating of surplus social science probationers to slow learner groups which they say requires some skilled in-service training after a period of general teaching experience.

Chapter 4 (p. 198) mentioned the advantages and disadvantages of beginning a teaching career as a reserve teacher. From a series of personal communications to this writer (1977) the comments of a secondary and a primary reserve teacher in N.S.W. schools who saw the benefits of such appointments in their introduction to teaching follow:

"Initial appointment as a reserve teacher with nineteen periods per week was an excellent lead-in for a new teacher, then twenty-seven periods after eight weeks' teaching. I had time to gain confidence and get used to the school."

"This is an excellent way to gain experience as long as it is not for a prolonged period of time."

One primary teacher comments on the unsatisfactory nature of the position:

"Reserve teaching is not very satisfying. It's hard to settle down because you don't have your own class and are uncertain as to how long you'll be there. I find little incentive to prepare original lessons as relief work often prevents me from presenting them."

A particularly insecure type of appointment is that of primary reserve position at two schools with a part-time component in each school. N.S.W. reserve teachers must expect a transfer to another school when vacant positions become available and some teachers have worked in three different schools within four months. A comment by an English
probationer demonstrates a position on a staff which appears to be similar to the N.S.W. reserve: "... I had real discipline difficulties when I sat with classes for other teachers ... [for] eight periods a fortnight ... I sit in for other people. The work is set and I just see that they [the pupils] do it" (Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson, 1976, pp. 121-122). Hanson and Herrington (1976, p. 6) report that "sometimes certificated students were offered temporary posts, which was unsettling for them ..." a situation which appears to be as transient as the reserve position.

Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 52) found that prospective teachers in England tended to apply to areas which are popular or close to their homes and they were desirous of appointments there at any cost, regardless of whether their training, personal suitability and inclinations matched the type of positions which were available. Collins (1969) suggests that new teachers could help themselves more than they do by being less homebound and by applying to areas where the schools are likely to be more suitable to them. When only five per cent of ex-students had made their choices on the perceived educational merit of a school or area, as was noted in Chapter 4 (p. 171), there seems to be justification for guidance during the teacher education course on more appropriate choices. Selection for teaching positions in N.S.W. has not reached the level of refinement where an individual teacher is selected for a particular position, but there is instead a broad matching of teaching areas of specialisation and interest, type of school preferred and broad regions of preference.
Discussion  The English system is seen to meet the criteria of this sub-hypothesis although exceptions and deficiencies do occur. Attempts are made to match the available school positions with teachers whose academic strengths, professional skills, professional interests and preferred locations are most suited. Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 109) found that those probationers who accepted appointments to areas other than their first choice were more likely to have their probation extended than those probationers securing the area of their first choice. When the sub-hypothesis is applied to N.S.W. it cannot be accepted at present. However, greater care is being taken in placing beginning teachers into positions which are suited to their personal strengths.

Sub-hypothesis (2b)  School principals are afforded some decision-making power in the selection of teachers for positions in their schools.

Comparison  The purpose of the interview by head teachers and School Boards or L.E.A. representatives in England is to select the teacher who is most suited to the position. An additional purpose is to inform and to assist the new entrant in his transition into teaching, however the day-long selection procedure by panels of school staff, as reported by Hannam, Smyth, and Stephenson (1976, p. 35) has tended to become a traumatic experience for a significant percentage of intending teachers. Such interview experiences could be harmful to the teacher's self-confidence.

Not all English heads and staffs play a part in the selection of their colleagues but it is agreed that the development of staff relations is assisted if staff have shared in the selection. N.S.W. teachers,
in contrast with English teachers, normally cannot apply for a position in the kind of school that they would like to work in, nor can they be interviewed and selected by the principal under whom they would be working. It seems that their placement would be more satisfactory to all of the staff if they were selected by the principal and the colleagues with whom they would form a team (Biggs, 1977, pp. 20-21).

Discussion Generally speaking, heads of English schools are involved in the selection of teachers for positions in their schools. This approach tends to resolve a number of problems. In N.S.W. the placement of new teachers is undertaken by departmental staffing inspectors and the principal is not involved in the selection of his staff. In this situation problems of adjustment occur for teachers in their first months and these beginning teachers cannot experience the early satisfaction which perhaps they would have had they been selected for a particular school position.

Sub-hypothesis (2c) The appointment of beginning teachers ideally is made at least several weeks prior to the end of the preceding school term.

Comparison The timing of the notification of a teaching appointment is important in the teacher's transition to a school position and it seemed clear to Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 52) from the comments of new teachers that they would like more than anything else to be told of their appointment much earlier. Although Chapter 4 (p. 173) reports that seventy-six per cent of English probationers knew their appointments early, instances of delays in appointments associated with the
lack of prior information are common. At the worst, it appears that nine per cent of probationers did not know which classes they would be teaching until the day that they arrived at the school, while twenty-three per cent received their appointment notice too late to be able to make use of the information, to visit the school before the of the previous term or for useful preparation purposes (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 65-66). The James Committee (Gr. Brit., 1972, p. 36) criticised situations in which young teachers arrive at their school at the beginning of term without having met the children whom they will teach and without having met the head teacher either. Eighteen per cent of teachers were not sent syllabuses or schemes of work and received no information until the day that they began teaching (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 67). Collins (1969, p. 21) claims that this prior information is an important responsibility of the schools together with the L.E.A.'s and if the preparation on their part is lacking it gives no encouragement to new teachers to prepare their own work thoroughly, in addition to aggravating the feelings of insecurity which the teachers have at this time. A clear definition of the new teacher's tasks, with the subjects and classes to be taught is important for a successful beginning of the transition from student to teacher.

N.S.W. makes appointments to schools much later in the year by comparison with England, and the lack of preparation time is a serious deficiency in the transition from student to teacher. The Bell Report (N.S.W., 1971, p. 40) was critical of the numbers of appointments which arrived only on the day before the teachers were due at their schools, while a few teachers had heard nothing by this day and others went to their appointed schools to find that a mistake had
been made. The committee recognised the complex procedures involved in promotions, transfers, resignations, and appointments spread over the state and that late changes must arise unavoidably. Nevertheless the committee believed that notices of the first appointment should be timed so that they are received before the end of the previous school year to allow the prospective teachers to contact their schools for advice on the nature of their teaching duties and to make suitable preparations. The importance of this proposal is its objective "... in overcoming the very high level of anxiety which builds up quite naturally ..." while the teacher is waiting to hear of his appointment (N.S.W., 1971, p. 53). Anstee, speaking for the Australian Teachers' Federation (1976b, p. 3) believes that beginning teachers should be appointed both before and independently of the transfers and promotions of experienced teachers. Teachers could be required to give three months' notice of intending resignation as they are in England. Also promotions in England generally are known four months in advance. New appointments could be made provisionally as they are in England while the results of the final year are being assessed, then confirmed after the results become available. Beginning teachers remarked that they would like to have teaching programmes issued by their schools after an early notification of appointment and some of them would like to attend an induction programme before schools commence (Turney, 1977, p. 257).

Comments are made frequently in both countries that the appointment notice should be sufficiently personal or be accompanied by a welcoming letter from the area or the school to make the beginning teacher feel that he belongs to the school. It appears that the present procedure in England of the first contact with the new teacher is personal,
informative, and welcoming in most cases (Hannam, Smyth, and Stephenson, 1976, p. 57). The Bell Committee considered that this aspect of a probationer's transition was an important one as it is in England. More should be done, the committee believed, to make the probationer feel welcome in the school and in the community by providing assistance with travel arrangements and accommodation (N.S.W., 1971, p. 53). A service of this type is available but the large scale of the appointment procedure attenuates the impression of personal interest that can be conveyed.

When he spoke at the meeting of N.S.W. school principals, Grassie (1976, p. 9) advised them that their task of inducting the probationer is vital in order to prevent the build-up of unnecessary anxieties. The induction should begin early with a welcoming letter and information about the school which a staff committee could prepare. An improvement in this aspect is apparent as the 1978 secondary teacher appointment notices are accompanied by a simple form on which the probationer writes some personal information which he sends to the principal. The principal could take the cue from this and write a friendly welcoming letter. It seems strange that this communication from the probationer may be the first time that the principal sees the name of the new addition to his staff.

Reference has been made in Chapter 4, (p. 172) to the appointment in England of a proportion of new teachers to an L.E.A. "pool" initially. An early notice of appointment to an area may allow more care to be taken in the placement of teachers into a group of positions so that each receives the one most suited to him, and this is to his advantage, provided that he is informed fully of the way this procedure operates
A similar system has been followed in some regions in N.S.W. and within certain subject areas. One example is that in which an allocation of primary teachers who express a wish to teach in the Western Region is made to the Regional Director who, with his staff, appoints them to schools according to their suitability for positions, although they may not be told until the allocation of all teachers is complete. Teachers in a particular subject area have been informed in December of the region to which they are to be appointed. These examples appear to have eased the transition for some teachers. Consideration could be given to decentralising further the appointment of teachers if this were thought to introduce into the procedure more personal concern and possibly earlier notification.

Discussion  The early notification of a teaching appointment is an important factor in facilitating the transition from training to practice. Taylor and Dale (1971, p. 75) found that beginning teachers who were given adequate notice of their syllabuses and work schemes were more likely to feel reasonably satisfied with their appointments than those who did not have this advantage. Beginning teachers who have received information about their classes and their syllabuses before the preceding school term are able to make more adequate preparations for their first few weeks of teaching.

In N.S.W. the notification of appointment comes so late that anxiety builds up for beginning teachers who are unable to contact their schools or prepare for their teaching. The lateness of notification compares unfavourably in this aspect with England. It is considered that changes in the selection of teachers to a regional
allocation would ease the transition to teaching to approximate
the level of satisfaction which is observed in England. The Bell
Report in N.S.W. addressed a proportion of its enquiries to the
wastage from the teaching service and it recommended changes which
would reduce such wastage. Teacher loss between course completion
and the taking up of the first appointment was attributed to the stress
that is associated with appointments. The committee considered that
the wastage through resignations in the early years could be alleviated
by more careful appointments and well organised induction procedures
(N.S.W., 1971, p. 53). Similarly in England, the findings of the
1971 survey emphasised the need for further detailed investigation
of the individual circumstances under which novice teachers have
their probation extended or who elect to resign during their first
year (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 247).

5.31 **Conclusion to Comparison and Discussion of Hypothesis 2**

The appointment and placement of teachers presents a striking
contrast between England and N.S.W. While England appears to satisfy
this second hypothesis N.S.W. could not be considered to satisfy the
hypothesis in any comprehensive way.

5.4 **Induction to Teaching**

*Note:* In this section Hypothesis 3 is treated as a whole. That
hypothesis states:

If, programmes for induction of beginning teachers into teaching were
employed in N.S.W. along the lines of those programmes employed
in England, namely, the special needs and problems of probationary teachers, preparation for the probationary year during preservice training, school-based induction, the release of probationers for in-service education, teacher-tutors and their training, induction by tertiary institutions, and externally-based induction,

then, (a) the beginning teacher would enjoy a personally and professionally satisfying experience of teaching in the early months of his career;

(b) the quality of education provided by beginning teachers would be professionally acceptable, and;

(c) the quality of education provided for the community would be improved.

Programmes for the induction of beginning teachers in N.S.W. are increasingly being designed and implemented along the lines of those programmes which are employed in England. The juxtaposition of the third area of transition, (Chapter 4, pp. 83-104), that from student to teacher, highlighted the importance of this stage above other transitional stages in a teacher's career as well as the difference between the transition to teaching and the transitions which are experienced in other professions. The juxtaposition established that there is comparability between countries in this area. The transition to the first year follows from the previous transition of the appointment to teaching. This transition can be a difficult ordeal during which the newcomer may develop concerns similar to the earlier concerns associated with practice teaching or he may show regression instead of development. When the beginning teacher can be guided to
a better self-awareness his potentialities have the opportunity to grow and develop. England and N.S.W. are providing various induction programmes for beginning teachers which were juxtaposed to show that this area has more similarities between the countries than the appointment of teachers. The comparison will determine some of the strengths and deficiencies of these programmes with suggestions for areas of potential improvement. The points for comparison judged to be directly related to hypothesis 3 (Chapter 4, pp. 205-206) which have arisen from the juxtaposition are:

1. the special needs and problems of probationary teachers,
2. preparation for the probationary year during preservice training,
3. school-based induction,
4. the release of probationers for in-service education,
5. teacher-tutors and their training,
6. induction by tertiary institutions,
7. externally-based induction.

5.41 Special Needs and Problems of Probationary Teachers

**Comparison** The problems which are expressed as the most serious by beginning teachers in both countries are those of teaching pupils of wide ability ranges, developing specific teaching techniques, record-keeping, and discipline (Collins, 1969, p. 79; Turney, 1977, p. 256). A number of probationers in both countries find that the strain of the first year as a teacher affects their health, and absences from school are common (Collins, 1969, p. 32). Communication problems exist between experienced members of a staff and the new members; for
example, the new teacher may be progressing better than he believes, but his colleagues are neglecting to assure him of his success. Teachers need an understanding of their school's organisation to help them with their own professional development. Primary teachers need to get to know about sixty pupils, those in their own classes and a number of pupils with whom they have contact during other school-based activities. Secondary teachers, in contrast, teach five or six different classes a week so they must get to know some 150 pupils.

Induction practices in England assist beginning teachers to understand the management of typical problems. The class load and number of pupils which the secondary teacher is expected to cope with is alleviated in many schools by giving the probationers parallel classes so that they can repeat a lesson with little modification and evaluate their performance (Collins, 1969, p. 84). In schools and areas in England which provide formal induction programmes the teacher-tutors discuss common problems with probationers and help them with group work for different abilities within classes and with techniques of class management. Some tutors demonstrate specific teaching techniques and most staff colleagues help newcomers to understand the school organisation including the keeping of records. Induction programme activities are explained in greater detail in Section 5.45 of this chapter. Plimmer (1976, p. 20) believes that it is important for senior teachers to take time to compliment beginning teachers on their progress and success in their early stages of teaching. Teacher-tutors in England have had longer experience than N.S.W. supervisors in planning programmes to help beginners. Their programmes try not to over-emphasise probationers' problems. The teacher-tutor's guidance is directed towards the probationer's
development as a more effective teacher, no matter what his difficulties are. Lambert (1972, 2; p. 69) suggests that N.S.W. supervisors adopt a similar positive approach. Probationer guidance in N.S.W. schools is not sufficiently well organised to help beginning teachers to satisfy their needs and manage their problems.

Discussion The special needs and problems of beginning teachers are related to their daily work within the classroom. Teaching staff in England who are responsible for the induction of beginning teachers are experienced in planning induction activities which meet those needs. Some N.S.W. supervisors are implementing programmes to meet probationers' needs. Improvements should be expected when supervisors have gained greater breadth of experience in probationer induction and possibly with the introduction of selected practices modelled from the English system.

5.42 Preparation for the Probationary Year during Pre-service Training

Comparison In this section the term preservice induction refers to the final year of the teacher preparation course. The comparison deals with activities concerned with induction into teaching that are of a general kind and not connected specifically with the school to which the student is eventually appointed. In both countries it is recognised that preservice preparation cannot equip a new teacher for every type of responsibility that he will face (Australian Schools Commission, 1973, p. 119; Chapter 3, pp. 74-75, referring to the British James Report, 1972a). A tertiary institution may decide that its function is the broad education of teachers and not the training in classroom skills which it would leave to the schools. Opportunities, however,
are missed, particularly in the N.S.W. situation. Anstee (1976b, p. 1) believes that more of the beginning teacher's immediate skills such as programming and daily lesson records should be able to be developed through effective preservice preparation.

English training institutions attempt to give students at least one teaching practice in a school of the type in which they hope to teach, such as an Educational Priority Area (E.P.A.) school, an urban, rural, or denominational school. The state-wide allocation of practice teaching schools in N.S.W. is not sufficiently flexible to allow students to experience a range of practice teaching locations. Teaching appointments are made by chance more frequently than by definite attempts to place teachers at the types of schools in which they gained experience as practising students.

Differences between the countries in the organisation of numerous local employing authorities in England and the major, centralised employing authority in N.S.W. create differences in the presentation of teacher induction to preservice students. English tertiary institutions do not offer induction by employing authorities during the preappointment stage although contact is established with individual co-operating schools. A need for more time to be spent on preservice induction has been expressed; for example, Hanson and Herrington (1976, p. 60) report the comment of a newly appointed teacher that "... young teachers should come to college to describe the 'reality of classrooms' to third year students." In N.S.W. some degree of co-operation is developing between the major employer (the Department of Education), and the tertiary institutions in the matter of preservice induction. The N.S.W. Department of Education arranges meetings and
courses to supplement what the institutions provide for the induction of final year students into the teaching service. The course organisers respond to students’ suggestions for the renewal of programmes in subsequent years to suit the prospective teachers’ needs. Students remark that they would prefer to hear teachers with about three years’ experience speak to them than inspectors, while other comments are that they cannot identify with everything that is told to them at this stage, such as the conditions and benefits of service, without first-hand experience (Wollongong T.E.A.O., 1977). However, the best advantage generally is not taken of this opportunity in which the series of meetings could be replaced by a course which is integrated fully into the institution’s curriculum, taken by a consultant of the Department of Education who would become a guest lecturer of the institution for two hours a week for a semester or a year.

Once the English students have received their teaching appointments a different type of preservice induction, which is school-based and employer-sponsored, is able to be arranged towards the end of the final year of training. Students begin their induction to their appointed schools several weeks before the end of the previous school year. N.S.W. can offer no equivalent to this type of induction in the post-appointment period.

Discussion Differences between the decentralised employing authorities in England and the centralised employing authority in N.S.W. make the concept of preservice induction quite different in the two countries. In N.S.W. the Department of Education and the tertiary institutions co-operate to some extent in the organisation of preservice induction
to teaching courses. Better co-ordination among the staff of tertiary institutions, schools and the employing authority could improve the existing provisions considerably. English authorities have little concern with this preappointment induction. English L.E.A.'s and schools are able to offer post appointment induction to the teacher in his new school during the later part of the final preservice year.

5.43 School-based Induction

Comparison The important difference is the one stated in the previous section, that in England, school-based induction begins at the end of the preceding term while in N.S.W. it begins on the first day of the new school year. Some of the initial problems have been able to be resolved for English probationers during their pre-teaching induction, the probationers have had time to prepare work for the classes on which they have been placed, and they are ready to begin teaching on the first day of the new school year. For the N.S.W. teacher, the first days are a time of anxiety since typically he has no idea of his classes or teaching duties until he takes up his duties on the first day of the new school year. If the school-based induction provisions for the solving of probationers' problems appear to be similar in each country it must be remembered that the new teacher in England has had an earlier preparation during which some of his problems would have been resolved.

When information from the two countries was juxtaposed in Chapter 4, it was found that school-based assistance to probationers was of greater value than the assistance given by the tertiary
institutions prior to, or during the first year of teaching, or assistance in the form of induction in a teacher's centre. The following comments are relevant to both countries under consideration. In the first year of teaching the responsibility for guidance moves from the tertiary institution staff to the teaching profession. The Australian Schools Commission (1973, p. 123) believes that teacher initiative in the design and implementation of induction programmes will benefit the profession. Guidance and support within the school is an important need for beginning teachers. Someone appointed and trained specifically to give this guidance and support is needed and is sometimes provided in each school in England (Chapter 4, p. 188). The formal designation of a teacher for this task is less common in N.S.W. schools (Chapter 4, p. 197).

Generally in England the notice of appointment is accompanied by information about the school and its community, and an invitation to the teacher to see the school in operation during the preceding term. In N.S.W. the appointment notice comes too late for the principal and staff to welcome or prepare the teacher before the school year begins.

Teacher induction depends upon the co-operation of the whole staff. The findings of the Campbell report (1975, p. 63) on teachers is indicative of the need for improved communication among all staff: "... many teachers feel overwhelmed by the responsibilities of teaching; many experience senses of isolation ... many teachers express a desire to play a more important role in professional matters." Campbell suggests that some principals ought to "... change their current role and become key people in creating the kind of school
climates that will encourage staff involvement and co-operation."
Staff meetings could develop workshop concepts while decision-making should be shared for the improvement of school cohesion.

Discussion  Both countries are implementing school-based induction programmes for beginning teachers. In England the beginning teacher is able to prepare for the new school year since he receives his introduction to the school at the end of the previous term. The difference in N.S.W. and the major deficiency is that induction, if it happens at all, begins on the first day of the new school year.

5.44 Release of Probationers for In-service Education

Comparison  In England the D.E.S. (Gr. Brit., 1972a, p. 70; Gr. Brit., 1972b, p. 19) recommended a seventy-five per cent teaching load for probationary teachers to allow them teaching preparation time and to enable them to be released for one day a week or an equivalent in block periods for school induction or for in-service courses in a teachers' centre. Their tutors were to be given some release time also. The economic situation caused this provision to be cut to two pilot areas only and those areas found that the release of teachers was beneficial to them although it posed special problems. Many primary probationers disliked the disruption to their classes while their schools found difficulties in obtaining good replacement staff. Small secondary schools had problems in replacing specialised staff (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 2).

A number of regions in N.S.W. release probationers to attend an induction course, while school-based induction generally takes place
in the probationer's own time. The appointment of reserve teachers in N.S.W. schools allows some flexibility in the release of teachers for induction activities. However, suitable relief teachers are not available in all teaching specialisations. Both countries have mid-year entries of teachers into the service and the time-tabling of their release will pose problems. An easing of the situation for the release of probationers is expected as the proportion of probationers in the teaching service is declining each year in England and in N.S.W.

Discussion  At present only two English L.E.A.'s receive central government funding to provide regular release for the in-service induction of probationers. Other L.E.A.'s are providing this from their own resources. Since probationers in N.S.W. are not given time specifically for participation in induction programmes they do not receive regular assistance with their teaching and senior school staff have no formal means of discerning whether the early teaching experiences of probationers are professionally sound or personally satisfying.

5.45 Teacher-tutors and Their Training

Comparison  The appointment of teacher-tutors has been accepted favourably in the English pilot areas (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 5). Chapter 4 (p. 189) referred to evaluations of the strengths and weaknesses in the tutor's role in the context of these pilot areas which could provide useful guides to the remainder of England and to N.S.W. The teacher-tutor works with the probationary teacher to assist him in relating his theoretical knowledge to his practical teaching situation. The tutor must be a skilful practitioner and he must be capable of developing the necessary level of teaching skills in the
teachers who are under his guidance. He needs an understanding of young people and a knowledge of the teacher's preservice preparation as well as a knowledge of the in-service training opportunities available so that he can advise the teacher on the furthering of his professional development (Kelly, 1973, p. 5). Probationers expect teacher-tutors to give them a sympathetic hearing and frank advice on how to deal with specific problems (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 88). The concept of teacher-tutor involves multiple roles, the pastoral role, the general professional development role, and the confidant. However, these roles need not be undertaken by the one person. A senior teacher-tutor is more able to interact with the head teacher but a person with this seniority may be less suitable as a confidant (Lambert, 1977, 1, p. 47). All teachers in a school have a part to play in the induction of their new colleagues but it seems clear that a particular teacher should have a formal responsibility for this (see Section 5.43, p. 239).

The teacher-tutor works in close liaison with the head of the teacher's subject department, or if no specialist help is available on the school staff, the tutor calls on the appropriate adviser from the teachers' centre (Hill, 1975, p. 39). Knowlson (1973, p. 6) suggests that a teacher-tutor could take some part in the appointment procedure so that he could be in touch with the new member of staff as early as possible.

The difficulties in implementing the various tasks of the teacher-tutors are that the tutor may simply transmit the values of a conservative school staff (Gleeson, 1974, p. 32) and that there could be conflict between the tutor and the probationer's head of department (Taylor and Dale, 1973, p. 293). In the first year of the English
pilot schemes, teacher-tutors concentrated on their pastoral role, but in the second year it was thought that they could extend their role to an active training one. This role would involve the observation of probationers' teaching, which many tutors were reluctant to do since both new and experienced teachers in England tend to regard observation as unprofessional and a threat to their autonomy. At the end of 1976, the probationers' responses to a progress report indicated that less than one third of them had their teaching observed systematically by their teacher-tutor (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 3). A probationer commented in Hannam, Smyth and Stephenson's survey (1976, pp. 46-47) that teachers "... generally do not take kindly to other people sitting in on their domains, which is sad ..." and that the teacher rarely has the opportunity to see other teachers at work although probationers could learn from watching experienced colleagues. If the teacher-tutor's role were extended to include the organisation and part of the supervision of practice teaching in his school he would be able to understand probationers and their progress more clearly as well as to assist in forming closer relationships between tertiary institutions and schools (Kelly, 1973, p. 7).

The N.S.W. Department of Education has not established teacher-tutors in a role similar to that of tutors in England, although each probationary teacher has a designated supervisor. The supervisor within the school is responsible for a small group of probationers in addition to being the leader of a school department with its associated administrative responsibilities. He reports to the principal on the probationer's teaching although the principal is responsible for assessing the satisfaction of requirements of the probationary period. In most English educational areas the assessment
is the joint responsibility of the head and the L.E.A. Since new teachers in N.S.W. have had no opportunity to spend time in their schools at the end of the previous year the guidance and support programmes must be introduced at the beginning of the school year. This is a busy time for subject masters in high schools and senior teachers who are involved in school administration as well, so the probationer's needs could be, and frequently are, neglected. The probationer may develop teaching methods and attitudes to his work which are not conducive to a favourable learning environment. When the supervisory teacher does find time to spend with the probationer, rapport may be difficult to establish and the probationer's co-operation as a member of the staff team may be difficult to secure.

Discussion N.S.W. need not establish teacher-tutor positions which are identical with the English positions. The role of probationer supervisor could be strengthened and if these supervisors were allocated time to spend with their new staff members, the quality of the probationer's teaching and his professional development could be of a similar level to that in the English schools which have established teacher-tutor positions.

5.46 Induction by Tertiary Institutions

Comparison Whilst it was maintained in Chapter 4 (p. 191) that the transition from student to teacher takes place most successfully in the school it seems strongly indicated that communication with the tertiary institutions should not be discontinued at the point where the student graduates since the institutions can play an important supporting role. Universities and colleges in England serve as settings
for externally-based induction courses for probationers (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 246). Turney (1977, p. 252) supports a similar role for tertiary institutions in N.S.W. However, few tertiary institutions have programmes organised this way. A step appears to have been taken in this direction by some N.S.W. tertiary institutions which have developed co-operative programmes in the pre appointment period. These could be extended to assist the teacher during his first year of service (Turney, 1977, p. 376). However, since Australian teachers, like English teachers, prefer to be freed from any implication that they are still trainees, the continuation of any close association with a training institution may be resented (Lambert, 1977, 2, p. 69). It seems to follow from this that a course which included an internship year in its requirements might receive support in both systems.

Discussion  It would appear that neither England nor N.S.W. has adequately settled the matter of continued tertiary institution involvement in the in-service education and training of the new teacher. It seems reasonable to argue that both countries still have the following unresolved needs:

1. to identify appropriate roles and functions of institutions and agencies in reference to in-service programmes, and hence to the transition from student to teacher,

2. to improve communication, liaison and collaboration between institutions and agencies (e.g., school, regional office and tertiary institution),

3. to identify unique capabilities and types of expertise available in institutions and agencies so that a more rational approach to solving the transition problem can be obtained (cf. Fielding,
Cavanagh and Widdowson, 1977, pp. 97-100; see also recommendations in Chapter 6 of this study).

5.47 Externally-based Induction

This section considers externally-based approaches to induction, that is, induction by the employing authority, as distinct from induction given by personnel in Schools.

5.471 Comparison - General Aspects

English L.E.A.'s and members of the teaching profession organise external induction courses on a regular basis. The value of external support and guidance programmes is in the alternative point of reference that they provide for teachers to that provided by in-school support (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 4). The system of external induction in English L.E.A.'s generally appears to be working satisfactorily (see also Chapter 4, section 4.4, p. 191).

Most regions in N.S.W. organise external induction courses which have some degree of similarity with those in England. The main difference is that external courses are not conducted regularly. However, some school principals do plan the school-based induction activities for new teachers with the external programme as focal points.
5.472 Relationship of External with School-based Induction

In both countries, externally-based programmes supplement the school induction provisions in those areas of expertise that may not be readily available in the schools themselves (Lambert, 1977, 2, p. 72); for example, in programming and curriculum development. Groups of N.S.W. principals have agreed that their understanding of the objectives of the externally-based beginning teachers' courses helped them and their staff to implement a more purposeful in-school follow-up programme. Pilot projects in each country are seen to be catalysts for a more general policy concerning induction courses (Turney, 1977, p. 260).

In both countries it is agreed that residential courses have the great advantage of enabling the group of probationers to spend time discussing their experiences informally in a setting away from the tensions of school (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 87; Lambert, 1977, p. 72). In England, such residential courses are available three times a year in some L.E.A.'s. In N.S.W. the general pattern is to offer such courses once a year. This practice, however, has not been adopted in all of the eleven regions of the state.

5.473 Limitations

There are four major limitations of externally-based induction courses. These are evident in both systems.

1. Externally-based courses tend to treat general rather than specific problems of beginning teachers. Such general problems may seem
irrelevant to the practical situation that the new teacher finds himself in (Taylor and Dale, 1971, pp. 87-88; Australian Schools Commission, 1973, p. 120). When the content of such courses is derived from someone else's diagnosis of what the teacher needs, clearly, errors in judgement can be made and the beginning teacher may feel less rather than more adjusted to his work as a consequence (Schools Commission, 1973, p. 120). An additional difficulty is caused by the fact that an individual's particular problems cannot be discussed adequately in large groups or in settings which tend to be threatening because they are organised by senior personnel in the school system (Anstee, 1976a, p. 57).

2. In examining externally-based induction courses in England and to a lesser extent in N.S.W., Light (1976, p. 152) concluded that the training aspect of these courses has become dominant at the expense of failing to give attention to the personal adjustment needs of beginning teachers. If the teacher does not come out of the experience of these courses believing he is now more capable of adjusting to the demands of teaching, not only is this a limitation, but also potentially a distinct negative consequence for him.

3. In both systems there appears to be a good deal of duplication in the content of externally-based and preservice, institutionally-based programmes of induction (D.E.S., 1977c, p. 2; personal communications to this writer).

4. Externally-based induction courses tend to convince beginning teachers that they are being spoon-fed by their superiors, that they are being denied some degree of personal initiative in their own self-development, and that they are still regarded as students rather than as teachers (Taylor and Dale, 1971, p. 255; O.E.C.D., 1976, p. 27).
5.474 Discussion

Whilst externally-based courses of induction are offered in England and N.S.W. it seems still to be an open question as to whether externally-based induction courses do assist teachers in their transition from training to full-time practice. An appropriate means of assisting the teacher in his role transition may be that provided by progressive integration experiences. Hypothesis 3 (Chapter 4, pp. 205-206) does not appear to be verified either for England or for N.S.W. There is some evidence that school-based induction is clearly superior to externally-based induction as a strategy for assisting teachers in their professional role transition. A further point is worthy of mention. In England, some extensive efforts have been made to evaluate teacher induction programmes (D.E.S., 1976b, p. 7; D.E.S., 1977c, p. 5; Lambert, 1977, 1, p. 46). Very little evaluation has been attempted in N.S.W., indeed, since organised courses of induction in that system are very recent innovations, there is little opportunity as yet for fully-fledged evaluative studies to be carried out. On the other hand, what may be a superior approach is one involving a set of progressively integrated experiences, beginning during the preservice period and extending into the early years of in-service and perhaps ultimately throughout the entire professional career of the teacher (cf. Fielding, Cavanagh and Widdowson, 1977, pp. 81-83; Richer, 1976, pp. 277-280).

5.5 Conclusion to Chapter 5

Three broad hypotheses were obtained in Chapter 4. Briefly these related to the following areas,
1. selection for teacher education,

2. appointment and placement of new teachers,

3. induction into teaching.

In Chapter 5 the three hypotheses were subjected to testing by applying Bereday's method of "balanced comparison". It was the task of Chapter 5 to determine by this method of comparison whether or not:

1. the hypotheses relate to problems of transition in both the English and N.S.W. systems,

2. for practical purposes the solutions suggested by the hypotheses have been implemented in England and are, by and large, currently acting to resolve the problems of transition, and

3. the solutions are pertinent to, and appropriate for, the N.S.W. system.

Answers to these questions are summarised in Table 5.1 below.
### TABLE 5.1 SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS OF TRANSITION IN ENGLAND AND N.S.W.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Hypothesis verified for England</th>
<th>Hypothesis verified for N.S.W.</th>
<th>Solutions have been implemented in England</th>
<th>Solutions are pertinent to N.S.W.</th>
<th>References in Chapter 5</th>
<th>References in Chapter 5</th>
<th>References in Chapter 5</th>
<th>References in Chapter 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Selection for Teacher Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p. 208</td>
<td>p. 208</td>
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<tr>
<td>(a) Students are given adequate information about teacher education</td>
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<td>p. 208</td>
<td>p. 208</td>
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<td>courses in colleges and universities.</td>
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<td>(b) Adequate time is allocated to the assessment for selection of</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>pp. 209–210</td>
<td>pp. 209–210</td>
<td>pp. 209–210</td>
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<td>secondary school students and mature age students for teacher education</td>
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<td>courses.</td>
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<td>(c) Students are given adequate lead time to reflect on the information</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>pp. 210–211</td>
<td>pp. 210–211</td>
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<td>given and on their suitability for a career in teaching.</td>
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<td>(d) A combination of criteria is employed for selection rather than one</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>pp. 211–216</td>
<td>pp. 211–216</td>
<td>pp. 211–216</td>
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<td>or two criteria.</td>
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<td>(e) The selection procedure of pretertiary institutions includes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>pp. 216–218</td>
<td>pp. 216–218</td>
<td>pp. 216–218</td>
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<td>organised experiences for students in school teaching situations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>Hypothesis verified for England</td>
<td>Hypothesis verified for N.S.W.</td>
<td>Solutions have been implemented in England</td>
<td>Solutions are pertinent to N.S.W.</td>
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</table>

### 2. Appointment and Placement of New Teachers

(a) In appointing beginning teachers to positions in schools, attempts are made to match those positions with the academic strengths, professional skills, professional interests and location preferred by teachers.

Yes, in most aspects | No, in most aspects | Yes | Yes

pp. 219-226 | pp. 219-226 | pp. 219-226 | pp. 219-226

(b) School principals are afforded some decision-making power in the selection of teachers for positions in their schools.

Yes | No | Yes | Yes


(c) The appointment of beginning teachers is made at least several weeks prior to the end of the preceding school term.

Yes | No | Yes | Yes


### 3. Induction into Teaching

Programmes for induction of beginning teachers are employed along the lines of those programmes employed in England namely

(a) by first demonstrating that the needs and concerns of beginning teachers in England are similar to those of beginning teachers in N.S.W.

Yes, in many aspects | No, in most aspects | Yes | Yes

pp. 234-236 | pp. 234-236 | pp. 234-236 | pp. 234-236
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Hypothesis verified for England</th>
<th>Hypothesis verified for N.S.W.</th>
<th>Solutions have been implemented in England</th>
<th>Solutions are pertinent to N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(b) that preservice induction is modelled on similar lines to that in England.</td>
<td>Yes, particularly after appointment to a school</td>
<td>In some aspects prior to appointment. Not adequate after appointment</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent</td>
<td>Would be pertinent if appointments were made earlier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) that school-based induction is modelled on similar lines to that in England.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes, but induction does not prepare the teacher before the school year</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) that teachers are released for in-service education on similar lines to English practices.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>To a lesser extent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) that in-school supervisors have a similar role to that of teacher-tutors in England.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not necessarily. N.S.W. could achieve similar results with a different approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) that induction by tertiary institutions in N.S.W. is similar to that in England.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N.S.W. could find different solutions from those which England may offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>Hypothesis verified for England</td>
<td>Hypothesis verified for N.S.W.</td>
<td>Solutions have been implemented in England</td>
<td>Solutions are pertinent to N.S.W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(g) that externally-based induction in N.S.W. follows a similar pattern to that in England.</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent pp. 247-250</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent pp. 247-250</td>
<td>Yes pp. 247-250</td>
<td>Yes, to some extent pp. 247-250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Chapter 6 is organised in the following way. Firstly, hypotheses derived in Chapter 4 are listed. Secondly, hypotheses considered to be verified by the comparison phase of the study are listed. Thirdly, a brief critical examination is carried out of the "Bereday method". Fourthly, a list of recommendations is presented for implementation in N.S.W. where the recommendations are deduced from those English solutions verified as applicable to the N.S.W. situation. Fifthly, several recommendations for further study are made.

6.1 Hypotheses

1. Selection for Teacher Education

If, (a) students were given adequate information about teacher education in colleges and universities (i) during the final year of secondary school studies, and (ii) in the early stages of their tertiary studies;

(b) adequate time were allocated to assessment procedures for selection of secondary school students (and also mature age students) for teacher education;

(c) students were given extended lead time to reflect on the information given and their suitability for a career in teaching;

(d) a combination of criteria were employed for selection rather than one or two criteria; and

(e) the selection process at pretertiary institutions included organised experiences for students in school teaching situations,

then, (a) students with greater interest in, motivation and commitment to and appropriate personal dispositions for, teaching would be selected into teacher education, and;

(b) the transition from secondary to tertiary studies would occur more smoothly with less wastage in terms of student drop-out rates, and with improved placement of students into appropriate courses of study.
2. **Appointment and Placement of New Teachers**

If, (a) in appointing beginning teachers to positions in schools, attempts were made to match those positions with the academic strengths, professional skills, professional interests, and location preferred by teachers;

(b) school principals were afforded some decision-making power in the selection of teachers for positions in their schools, and;

(c) the appointments of beginning teachers were made at least several weeks prior to the end of the preceding school term,

then, (a) beginning teachers would experience greater job satisfaction in the early months of their professional careers;

(b) beginning teachers would be better prepared for teaching;

(c) the transition to teaching would be less problematic for the beginning teacher; and

(d) fewer beginning teachers would leave the profession because of job dissatisfaction.

3. **Induction into Teaching**

If, programmes for induction of beginning teachers into teaching were employed along the lines of those programmes employed in England,

then, (a) the beginning teacher would enjoy a personally and professionally satisfying experience of teaching in the early months of his career;

(b) the quality of teaching provided by beginning teachers would be professionally acceptable, and;

(c) the quality of education provided for the community would be improved.

The hypotheses were tested in Chapter 5, the comparative phase of the study. Table 5.1 (pp. 252-255) summarised the results of this testing. It was found necessary to discard several sub-hypotheses, or (1) those which could not be verified as true for England, (2) those for which English solutions were not demonstrably pertinent to N.S.W. and (3) those for which solutions have not been implemented in England.
Generally, hypotheses are claimed as verified if they satisfied four criteria:

1. the hypothesis was verified for the English situation,
2. the hypothesis was not satisfied for the N.S.W. situation,
3. solutions have been implemented in England which relate directly to the hypothesis,
4. solutions relating directly to a hypothesis (i.e. a hypothesis verified as true for England and indicating an implemented solution in England) that are pertinent to the N.S.W. situation.

6.2 Hypotheses Verified

As a result of examining the hypotheses against the above criteria it is concluded that the following modified list of hypotheses is verified:

Hypothesis 1(a), (b), (c), (d) and (e).
Hypothesis 2(a), (b) and (c).
Hypothesis 3(a) and (b).

From an examination of the condensed list of hypotheses, it is clear that a number of pertinent problems in N.S.W. cannot find their solutions by drawing on English practices and experiences. Whilst to recommend solutions to these problems is beyond the intention of this study it is decided, for the sake of completion, to offer recommendations that might constitute solutions to problems of teacher transition in N.S.W. This is done in order to meet Bereday's (1964, p. 24) criterion that "comparative education [if successful] furnishes
educational planners with a set of alternatives from which to select an appropriate policy." Before listing recommendations, a set of critical comments is offered concerning the Bereday Method.

6.3 A Methodological Note:

Critical Examination of the "Bereday Method"

Whilst the "Bereday Method" (Bereday, 1964, 1967) was judged the most suitable one for this study and, with significant modification, enabled the problems of this study to be solved, it does present the user with a number of difficulties. It is hoped that by outlining these difficulties other investigators might be assisted in carrying out Bereday-type comparative studies. Three major difficulties seem worthy of mention:

1. Management of Descriptive Data  The most obvious difficulty encountered in the study was that of managing a great bulk of descriptive data such that the task of drawing inferences during the juxtaposition stage could be facilitated (Chapter 3). In an attempt to resolve this difficulty it was decided to organise descriptive and interpretive data in tabular form and to include both on the same table. This decision was taken when, after having completed an earlier version of this chapter exclusively in textual form, it was realised that the data management problem had become impossibly complex. An obvious alternative would to be to have held all descriptive data on computer tape thus having it on call as needed. This procedure was not adopted for the reason that the tables, when constructed, resolved the data management problem adequately.
2. **Establishing Structural Similarities between Compared Systems**

Since the emphasis in the Bereday method is on induction, studies are not based on established hypotheses but on hypotheses which are developed inductively and during the later steps in the methodological sequence. However, even before hypotheses can be contemplated as an inductive outcome, it is necessary to establish that the two education systems under comparison are structurally similar such that the solutions to problems in one system legitimately may be considered for the other. Until a basis of similarity has been established, there can be no justification for applying the method. This requirement adds greatly to the amount of descriptive material in Chapters 3 and 4 needed even before the problem under enquiry can begin to be addressed.

3. **Unavoidable Repetitions and Recapitulations**

Bereday's scheme poses difficulties when attempts are made to implement it in practice, for example the crossing of the bridge between area study and comparative study (Bereday, 1964, p. 23) since some comparison seems to be unavoidable in the area study stages, and Bereday offers few criteria for the selection of relevant, manageable data (Trethewey, 1976, p. 77). Jones (1971, pp. 89-90) found that in practical exercises which used Bereday's method the description of pedagogical facts and their interpretation could not be isolated unless a considerable degree of recapitulation were involved. The present study found the same problems that Jones mentioned. Descriptive and interpretive data were not adaptable to separate treatment. Jones suggests that for practicability the descriptive and interpretive steps be combined. Even with this combination, recapitulation appears to be inevitable between the descriptive-interpretive step, the juxtaposition...
and the comparison. There is an intermingling of social science factors also, for example the organisation of a college may be influenced by administrative policies, political decisions, economic constraints, as well as by the social purposes of the institution.

Quite apart from the methodological problems directly associated with Bereday's method, it was found during the study that there is a generalised problem in the methodology of comparative education that seems not to have been resolved at this time. It is the problem of determining, for a given study, the extent of the area study section required for an adequate coverage of the data needed for a full comparative study. This problem is recognised by Trethewey (1976, p. 72) but that writer makes no clear recommendation on the matter. Indeed, it may not be possible to deal with this problem for the general case because of the evident uniqueness of specific problems in comparative education. Moreover, in moving from analysis of small local issues, for example a particular tertiary institution serving, for the large part, a small, localised population, to an entire national system, disjunctions between the various levels of social and political organisation are bound to become evident. Thus what is a valid solution for a local institution may have little validity in national terms. Such disjunctions threaten the validity factor in relation to large scale comparative studies. Clearly, some issues are of local interest and significance only, whilst others have national significance (cf. Fielding and Sheehan, 1975, p. 54).

This said, perhaps a useful suggestion for comparative methodology is that levels of significance of particular educational problems need to be established prior to embarking upon a fully fledged comparative
study; that is to say, levels of significance for local, community, regional, state and federal units of organisation within society.

As a general comment Bereday's methodology does not translate easily into practice. Whilst he proposes clearly defined boundaries within which to manage the data of a study these boundaries necessarily must be overlapped in practice in order to achieve coherency of treatment of data.

6.4 Recommendations from English Solutions for Implementation in N.S.W.

The order of recommendations in this list is not intended to be one of priority. It is an order of progression, that is, recommendations for the selection of students are mentioned first, these progress to recommendations for the appointment of teachers, and recommendations for teacher induction at the preservice, school and external levels follow. The recommendations arising from verified hypotheses are:

1. Make information on teaching as a career available to senior school pupils (hypothesis 1(a)).

2. Allow adequate time for school pupils and mature age students to make their career choices (hypothesis 1(c)).

3. Select entrants to teacher education courses on a combination of personal, academic and aptitude criteria (hypothesis 1(d)).

4. Intending teachers could be encouraged to choose a concurrent course. During such a course, students experience early involvement with children and they may be expected to attain progressive levels of commitment to teaching. Such experience should assist their transition (hypothesis 1(e)).
5. With co-operation between tertiary institutions and employing authorities, induction could be extended into the preservice area more than it is at present (hypothesis 3(b)).

6. Integrate preservice induction fully into the curriculum of the final year in the tertiary institution (hypothesis 3(b)).

7. Well planned preservice induction could avoid costly duplication of provisions during the probationary year (hypothesis 3(b)).

8. Give final year teacher education students more comprehensive employment information. The employing authorities, schools and tertiary institutions could co-ordinate information (hypothesis 3(b)).

9. Involve principals in the selection of their new staff (hypothesis 2(b)).

10. Establish the Regions, rather than the Head Office, as the employing agencies. At present a Regional staffing officer's responsibility is for transfers of staff only (hypothesis 2(c)).

11. Establish earlier notification of resignations and finalise promotions and transfers earlier so that new teachers can be notified at least provisionally of their appointments sufficiently early to enable them to visit their school, meet the principal and staff, and gain information about their teaching duties (hypothesis 2(c)).

12. Allow provisional appointments to overlap the final practice teaching experiences whenever this is possible (hypothesis 2(a)).

13. During the pre-employment period provide new members of the staff with a school handbook containing a personal welcoming message from the principal and information pertinent to the tasks and responsibilities of new teachers (hypothesis 2(c)).
14. The principal should place first year teachers on classes which do not require specialist expertise and experience (hypothesis 2(a)).

15. Senior teachers should have time to spend on the preservice induction of new teachers on appointment at the end of the previous school year to help the new teachers to prepare for their teaching duties in the new year (hypothesis 2(c)).

16. Since tertiary institutions usually supply students with their personal records for employment applications, the employer and the individual schools could feed back information to the institution on the ex-students' progress in teaching. If this were done, tertiary institutions would be provided with valuable assistance in their task of preservice curriculum development (hypothesis 3(f)).

17. Consider the introduction of an internship year to bridge preservice training and teaching. Internship could be seen as an advanced induction into the full time professional role (O.E.C.D., 1974, p. 32) (hypothesis 3(b)).

18. All beginning teachers need a reduced teaching load and release time to attend induction programmes in their schools and outside the schools to complement the school programmes for the encouragement of effective teaching and professional growth (hypothesis 3(d)).

19. The teacher in his first year needs specific, individual advice on many occasions. Designate an experienced teacher as his adviser (hypothesis 3(e)).

20. Clarify the role of the probationary teacher's supervisor with a view to combining supervision and induction experiences more effectively. Release tutors or advisory teachers from part of their present work load (hypotheses 3(c), (d) and (e)).
21. Foster the enthusiasm of the beginning teacher so that once he has overcome initial problems of adjustment to teaching his innovative ideas may be developed and supported within the school (Bolam, quoted in O.E.C.D., 1974, pp. 13-14) (hypothesis 3(c)).

22. Develop the probationer's confidence by involving him in the discussions of small group meetings by year or faculty. Also encourage him to contribute directly to discussions on general staff matters (Grassie, 1976, p. 10) (hypothesis 3(c)).

23. Organise regional induction programmes in the way that best complements the school-based induction programmes (hypothesis 3(g)).

24. Evaluate induction programmes rigorously (hypothesis 3, all parts).

It is evident from this study that induction must be seen as a complex procedure which begins with the student's transition from school to teacher education, progresses to his appointment as a teacher, involves many co-ordinated institutional activities, and continues into the career years of the teacher. This comparative study has shown that England is further advanced in finding and implementing solution to the problems of the transition to teaching than N.S.W. Most of the recommendations are already effective in England.

6.5 Recommendations for Further Study

Generalisations which arise from this comparative study point to a number of areas in which further study could be undertaken following the key recommendations which have been made on policies for N.S.W. Such areas for further study are:
1. A survey of the present provisions for first year teachers in N.S.W. could be made on similar lines to Taylor and Dale's 1971 English study to assist educational planners in the design of the most suitable induction programmes within schools and regions. It is noted that steps are being taken in this direction evidenced by:
   (a) publication in 1978 of a National Study of Tisher, Fyfield and Taylor, *Beginning to Teach*, Volume I, (b) the Australian Government's National Inquiry into teacher education, led by Professor J.J. Auchmuty, under way in 1979 and (c) an enquiry into teacher education in N.S.W. led by Mr. P.M. Correy, also under way in 1979. As well as these, a recent study by N. Evans, *Beginning Teaching* (1978) should provide a point of reference for comparative studies of recent practices in England.

2. Further studies are needed to identify a broader range of criteria for the selection of students for teacher education. Such studies might include the testing of criteria for their predictive validity in reference to success in teaching and could be guided, for example, by studies such as have already been carried out by Cortis (1968) and Gough, Durflinger and Hill (1968).

3. Further study is needed of existing patterns of teacher education courses to determine whether (a) concurrent or consecutive courses, or (b) multi-purpose or single-purpose institutions are more effective in preparing a teacher who is able to cope with his first year of teaching as a competent staff member. At the time of the A.C.A.E.'s report *Teacher Education 1973-1975* (1973) no basis for comparison in institutional patterns was evident. It is hoped that such a basis for comparison might emerge from the National and N.S.W. Inquiries into Teacher Education being conducted at the time of writing.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1

BEREADY'S ROSETTE OF DIFFERENT DISCIPLINES MODIFIED TO APPLY TO ENGLAND

**Political**
- central government
- advisory function
- local government
- responsibility
- freedom in government of schools
- local participation
- tertiary institutions
- professional organisations

**Organisational**
- priorities
- upper secondary school
- reform of school examination system
- comprehensive schooling

**Historical**
- laissez-faire
- universal primary
- pupil-teachers
- L.E.A.'s universal secondary
- later small, insular
- teachers' colleges

**Administrative**
- local educational policy
- staffing ratio
- head teacher and staff freedom with curriculum
- inspectors' advisory role
- proposal for internship
- reorganisation of teacher education

**Geographical**
- homogeneous
- densely populated
- access to education
- urban

**Curricular Practices in**
**Teacher Education**
- Objectives of teacher education
- teacher education programmes
- deficiencies in teacher education
- proposed reform

**Social**
- Objective of character training
- school system
- comprehensive schools
- social welfare
- inequality
- teacher education and teacher status

**Economic**
- industrial society
- economic growth
- financing education
- as an investment
- financing schools
- and higher education
- European Economic Community

BEREDAY'S ROSETTE OF DIFFERENT DISCIPLINES MODIFIED TO APPLY TO N.S.W.

Political
Schools Commission ideals
centralisation bureaucracy
federal participation
federal-state balance of administration in the schools higher education internationalism

Organisational
priorities upper secondary school reform of school examination system comprehensive schooling

Historical
convict colony state schools state aid to denominational schools pupil-teachers free, compulsory, secular insular teachers' colleges uniformity, local apathy

Administrative
regional devolution equitable staffing principal and staff considerable freedom with curriculum inspectors advise and assess interest in internship reorganisation of teacher education

Curricular Practices in Teacher Education
objectives of teacher education teacher education programmes deficiencies in teacher education proposed reform

Geographical
dispersed population climate problems of isolation urban

Social
homogeneous Australian character equality in schools reduce disadvantages changes in teacher education teacher supply and status

Economic
change affects teachers and children states obtain finance from Commonwealth assistance to tertiary education

APPENDIX 2

RESPONSIBILITY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES


ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS AFFECTING EDUCATION IN N.S.W.

APPENDIX 3

Extracts from the Australian Constitution

Section 51 (The Constitution Alteration Social Services 1946)

xxiii A "The provision of maternity allowances ... benefits to students and family allowances."

Section 96 "During a period of ten years after the establishment of the Commonwealth and thereafter until the Parliament otherwise provides, the Parliament may grant financial assistance to any State on such terms and conditions as the Parliament thinks fit."

Teacher Education Programmes - England

Three Year College Certificate course.
Developed from traditional two year primary teacher training.
Secondary work available. Specialisation and depth of study in primary and secondary courses.

One Year Postgraduate Certificate in Education course.
Traditional course for graduates to train as secondary teachers.
A need for such a course remains alongside concurrent courses.
Available for primary and secondary training in universities and colleges for graduates who decide on teaching later in their studies. Can meet current employment needs flexibly.

University Four Year Concurrent Degree course.
An academic subject studied for three years interwoven with three years' study of education as well as methods of teaching, school experience and teaching practice, extending over four years.

College B.Ed. Degree course.
Has undergone several changes since first instituted in 1963 to become a unified, professional degree with academic studies, educational theory and practical experience studied concurrently.
Examples of an English Teacher Education Institution which Offers each of the Four Types of Programmes


   Special Features. Expertise in theory and practice of education at all levels, special emphasis on study of children’s literature and mathematics teaching. Sense of community and Christian foundation.

   Entry Requirements. Five G.C.E. subjects at O level, four including one at A level, Further Education diplomas or other. Opportunity for some certificate students to transfer to B.Ed.

   Teacher Preparation. Primary, middle, secondary.

   Course Structure. Four units each year, one major academic subject, two education units and one other, either an academic or education.

   Teaching Method. Taught within the professional part of the course under tutorship of both education and academic subject staff.

   School Experience. Half a day each week in Years 2 and 3, and block practices totalling 15 weeks.


2. **Sussex University. One Year Postgraduate Certificate in Education.**

Special Features. University organised into Schools, e.g., School of Education and Social Work. Common undergraduate courses studied within the School.

Course Content. During undergraduate course five-ninths of course in academic subjects including major, four-ninths in education. In P.G.C.E. Year two days a week on campus in education workshops, seminars on foundations of education, psychology, sociology and values of education, projects.

School Experience. During P.G.C.E. Year three days a week from November to May work in pairs under a teacher-tutor who gives methods tutorials, supervises and assesses practice and is paid for this.


3. **York University. Four Year Concurrent Degree Course.**

Special Features. Course allows for increasing levels of commitment to teaching from first to fourth year. Block teaching practice cannot be undertaken until fourth year because of timetabling for students not teacher-oriented.
Course Content. Degree in major subject which occupies two-thirds of time in Years 1-3 and in education theory, philosophy, psychology, sociology (one in each year). In first year literature and films related to children are studied.

Teaching Method. In third year.

School Experience. Informal observation in second year, practice for two terms in fourth year. If practice at same school can release a teacher for in-service study. A teacher in the school is designated as supervisor but he is unpaid.


Aim. Through a liberal education to develop the student into a knowledgeable person with an understanding of the thinking processes that he is using, through professional education to develop him into a teacher who is confident and competent to work in schools and who is able to benefit from further professional development.

Entry Requirements. Generally two G.C.E. subjects at A level and another two or three at O level or better, Further Education diplomas or satisfaction of a separate assessment. Personal suitability for teaching is assessed at a college interview.

Teacher Preparation. Primary 4-8 years, primary 7-12, secondary, or mentally handicapped.
Course Structure. (1) Foundation Studies half a year offer broad range of knowledge. (2) Elective Studies - one subject as a major for 2½ years, one for 1½ years and the third for half a year. (3) Professional Studies do not begin until second year when they occupy half the programme and three quarters of third year.

Teaching Methods. Develop knowledge, skills and attitudes involved in teaching. All students study language across the curriculum and children's learning difficulties.

School Experience. During first year visits to a wide range of schools. Teaching practice in day attachments and block periods in the one school during each other year.

Body Awarding Qualification. Didsbury College is associated with Manchester Polytechnic. C.N.A.A. grants College's awards. The B.Ed.(Pass) is a 3 year course. For the honours degree students study for a fourth year in further elective and professional studies.

Source: Didsbury College of Education Prospectus, 1977-78.
APPENDIX 5

Teacher Education Programmes - N.S.W.

Three Year College Diploma Course.

Developed from two year primary teacher training. Three year diploma includes early childhood, primary or secondary preparation.

One Year Diploma in Education.

Professional preparation for graduates, formerly for secondary teaching now primary also. Available in universities and C's.A.E.

University Concurrent Four Year Degree.

Developed as an improved alternative to the degree with end-on Dip.Ed. Bell Report and N.S.W. Department of Education favour this type of degree course.

College Four Year B.Ed. Degree.

Developed as an extension in depth to the Diploma of Teaching course.

Examples of a N.S.W. Teacher Education Institution which Offers each of the Four Types of Programmes

1. Wollongong Institute of Education. Three Year Diploma of Teaching.

Aim. "The development of teachers who are mature individuals having professional skills, personal values and the necessary knowledge to carry out their tasks in accord with the needs of a changing society" (W.I.E., 1976, p. 11). To teach skills that will fit them to begin teaching and give them an interest in engaging in a lifetime of learning about the process of teaching.
Entry Requirements. H.S.C. aggregate mark which is acceptable to the Institute, or equivalent. If educational level is lower, maturity and work experience are considered.

Teacher Preparation. General primary, Secondary English-history, mathematics and P.E.

Course Structure. (1) Professional Studies - Education, Basic Processes of Teaching, Curriculum overview and Curriculum subjects. (2) Liberal Studies - Study of Man, elective studies for 2½ years which show breadth, depth and balance.

Teaching Method. Within professional studies, not emphasised in liberal studies.

School Experience. Field work two hours per fortnight, micro-teaching and demonstrations, three week block practices totalling 18 weeks over three years.

Body Awarding Qualification. W.I.E. awards its own Diploma. Courses have been approved by H.E.B. and meet standards of A.C.A.A.E.


2. University of Wollongong. One Year Dip.Ed.

Aim. To produce a teacher who is reflective, able to cope with and generate innovation and who will continue his education on the job and during periods of study in tertiary institutions.
Course Content. Foundation courses - philosophy, psychology, sociology of education, educational practice as a linking course between theoretical and practical, and Australian education which has a problem approach, together occupy almost half programme. Professional skills courses, elective studies including teaching slow learners, migrant education.

Teaching Method. Lectures by practising teachers in their schools in primary teaching and secondary subjects.

School Experience. Five days orientation and observation before each block practice. Two three week block practices - practical training, supervision and assessment is undertaken by co-operating teacher who is paid.


3. Macquarie University. Four Year Concurrent Degree.

Special Features. No postgraduate Dip.Ed. available. Instead 4 year concurrent B.A., Dip.Ed. for primary and secondary teaching or related professions. A series of guided teaching experiences is provided.

Course Content. Courses studied in a School outside the School of education include a major study. Intending primary teachers must complete certain courses in English, mathematics, social science and sciences. Educational theory courses begin in first or second year.

School Experience. One day a week throughout fourth year, additional periods during university vacations. Students work under guidance of a Master Teacher, a member of the school staff who is paid by the university and who attends conferences on supervision techniques.


Aim. Mitchell C.A.E. is a multivocational college which developed from the former teachers' college at Bathurst. The teacher education programme aims to develop in students a sympathy for and understanding of children, a grasp of academic disciplines, competence in teaching and a desire for continued study and self-evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

Entry Requirements. Acceptable H.S.C. aggregate mark or equivalent. If educational level is lower, maturity and other experience are considered.

Teacher Preparation. The four year course is available for students who have enrolled in the three year diploma, secondary commerce/geography or mathematics courses and who wish to extend their studies to complete the degree B.Ed.
Course Structure. Major academic subjects in geography and economics or mathematics are studied for four years with additional related subjects. Education theory courses studied for four years. General education developed by elective courses which the student may choose from any department outside the one that his major study is in, and one elective is pursued in depth. The electives are not school-oriented.

Teaching Method. Undertaken in Years 1-3 in the major subjects. The courses are so designed that a student is competent to begin teaching after Year 3.

School Experience. Commerce/geography students undertake field work for two hours a week in Semesters 2, 4, 6 and 8 in local schools and they have one teaching practice block which occupies all of semester 5 with a change of school location at mid-semester. School practice at this college must be spread over a large country region. Mathematics students undertake field work in the same way and their supervised practice is in four blocks of two weeks each with additional practices during college vacations.

Body Awarding Qualification. Mitchell C.A.E. awards its own Diplomas and Degrees. Courses have been approved by H.E.B. and meet standards of A.C.A.A.E.

Outline of the Diploma in Higher Education in England

The two year Diploma in Higher Education began in two institutions in 1974 and it is available at thirty-eight colleges or polytechnics in 1977. Individual college courses vary but the usual pattern consists of modules from which the student chooses a set number in particular areas. The modular pattern was recommended by the D.E.S. because the modules could be transferred as part of a degree course (Elvin, 1973, p. 4). The admission requirement is generally five G.C.E. subjects including two at A level and while the colleges often allow diploma holders to transfer to the third year of a degree, universities give one year's credit for the diploma (D.E.S., 1976a, pp. 1-2).

Example

Bulmershe College of Higher Education outlines its Dip.H.E. course in an Information Booklet to Students (1977). This college at Reading has expanded from a single-purpose College of Education to add the Dip.H.E. and B.A. general courses which are awarded by the C.N.A.A. to its B.Ed. and Certificate in Education students. The Principal, James Porter, was a member of the James Committee and Bulmershe was one of the first colleges to institute the Dip.H.E.

For the award of a Dip.H.E. the student at Bulmershe studies two major courses, each for six hours of class time per week, which are chosen from applied social studies, art, history, English, French,
German, geography, mathematics, music, social biology, physical education, and United States studies, together with three complementary course units of two hours class time which may be chosen from about 30 offerings. The same studies are available to degree students and the classes comprise students who are enrolled for both types of awards.
APPENDIX 7

WOLLONGONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

PRACTICE TEACHING REPORT

FIRST YEAR STUDENTS (First Practice)

Student's Name .................................... Section ............
Practice School ................................... Class(es) ............
Practice Period ................................... Days Absent ............

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS TO BE DEVELOPED</th>
<th>PROGRESS</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLANNING**

- Clarity of objectives
- Provision for motivation
- Suitability of teaching steps
- Thoroughness of planning
- Originality of ideas

**TEACHING/LEARNING**

- Confidence
- Rapport with class
- Initiative
- Enthusiasm
- Use of praise
- Pacing of lessons
- Use of voice -
  - audibility
  - clarity
  - variety of tone
- Explanatory powers
- Descriptive powers
- Provision for individual differences
- Questioning -
  - suitability
  - variety
  - spread
- Chalkboard work

**MANAGEMENT**

- Awareness of whole class
- Maintenance of order
- Organisation of materials
- Coping with the unexpected

**EVALUATION**

- Analysis of results
- Provision for follow-up
- Constructive self-criticism

GENERAL COMMENTS

Lecturer's Signature                      Student's Signature
APPENDIX 8

WOLLONGONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

PRACTICE TEACHING REPORT

FIRST YEAR STUDENTS (Second Practice)

Student’s Name ................................ Section ............
Practice School .............................. Class(es) ............
Practice Period .............................. Days Absent ...........

(The report might, among other things, make mention of the following:

1. The extent to which the primary and secondary objectives for the practice have been achieved.
2. Progress made in developing the teaching skills described in the Microteaching-Component Skills Schedule.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE

LECTURER’S SIGNATURE .......................... DATE ............

STUDENT’S SIGNATURE ........................
PLANNING SKILLS: (e.g. clarity of objectives, provision for motivation, thoroughness, adequacy of teaching steps)

TEACHING SKILLS: (e.g. confidence, rapport with children, initiative, enthusiasm, use of praise, pacing of lessons, use of voice - clarity, audibility, variety - use of language, ability to explain, questioning, variety, suitability, spread - chalkboard work)

MANAGEMENT SKILLS: (Awareness of the whole group, maintenance of order, organisation of materials)

EVALUATION SKILLS: (e.g. analysis of results, provision for follow-up)

GENERAL SUMMATIVE COMMENT:

Lecturer's Signature ........................................Date .........

Student's Signature ........................................
APPENDIX 10

WOLLONGONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

PRACTICE TEACHING REPORT

SECOND YEAR STUDENTS - SECOND PRACTICE 1977.

Student's Name .................................. Section ........
Practice School ................................. Class(es) ........
Practice Period ................................. Days Absent ....

In compiling the report reference could be made to the extent to which
the objectives for this practice have been achieved including the
extent to which the appropriate skills have been acquired (see the
Guide Notes).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE:

LECTURER'S SIGNATURE ......................... DATE ...........

STUDENT'S SIGNATURE ..........................
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Student Teacher's name:</strong></th>
<th>Teacher:</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Subjects and Years (Forms)</strong></td>
<td><strong>School Dept.:</strong></td>
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<td><strong>School:</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Method I:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Method II:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Session no.:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Faculty Advisor:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Days absent:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TEACHING STRENGTHS** (see attached guide) Use reverse side if insufficient space

**AREAS REQUIRING FURTHER ATTENTION/ SUGGESTIONS FOR REMEDIATION** (see attached guide)

**STUDENT TEACHER'S SIGNATURE:**

**SUPERVISING TEACHER'S SIGNATURE:**

**Assessment Recommendation**

- □ (a) Satisfactory
- □ (b) Additional teaching experience recommended
- □ (c) Fail

_N.B. If recommendation (b) or (c) is chosen, supervising teachers are asked to consult with the Faculty Advisor as early as practicable in the practice teaching session._

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APPENDIX 12

N.S.W. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

ASSESSMENT OF SUITABILITY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

MR  .............................................
MISS ..................................................
MRS ....................................................................... ...................................................
SURNAMES IN BLOCK LETTERS  ...................................................................................
OTHER NAMES IN FULL  .........................................................................................

SECONDARY SCHOOL ATTENDED:

1. Has the applicant signed the Declaration on page 2 of the application form and understood the conditions governing the award of a teacher education scholarship? (see relevant section in Handbook.)
   YES/NO

2. If the applicant is not an Australian Citizen by birth, have you seen a Certificate of Naturalisation, an acknowledgement of declaration of intention to become naturalised or a British passport? Please insert the number:
   YES/NO/NA

   If the applicant is a British subject have you seen proof of permanent residence?
   YES/NO

3. Number of days absent from school during Years 11 and 12. Comment if excessive (more than 15 days in any one year) and give reasons —
   YEAR 11
   YEAR 12

4. Are there any factors – physical (hearing, eyesight, mobility, speech, height or weight problems), mental, social – which are likely to affect the applicant’s effectiveness as a teacher? (Give details.)
   YES/NO

RECOMMENDATION OF PERSONAL SUITABILITY

(i) From my knowledge of the applicant as a school pupil, and
(ii) the applicant having been interviewed,
and after consideration of all the evidence at present available including the characteristics overleaf, I consider that,
subject to qualifying academically, the applicant’s suitability should be rated as follows:

(Please tick the appropriate category.)
Category A – Highly suitable and strongly recommended
Category B – Suitable and highly recommended.
Category C – Suitable and recommended.
Category D – Doubtful suitability. Unable to recommend.
Category E – Unsuitable and not recommended at all.

COMMENT (Please supply full details in the case of D or E classification.)

SIGNED: .............................................
DESIGNATION: .............................................
DATE: .............................................
N.S.W. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

ASSESSMENT OF SUITABILITY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION AWARDS

MR ...........................................................
MISS ...........................................................
MRS ...........................................................
APPLICANT'S SURNAME IN BLOCK LETTERS ..............................................................................
OTHER NAMES IN FULL ..................................................................................................................
DATE OF BIRTH ..............................................................................................................................

SECONDARY SCHOOL LAST ATTENDED: UNIVERSITY OR OTHER INSTITUTION: DEGREE IF ANY:

1. Has the applicant signed the Declaration on page 2 of the application form and understood the conditions governing the award of a teacher education scholarship? (See relevant section in Handbook.)
   YES/NO

2. If the applicant is not an Australian citizen by birth, have you seen a Certificate of Naturalisation, an acknowledgement of declaration of intention to become naturalised or a British passport? Please insert the number:
   YES/NO/NA

   If the applicant is a British subject have you seen proof of permanent residence?
   YES/NO

3. Have references been sighted?
   YES/NO

   Comments ..................................................................................................................................................

4. Have practice teaching reports been sighted where applicable?
   YES/NO/NA

5. Are you aware of any factors — physical (e.g., hearing, eyesight, mobility height, weight), mental, social — which are likely to affect the applicant’s effectiveness as a teacher? (Give details.)
   YES/NO

6. Previous personal suitability rating where available.

7. Can adequate arrangements be made for the care of any children of the applicant during the course of teacher education, and/or when the applicant starts teaching?
   YES/NO/NA

8. Will the applicant be in a position to teach anywhere in N.S.W. upon completion of the course, as far as can be ascertained?
   YES/NO

   If not, please list the areas in which he/she could accept an appointment:

9. Tick box if applicable:

   Has TE 41 ...........................................................
   Has Dip. Ed. letter ...........................................................

RECOMMENDATION OF PERSONAL SUITABILITY

(If not tick the appropriate category.)

Category A – Highly suitable and strongly recommended.
Category B – Suitable and highly recommended.
Category C – Suitable and recommended.
Category D – Doubtful suitability. Unable to recommend.
Category E – Unsuitable and not recommended at all.

COMMENT (Please supply full details in the case of D or E classification.)

SIGNED: ...........................................................
DESIGNATION: ...........................................................
DATE: ..............................................................
APPENDIX 13

OUTGOING STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET - SECONDARY

1. PERSONAL DATA:

Surname: 
Other Names: 
Sex: 
Marital Status: 
 Maiden Name (if applicable): 
Date of Birth: 
Address for Appointment Name: 
Home Address: 
Post Code: 
Tel No: 
Post Code: 
Tel No: 
I was married on 
I intend marrying: 
Employed as: 
(If a teacher, state present school. If a student teacher, indicate institution and anticipated date of graduation)

Are you a member of the Teachers' Federation? YES NO

2. TRAINING DATA:

Method Courses Studied: (1) 
CAE/University: 
Section: 
Anticipated final qualifications (B.A., Dip., Teach., etc.): 
Student Scholarship Number:

DEGREE — Use boxes below to identify components of degree, or any qualifications which may ultimately lead to a degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects studied for 3 or more years</th>
<th>Subjects studied for 2 years</th>
<th>Subjects studied for 1 year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Special qualifications or interests

3. REGIONS OF PREFERENCE FOR APPOINTMENT

(Bear in mind that vacancies will not necessarily exist in regions nominated. Alternatives should be as wide as possible)

1. 
2. 
3. 

I certify to the correctness of the information presented herein

SIGNATURE ___________________________ 
Date ___________________________

TEACHER EDUCATION ADVISER'S COMMENT as to suitability for position sought

ADVISER'S SIGNATURE ___________________________ 
Date ___________________________
APPENDIX 14
NORTHUMBERLAND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY, ENGLAND
ATTITUDES TO INDUCTION PILOT SCHEME

New teachers 1977 (end of their first year).

PROBATIONER TEACHER

A. Each of these statements should have in front of it IN YOUR FIRST YEAR OF TEACHING.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean 1977</th>
<th>Mean 1976</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) You should have a lighter teaching load than more experienced teachers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) You need opportunities to meet other new teachers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) It is helpful to have one person on the school staff who is officially</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appointed to help you (a teacher tutor)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) You should have opportunities to see other schools at work</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) You need courses outside school on what you have to teach</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Most of your colleagues on the staff of the school are helpful</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) Your classes suffer if you have to go out of school on courses</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) Other members of staff resent it if you have extra time off because</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are new</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) Your Head of Department, Head of Year, or some other experienced</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colleague you choose, is likely to be of more help than an official 'teacher tutor'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) Having an 'Induction Scheme' (both in and out of school) helps you</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to become a better teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) Having an 'Induction Scheme' makes the step from college or university</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to school much easier</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12) Someone should watch you teach and discuss your performance with</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.

(13) You cannot really be helped to solve the problems you meet in your first year of teaching | 2.0       | 2.0       |
### APPENDIX 14 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean 1977</th>
<th>Mean 1976</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(14) If initial training were more effective you would not need an 'Induction Scheme' in your first year</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15) Your own school can provide all the induction activities and help you need</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) No new teacher should be expected to go away on residential courses in their first year</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17) New teachers can get all the advice and help they need from experienced colleagues in their own school</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) Your first year of teaching should be an extension of your training</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19) No special provision or courses should be arranged for teachers in their first year of teaching</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(20) A new teacher needs to feel independent and responsible for his or her own work</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(21) Teacher tutors should be appointed only from within the staff of the school in which they will work</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(22) It is essential to have a 'teacher tutor' if new teachers are to receive appropriate 'induction'</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(23) Teacher tutors should only try to give help and advice when requested by the new teacher</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(24) Teacher tutors should as a matter of course regularly observe how teachers teach in order to help them improve</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(25) The money used in the Induction of new teachers would be better spent on other aspects of education</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5 = strong agreement; 4 = agreement; 3 = neutrality; 2 = disagreement; 1 = strong disagreement.

Taken from C. McCabe, "The Pilot Scheme in Northumberland," in *Trends in Education*, No.4, December, 1975, p.11
APPENDIX 15

FIVE MODELS OF INDUCTION TRAINING

1. The traditional on-the-job model

2. The policy based-on-the-job model

3. The off-the-job model
APPENDIX 15 (continued)

4. The Visiting Tutor model

5. The White Paper model

KEY

Unambiguous relationship
Ambiguous relationship
Classroom

APPENDIX 16

What beginning teachers need to know, and the main concerns expressed by them at the South Coast Region in-service courses for beginning teachers, 1976.

Personal Concerns

Knowing who to turn to.
Being accepted by colleagues.
Lack of awareness of school policies.
Finding time for paperwork.
Need information regarding accommodation.
Tension from teaching subjects not trained for.
Sense of inadequacy, made to feel like new boy.
Know professional rights to teachers.
Know what the community expects of a teacher.

Professional Concerns

Classroom management.
Inexperience with discipline, but sometimes senior teachers over­zealous with help.
How to help children who need remedial work.
Advice on programming.
Advice on assessment of pupils.
Expectations by staff of new teachers.
Better understanding of place in staff meetings.
Knowing the background of the children, range of abilities.

Administrative Concerns

Knowing where resources available.
Teaching load too heavy, and difficult classes.
No advice about extra-curricular activities.
Knowledge of status and legal responsibilities.
Record keeping.

Suggestions

Have a teacher in charge of pastoral care of new teachers.
Lighter teaching load.
Retain contact between schools and colleges.
A home room for beginning teachers.
Receive teaching appointment earlier.
APPENDIX 17

Summary of Juxtaposition of Teacher Education Factors

Similarities

Blurring of Differences between Primary and Secondary Teacher Education

Until 1950's sharp distinction between primary and secondary.

Primary trained in two year courses in state teachers' colleges.

Secondary undertook university degree followed by one year's training.

The training could be omitted.

Now primary and secondary in universities and in colleges.

Professional associations in both countries aiming for all graduate profession.

James' proposal in England would divide the profession with its different types of degrees.

Methods and Training Strategies in Teacher Education Courses

Improvements and innovations in response to changes in schools.

Working partnerships with schools, more school experience.

Integration of theory and practice.

Focus away from demonstration school to a number of co-operating schools.

Joint appointments teacher-tutor.

C.B.T.E., individualised instruction, microteaching.

Practice Teaching

Valuable experience for students but has many deficiencies.

All participants need to understand objectives of the practicum.

Variety of practice teaching, block or continuous experience, teaching skills development.

More co-operative involvement of teacher or teacher-tutor.
Assessment of Practice Teaching

Statement of criteria for assessment

Assessment by lecturers.

Co-operating teachers greater share in supervision.

Subjective nature of assessment.

Training of supervisors.

Important benefit of evaluation is feedback to student to assist learning.

Single Vocational or Multi-Vocational Institutions

Single vocational institutions are maintaining their position.

Multi-vocational suits the different needs of teacher education.

Recent association of former single-vocational colleges with other institutions to form multi-vocational institutions.

Australian teacher education retains greater institutional diversity than appears to be in England.

Concurrent or Consecutive Teacher Education Courses

Both types available. Many educators favour concurrent.

Timing of career commitment.

End-on courses more economical for employment needs.

Environment of Teacher Education

Need for a humanistic, supportive environment.

Group and personal counselling.

Counselling during practice teaching.

Different environments of colleges and universities.

Student Transfer between Teacher Education Courses within Higher Education

Continuity between programmes.

Transfer from non-degree to B.Ed. degree.

Transfer in England from Dip.H.E. to B.Ed.

Credit for N.S.W. Diploma by universities.
One Year Postgraduate Teacher Education Courses

Criticism, insufficient time, crowding of subjects and treating superficially.

Disjunction of theory and practice.

Need to satisfy students' immediate concerns.

Suggestions for four term courses or two year courses.

School-based courses.

Mixture of Similarities and Differences

Three or Four Year Degrees for Teaching

Similarities

Pressure in both countries for degree qualifications for all teachers.

Development of four year concurrent college degrees alongside university three year degree plus one year professional.

Doubts of status of teachers with three year degree and quality of degree.

Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Three year (pass) and four year (honours)</td>
<td>Four year degrees preferred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degrees accepted and operating although</td>
<td>Three year college degrees not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confusion exists about teachers' status.</td>
<td>yet accepted. 12th year is below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level of English upper 6th form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Controversy over possibility of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>three year degrees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Acceptance of Internship

Similarities

Potential for an ideal bridge between preservice and full teaching service.

An improvement on the probationary year.

James Report in England and other internship proposals in both countries.
Problems of acceptance by the profession, status and salaries. Teachers' associations oppose intern's position of professional responsibility.

Some similarity with early pupil-teacher apprenticeship system.

**Differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not accepted and unlikely in near future.</td>
<td>One internship programme in another Australian state. May become acceptable earlier in N.S.W. than in England.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Innovative Teacher Education Programmes**

**Similarities**

Need for reform of total programmes. Similarities in details of proposed reforms, James Report and D.E.S. White Paper in England, institutions in N.S.W.

**Differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan for programme reform is nationwide.</td>
<td>No large scale reform proposed by State. Reforms within individual institutions' programmes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reorganisation of Teacher Education within Higher Education**

**Similarities**

Government action to associate teacher education institutions with other higher education institutions. Need for the teacher education institution to preserve its identity within the larger institution.
Controlling body to co-ordinate the reorganisation.

### Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reorganisation has begun hurriedly causing disadvantage to some institutions. $\frac{1}{3}$ have merged with polytechnics, $\frac{1}{3}$ merged with other further education colleges, $\frac{1}{3}$ merged with other colleges of education and the others remain free-standing.</td>
<td>Reorganisation to be directed and planned by co-ordinating Commission preferably by voluntary co-operation among institutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Balance in Administration and Organisation of Teacher Education

#### Similarities

Co-ordination between professional and administrative views in the planning of teacher education.

Administrative reform is needed and more central control appears to be needed.

#### Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Council for Teacher Education has been formed for planning. Regional Council to operate plans.</td>
<td>No national body to co-ordinate teacher education. National Tertiary Education Commission formed. Higher Education co-ordinating body in each state.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Differences

**Selection of Students for Teacher Education within Higher Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guidance at school, sufficient time to gain information.</td>
<td>Guidance at school but time is insufficient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criteria - school achievement, head teacher's report, interview.</td>
<td>Criteria - H.S.C. result or equivalent, interview for scholarship or college interview for private student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint application and admission to colleges, separate joint admission body for universities.</td>
<td>Joint application form for colleges, intended to become a joint admission centre. Two separate joint bodies for universities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisional offers before final school results known.</td>
<td>Offers after results of H.S.C. exam. Few institutions make early provisional offers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High retention rate of students in universities once they are successful in rigorous selection process.</td>
<td>High retention in colleges, lower retention in universities. Each student who aspires to tertiary education will gain admission although not necessarily to first choice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Financial Support for Tertiary Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>N.S.W.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated financial grants to all tertiary students.</td>
<td>Special financial support to teacher education students justified for the reason that state Department of Education is largest single employer in state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grants are generous, selection has been rigorous so abuse of grants is minimal.</td>
<td>Unbonded scholarship without guarantee of employment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England does not consider tertiary student loans to be necessary.</td>
<td>Alternative is Commonwealth T.E.A.S. which has strict means test. If Commonwealth living allowances made more generous, teaching scholarships could be withdrawn and incentive allowances could be paid to teachers in remote or unpopular areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction of a loan scheme has been considered and would be advantage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appointment and Placement of New Teachers

| Staffing of schools is local function. Each L.E.A. responsible separately. | Staffing of schools a responsibility of central Department of Education for whole state. |
England

Applications by final year students to L.E.A.'s.

Interviews during final year by school boards or by L.E.A. officers.

Teachers give three month's notice of resignation.

Teacher education institution will send comprehensive student record and information to employing authority on request. Practice teaching reports are the most useful records.

Schools begin to offer positions before final course results known. 76% of appointments received before end of previous school year so new teachers can visit schools to gain information. First days at school are spent in a situation which is already familiar to teacher.

N.S.W.

Applications by final year students to central Department of Education.

Interviews at end of final year by inspectors, not interviewing for particular positions. Majority of students have no employment interview.

Teachers give one month's notice of resignation. Appointments of new teachers delayed until after promotion and transfer of serving teachers.

Teacher education institution not expected to provide information to employer. Private applicants supply own information. Departmental officer on campus advises of students who would need careful placement.

Information during year prior to teaching is general, not specific to school. Notice of appointment given 1-3 weeks before school year. No opportunity to visit school while in session.
England

85% appointed to school or area of first choice.

Reasons for preferences for teaching in a particular area - proximity to home or spouse's work place 58%. Only 5% chose on educational grounds.

Probationary teachers generally given positions and classes which would ease their entry into their first year.

N.S.W.

52% appointed to region of first choice. Another 28% to 2nd or 3rd choice.

Reasons for preferences for teaching in a particular area - proximity to home or spouse's work place 61%. Only 4% chose on educational grounds (similar to England).

Probationary teachers generally given appointments which are satisfactory for their transition in their first year.

Transition to Teaching


Beginning teachers' main concerns are managing pupils, motivating pupils, programming, relationships with school staff and parents.

Schools recommended to give beginning teachers lighter teaching load and time for induction.

Bell Report recommended lighter load. At present only reserve teachers have lighter load.

No induction during preservice similar to that which is arranged in some N.S.W. regions.

Preservice induction, e.g. Newcastle, Wollongong and far western area.
England

Induction is the function of the school primarily, should involve communication with tertiary institution.

English teachers reluctant to have a colleague observe them and supervisors rather reluctant to observe.

Special positions of teacher-tutors who are responsible for probationers in their schools and who are given release time for their duties in some areas.

Example of a young but experienced teacher who has special duty of meeting with small groups of probationers to discuss their work.

Externally-based courses generally in 2nd and 3rd term, half day a week locally or one week residential courses. Organised by the profession, tertiary staff in supporting role. Induction should allow probationer initiative, avoid spoon-feeding.

N.S.W.

Induction should focus on own teaching arena in beginner's school. Communication with tertiary institution desirable.

N.S.W. beginning teachers understand that supervision is necessary but there is some reluctance among teachers towards observation as in England.

Supervisory role is defined clearly but supervisors have insufficient time.

Example of field officer of Mitchell College who supervises practice teaching and meets with beginning teachers who are ex-students of the college.

Externally-based residential course or one day course organised by most Regions. Allow probationer initiative, avoid spoon-feeding.
England
Tertiary institution staff and
facilities involved in in-service
education but this is not
specifically for beginners.
Main thrust in establishing
probationary teachers' confidence
and competence is expected to come
from the practising teachers
within his school.

N.S.W.
Tertiary institution staff and
facilities involved in in-service
education but this is not
specifically for beginners.
Main responsibility in induction
lies with the profession itself,
principals and practising
teachers within the school.


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