

A CRITICAL STUDY OF SOME ASPECTS OF TEACHER TRAINING
IN THE COMMONWEALTH.

by

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"The decisive factor in all education is the inner substance in the light of which and within which the education takes place; it is the cultural pattern which derives its whole significance from its foundation on faith."

Karl Jaspers.

Introduction : The Purpose and Scope of the Study.

The notion that teachers are born, not made, that anyone can teach and that the training of teachers is a work of supererogation dies hard. Although individual educators like Pestalozzi, and educational systems such as that of the Jesuits realised long ago the need for the training of teachers for the key role in the education of the young, the history of the development of such training in the English-speaking world, and in particular in England itself, shows a most remarkable sluggishness and reluctance to be committed which is unique in that it is not to be found operating in any other professional field.

The reasons for this attitude are probably complex and varied. In part it can no doubt be traced to the historical development of popular education itself and to the conflicting agencies involved in this development; in part to a philosophic disinclination to touch a problem allegedly inseparable from certain aspects of indoctrination; in part to financial considerations and social and political motives; and in part also, no doubt, to deep-rooted psychological factors. The keenness of the criticisms made today of certain aspects of the work of teacher-training institutions and in particular of the Education Departments of Universities, though no doubt activated in the main by genuine educational considerations, is not entirely free from these doubts and difficulties.

It is therefore urgent that there should be constant and sustained critical study and re-evaluation of such work by

those concerned with the training of teachers. It is not enough to leave such studies to Committees and Commissions, valuable though their work is, particularly in the direction of the organisation and over-all assessment of the general requirements of teacher-training. It is becoming more and more necessary for the people actually dealing with students in training to appraise not only the general requirements of their training courses but especially to consider the value, relevance and integration of the content of their courses. In particular, University Departments of Education must be prepared to undertake bold and stimulating experimentation in teacher-training if they are to maintain their position as leaders in this field.

In recent years many books on teacher-training and the improvement of teacher-training have appeared, in particular in the U.S.A. Frequently they discuss the topic abstractly or in generalized terms with no detailed examination of the content of the courses themselves. Typical of these works is that published under the title "The Improvement of Teacher Education" by the American Council on Education in 1946, which deals admirably with such topics as "Student Participation", "Social Understanding", "Inter-institutional Co-operation", and so on, but nowhere discusses the material and subject matter of a teacher-training course.

The present study is an attempt to make a contribution to thinking about the content of teacher-training courses in University Education Departments within the general setting of teacher-training and its function. The study is limited to the United Kingdom and the Commonwealth countries; in considering

the contribution of Canadian institutions, however, it has been necessary to make appropriate reference to the influence of the U.S.A. In all, forty-three Departments of Education contributed material to the study, and these are listed in an Appendix.

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Chapter I. The Developing Purpose of Teacher Training

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1. Development and Organisation of Secondary Teacher
Training in the Commonwealth.

Although close to the continent of Europe and in particular to Germany where University interest in teacher training began in the eighteenth century, for a variety of reasons Universities in England were slow to assume any responsibility for teacher training and in Scotland still have not done so. In the recently published "The Teachers' (Training Authorities) (Scotland) Regulations, 1958,"¹ Scotland has expressly rejected the English system of Institutes of Education in which teacher training comes under the overall supervision of the Universities, and indeed has reduced their representation on the governing bodies of colleges, specifically disqualifying their professors of Education and Psychology from membership of such bodies.

This independence of teacher training organisation from University life in Scotland has had considerable influence in the development of teacher training in Commonwealth countries, notably in New Zealand which has closely followed Scottish practice and in certain Australian States and South African Provinces. The influence has in many ways proved restrictive on progressive ideas.

By the time that English Universities began slowly to take an interest in teacher training, a great deal of pioneering work in this direction had already been done in the U.S.A..

1) The Teachers' (Training Authorities) (Scotland)
Regulations 1958. H.M. Stationery Office.

In 1831, a professorship of education was established at Washington College, Western Pennsylvania. In the following year a Chair of Philosophy of Education was established in the University of the City of New York. Horace Mann offered a course in education at Antioch College in 1853. The following year marked the abolition of the Chair of Didactics at Brown University on account of lack of funds, a fate which also met Missouri University's attempt to introduce the study of Education as a University subject. The first permanent Chair of Didactics was established at Iowa University in 1873, and by 1881, both the University of Michigan and the University of Wisconsin had established professorships. In 1890 the New York State Normal School at Albany announced its intention of granting degrees in Pedagogy, two years before the founding of the institution now known as Teachers' College of Columbia University. As the graduates of these institutions began to fill positions in the school systems, the movement by universities to offer courses in Pedagogy gained momentum.

Opposition to the introduction of Educational courses at university level came from two widely separated quarters, the academic faculties of the university, and the supporters of the normal schools engaged in training elementary teachers. In academic circles the study of professional education was considered to be below the level of difficulty of university courses and, as Monroe points out, "the reputation of the normal schools of the time contributed to the opinion that professional courses for teachers would not be of college grade."¹ Monroe also draws attention to the belief that

1) Monroe, M.G., Teaching-Learning Theory and Teacher Education 1890 - 1950.

teaching was an art, "and hence pedagogical instruction was not needed for secondary teachers." ¹

Normal school supporters saw the new movement on the part of the universities in a sinister light, thinking that the university was encroaching upon a territory wherein the normal school alone had held sway. In an attempt to silence the strong opposition from this quarter, the early professors of Didactics or Pedagogy emphasized the role of the university in this field as that of training secondary school teachers and preparing educational officials for their positions, as well as the promotion of "a philosophic study of the teaching art."

Gradually the university department of education won recognition. Among the factors affecting this development are the following: The wider acceptance of the need for professional training by secondary school teachers, the growth in number and specialization of educational positions, the increase in the body of factual knowledge to be included in the science of education, the increased emphasis on educational measurement, the use of research techniques in the study of current educational problems --- all have increased the prestige in which the university department of education is held.

Although English universities did not hasten to follow the American practice of offering instruction in Education, they moved steadily in the same direction. One of

1) Ibid.

the earliest steps was taken in 1846 when the College of Preceptors was established and empowered by its charter to institute lectureships on any subject connected with the Theory and Practice of Education. In 1873, when the first permanent American Chair of Didactics was established at Iowa University, the College of Preceptors established a Professorship of the Science and Art of Education, the first of its kind in England. At this time Cambridge University began to organize courses in Education and, in 1883, the University of London instituted a Teacher's Diploma examination for graduates.

It was not until 1890, however, when Day Training Colleges were formed in connection with the universities, that the way was paved for the recognition of Education as a university study. The first of these Day Training Colleges, created for the purpose of supplementing the inadequate supply of teachers being trained by existing Training Colleges, were opened at King's College, London, Mason's College, Birmingham, the Durham College of Science, Owens College, Manchester, University College, Nottingham, and University College, Cardiff, followed within two years by the formation of classes at Oxford and Cambridge.

An important difference to be noted between the English and American development of university Education course offerings is that the English university Day Training classes were originally for elementary school teacher candidates and not for secondary school teacher candidates as in the United States. Later, the English universities extended the scope of their operations to include the secondary school teacher

candidates, who had previously received no professional training. By 1900, there were several university education departments for the training of secondary school teachers and from 1911 the universities assumed responsibility for training teachers for secondary schools.

The Canadian development of instruction in education at the university level has followed the pattern of American development more closely than that of the English universities. The emphasis on the training of secondary school teachers has continued from the earliest beginnings up to the present, although there is a definite trend toward either the complete centralization of teacher training administration within the University Faculty of Education, as in Alberta and Newfoundland, or a closer integration of Normal School and University Department of Education programmes, as in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Saskatchewan. ¹

The only Canadian institution offering education courses at university level before 1900 was the University of Toronto which established the degrees of Bachelor of Pedagogy and Doctor of Pedagogy in 1894. Courses leading to these degrees were at first apparently only reading courses on which candidates wrote examinations and no instruction was given.

By 1907 Faculties of Education at both Toronto and Queen's Universities were granting Pedagogy degrees and, in 1908, both institutes required candidates for these degrees

1) W. Brehaut and K. Francoeur : Report of a survey of Programmes and courses in Education in Canadian Degree-Granting Institutions : Ontario College of Education 1956.

to register in Pedagogy courses which might be taken extra-murally or intra-murally. Although summer courses were offered first at Queen's in 1915 and at Toronto the following year, not until 1919 was attendance at classes required of enrolled students. McGill University, associated with a Normal School from 1856, offered no Education courses at the college level before 1908. Among the first Canadian universities to offer courses in Pedagogy were Acadia (1901), Saskatchewan (1910) and Alberta (1912). The period in which Canadian universities have been engaged in the professional education of teachers has been short.

In Australia too, University concern in the training of teachers is of very recent date and is far from complete. In Queensland the University Department of Education has become in very recent years responsible for the training of secondary teachers, whereas in New South Wales and Victoria this work is still carried out in the Colleges of Education, following the Scottish line, as is true of all the Provinces of New Zealand and in South Africa's Transvaal. Generally, however, where the pattern has developed entrusting the initial training of teachers to Colleges of Education outside the Universities, the latter have instituted Departments of Education, offering theoretical Diplomas in Education which are considered a higher qualification than the preliminary certification and the possession of which indeed attract an augmented salary from the employing Education Department.

In New Zealand there is a Teachers' Training College, under the control of the local Education board, in each of the four main centres. In each Education Board district there is

a selection committee consisting of the Senior Inspector, representing the Department and two other members appointed by the Education Board. The selection committee receives reports on the candidates for entrance from their school principals, and then interviews them individually to assess personality and general fitness for teaching. A medical examination is also required.

Students may be admitted in either of two categories: Division "A" (a two-year course) or Division "C" (a one-year course). Entrants in Division "A" must be at least seventeen years of age and have passed the School Certificate examination or the University Entrance examination. They train for primary school teaching. Division "C" students are graduates who train for service in Secondary Schools. During the Training College course students study the subjects required for a Teacher's Certificate, receive instruction in educational principles and methods of teaching, and attend selected schools for observation and practice. All examinations are internal to each college. After leaving Training College, students of both divisions complete their training by serving as "probationary assistants" in schools for one year. At the end of this period, if recommended by an Inspector of Schools, the teacher receives a Teacher's Certificate, is graded, and is eligible to apply for permanent positions in the service. Some six hundred students are needed annually to replace normal losses in the service, but in recent years about seven hundred and fifty have been admitted each year to make up for teachers entering military service, and to provide a reserve of teachers to permit the size of classes

to be reduced and the school-leaving age to be raised. While waiting for permanent appointment young teachers are employed continuously as supernumerary teachers attached to primary schools, on condition that they serve in a relieving or supernumerary capacity wherever required.

Each year, on completion of the Training College course, sixty to eighty selected students are retained for a further year of training, during which they specialize in such fields as the following : physical education, speech therapy, education of the deaf, music, art and crafts. At the end of this period they are certificated. A Teacher's Certificate is essential for permanent positions in the primary service. It is not compulsory in the secondary and technical schools, however, although the great majority of teachers of academic subjects entering these schools have, in recent years, held Teachers' Certificates.

There have, therefore, emerged three major types of teacher training, each having different implications for Universities:

- (1) The 'English' system :- concerned chiefly with the training of secondary teachers but having an increasing influence in the whole pattern of teacher training through the recently developed Institutes of Education. In addition to the English Universities, this system is found in some Australian and some South African Universities and is the pattern to be found where English influence is felt in colonial or ex-colonial territories such as : Uganda, Central African Federation, Ghana,

West Indies, Malaya, Hong Kong.

- (2) The 'Scottish' system :- Where teacher training is quite independent of Universities and functions through Colleges of Education responsible directly to the State, but usually having some ad hoc relationship with University Departments of Education and Psychology. This is the system to be found not only in Scotland, but also throughout New Zealand, where Scottish influence is strong, and in parts of Australia and South Africa.
- (3) The 'American' system which has largely been followed by Canada where students are prepared for a degree in Pedagogy over a period of three or four years, continuing academic subjects with training as teachers from the beginning of their undergraduate career. This approach is also used in the University of Western Australia.

2. Some determinants of Education.

The selection of teachers and their training must be natural functions of educational aims and purposes in general and of a view of the role of the teacher and the qualities required of him in particular.

It is therefore desirable at this stage to look at some of the determinants of modern education as a preliminary to a consideration of the role of the teacher and the appropriate training for him.

a) Education and the Community.

The cohesion of a society at any given time is a measure of the extent to which a wide system of values is accepted by the majority of its citizens. The ultimate sanction for law is the acceptance by the people as a whole of the principle or value underlying the law. When the principle is no longer acceptable the law is changed, either by the democratic procedure of parliamentary legislation or by other measures such as civil disobedience or revolution. Although change is the outcome of the desire of a large proportion of the citizens for that change it is, in its inception, almost invariably the aspiration of a few enlightened members of the community towards improvement in some direction or other. When, by their endeavours, they have persuaded large numbers to think, or rather feel, as they do; when they have overcome the inertia which is as characteristic of the social status quo as it is of a body at rest, then change has

taken place, and its embodiment in some Pronunciamento or other official legislation is merely a formal recognition of that change. Nor must it be thought that the inertia of which we speak is an undesirable impediment to progress. It is rather the stabilizing force which prevents whimsical change and expresses the value set by society upon the hard-won standards it possesses at any time. That is why easy revolution is a function of an unstable society, a society without consciousness of its values.

We have then to consider the role of education in two directions. Firstly as an instrument for the maintenance of the values of society, and secondly as an agent of change.

It is an obvious fact, though often neglected, that within a hundred years from any date, the whole of the population changes; everybody has, as it were, been cleared out and there exist entirely fresh millions of inhabitants. Moreover this hundred years can be cut to a mere fifty if we consider a man's practical life from twenty to seventy. And yet, although the fifty years will produce much change, both in values and in scientific progress, nevertheless the factors common to both ends of the period will far exceed the changes. There is, then an immense tradition handed on from one generation to another, and although some of this tradition is to be changed, as it has been modified by previous generations, the bulk of it represents the cumulative wisdom of man as he has ascended the ages and profited by the experiences of his forebears. *Le present, c'est L'arche du Seigneur; malheur a qui y touche!*

It is as much as that, then - and no more; for our

belief in the rightness of our values is an act of faith rather than certainty. It is even more obviously so today when comparative studies have revealed the essential relativity of a good deal of our moral code and principles. By extension it would not be difficult to conceive the possibility of other points of view even in the most universally accepted beliefs.

However, if we assume, as we must, that our concern is with the system of values actually evolved by mankind and more especially with the system of our own people, then it is indeed a sacred charge to hand on from one generation to the next the values already acquired. Nor could we imagine for one moment that the schools could avoid playing a major role in this education and indeed using other aspects of education as a means to this end; for whenever two or three are gathered together for any activity, values, good or bad, are involved. Moreover, whereas in a History class there may be one teacher and thirty pupils, in questions of values there will be thirty one teachers and thirty one pupils.

Traditional values are then always handed on; but the methods of handing them on may change. In the past the guardians of these values and their transmitters have usually been the religious organisations. Today, in most progressive countries of the western world we see a change in the direction of separating ethical values, though recognised as spiritual in essence, from the religious bodies. In the more backward countries where, as a matter of fact, catholicism is powerful, the handing on of ethical values is still largely the prerogative of the church. It is still far too early to draw any

valid conclusions from the facts as they stand. The evolution and maintenance of ethical values divorced from the powerful sanction of divine inspiration and unsustained by the mana of a priestly caste is not without its teething troubles.

As an agent of change, the role of Education is clearly much more difficult; for while indoctrination on behalf of the status quo is not only permitted, but encouraged, and has indeed long been recognised as a sine qua non of promotion; parents, general public and education officials alike condemn any attempt to make the classroom a centre of revolutionary ideas. The smelling out of heresy is as popular today as ever; it is only the heresy that changes. and yet the heresy of today is often the creed of tomorrow. Often - but not always, there's the rub. and for this reason we have to join in the general condemnation of the preaching of advanced ideas in the schools; for obviously we cannot allow any crank with free thought in some peculiar direction to indoctrinate the young. We have only to think of the havoc a Godwin might have wrought, at the same time that he was doing a bit of good.

To what extent, then, is the educator free to act as an agent of change? What compromise is possible between supporting the maintenance of the status quo and preaching change? In two ways the educator might be considered free to help; firstly, while maintaining a discrete silence on revolutionary ideas, he need not support reaction and intolerance; and secondly, he can teach his pupils to think for themselves on wide controversial subjects, in the hope that they will develop a critical attitude to all matters of dispute.

A critical analysis, for example, of sales advertisements in the daily press can form a useful beginning to analysis of broader values.

An active, inquiring spirit is the arch-enemy of indoctrination and it is this spirit that we must endeavour to stimulate in spite of the fact that the roles of teacher and pupil seem necessarily to imply an active transmission and a passive acceptance of a good deal of information. The answer of course, lies in method; by replacing the old instruction technique by the stimulation of questions and ideas in the minds of the pupils, so that they acquire the habit of thinking things out for themselves from first principles, with the teacher acting in the capacity of guide, philosopher and friend. In this way he can keep a watchful eye on the preservation of those standards of behaviour and thought which appear stable and to be preserved in the interests of social cohesion, and at the same time can encourage the critical attitude of mind which will be willing to accept ideas only when they are supported by the weight of evidence, and freed from emotionally-coloured pre-judgments.

The first purpose of education then is the handing on, in a progressive and enlightened way, a system of traditionally accepted values; this will therefore be the first role of the teacher and should accordingly be the first principle of his training. Associated with this transmission of a system of values is the role of religion and religious education in schools, for it is in fact religion that has in the past been the repository of values among other things.

"A religious education", says Whitehead, "is an

education which inculcates duty and reverence,"¹ duty because of our potential power over events, and reverence because the present is the corner-stone in the arch of eternity. The foundations of such a religious education then will have the two complementary aspects of ethics and spiritual values, and we have first to consider whether such aspects of education are the proper function of the school. If we decide that they do form part of our task as educators in the wider sense, we have still further to consider the methods to be used and the standards by which success can be judged.

We have only to consider the implications of the rejection of this task, and to see the limitations which such a rejection imposes on education to be convinced of the part that the school must play in religious education. It is interesting and valuable to consider in this connexion the work of the secular state schools in France until the recent change of outlook there which has emerged from a growing realisation that a school is more than a factory for instilling factual knowledge into the young, and that education has a much deeper meaning than purely intellectual development. In the past the French lycee, in contrast to the catholic school, had become such an institution - virtually soul-less; though paradoxically enough, because of this very strict delineation of the role of the teacher, the professeur de lycee has long enjoyed a higher professional standing in his society than his opposite number in England. From a professional standpoint there is such to

1) A.N. Whitehead : Adventures of Ideas.

be said for this limiting oneself to "expertise"; the wider the basis of our system, the more it impinges on the everyday life of the public as a whole, the greater will be the tendency to regard the teacher as jack-of-all-trades or even odd-job man, with the low standard of appreciation, remuneration and prestige which society, rightly or wrongly, undoubtedly accords to such a role at the present time. It is easy to neglect this professional aspect of teaching, to feel that it is unworthy of forming an element in the problem when considering the theoretical background of education; to do so, however, is to isolate educational theory from educational practice, and we are liable to find as one consequence that we have not the personnel of required calibre to put our platonic theories into practice.

With this reservation in mind, however, we can see from the French example that it is possible to have schools and schooling with a minimum of regard for the duty and reverence which Whitehead regards as essential; but it can never be thought of as education in the fullest sense of the word. The intellectual standards can be high, as we know they are in the lycee, but it is apparent from close contact with the products of these schools that the system is subject to most serious limitations. In a limited sense, the conversation and outlook of these young people is far more mature and has much greater intellectual content than those of contemporary age groups in England and the English-speaking world generally, but they rarely seek to have the same basis of spiritual and moral values; their ideas have the evanescent qualities of champagne, but at a deeper level it is easy to find the nihilism and lack of

faith which leaves them open to the pernicious influences of a Gide or a Sartre in their baudelairean "recherche du nouveau." The dangers of non-education in spiritual values, of disponibilit e," are clear enough; spiritual values cannot satisfactorily be replaced by intellectual values in youth, even though it may be possible in maturity.

Clear too are the dangers of indoctrination. We are well aware of the dangers of intolerance, the out-throat bigotry of so-called religious organisations, with their wars of religion in the past, their narrow sectarianism which persists today, and their bestial disregard in many cases of the most elementary teachings of the Founder of Christianity. No wonder many countries have "thrown out the baby with the bath-water," in Bernard Shaw's expressive phrase.

It is clearly not enough to reject the nihilism and laissez-faire of purely secular instruction; we have to know what we are offering in its place, and be sure that it is something more worthwhile than formalism and dogma. It must take into account and make use of modern psychological knowledge of the needs of the individual personality and relate them to the highest aspirations of man at his best, using insight and persuasion instead of force, and love instead of obedience. It may still be possible for Christ's work to be done in spite of the perversions and follies which have passed for Christianity and are now widely rejected on both intellectual and moral grounds. It can only be done if the Christ ideal is freed from the formalism which has encased it, and translated into aims and practices which can have a real meaning for the growing individual.

Which brings us to a consideration of the methods to be used in order to inculcate this sense of duty and reverence, these ethics and spiritual values. Firstly we should be clear that the duty and ethics are towards and on behalf of man, that is the Christ ideal of man, and not towards any subdivisions, religious or secular, of mankind; the sect leads away from progress, not towards it.

In the long run, spiritual values are as much a matter of self-interest as are ethical values, but they are much less easily demonstrated in material terms, and especially here example is much more useful than precept. The example of the life and teaching of Christ, stripped of the overgrowths of religiosity and political exploitation which in the past have prevented the full benefit being derived from the example, can still in its simplest message of love be made the most potent inspiration towards understanding the highest spiritual values. If we now have little faith in the ability of religions to guide us, we may still find that religion, in its purest sense, has the greatest power to educate that part of man which is beyond the scope of intellectual and ethical training, and is so obviously in need of education today, both in the schools and out of them.

(b) The Individual and Society.

Second only to the transmission of a system of values and a sustaining spiritual basis for these values, education is concerned with the highest development of which the individual is capable, with the obvious safeguards against the development of mere eccentricity, and within the limits laid down by the

fact that the individual lives in society. This sounds easy enough but in fact the problem of the relationships of the individual to society, far from being clear, and static, is in the middle of the twentieth century the central dynamic problem of life in general and education in particular.

The basic need for both control and freedom in modern society are clearly enough. In a dynamic society threatened by totalitarianism the principle of unlimited laissez-faire has to be abandoned in favour of planning and control. At the same time it is seen that control is essentially the system of the totalitarianism we wish to avoid, and accordingly we have to include in our planning a measure of freedom from control in certain aspects of our social life.

This leaves unsolved the still major issue of emphasis and quantity. Clearly the question of control and freedom can be approached from either of these elements as starting point, with correspondingly different programmes when the principle is applied. We can take the view that social cohesion, and indeed survival itself, may depend so vitally on control and planning that these must be the fundamentals of our social system, and areas of freedom restricted to minor aspects of life having relatively little or no importance. This is the approach which follows logically from a preoccupation with man in his social context and influenced by an immediate threat to democracy.

The defeat of National Socialism removed one imminent crisis and gave time for a further consideration of the role of planning and control in democracy. We can approach

the question from the postulate that freedom is the natural condition of man and should be the main concern of democracy, controls being applied when necessary to obtain the largest possible measure of freedom for all the citizens. This will certainly require a great deal of control, and has implications for freedom which are quite different from those of laissez-faire with its freedom for a minority to exploit the majority. It has, however, the advantage over the first method that it can start with a higher conception of the ultimate value of the individual leaving him with a greater measure of personal responsibility than a system which doles out small measures of freedom with constant anxiety concerning its repercussions on the top-heavy framework designed to save democracy from perils without. For what shall it avail a man that he gain the whole world and lose his soul? We have constantly to reassert that democracy as a concept is no more worth preserving than communism, capitalism or anarchy except insofar as it contributes a better framework in which all individuals are given the opportunity to work out their own individual salvation.

The problem then is seen as one of balance between controls on the one hand - including both those controls which are essential for the well-being of society as a whole, and also those controls of individual freedoms which are essential for the freedom of other individuals, - and on the other hand that fundamental freedom which, subject to such controls, is the birthright of man. This balance in a dynamic society with a hidden future cannot be fixed once and for all. At a time of rapid change and with the threat to freedom inherent in the

present international situation we shall expect the balance to swing more in the direction of control than would be required if some happy day an era of relative stability is achieved.

The educationalist is in a key position in this balance if he chooses to keep a careful watch on the changing tensions of world society. Without exaggerating his power to change events or to mould society it is his duty to maintain as far as possible his intellectual integrity in the shifting sands of the contemporary scene and to be prepared for a change of direction. At a time of crisis and difficulty he will clearly see the need for additional conformity, but he should have the vision to see conformity in perspective and be prepared to reject control whenever it can be dispensed with. His view of control and freedom will be in time as well as, and more important than, in depth.

Educationalists have and must continue to develop a prestige value in the community which will ensure them a platform where they can disseminate enlightened criticism based on a long term vision applied to the demands of the immediate situation. Plato's requirement that philosophers should be kings seems to indicate a curious lack of faith in the force of persuasion which elsewhere he praises. At all events, in modern times a platform may be more valuable than a throne in shaping public opinion.

The problem inevitably confronting the individual in a dynamic society is one of adjustment in a social and cultural crisis. This need for adjustment is particularly

important for the youth of the nation, and here the teacher has a practical job to do and a duty to do it, since he alone is in the position of prestige which will allow him the maximum influence over relatively large numbers. In one of his rare incursions into practical education Karl Mannheim draws attention to the changes of over specialization in the academic world, the disinclination on the part of the teachers to synthesise a whole out of the many parts and to satisfy the clearly defined desire on the part of youth for a coherent vision of the whole picture. If this need is not satisfied as it should be by a balanced synthesis towards which the individual child can turn and find that spiritual satisfaction which he seeks, he will create a partial, unbalanced synthesis of his own or base one on some party propaganda or other with disastrous results to his integrating personality.

The teacher then must create this global picture for his pupils, and in order to do this he will have to abandon the neutrality which has so long pervaded academic teaching. Neither democratic tolerance nor scientific objectivity require us to refrain at all times from a statement of truth as we see it, and indeed, to do so, to neglect to make full use of areas of freedom in education in a positive direction, will lessen the prestige of the educationalist and at the same time of course, his ability to maintain that balance in the relationship of control and freedom which is one of his main functions.

This vision of the inter relationships of freedom and authority is a paramount necessity for teacher and student before any worthwhile consideration can be given to the cult

of individuality or even intellectual development, for without this integrated sense of purpose individuality degenerates into licence, and intellectual development into non-committment.

With this background and sense of purpose, the highest development of which the individual is capable becomes a meaningful and worthwhile purpose of education coupled with the pursuit of happiness.

(c) Intelligence and Education.

Of all the psychological and other factors involved in the total development of the individual, education has commonly stressed the role of intelligence to the neglect of other equally important factors such as physical health, basic attitudes, emotional and aesthetic development, level of aspiration, inspiration and so on. This has been unfortunate as it has led to an over optimistic view of an educational programme.

As measured by Intelligence Tests, individuals range, within the limits of normality, from the dull and backward to the genius, from those who can scarcely understand the most elementary problems of life to those who can contribute original material to the progress of mankind. The common factor seems to be understanding; and this faculty is as valid in the lowest range of development as in the highest. The backward child who can achieve understanding of activities which are useful and which are within his capacity will be as happy as the infant prodigy and, within his limits, as useful; the fact

that one child is making raffia mats and the other solving problems in calculus is fundamentally unimportant, just as later on in life it should be unimportant that one individual is washing bottles while the other is constructing bridges.

The programme now appears deceptively straightforward and easy to apply. Find by modern methods the intellectual level of the child and hence his capacity for development, give him useful work of a progressive nature and which he enjoys doing and the problem is solved. By and large this is what the schools are at any rate beginning to do today. Although still in an experimental stage, enough progress has been made to show that education is being organised to meet the intellectual variations of individuals, to provide them with the material with which they can cope and which they enjoy using.

Can we then prophesy a Utopia within a generation or so? - a world where everyone is happy because he is useful and useful because he is happy? It would be very rash to make such a prophesy, for neither education nor intelligence work in vacuo and to assume that they do so is grossly to oversimplify the picture. In order to obtain a more realistic view of the situation, we may consider some of the factors which militate against the smooth working of the schools in their endeavours to create the required individual.

In the first place we have to consider whether the individual, doing the work suited to his level of intelligence, is certain to be happy. In the absence of ambition to do

anything else he may quite well be happy to wash the bottles, but if he is ambitious he will want to build bridges - and this quite independently of whether his intelligence fits him for this work. Now what will be the outcome of this situation? Either he will be allowed to try to build bridges and fail to do so satisfactorily or he will be prevented by society from fulfilling his unwarranted ambition and made to wash bottles. In neither case will he be a happy or useful individual. Indeed it would not be difficult to follow this up further and to think in terms of delinquency and crime on the one hand or of neurosis on the other.

A consideration of the nature of ambition may seem to be leading away from a direct consideration of intelligence and education; nevertheless in the outcome it will prove to be of prime importance for education to be able to induce the individual to deal intelligently with his ambition, and by persuasion rather than coercion ensure that a bottle washer is content with his lot.

It would be foolish to claim that this object is likely to be attained easily. For private ambition is very largely the outcome of public prestige. Nowhere is it truer than in Scotland that the urge to get up and get on by means of education has been the spur from one generation to another; and the same drive is manifest in the political world - we have only to think of the work and aims of such organisations as the Fabian Society to appreciate how deeply rooted is the desire for "betterment" in the emergence of a Labour Party.

Again, the fallacy of the belief in the evolution of machines to do all the bottle-washing, which was hailed at one time as the solution of the problem of low grade work, has become apparent. If the bottle-washing did not exist it would be necessary to invent it. Fortunately there is still no evidence that the end of the bottle-washing is in sight, and we do not at present need to consider how we should deal with a world in which all the work required high intelligence and in which there existed a large proportion of low intelligence individuals. Perhaps the science of eugenics will, before that time, have a solution to offer which will ensure the progressive raising of the norm of intelligence in such a way that a nice balance can be maintained between the state of development of the world and the needs of the individuals who inhabit it.

For the present then, it would seem that the schools are in the somewhat paradoxical situation of having, for the majority of individuals at any rate, to attach less importance to that purely intellectual progress which in the past has been the very key-stone of their existence, to divert private ambition from its association with public prestige and to orient it towards satisfaction in a more limited field. It is in the solving of this problem that the success or failure of the pragmatic approach to education will largely depend. This neglect of variants other than intelligence - ambition or level of aspiration is merely an example of a wide range - vitiates the whole educational process of individual development, and yet widely accepted though the theory may be, in practical education little more than lip-service is paid to it.

(d) Vocational Education.

In the twentieth century education in the schools has become increasingly involved with vocational preparation and in the Universities professional training absorbs a major part of their teaching role.

The distinction between cultural and vocational education, as Whitehead points out, is an artificial one which obscures the true value of both aspects of education. Today the fundamental unity underlying education is stressed and the cleavage is lessened by the diminishing opposition of those who felt that to give children an education with a bias in the direction of industry was to deprive them of the advantages of the so-called cultural education. This lessening of the opposition to vocational education has largely been the result of the opening of the way to the highest cultural education for the most gifted children, whatever their social background. With the meeting of this demand for equality of opportunity for the brightest children, the argument against vocational education for the remainder loses force.

Thus the position of vocational education has changed very much in the last few years. It is no longer to be regarded as a means of shutting off the majority of the children from the advantages enjoyed by the children of the wealthy. The rise of the Grammar School, together with grant-aided University studies have cleared the way for a more realistic approach to the education of those unsuited in themselves to advanced work of an academic type.

The argument that vocational and cultural education

are the same is to some extent spacious in the present day world. It would perhaps be fairer to say that they could form a unity in a platonic society. Nor is it clear what form vocational education could take in the production of a tram-driver or post-man, or indeed the vast army of factory workers and miners. The craftsmanship and artisen-ship of old play a relatively small role in present day society; they absorb few of the world's workers; they are replaced to a large extent by technicians and mechanics, with whom it is far more difficult to equate vocational and cultural education.

One of the criticisms heard today of scientists, both at school and University level, is that they are often completely lacking in appreciation of literature and the humanities, and incapable of expressing themselves adequately in their own language. It seems difficult in the face of such criticism to maintain that high development in some specialised direction is in itself a satisfactory conception of education even though it may appear to satisfy the psychological needs of the individual. So that at the highest level it may well be that vocational education, that is education for a calling or special interest, is allowed to deprive the individual of cultural or general education, even to almost complete ignorance of his own language and literature. Much the same criticism can be made of those who study exclusively some branch of the Humanities and have no general background knowledge of the outlines of modern science.

In some respects the minor technicians, clerical and mechanical sections of the community are better provided

for. The post war years have seen a great improvement in the provision of continuation classes and evening institutes. In any major English city it is possible to see the enormous response to this opportunity for cultural employment of leisure time, ranging from ball-room dancing to academic subjects. A further provision in this direction is envisaged in the proposals for compulsory Continuation Schools and for County Colleges contained in the Education act of 1944. In this way a very real attempt is made to overcome the dangers of vocational education and to provide as wide a cultural background as possible for those members of the community who are technically trained in some special direction but who have neither the ability for nor interest in an academic career. This development again has contributed much to removing the opposition to vocational education in the day schools by providing the means on a large scale for continuing the elementary cultural education which precedes and to some extent must always accompany vocational education.

The fundamental problem then for vocational education is one of balance. We have seen that if vocational education can have cultural value, it is no less true that such academic instruction contains on a large element of vocational training and indeed in some scientific specialisations appears to exclude cultural education almost entirely. In order to get the balance in perspective we must refer vocational education to our wider conception of the purposes of education as a whole. Since the work the individual will do in later life is clearly bound up most intimately with his

happiness and well-being, the claims of vocational assessment and training to be the concern of the educationalist seem fully justified. They are moreover justified by the need to encourage the individual to contribute by his efforts to the well-being of the community as a whole.

It must not be thought, however, that vocational training alone for some occupation useful to the community is sufficient to fit the individual for life in a modern democracy. Quite apart from the need for at least a background of cultural and humanistic interests, there remains the necessity for such education as will enable the individual, within the limits of his natural ability, to form right opinions and judgments based on logical analysis of known facts, to avoid the snares of specious propaganda and to have a clear idea of the value of the democratic system in which he lives, and of the elements which compose that system. The effective social cohesion which can result in a democracy only from such clear appreciation is as important and useful to society as the actual work done by the individual. Education, therefore, for "citizenship" has an equal claim with vocational and cultural education, both for the well-being of the individual and for that of the community, but needs to be subordinated like them to an understanding of values and an integrated set of fundamental beliefs.

Vocational education is then good and useful provided that it does not exclude a spiritual education, a cultural education and education in democracy and social living. If

vocational guidance and selection are successful, as indeed they are becoming today, the young will be increasingly given the opportunity of doing the work in which they are particularly interested. If this interest is too narrow and it is encouraged and developed too soon, there is clearly a danger that cultural and "citizenship" education may be treated with less than their due importance, or indeed resented as "wasting time" which could superficially more profitably be spent on the specialised "interest." This is clearly seen at present in the earlier years, where a general educational background precedes a vocational training. It is equally desirable and perhaps more important that it should be carried through at the University level, where the danger of producing one-sided specialist leaders in some direction is from time to time dramatically illustrated by the discovery of brilliant physicists with emotional and social development fixated at some infantile level. In the modern world the controversy between vocational and cultural education is being rapidly replaced by anxiety at the development of the "two cultures", scientific and humanistic, with the increasing difficulty of communication between the two.

3. The teacher and his task.

One of the major difficulties in considering the role of the teacher is a lack of definition concerning his task.

It might be as well to remember at the outset that the school as such is only one of a large number of social agencies having an educational effect on the young and that it is indeed a relatively new institution added to others which have been at work from the dawn of civilization. Its role has of course grown enormously in recent years and is immeasurably greater than that of a school in Plato's time when education was mainly an affair of the family, friends and the community, with the "school" limited to giving instruction in a few basic skills. Now it is common practice when any uneasiness is felt in society about some problem, whether it be juvenile delinquency or death on the highways, to ask, "what is the school doing about it?" The schools generally (and schools in this sense means the teachers) shoulder this increased burden willingly enough - perhaps too willingly. A major part of education can still be done most effectively in the home and we can only deplore the handing over to other agencies those educational functions which should be fulfilled by the home and the parents. G.K. Chesterton's Songs of Education are worth reading for their dramatic portrayal of this change:

I remember my mother, the day that we met,
A thing I shall never entirely forget;

and I toy with the fancy that, young as I am,
 I should know her again if we met in a tram;
 But sother is happy in turning a crank
 That increases the balance in somebody's bank;
 and I feel satisfaction that sother is free
 From the sinister task of attending to me.

By and large the job of a school should be to attend to those aspects of education which, either by the training of its teachers, it is most fitted to do, - this would obviously include the ordinary subjects of instruction, - or those neglected by society's other agencies - this would include in many places such matters as simple hygiene.

Now what equipment does a teacher need to deal successfully with the task that we entrust to him? Do we want him to be first and foremost a scholar deeply imbued with a genuine love of learning? Do we think of a teacher in the way that theorists in the 18th Century thought of a tutor; that is, essentially, as a cultivated man of affairs imparting to the pupil "savoir faire", worldly wisdom, good manners and so on? The world we know is rapidly moving into a technological age - should our teachers become more and more technical instructors? Should we think of their job as training and conditioning the young for an ant-like technical efficiency in a world so aptly satirised by Aldous Huxley and George Orwell? Have spiritual values any meaning and relevance to life today? And is it worthwhile training teachers in such values? Can they hope to pass them on to their pupils in the face of the open materialism of such of

society in which they live? - pass them on effectively that is - not merely in terms of lip-service. Would the job be worth doing at all unless one had some such belief? And so on ... the fundamental questions implied in teaching and preparation for teaching are naturally the same as the fundamental problems of society as a whole, and our attempts to solve them will of necessity be just as groping and uncertain.

The easiest aspect of the teacher's task to consider is that of instruction. Here we have the longest experience, since intellectual development has always formed the central core of education as a whole, usually to the exclusion of other aspects of development. It is here that educational psychology in the fields of motivation, maturation, learning theory and measurement has the most positive results to show. It is relatively easy to devise controlled experiments to assess the outcomes of different methods of instruction in some defined piece of learning. Even here, however, a word of caution is necessary to remind us that even in the most objective aspect of education, teaching is an art and not a science, for where a scientifically designed experiment shows a significant difference in outcome in teaching by two different methods when the experiment is conducted by a given teacher, the outcome might well be quite different when the methods are employed by a different teacher.

Nevertheless, the teacher should know the objective reality of teaching and learning as far as it is known, and to have a clear understanding of learning processes and

teaching techniques. Instruction may be based on three different concepts. First of all what we might call directional, that is, based on a conditioning of the organism; and in this situation the teacher's job is to direct the organism into the optimum situation for the conditioning to take place. The second concept on which instruction may be based might be called motivated teaching, where the pupil regularly likes doing and learning whatever he enjoys. The teacher's role in this concept is to assist the pupil to like certain things which are not directly enjoyable in order that he will learn. And the third concept on which teaching may be based is what we might call attitudinal. Now an attitude is an emotionalized judgment, and hence the teacher's role will be to assist the pupil to synthesize the desirable emotions and judgments with respect to learning; that is to come and feel the right kinds of emotions about learning. This last concept is particularly important in a democracy where right thinking cannot be indoctrinated by dictatorial methods exercised by a few leaders, but must be developed as the personal responsibility of thousands of individual teachers. In addition to defining the learning and teaching processes in general terms, the psychology of instruction must concern itself with the details of the system such as, the best time to start certain subjects; the order of in which their contents should be presented; the best length of periods of study; whether theory or practical work is the best basis for the early stages of learning, and so on. And it is clearly of importance that the teacher should know a good deal about the results of experiments that have been carried out on these

topics.

While recognising that instruction does and must play an important part in the educational process, we cannot today equate instruction with education and think of the training of teachers as the production of competent technologists. In general I think it might be said the teaching process in a democracy has a fourfold aim. First of all it is concerned obviously with self-realisation in a moral sense, self-development, individual growth and personality development and so on. Secondly it is a question of human relationships; learning how to build up the right kind of relationships with people, because nobody can live alone. Thirdly it is concerned too with developing economic efficiency, learning how to do a job so that one can earn a living. And fourthly education must be concerned with civic responsibility; that is, one's duties as a citizen, as a member of a particular community. The fourth process is distinct from the first three. The first three are clearly concerned with the interest of the individual himself. The fourth on the other hand concerns the individual's relationship to society, what he owes to society, and what he has the right to expect from society. These four things then, in addition of course to the ordinary material of instruction of the ordinary school subjects.

Now it is clear that born teachers, so called, prepared only with a top heavy load of subject matter, are no better than untrained plumbers and unskilled engineers possessed of a great deal of equipment and no knowledge about how to use them. The fine performance of a gifted teacher is as much the

result of trained planning and intelligent experience as natural aptitude. More knowledge is no guarantee of teaching success. This has been notably demonstrated for example in the teaching of modern languages in England in the past by foreigners who of course knew French and German perfectly, but taught it much less successfully than a properly trained Englishman whose knowledge of the foreign language could not equal that of the native. It is, however, essential first and foremost that a teacher should have a good knowledge of his subject and that, indeed, far beyond the level to which he will be expected to teach it. Indeed it will not be too much to say, that the very first requirement of a teacher is a fine and excellent knowledge of the subject that he intends to teach. Scholarship begets scholarship.

Of the additional factors required, intelligence is among the most essential. There is nothing in teaching more unfortunate than a situation where the teacher is less intelligent in the general sense than the majority of his pupils. There will of course always be the exceptional child of higher intelligence than that of most of his teachers; but it should not be the general case, as it often unfortunately is, that the teacher is intellectually inferior to the majority of his pupils. "A basic requirement for admission to the profession of teaching should be a minimum I.Q. of a 120." ¹

1) W.G. Emmett, Reader Emeritus in Education, University of Edinburgh, and for many years associated with the Moray House Intelligence Tests widely used by British and other Education Authorities.

Then, social competence is also a vital factor in teaching ability. The teacher needs an adequate adjustment, not only for the class situation, but also in the wider social adequacies of relations with superiors, colleagues and the community as a whole. Social competence implies emotional balance, a high degree of empathy, and wide social experience.

One of the most valuable attributes of the successful teacher is the habit of observation in order that he may be sensitive to the responses of his pupils, to fatigue signs, to incipient restlessness and so on.

It is of course notoriously difficult to assess personality objectively and yet we are all aware of the importance that "teacher personality," whatever we mean by it, has, not only on the learning situation but obviously enough on the whole educational picture in the wider sense. Without attempting to deal with such a wide topic as personality here it is possible to indicate some of the aspects of personality which are clearly crucial for successful teaching.

- (1) Genuine affection for children; contrary to popular belief this has little or nothing to do with whether the person concerned has children of his own or not; there are plenty of parents who do not love children, and plenty of childless teachers who do.
- (2) An aptitude for vicariousness; the ability to think and feel as the child does, to put oneself in his place; to avoid interpreting his behaviour

in terms of experience which is relevant to adult life but which is meaningless to a child.

- (2) Emotional balance and mental health, without which the class, composed of children of immature development, will tend to an instability which undermines effort and consequently learning and growth.
- (4) Personal integrity that manifests itself in all the everyday minor matters that arise inside and outside the classroom.

.. good many studies have been made in recent years, especially in the U.S.A., of the qualities that make for successful teaching. Of course the obvious test of success in a limited conception of education is simply to judge a teacher on the examination results he obtains, and this test will probably continue to be regarded as an important criterion of teaching ability. On theoretical grounds other actual changes in pupils should also be correlated with various aspects of the teacher - intelligence, sociability, knowledge of subject, discipline, and so on, but in actual practice this is not easy because in many ways educationalists are not agreed what pupil changes are most desirable and what weights should be attached to each of them. Moreover we have not yet developed adequate measuring scales for many of the changes in attitudes and personality traits that are thought to be important possible outcomes of school training, though we are able to measure with considerable accuracy increases in knowledge and ability to apply principles within limited areas.

One interesting experiment carried out in this way indicated that pupil gains in information increased with the age of the teacher up to 38 years and then decreased. In the same experiment, however, the pupils rated the older teachers as more effective.

In a survey of 10,000 high school seniors, about 80% said that the best liked teacher was also the best teacher, and the reasons for liking a teacher best in order of frequency of mention were :

- (1) Helpful, explains clearly, uses examples.
- (2) Cheerful, happy, sense of humour.
- (3) Human, friendly, companionable.
- (4) Interested in and understands pupils.
- (5) Makes work interesting; creates desire to work.
- (6) Strict, controls class, commands respect.
- (7) Impartial - no pets.
- (8) Avoids sarcasm, grumbling.
- (9) "We learned the subject".
- (10) Pleasing personality.
- (11) Fair in testing and marking.
- (12) Patient, sympathetic.

The reasons for not liking a teacher produced a list almost the bipolar of this one. Where the most effective teacher differed from the best-liked, the differences in order of frequency of mention were :

- (1) More exacting standards, stricter marking, "we learned more".
- (2) Better at explaining lessons, work better planned.

- (3) Knows subject better, puts it over better.
- (4) Stricter discipline.
- (5) Makes the work more interesting.
- (6) Is less friendly.
- (7) More serious, more business like.

Summing up the results of the experiment, the more effective but less popular teacher seems to lack a pleasing personality, to be stricter, requiring more work. He is likely also to be teaching a more difficult and less inherently interesting subject, with the result that the pupils blame the teacher, projecting on to him the difficulty of the subject and their own lack of capacity. It is pretty well known now that students prefer a teacher who is not lax in discipline and who earns respect.

About three out of four teachers fitted adequately into the best liked framework, but one in four was thought to be more like the least liked teacher, and this has serious implications for education when we consider that teaching is a protected trade - there are always customers, whereas in other professions the least liked is easily dropped.

The opinions of educational experts too have been widely canvassed on the subject of the qualities required to make a successful teacher. As one may imagine, the range of views is very wide, and the stress on various traits reflect personal ideas. They are, however, susceptible of statistical analysis, when they fall into the following arrangement in order of importance :

- (1) ability to learn about children.

- (2) Ability to describe desired outcomes of teaching.
- (3) Ability to appraise the results of learning.
- (4) Ability to stimulate curiosity of pupils.
- (5) Ability to provide a variety of learning experiences.
- (6) Ability to use own knowledge for transfer and applications.

We need to examine critically then, in the light of what we know of the historical background of teacher-training, in the light of our knowledge of the major determinants of education and in the light of our interpretation of the teacher's task, the principles and practice of teacher-training in the middle of the 20th Century.

Chapter II. The Contemporary Problem

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1. Recent developments in Teacher Training.

The major development in Commonwealth teacher training in recent years has been the implementation in England of the recommendations of the McNair Commission expressed in their Report, in spite of the differences of opinion with regard to the organisation of teacher training.

The McNair Committee was unable to agree upon recommendations for a scheme for the training of teachers. The Report is accordingly split into two sections for this purpose and presents two alternative schemes, commonly known as Scheme A and Scheme B.

(a) Scheme A - University Schools of Education.

The one half of the Committee recommended:-

- (a) that each university should establish a School of Education, it being understood that some universities may find it desirable to establish more than one such school;
- (b) that each University School of Education should consist of an organic federation of approved training institutions working in co-operation with other approved educational institutions; and
- (c) that University Schools of Education should be responsible for the training and assessment of the work of all students who are seeking to be recognised by the Board of Education as qualified teachers.

(b) Scheme B - The Joint Board Scheme.

The other half of the Committee recommended:-

- (a) that some or all the members of the Central Training Council should, as soon as may be practicable after its establishment, visit each Joint Board and confer with it, and with the Universities and Training Colleges represented on it, upon
- (i) any modification in its area,
 - (ii) the acquisition of further powers,
 - (iii) the addition of new representatives,
 - (iv) the further staffing and office accommodation,
- that may be required to enable it to discharge the functions assigned to it;
- (b) that the Joint Board thus reconstituted should become responsible for the organisation of an area training service in which there will be a university training department and training colleges preserving their identity and being in direct relation with the Board of Education and the Central Training Council, and in particular should, in addition to their present duties, make or ensure the making of arrangements for
- (i) Practical Training in Schools and Continuous Teaching Practice,
 - (ii) refresher and other courses for serving teachers,

and, so far as distance and other factors may permit,

- (iii) enabling the students of one training institution to receive instruction in others,
 - (iv) enabling members of the staff of one training institution (more particularly specialists) to give instruction in others;
- (c) that, with a view to making reciprocally available the resources of the university training department and the training colleges in each area, so far as distance and other factors may permit, the university (in respect of its training department) and the training colleges should through the instrumentality of the Joint Board develop the practice of consulting upon appointments to their staffs and the use of their staffs;
- (d) that in each area the university should be invited to nominate representatives upon the governing bodies of the training colleges, and that the university, if its constitution provides for the representation of external bodies upon a Court, should invite the training colleges to appoint representatives;
- (e) that the passing of the examinations in the university training departments and in the training colleges, which must necessarily differ in content, should result in obtaining a common professional qualification accepted by the Board of Education, while the term "Diploma in Education", if retained by a university, should be reserved for forwarding more advanced studies;

- (f) that the Joint Board should be responsible for the examination and assessment of students both in the university training department and in the training colleges for the purpose of the grant of the abovementioned professional qualification; and
- (g) that the Joint Board should consult with the university and the training colleges as to any steps that may be required to equip them to carry out research and investigation.

In the outcome of the McHair Reports alternative suggestions for the organisation of training of teachers, all Universities in England and Wales, except three, have set up some kind of School of Education usually under the title "Institute of Education". These Institutes incorporate under the general direction of the University the Training Colleges in their area. In the other three cases there is a University Institute of Education established in the University city for the training of graduate teachers.

In all there are 17 Institutes of Education (or Area Training Organisations). There are 23 University training departments, and 138 Training Colleges, recognised by the Ministry of Education. In London there are two University training departments (the Institute of Education and King's College) and 26 Training Colleges in the S.E. of England affiliated. Of these, 4 are Domestic Science colleges, 3 are Physical Education colleges, and one is a Technical Training college. At Oxford there is only one Training College affiliated with the University. Between these two extremes in size are all the other Area Training Organisations.

It should be noted that, although in the main Scheme A has been adopted, some of the particular recommendations in Scheme B have in certain cases also been followed even where Scheme A is in operation. In London, for instance, section (e) of Scheme B has been incorporated into the working out of Scheme A; a common professional qualification is now granted for both the two-year and four-year courses of training, and the old Teachers' Diploma has been abolished and a Diploma in Education established for more advanced studies.

The functions of the Institutes of Education are:

- (1) To supervise the courses of training in member colleges and to further their work in every way. To arrange for movement and exchange of staff, etc.
- (2) To recommend to the Minister students who have qualified as teachers.
- (3) To plan the development of training facilities in the area.
- (4) To provide education centres for teachers and students in training.
- (5) To provide facilities for further study, refresher courses, and research for teachers.

The Emergency Training Scheme has come to an end. Out of 124,000 applicants 50,000 have been accepted since the inauguration of the scheme. Fifty-five new colleges have been established, in spite of delays caused by difficulties in plumbing, etc. By the end of 1952, some 35,000 students had been trained under the scheme. The Ministry has published an official assessment of the scheme.

In 1939 Training Colleges were graduating between six and seven thousand teachers. By the end of 1952 the number was up to 14,000 and further great expansion is expected in the early 1960's to be accompanied by the adoption of three year training courses in all Colleges. In connection with the coming into operation of the new Institutes of Education there has been an overhaul of the curriculum.

Individual subject suggestions are made to the Board of Studies. There have been drastic changes. All students now take a professional core of subjects:- Principles of Education, Psychology, Methods, Health, Speech, Physical Education and a Modern Language. On entry to College, in order to facilitate planning of courses, students signify choice of type of teaching - Infants, Juniors or Secondary Modern School. But students are free to switch from their choice later if they wish. In addition to the professional core, there are subject courses and grouped courses, e.g. Social Studies and General Science. All students take one subject from each of these two sets. Furthermore, there are 21 terminal courses. Of these students take two in their two years in College. The terminal courses are professionally biased to give a wide range of experience and reference to sources of information:- Religious Education, Music, Art, etc. There is a new course in Librarianship. In these courses individual theses are prepared of a considerable standard, as e.g. in musical composition or in local studies.

Teaching practice. Students begin by observation of Second Year students, and then teach for 4 terms.

Assessment is made by College staff and staff from other colleges, who spend a couple of days going through the work of the students covering the whole two years of their course.

There has been virtually no change in the principles or methods of training teachers in University Departments of Education.

2. Current Criticism of Teacher Training.

If the keyrole of the teacher in the educative process is now agreed, then clearly the training of teachers is a major growing point in the evolution of society. It is in this light that healthy criticism of the work of Training Colleges and University Departments of Education must be received and viewed. It is probably true to say that never before has there been such thoughtful and informed criticism as we find today. That is not to say that all such criticism is entirely free from prejudice. In the nature of things and particularly because of the tentative and spasmodic early development of public education and because of the social and political implications of the whole topic, prejudice is to some extent inevitable and flows from deeply rooted philosophical positions. Nevertheless an examination of current criticism shows a clear picture of anxiety both on the part of professional educationists and on the part of the general public to see that progress is made.

Some of the criticism is clearly misinformed as in the following extract from a letter in the Journal of Education Volume 88, 1956: "Some of them (i.e. Lecturers in Education) have never taught in their lives; those who have taught in schools have generally done so for a very short period and then probably like their own school days in a minor Public School. In successful professional careers of considerable length these men have often never been in a state school except as a visitor. Any doctor, soldier, sailor or lawyer takes for granted that on the whole all in his profession, including those at the top, have shared the same general early

experiences; furthermore, eminent lawyers and doctors refresh themselves continually by contact with the raw material of humanity. Teachers, however, are constantly exhorted, advised, examined and certificated by people who would not last twelve months in an ordinary classroom and who take particular care never to risk it",¹ and answered by the following extract from another letter in the same Journal: "I thought your readers may be interested to know the facts about teaching experience in one department of education. Professor, 25 years as teacher and Head Master in public schools. Lecturers, teaching experience: (usually finishing as head of subject in grammar schools) English 16 years, Chemistry 17 years, Geography 18 years, Modern languages 12 years, History 11 years, Biology 7 years, Classics 10 years, Mathematics and Civics 10 years, Physical education 7 years, Primary school and Training College 7 years. Half of these Lecturers have higher degrees in addition to teacher qualifications. We hope soon to arrange each year for Lecturers to return to school for a term or more".²

In some quarters doubts about the efficiency of teacher training have led to a return to the old belief that all that a teacher really needs is a good knowledge of his subject and plenty of teaching practice. The Journal of Education, Volume 86 of 1954 seems to support this view:

1) Journal of Education, Vol. 88 London 1956.

2) op. cit.

"There has been a good deal of dissatisfaction of recent years with the product of the Training Colleges. at the post-graduate level this is leading in some quarters to the disparagement of training altogether and to a re-emphasis of the primary importance of sound education, coupled with continuous teaching practice in a good school".¹ This is an attitude which is firmly fixed in a section of American opinion, especially in the Liberal Arts Colleges. Most training for teachers there seems to divide broadly into three parts: general, professional and semi-professional. The general section is designed to encourage the student to broaden and deepen his own education. He selects one or two subjects for special study. The professional section includes provision for the study of the principles and practice of education, some aspect of special method, as for e.g. in English, and educational psychology. The semi-professional section takes many forms but basically it provides study of a number of groups of subjects, to familiarise the student with projects and other methods which have a special value in teaching of children.

What seems clear is that the schools and the teachers must be given a much fuller part in training than at present. It is unlikely that any one form of education and training will win general approval. a variety of courses is essential.

The leading article in the Times Educational Supplement of 31st October, 1958 suggests that both the standards of Departments of Education and their integration with academic faculties and with the schools leaves much to be desired:

1) British Journal of Education, Vol. 86. London 1954.

"It is said that the University departments were too separate. The criticisms made of them cannot be imputed wholly to gossip or malice. Surely it is not only the staffs of Educational Journals who gather that there is strong criticism of the University departments among the Heads of schools and members of the University faculties. All we can be taken to task over is for printing what is widely said. Our Headmasters and University teachers cannot be dismissed as backward men of no account and no good can come from dismissing what they say as not evidence. If we assume for a moment that the Heads and Dons are misinformed does it not support the contention that the training departments are too separate, that they are not properly fitted into the Universities or not sufficiently in touch with the schools? Institutions that are such criticized are either bad or misunderstood. Whatever it is, they have something to do. If their standards are such that they do not gain respect, then they must raise them; if their standards are sufficient, they must improve their public relations and convince their critics of that fact. Just as Universities maintain the intellectual standards of the nation, and the worst they could do in a scientific age, would be to dilute those standards under popular pressure, so the University Departments of Education are in a high degree responsible for the level of teacher training elsewhere. Several correspondents have pointed out the difficult character of their work, the many subjects they have to teach, the short time they have to do it. They must see these things as a threat to standards against which they must be vigilant. Let them take warning from the awful results of letting the subject of Education get the bit between its teeth in the United States. If their

libraries have the money, which heaven forbid, to buy the fat and frightful volumes by pigeon-brained educationists, that pour over in a stream from America, let them spend an evening or so drinking deep from that muddy stream. Then let them consider the effects these same writers have had on their own educational system, and how, starting with such the same academic standards as prevailed here, they succeeded in purging them from the schools, so that now there is something like a state of national alarm in America, and all this with floods of money behind them, and a far longer school life to play with. Why did this happen? The answer touches our point of separateness. In American Universities there was no love lost between the educationists and the other faculties. Each of these pursued their separate paths. The breach was disastrous. In a country zealous for intellectual standards, the University faculties by various means should determine the studies and standards of the schools preparing for them. The departments should move closer to the faculties and this move by them should be reflected in a much sterner addiction to the teaching of academic subjects in the training colleges. Education as a subject, with all its bits and pieces - Aims of, Psychology of, History of - should be

held in check. A little is important but it goes a long way." 1

Probably the most valuable kind of criticism is that which flows from young teachers reflecting, after a few years in the schools, upon the training course which they took a short while ago. The following is an extract from a letter to the Times Educational Supplement of 2nd May, 1958 :

"It is probably true to say that the exceptionally gifted teacher will gain little from a training course, and at the other end of the scale no amount of training will make people into teachers. But the majority of us needed having introduction to the latest advances in teaching method, to educational psychology, to the structure of the system, and to a great deal more. We needed the opportunity to make our mistakes where they mattered least, and to correct them under careful supervision. We have naturally criticisms on points of detail, - too much philosophy, the latest fads presented as gospel, a few other points, - but we are agreed that the course achieved its aim of equipping us to teach. We are grateful that we have not been pushed into the classroom untrained a year earlier. Too many people assume that because anybody can stand up in front of a class, therefore anybody can teach. Teaching is a craft which has to be learnt. The untrained dentist's mistakes hurt more, but they heal more quickly." 2

1) Times Educational Supplement, 31st October, 1958.

2) Ibid; 2nd May, 1958.

A much more thorough examination of a training course is offered by another correspondent to the Times Educational Supplement of 6th July, 1956 : A student who has just completed the course says :

"One has had to read several books, write a number of essays and two short theses, attend a hundred lectures and teach a hundred lessons; does this all help the prospective teacher? No one could dispute that the term spent teaching was of inestimable value. It is surely unwise to unleash a class upon a young man or woman who has been cloistered for years. It seemed to me an excellent plan to give a student opportunity to observe experienced teachers at work before requiring them to teach; one learns even from bad teachers. I spent years observing a particularly hopeless teacher; his formal advice was useless, but I learnt a great deal from him; as I watched him my own mistakes became evident. In my department it was customary for each student to receive only one or two visits from his tutor; this seemed quite inadequate for it meant one was left almost entirely in the hands of a few members of the staff of the school who can hardly be as well qualified to advise as a tutor".¹

With regard to the theoretical subjects, the correspondent stresses the value of the time and encouragement given to every student to formulate his own philosophy of education; by which he probably means, to begin to formulate his own philosophy of education, for clearly a fully fledged philosophy

1) Times Educational Supplement, 6th July 1956.

of education can only be developed over a long period of years with much experience; but he does feel that this is a most valuable part of the course. He says, "I have already discovered how difficult it is to make people think, and we must admit that this applies to the teaching profession. My department was determined not to allow the thoughtless to become teachers and a philosophy course was therefore included which was made intensive by the detailed study of set-work books. The result was that the year appeared academic and respectable. Without this particular course, the diploma might have been dismissed by many as beneath contempt. It is very tempting to despise a diploma course once one has graduated and the inclusion of a truly academic course showed considerable cunning. For some students the course meant not merely the formulation of a philosophy of education, but also the introduction to influential thinkers, who might have otherwise been overlooked".

With regard to the course in psychology, the correspondent finds it more difficult to praise the course. He says: "It is difficult to praise with equal enthusiasm the course in psychology," and he goes on to say, "It is my opinion that all psychology dealt in this type of course should be directly applicable to the teaching situation. Once an abstract approach is permitted the knowledge thus acquired will be abused. It is probably easier to abuse psychology than any other science and for this reason psychology is particularly subject to ridicule". "On the other hand," he says, "the same is not true of the study of the History of Education; it did not appear that any student resented the inclusion of

the History of Education in the course; indeed, many felt more emphasis should have been placed on the history of Comparative Education. With regard to the thesis, so called, that they have to write, he says, "I was fortunate enough to write my special thesis on Comparative Education. The writing of such a thesis was a very effective way of stimulating interest in education. The work was no doubt too superficial to be worthy of the description "research", but it provided nevertheless, an excellent antidote to the tedious task of writing the method thesis, that is to say, the second of the two theses we have to write. My department required every student to submit a thesis on the teaching of a school subject containing general ideas on the teaching of the subject, a syllabus and three model lessons. I am sure the only purpose this thesis will serve, will be to remind me how very little I knew about the teaching of my subject before I had any real experience".

"In conclusion," he says, "this is a criticism that might be applied to a lesser extent to most of the diploma course. It is unfortunate that one has no background of experience, for I believe that every student should have at least a year's teaching experience before embarking upon the course. This will greatly increase the value of the year's training."¹ In reply to that particular point, it might be said that clearly teachers cannot be put out in the schools without any kind of training at all and a possible answer to the point raised might be to suggest that the diploma course

1) op. cit.

should be spread over two years, with the first year very largely spent in the schools under close supervision by tutors and so on, and the second year, when pupils are appointed to their posts, could be spent in the study of more theoretical subjects, and the whole thing being linked together to arrive at the award of the Diploma at the end of the two years. It is clear that there is a real need for a major re-evaluation of teacher training, its aims, methods and content, and with the great expansion of educational services now taking place in all countries of the world the moment is particularly ripe for such thinking.

In the Times Educational Supplement of 10th October, 1958, we read :

"We now have a quite unique opportunity in which to do some fundamental rethinking about the training of teachers," Dr. W.F. Alexander told members of the National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organizers during their Annual Conference held last week in London which was devoted to this subject. "The opportunity provided by the great expansion in training colleges and the beginning of the three year course might never recur," he said. "To miss it might be an irreparable loss. The only remedy was to give all teachers trained graduate status, but if teachers were to be given graduate status there would have to be a four year training course," Dr. Alexander said. This was the only way of insuring the necessary combination of knowledge of subject with knowledge of children. University graduates and products of specialised training colleges with three year courses, would

spend a further year after the normal three year course, in professional training, fitting them to teach and widening their scope. Those at ordinary colleges would devote a further year to the study of their special subject. Dr. Alexander further argued that University qualifications should be demanded of prospective teachers. The Association also heard an address from Professor M.V.C. Jeffreys, Director of the Institute of Education at Birmingham University, Professor Jeffreys spoke on personal education and the acquisition of professional skill. He had the impression, he said, that school and colleges do not often see eye to eye about the nature and purpose of teacher training. The colleges emphasize the aim of the broad non-utilitarian education. They dislike the tricks of the trade. A college Principal had told him for example, that he would never sanction classes in the use of a black-board. Teachers on the other hand argue that young teachers have not been taught their job as they were 50 years ago, and it was true, Professor Jeffreys said, that colleges operated at one remove from the realism of the classroom. With the three year course it should be possible to give students some experience of advance study with at least one subject comparable with University work, and also to give enough practical training in the craft of teaching; but Professor Jeffreys was concerned to stress there was no necessary opposition between the ideals of the educated man and the competent craftsman. The two were complementary. The best education was both liberal and vocational. However, the efficacy of teaching depends on the kind of person the teacher is, rather than his technical proficiency.

In this connection, Sir Ronald Gould, General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers, in an article in the Times Educational Supplement of 11th April, 1958, stressed the importance of maintaining and improving the academic standards of teachers in training :

He had often heard it said that in the three years course the student must be exposed to work by experiences and also the colleges must produce well-rounded personalities. "Talk of this kind tends to irritate," he said. Every educational institution should be concerned about exposure to the worthwhile, and about rounded personalities. The latest theory, the theory of the "sensitized palate" was no satisfactory definition of the aims of the training colleges. Young people in training colleges needed more than exposure. They needed theoretical and practical knowledge of the craft of teaching and they needed to be excited, stimulated and stretched to their fullest intellectual capacity. As for rounded personalities, of course the teacher needed to be a well-rounded personality. This is, of course, a blinding glimpse of the obvious. But this rather facile talk could hide a fear of the academic or a contempt for it, or a belief that clay modelling was more important than arithmetic. What a teacher needed was a firm knowledge of his subject and the ability to transmit it to the child. This latter ability depended upon his personality which training colleges could do little about, but it was also dependent upon a body of knowledge which could be taught. An understanding of methods of teaching language or the methods of teaching arithmetic were cases in point. This knowledge should be given in the

training colleges. We need training and academic standards for non-graduates broadly equivalent to those of trained graduates. The trained graduates spent three years in the University and one year in the University Training Department. That, then, should be the ultimate aim for all teachers; all should have four years training. He wanted to see every three year trained teacher as near as possible to the academic level of the graduate. And he also wanted to see provided means by which the three year trained men and women could achieve, after the three year course, the full academic status of the graduate. How are these academic standards to be achieved? University standard of selection or thereabouts, University attitudes to students and University methods of teaching and standards of achievement must be adopted in the training colleges. The attitude of the principals and staff to students should be the attitude of the staffs at Universities. The rigid rules that used to be applied, the anxious solicitude for the welfare of each student, the petty and vexatious control should all be abandoned. A freedom that is given to University students should be given to Training College students.¹

In suggesting that Training Colleges should be modelled more on University lines the writer is clearly paying a welcome compliment to the University approach to teacher training which does much to offset the flow of adverse criticism. The same view is taken by the County Education Officer Society in their Report quoted in the Times Educational

1) Times Educational Supplement, 10th October, 1958.

Supplement of 24th January, 1958 :

"The principal need in teacher training colleges is to make the course more like those at Universities. This should stretch the intellectual capacity of the potential teacher, preparing him to teach better at higher levels, even more important as the school leaving age is raised again, and getting greater maturity of outlook and personality. The third year will not of itself be a perfected system of teacher training, for there can be no such thing as a common qualification for teachers. Even so some sort of University qualification is desirable. In the next five to ten years the academic quality of students applying for places will probably rise. All colleges should work in direct co-operation with Universities. Students at training Colleges should be able to go to University lectures in their special subjects and take the University Degree examination. The University teacher should take special subjects in the training colleges. Where students cannot take the full University degree course they should take part of it and have a certificate saying that they have reached the degree standard in that part. The degree should be a general or pass degree and there seems little reason why Universities should not co-operate. Another idea would be to include in the training college course an examination which Universities would recognise, so that students could go on to complete the degree course by a year of full time or part time study."¹

1) Times Educational Supplement, 24th January, 1958.

3. Recruitment and Selection of Teachers.

One of the most healthy features of recent criticism of teacher preparation is the weight given to the importance of selection of suitable students for recruitment to teaching, and this in spite of the world-wide shortage of skilled manpower in general and of candidates for teaching in particular. It is most desirable that personal standards of teachers should be maintained and improved if education is to play the role in society which is increasingly being demanded of it. Difficult though the whole question of selection undoubtedly is, nevertheless it is not enough to make the best of indifferent material and it is essential to overhaul constantly our admission requirements.

In an investigation reported by G.E.R. Burroughs in the British Journal of Educational Psychology of February, 1958, the value of the interview in the selection of students for teacher training is fully discussed. He points out that usually the work of the training colleges and University Departments of Education culminates in a number of marks or rating secured by examinations or other means. Among these, separate marks are generally shown for various parts of the Academic work of the training course and the practical teaching carried out by the student in his period of school practise. It is in terms of these marks that evaluation has usually been carried out. Almost all concerned with training would agree that the practical teaching mark or assessment is of the utmost importance. It is often found that this mark is heavily weighted in any final summation of the marks derived from different parts of the course, or from final examinations. Most would also agree

that this mark is not likely to be predicted by the cognitive test which has been the subject of so much recent research in selection. It is for the purpose of seeing the candidate as a person and making some estimate of his potential teaching abilities that the interview in its various forms is included, the evidence from this part of the teachers selection procedure being given considerable weight. The interview of course, has many weaknesses which have been shown on numerous occasions and its predictive power has not usually been good.

Burroughs finds three factors emerging from his experiment. The first and most important factor seems to be concerned principally with the impression which the candidate makes on the interview by virtue of his appearance, voice and such qualities as make a direct impact upon their senses. It covers the appearance and manner of the candidate, those aspects of him which could be judged in ignorance of his qualities of intellect and character and which are directly observable at the interview. A second factor appears to cover intellectual qualities of the candidate as expressed verbally through the medium of the interview. It presents quite a high loading for maturity, suggesting that having something to talk about and being able to express it in a reasonably adult manner was the aspect of the candidate with which the interviews were specially concerned. The candidate's bearing, being directly observable, can reasonably be judged in the limits of a short interview. A third and less clearly defined factor shows itself and seems to indicate sincerity, enthusiasm for teaching, suitability to care for children; it seems to be concerned with the various non-intellectual qualities which are thought to be important in

a teacher and is largely a vocational factor. It deals generally with matters which cannot be observed or so readily judged in an interview. It is made up of inferences drawn from observation of the candidates behaviour in a situation which is far removed from the teaching situation in which these qualities must ultimately be exhibited. The most predictive interview items appear to be, first of all that the candidate is skilled in verbal expression and secondly that he is attractive in appearance; thirdly that he makes a good first impression. Then, that he is intellectually alert, that he has a pleasant voice and other minor factors appear.

As Burroughs points out the predictive value of the interview generally is considered to be rather low and probably in the present situation where teachers are in such short supply it would seem to be hardly worthwhile, and we will get just as good results by taking everybody that applies for admission to training colleges and university education departments and weeding out the one or two who do not appear to be satisfactory during the course." ¹

In Australia too, consideration has been given to improving the quality of students for teacher training by improving methods of selection. In "The Selection of Teachers" from the Australian Council for Educational Research Report No. 62, (Children need Teachers), Cunningham and Moray indicate that although selection of Trainees in Australia is normally based on an interview, during recent years there has been such progress

1) G.W.B. Burroughs : Selection of teachers by Interview :
British Journal of Educational Psychology : February 1958.

in the techniques of selection, as for example in the selection of officers for the armies of the world through the employment of psychological knowledge that "it will be strange indeed if educational authorities do not make use of these aids as a supplement of the interview for the selection of future teachers."¹ Indeed it has been suggested that some scheme of country house situations as used in the War Office selection Board during the war in which candidates lived together for a short time under close observation would prove of help in the selection of Teachers.

It seems, however, doubtful if it would be worthwhile getting young men of this age group together for a short time in an artificial situation and it seems doubtful whether such a system would provide more valuable information than that obtainable from confidential reports of Head Teachers and teachers generally, and from outsiders who have had close contact with candidates over a much longer period and in more normal circumstances. In practice all states in Australia select their students by means of educational qualifications required for University Matriculation. There are various indications that during the war years in particular and still to some extent, almost anyone with the necessary academic qualifications could obtain entry. There are in Australia, as elsewhere, extremely few terminations of appointment because of temperamental unsuitability either during training or at the termination of training. The British White Paper on Education

1) Cunningham and Moray : "Children need Teachers",
A.C.E.R. Report No. 62.

sets down that the teaching profession should represent so far as is practicable a cross section of the interests and experiences of the community at large. It is considered that travel, experience of affairs, participation in some form of social service - all these enhance the contribution which men or women can make to the schools. "Industry, Commerce and other callings should contribute their quota to the teaching professions and it should not be felt true as it is today that once a teacher means always a teacher." ¹

All this would seem to indicate that the teaching service should draw on a much wider field of applicants than the present field which is limited to the narrow academic level; schools, Training Colleges or University and back to school. To achieve this it will of course be necessary to raise the status and the salary of practising teachers in order to compete with industry and commerce. Indeed much is to be said for the suggestion, that no man or woman should be considered for entry into the profession who has not shown himself or herself capable of holding down another job for a period of years. This would ensure that the emphasis in selection would be shifted from paper qualifications to "human courses." "The men and women required as the teachers of tomorrow are men and women of absolute integrity, possessed of enthusiasm, grit, energy and understanding of the workings of the human mind and deep sympathy with the difficulties and problems. They must be both clear-headed and warm-hearted; - above all they must be consciously striving towards a reasoned and worthwhile philosophy

1) Board of Education Pamphlet : No. 6458 - Educational Reconstruction : H.M.S.O. July, 1943.

of life. Besides these qualities all paper qualifications are of secondary importance." ¹ At the same time, however, it is necessary to achieve this end without the lowering of academic standards. Although we want our pupils to grow up with good human qualities it is at the same time most desirable that they should be trained to use their brains to the best possible ability and a high degree of scholarship is still unchallenged as the best means of achieving this, particularly in the case of those with a high degree of intelligence, for the countries of the world today require high intelligence more than ever before. No country in the world can afford to neglect its best brains and their development.

The McNair Report impressed by the success of the Emergency Training Scheme for mature students, also supports the view that the recruitment net should be cast wider and that the training service should provide courses suitable in nature and length to meet the needs of applicants showing great variety as regards age, maturity, attainments and experience. A mature person, whose maturity is matched by cultural interests and attainments pursued or secured otherwise than by a formal education, for example, by study which has been combined with home duties, by experience abroad or during work in some profession of occupation, should be as eligible for consideration for a shortened course as would be a graduate. The McNair Report goes on to say: "We do not exclude the possibility of the professional qualification being obtained by means of part-time study and practice."

1) loc. cit.

We are in fact at present seeing a progressive improvement in the status and remuneration of teachers but little or nothing in the direction of wider recruitment.

4. The need for a re-assessment of teacher training in terms of a detailed consideration of content of courses.

The notion of training teachers naturally begs the question whether teachers can be trained and what we mean by training - is not teaching an art rather than a science? It may well be that good teaching depends fundamentally on imponderable personal factors in the individual make-up which are either there or not, and about which we can do little except exercise a careful selection. But so of course does the work of any artist in any field, painter, sculptor or what have you - without talent little or nothing of value can be created. And yet even the most promising young artist can learn a good deal and profit by the accumulated experience of the past through training. As with an artist in other spheres the fine performance of a gifted teacher is as much the result of planned training and intelligent experience as of natural aptitude. Ability and training are complementary in all activities of life, provided that the training does not lay down some rigid formula which cramps the ability instead of guiding it. Unfortunately our efforts to extract order out of chaos in the world and our excessive use of the valuable tool of scientific systematology for this purpose do tend to lead us into this error in all departments of education.

It is at any rate clear that we are still a long way from being able to turn out teachers on a purely scientific basis and with a guarantee of perfection stamped on them - and one may feel very glad that this is so.

A great many studies have been carried out and books

published on the role of Training Colleges and the general purposes of teacher training institutions, but none of them have got down to the fundamental treatment of the material to be used in actual courses, to an assessment of the value of all the bits and pieces that go to make up most courses of training, to the study of teaching these courses and to their proper integration, so that a student knows what he is doing, why he is doing it and how to use it.

The remainder of this chapter will deal with the general purposes of the training course and subsequent chapters will be concerned with detailed consideration of the actual courses and aspects of the work of a Training Department.

The Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, Canada of 1950, dealing with teacher training in general terms enunciates seven principles underlining their proposals for the organisation and preparation of teachers.¹

- (1) The Teacher Training programme should be designed to enable teachers to assist in the realisation of the aims formulated for education in the various stages of the educational system.
- (11) Candidates for admission to Teacher Training Courses should be carefully selected; only those healthy in body and mind and possessing the highest possible personal and academic qualifications should be accepted for training, and during the period of training those who are found unsuitable for the profession should be weeded out.

1) Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, Toronto, 1950.

- (III) The Training programme and conditions of teaching service should be such as to attract and retain an increasing number of able young persons.
- (IV) The professional educational programme should provide full opportunity for the presentation of the theory of education, for adequate directed observation of skillful teaching and for practise teaching on the part of students.
- (V) The programme should permit graduates of teacher training institutions to continue their professional education and qualify for teaching certificates required for positions in schools, for the other stages of the public service or educational system.
- (VI) As part of the public system of education more teacher training institutions should be open to all students meeting prescribed admission requirements.
- (VII) The success of the training programme will depend upon the competency of the teaching personnel of the training institutions and on their practise teachers.

The Commission concludes that the most satisfactory organization for the professional preparation of teachers for post-elementary schools is that which require the candidate to secure a Bachelor's degree from a recognized University before entering upon his professional training. In view of the high standards of our Universities, their facilities should be utilized to the fullest possible extent. In England during the period between the wars, the high standard of the High

schools and Grammar schools was due almost entirely to the high standard of scholarship, - academic scholarship - of the teachers in those schools. There was a period in which it was very difficult to obtain a post in a High school unless one had a degree with first or second class honours. The result was shown in the increasing number of scholarships won by students from such schools to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the successful challenge of the High Schools and the Grammar schools to the hold which the older Public Schools had on entry to the older Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

The Commission goes on to explain in broad outline the sort of courses that should be included in Teacher Training for secondary schools. The courses should include, in addition to training in method and physical and health education :

- (I) A school health programme, including utilization of health services for teachers in training.
- (II) A study of the philosophy of education, educational psychology, teaching methods, school management and administration and professional ethics.
- (III) Special attention to oral and written English, including speech training and production, library methods and audiol-visual teaching aids.
- (IV) Provision for observation and practice teaching in typical urban and rural secondary schools.

Again the McNair Report has valuable comments on the

general framework and curriculum of a teacher training course, though not analysing in any depth the subject matter of the various branches of the curriculum. The course must be planned and conducted in such a way, says the Report, that at the end of it the student realises that half of his education being complete, he is about to enter upon a significant stage, the stage which depends upon his own initiative and effort. This might very well be carried on during the first year of teaching in the probationary year by further studies at the University or the University Training Department in order to complete the Diploma after certification. The McHair Report goes on: "We refrain from enunciating any other general principles. The training of teachers must always be the subject of experiment, it is a growing point of education."

In the professional training course the McHair Report stresses the importance of Speech Training. With regard to Principles of Education it says that the object of such studies is to enlighten a student about the nature of educational processes and to enable him to appreciate that historical and social significance. They are essential studies because they help to make the teacher and because the objective in teaching is a person and not a subject. A necessary part of the course in the Principles of Education is instruction upon and observation of the physical and mental development of children. Teachers may sometimes be called upon to instruct older children in the elements of physiology, but apart from this, some knowledge of the subject is essential for every teacher because every teacher is concerned with hygiene and with the posture and physical development of his pupils. In this sense

physiology and physical education must be compulsory subjects to all students.

Similar considerations apply to psychology, "a subject which can easily be mishandled." The study of the mental growth and behaviour of children is vital to the teacher, but during training it must be study which is related to the student's personalⁿⁱ experience and observation of children and must therefore be intimately connected with his school practice. It is very desirable that when teachers take their first post, they should have some broad understanding of current thought in psychology, if only so that they may be alive to the fact that the backwardness of a child or his persistent bad behaviour may possibly have a psychological cause which demands the attention of some specially qualified person. When such specialists are called into the schools, it is important in the interests of the child concerned that they should find a teacher a sympathetic and intelligent colleague. The age and experience of students and the time at their disposal necessarily place limitations on the nature and the extent of the instruction which they should receive. Neither psychology nor physiology should be pursued as though the student were reading it as a subject in a degree course, nor should either of them be regarded as the reserved domain of specialist members of the staff. All the staff to some extent are concerned, even though only a few may be particularly responsible for directing and integrating the studies and observations of students. "We make these observations," goes on the McNair Report,

"because we have reason to believe that in some University Training Departments and perhaps in some Training Colleges, specialist lectures in psychology in particular exact too large a proportion of the time available and expect too much of their students."

Other studies should be included under the heading, Principles of Education. Students should be introduced to some of the great classical writers on Education, even if they cannot have the time to study them deeply. This is desirable so that students may realize that they will be the trustees of a great tradition and that the work of their chosen profession has exercised some of the greatest minds over a period of two thousand years. The esteem in which education is held in this country does not depend only upon what others think of the way in which teachers acquit themselves, but also upon the value which teachers place upon their profession.

Teachers should also have some acquaintance with the educational systems in general and a more detailed knowledge of the history and structure of the system in their own country, as well as an appreciation of the place which their own school has in it. This involves an elementary knowledge of the powers and responsibilities of central and local authorities respectively and the part which voluntary effort has played in building up the system. The foundations of this knowledge can be laid during training; in particular students should be given opportunities for observing educational practice in this country so that they may consider it in the light of their study of educational principles. There remains as part of the understanding of the Principles of Education, the need for teachers

to appreciate the home circumstances of their pupils and the impact of the social services on the children and their parents. The initial discipline of accurate observation of social conditions and the stimulus to subsequent study of economic and other problems which inevitably face teachers when they get to work in the schools, can be provided during the student days.

Students should be encouraged as in many colleges they are now, to take an active part in social and educational work outside the walls of the college and thus lay the foundations of an interest in public affairs and of the practice of being a good citizen. We regard good citizenship as a habit of mind and conduct to be learned as much from example as from instruction. Knowledge is necessary, but it is not enough; citizenship has no foundation apart from the habit of moral reflection and a high sense of duty. Instruction in the Principles of Education, generously interpreted, will afford the staffs of training institutions ample opportunity to explain and stress the duties of a citizen and equip the teacher in his turn to do the same more particularly in the higher forms of secondary schools and in young people's colleges, but "we do not consider that specific instruction in these duties should form a separate and compulsory subject for every student in training." "At the same time we realise the value to a school or college of having on its staff some teachers who have made a special study of the social services and of the machinery of government, both central and local and in each training area there should be one or more training institutions which include these matters in their curricula as an optional subject under

the name of Social Studies, Public Administrations or some similar title. In some areas the existence of university department of Social Science will help to meet this need."

It would be a profound mistake to regard professional studies as concerned only with the students' professional equipment in the narrower sense. "Well planned courses in the Principles of Education play an important part in the personal education of students. They are part of the process of educating men and women for the schools, for this reason we suggest that advanced courses in any branch of professional study should be available for those qualified to profit from them. The main difficulty, we believe, in providing for the studies which we have grouped under the term Principles of Education, is that having regard for future needs there are not sufficient people in this country who are qualified to deal with them, that is, persons who will direct professional studies even though they will not be wholly responsible for the instruction of students in their practice. Lecturers in education are difficult to find and we doubt whether appointing bodies always know what they want or ought to look for. Such lecturers should have had significant teaching experience in schools, should have devoted a substantial period to study and observation of educational problems and practices in this country and if possible abroad, and should be men and women of high ability with the gift for organizing the study and practice of students."

The course in the Principles of Education as we have reviewed it, covers much of the art of teaching, but effective practice can be obtained only in the schools. "One of our

reasons for proposing an extension of the period of training is so that students may have more extensive and more varied experience in the schools before they enter upon their year of teaching on probation."

Perhaps more valuable than these general analyses of the mechanics of teacher training are the attempts that have been made in recent years to expand the horizons of the teacher training period and to indicate ways in which such a period can be used most profitably to counteract the specialization of earlier years and indeed to contribute in a most worthwhile way to the further education of the student in the broadest sense.

In the British Journal of Education, Volume 86 of 1954 Professor W.R. Niblett has pointed out that this is the age of specialization.¹ "It is possible to get a good honours degree in any University because one has studied the subject with application rather than as a whole man." Only some graduates learn during their degrees years as much as one might expect either about life or about themselves. Like so many boys and girls in Sixth Forms, they can get up things excellently, but their path to experience may be less awakened in the process than one hopes. Now one of the jobs of the training year is to get men and women fresh from the study of their different specialisms to do some thinking about big questions. The year must be a humanising one. Its function is mainly restorative, bringing them back from being specialists to being everyday humans and the fact that now, for the first

1) British Journal of Education. Vol. 86 1954 - art by W.R. Niblett.

time for years perhaps, they are being brought into contact with children is enormously significant and helpful.

The training year, then should encourage thought about life in general for no one can come to have a philosophy of education, who has at any rate a bit of philosophy of life which he has worked out for himself, not taken over second hand from other people; but the year will have to encourage such thinking among men who start from very different places and are going to travel very different distances during the course; from the highly intelligent man to the one who has just scraped the degree; from the man who has read with understanding, a good deal of Plato in the original to the man who may have a good Second at the beginning of the year, is not quite sure whether Plato was a Greek or an Egyptian and does not really believe that Plato said anything that is still relevant.

The second justification of the training year, is that he can do such to open the mind of the student to sound possible methods of teaching which otherwise he might never encounter. The tendency for the undertrained School Master, even more than for the trained, is to teach his own subject by much the same methods as those when he learnt the subject at school himself; unless he learns of other methods of teaching the subject at a fairly early stage in his career, it will not be surprising if he becomes set and unenterprising in his approach. If he is lucky he will of course see all sorts of imaginative experiments going on in the first school he teaches in. But he may not be lucky, and the same is true not merely about methods of teaching a subject, but using incentives,

punishments, competitions and marking systems. "The sort of instruction in teaching method which is a giving of hints and tips is not going to get anybody far. What we want is to get a man's mind exercised as an educating mind, not only as an academic mind." Picking up tips has too much in common with the picking up of unconsidered trifles and letting them stay unconsidered. In a time like our own with so many differing and often opposed views current, and so many new approaches to the teaching of subjects being thought out, it is more important than it used to be that the young teacher should have a chance to think ahead about them. "I'm not referring merely to the possibilities opened up by broadcasts, gramophones and films, automatic works for a new understanding for the importance of the arts in education, or the usual so called activity method.

There never has been a period of thirty years when so much that is new has been incorporated into actual school text books as in the last thirty, or when the use of print and symbol made so great an advance. But we are still far from agreeing about what should be central in the teaching of English nor united in our perception of the significance of some of the results of the new approaches pending, nor convinced that there is any time really to give to the History of Science when teaching Chemistry. The important questions in method are all questions of principle and it is easy to develop a closed mind on questions of principle, simply from habit indeed, or because close-mindedness is rather a contagious disease. A third factor which makes the year in an education department even more necessary than it used to be is the increasingly

democratic nature of the society in which we live, and as a consequence, the growing unity of our educational system in spite of the increasing range and complexity of the types of school provided in it. If a man has been educated at the Primary School, the Grammar School and the University and then goes back to teach the rest of his days in a Grammar School, he will have a very limited acquaintance with the educational provision for the nation as a whole. But abundantly justified although a year of training may be immediately at the post-graduate stage, if fourteen weeks of lecture and classes, and twelve weeks of school practice count as a year and not six months, it is no substitute for a period of more mature consideration later in life, of purposes and methods in education. A few months of thoughtful standing aside after six or twelve or eighteen years of teaching can be immensely fruitful."

In the same vein Professor M.H.G. Armitage,¹ writing in the British Journal of Education, Volume 88 of 1956, claims that training departments can have as full an educative function as the other University departments, that the study of education can be an education in itself.

"It cannot of course be expected that the teachers in the University Educational Department can be as highly qualified in the various arts and sciences as the staffs of those departments themselves, but on the other hand, as was pointed out long before the McNair Report, when proposing the establishment of the

1) British Journal of Education. Vol. 88, 1956. art. by M.H.G. Armitage.

Chair of Education in the University of London, John Minto Morgan wrote "The professor of education should possess a knowledge of more than the general principles of all the sciences, but he would of course be inferior to all the other professors in their respective departments. It will be his province to combine all their different objects; to point out the relevant importance of each science, their mutual dependence, and so to consolidate them in the mind as to give strength and consistency to the character." ¹ "We should consider the meaning of the change from the idea of Teacher Training to that of Teacher Education. The difference between the two may be stated thus : Training is relatively a short term and specific process; Education is long term and general. The training idea predominated of course when teachers and monitors were being prepared to work the monitorial system of the early 19th century and later in the pupil-teacher and student-teacher systems, and it predominated also in the work of the training colleges founded from 1840 onwards, though there were glimpses of a broader outlook of work in St. Marks. We want colleges more like those at Oxford and Cambridge and less like white-washed parallelograms, with courses in the first two years entirely cultural. The dominant idea from methods of the older system persisted long and died hard. They influenced the academic, professional and social life of the colleges until well into the present century. and in many Training Colleges still do. The academic goal set before the students tended to be strictly related to the required level at which they would subsequently be teaching their subjects.

1) The Education of Teachers by J.W. Tibore in the Journal of Education Volume 88, 1956.

For their professional training they were drilled in classroom techniques with prescribed forms of lesson preparation and presentation and the imitation of demonstration models. The pressure was intense, rules and regulations abounded and the social life of the colleges was impoverished and limited as a result. This notion of specific and short term training gave rise to attitudes that have by no means died out today. They are now to be found less in the colleges themselves than in their critics, including some old teachers."

The comments embody the view that the main business of the colleges is to turn out ready made teachers who can walk into a school and take over whatever job is allotted to them. Not infrequently a job which the experienced teachers themselves would rather not do. In fact teachers cannot be ready made in this fashion. The good experienced teacher is an expert in noting and interpreting all the signs which tell him what is going on over there in the minds of the children in his class. He can do this while proceeding with his lesson, selecting material, choosing forms of words, asking questions, devising exercises and he modifies all these as he goes along in the light of his interpretation of the way the children are reacting. In the course of time he has become accustomed to performing these mental acrobatics and juggling feats, and he often forgets how difficult it was for him to acquire this skill and how hard he came by it in the first place, what trial and error he needed at any rate while he was still a novice. Acquiring this awareness and skill is a long term process, short cuts and speeding up, lead most students to form premature habits and to limit their potential capacity. As teachers they became stereotypes

and caricatures of themselves. The change from training to education implies a new relationship between the colleges and schools; those in which the student does his practice while at college and those into which he goes as a young teacher. A college's aim is not to give the apprentice teacher hints and tips in classroom techniques and provide models for imitation but rather to help him to discover his own best way of doing things, find his own style and mode of working. This he tries to do by providing varied experience of teaching situations, by helping him to think about what he sees and does, by developing insight and awareness. This involves both linking practice closely to the stage of development and capacity of the individual student and linking theory, lectures, reading and discussions closer to practice. Moreover the period of apprenticeship could be seen as extending beyond the college, whose aim should be to put the student on the right track for benefiting fully from this further experience. Also, those helping the students in the school need to understand that the college supervisor is not there to duplicate the teachers' role. The supervisor's task is a different one. Essentially it is to relate what he sees here and now in the classroom, with what has gone on elsewhere, with the students' life and work in college. The students' task is to relate what is happening now to all the other happenings in this classroom and to all he knows of these children. The two roles should be complementary and the fuller the co-operation between those giving advice and guidance the greater the benefit to the student.

The same principles applies to the planning of the

student's academic and professional studies. We are concerned here of course with the knowledge of the subjects he will be teaching in school on the one hand and on the other with his knowledge of children, of their similarities and differences, of the social conditions in which they grow up, of the stages of development they pass through, of the nature of the learning process and so on. No one would wish to minimize the importance of all this, but it should be realized that if the aim is still narrowly conceived and if there is not enough time to assimilate all this learning, the knowledge that the student acquires may be rather like furniture in a store room. To put it another way, it is as important to acquire insight, skills and attitudes in these fields of study as to acquire knowledge, indeed in terms of knowledge all these subjects are today so extensive, that the most important problem facing us when we plan our courses is that of selection and of the principles which should guide us in selection. I am suggesting that we should make our selection in terms of the attitudes and skills we wish the student to develop as a permanent possession and that these should not be conceived in a narrowly vocational sense. Our aim should be to insure that the student is as fully and liberally educated as he is capable of being in the time available and that he will want to continue this education for the rest of his life. The vocational needs are taken into account in deciding what fields of study are appropriate in Teacher Education. But they should not determine the aims and methods of study as they do when training is the goal. A Teachers' College should be a place where students not intending to teach might go and benefit from the education provided. The professional studies should be planned with the

same broad cultural aims in mind as academic courses, not as bread and butter studies. So conceived, the value of the ingredients in the students' general education is more important than their immediate vocational application. In the long run the student will gain in efficiency and he will develop a higher degree of maturity and a capacity to go on learning and profiting from later experience. This is true although the work done in the theoretical subjects in Departments of Education courses may very well seem to have little immediate application to the teaching situation when a young student gets out into his first school. The effect is a long run one not a short term policy.

The university department of Education developed out of the day training colleges of the 1880's but from the first they had the advantage of working in the University orbit; the staff were University teachers and the students mixed with others entering other professions. So the other professional courses at first ran concurrently with the academic as in the U.S.A. today, but later separated and concentrated in a post-graduate year, providing training in teaching techniques for specialists in different subjects. They also became concerned more and more with the study of education as a subject in its own right so much so indeed that they have been under fire in recent years for developing theory at the expense of practice. They are unlikely to return to a narrower view of their task. In so far as their aim is to use these professional fields of study to further the general education of the students they are applying the general principles which should in my view hold for all types of teacher education. But this does not mean

that they have no problems or that improvements could not be made. The gap which can indeed develop between theory and practice is one of the problems. Another is the way in which fields of study tend to develop as subjects in their own rights and are assessed in a formal examination at the end of the course. In fact the Departments have suffered as well as benefited from their close association with the University. They have taken over too readily the aims and methods which may be less appropriate to the work of this post-graduate year than to work in the degree courses. For one thing I feel that the motivation should be different in this final year; to help students to mature and to prepare them for the responsibilities of the teacher's role they should be more involved in the planning of the course, be given some freedom of choice among subjects and topics, be encouraged to take responsibility for their own development and be free from external pressures so that they can exercise their own control.

If they will only work under the stimulus of these pressures, they are not really mature enough to go out in the following year as teachers. Other problems arise from the special nature of these students' recent experiences as undergraduates. They are specialists in one or two subjects and very much aware of it. They often need coaxing into new fields of study and do not move freely from one discipline to another. Their specialism has been acquired in too insulated a setting. One purpose of the year's work should be to encourage greater freedom of intellectual movement and a mental agility which they will certainly need if they are to become good teachers of any subject. In the department many specialisms are represented among the students themselves and the courses should be

designed to provide for a maximum exchange of ideas and active participation at discussions. This means group work rather than lectures. It is also an advantage if some of the courses are planned and conducted by several members of the staff working together instead of specialists in their own compartment.

This suggests a further point, that we should not only talk about educational principles and problems but embody them as far as possible in the course itself. That we should practise what we preach and make the students aware that this is happening. We should take advantage of the fact that for this last year they are both pupils themselves and apprentice teachers and we should encourage them to move back and forth in their view of the teacher-learner situation, using their experience to see things from both sides of the fence. For these reasons we need to experiment boldly in planning the one year course, but whatever we do to improve the course we must recognise that we are laying a foundation for further development and that the education of the teacher should continue after his course is completed. In this connection it is encouraging to note the rapid growth in the last two years of services to practising teachers provided by the Institutes. These include courses of all kinds, library provision, research centre, organization of discussion groups and conferences. There are of course many other ways of continuing one's education after leaving College.

The need for a new spirit and worthwhile attitude and methodology in teacher training is repeatedly stressed by both educationalists engaged in the task and also by recently

qualified teachers. There is, however, an unwillingness to consider the actual content of such training courses; and yet without some appraisal of the subject matter itself in considerable detail it is regrettably easy to slip into commonplace platitudes and pious wishes. Although an improved atmosphere and teaching ethos are necessary factors in the improvement of teacher training, they are not sufficient without an overhaul of the actual content and rationale of the material taught. In the following chapters we attempt to make some contribution in this direction.

Chapter III. Theoretical Curricula in the Training Course.

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1. The Functions of the Theoretical Curricula.

In the great majority of Education Departments the Diploma in Education serves a double function. It is in its own right a course of professional training for the intending teacher who has already achieved competence in his knowledge of the academic material he proposes to teach. In the second place it is usually the first part of the B. Ed. degree. In the first aspect the Diploma course is primarily concerned with helping the student to teach his subject successfully to children, and accordingly a substantial portion of his time during the year must be spent on considering and experimenting with various specific techniques related to his particular subject. It is the role of Method Courses and supervised teaching practice to provide the opportunity for this essentially practical part of his professional training. Does the student require anything more in the way of theoretical studies? Critics of Education Departments frequently take the view that nothing further is required. Indeed the English Great Public Schools are still staffed in the main by teachers without any training at all beyond the academic qualification in the subject they teach.

The training of teachers by means of a University Diploma Course, however, stands or falls by the belief that a teacher must not only be capable of doing something, but he must also and primarily know what he is doing and why. It is clear that any philosophical doctrine of personal responsibility requires this knowledge which is the essence of democratic life. It is now generally accepted that a teacher is far more than an instructor in some particular field of learning. In book after

book during the past half century - and indeed going back to the time of Plato - the role of the teacher has been discussed. Nowhere do we find support for the view of the teacher as a technical instructor, but on the contrary constant repetition of his role as an educator in the widest sense of the word - he is to "encourage the fullest possible development of the individual child," to "fit the individual for a life of service to the community," to train the child "to feel pleasure and pain at the right things," and so on. If we are to take this view of the teacher as an educator then clearly the future teacher requires a good deal more preparation for his task than mere technical proficiency in some subject or other.

In State Schools in many countries of Continental Europe - France, Belgium amongst others - the opposite point of view prevails. The professeur de lycee usually has little or nothing to do with education in this wider sense. He prepares and gives his course, often arriving at the school only when he has a class and leaving it when he has delivered his "course" and taking no further interest or responsibility beyond that. It is argued, with perhaps some justification, that this approach contributes to the enhancing of the teacher's professional status in society, that the English approach smacks too much of a combination of nursery maid and odd-job man to command professional parity with doctors, lawyers or dentists. In practice the effect of the Continental system has been to make teaching concentrate exclusively on the intellectual side with the generally recognised higher intellectualism of the products of the lycee, leaving all other aspects

of personal development, character formation and so on to other agencies - the family, the church and society generally. In this way the lycee is the logical descendent of the School of Classical Greece and Rome which gave instruction in certain basic skills, but regarded education as a function of the family and the community generally.

To what extent the English State education system is the outcome of historical forces, the need to "educate our masters" to fulfil certain roles in society and so on we need not here examine. The outcome at any rate is clear enough. We do think of teaching as education; we are led to consider total education, not merely intellectual development; we do therefore need to know a good deal about children, about the relationship of the individual to society, to have some overall view of the nature of man, to think about educational problems and conflicts, both in terms of our own educational system and also in relation to those of other countries.

It is the function of the theoretical subjects - educational psychology, sociology of education, principles of education, educational organisation and administration, comparative education - to provide the basis for this wider concept of education, to enable the teacher to see his own subject in a general context and, we believe, to take a such nobler view of his chosen vocation than that of an instructor. It is also a form of general education which might well be of value to any student though particularly relevant to a teacher.

One of the most frequent criticisms of the training year is the shallowness of treatment of many of the theoretical

subjects of the course and this difficulty is enhanced by the fact that students have recently completed deep courses in their academic subjects. It will be as well to admit that there is much truth in this criticism. It is clearly impossible to treat in depth so many theoretical subjects in the very limited time available in courses concerned primarily with the practical aspects to teaching.

A further complication is introduced when the Diploma is considered in its second aspect as the first year of the B. Ed. degree. This degree is generally considered as of Honours level, requiring a high standard of attainment in theoretical subjects. The effect of this is to force back into the year of professional training which serves this double purpose a great deal of theoretical study competing for time with the professional training.

A detailed consideration of the nature and role of the principal theoretical subjects will illustrate the problem more fully. An analysis of the prescribed courses for teacher training Certificates and Diplomas in University Education Departments yields the following list of theoretical subjects and the frequency with which they are prescribed:

2. a) Theoretical Subjects in Order of Frequency.

	<u>Frequency</u>
(1) Principles of Education	30
(2) Educational Psychology	22
(3) Special Methods	21
(4) History of Education	20
(5) Educational System	15
(6) Options	11
(7) Health of School Child	10
(8) { General Methods	9
{ Child Psychology	9
(10) { Comparative Education	5
{ Sociology of Education	5
(12) { Experimental Education	4
{ Visual Aids	4
(14) Speech Training	3
(15) { Intelligence Testing	2
{ Physiology	2
(17) { Subnormality	1
{ Philosophy	1
{ Philosophy of Science	1
{ Curriculum	1
{ Child Guidance	1

b) Average Time Allotment to Theoretical Subjects in
Hours per Year

	<u>Hours</u>
Principles of Education	56.5
Educational Psychology	81.5
Methods	83
History of Education	35
Educational Systems	58.5
Options	49
Health Education	22

c) Most Frequent Options Offered

	<u>Frequency</u>
Physical Education	7
History of Education	6
Comparative Education	5
Drama	5
Music	4
Arts and Crafts	4
Religion and Education	4
Sociology of Education	3
Delinquency	3

d) Other Options Offered

	<u>Frequency</u>
Testing	1
Statistics	2
Nature of Science	2
Reading	1
Writing	1
Greek	1
Social Service	1
Comprehensive Education	1
Further Education	2
Games	1
Photography	1
Pottery	1
Education in Tropical Areas	1
Curriculum	1
Experimental Education	2
Art	1
Rural Science	1
Youth Service	1
Health Education	1
Technical Education	1
Education and Heredity	1
State and Education	1
Advanced Principles of Education	2
Advanced History of Education	2
Advanced Psychology of Education	3
Education and the Arts	2

3. Principles of Education.

All theoretical courses include a course in the Principles of Education, either under this name or some similar title such as Philosophy of Education. In the curricula studied an average time of 56.5 hours is allotted to this subject, compared with 81.5 hours for Educational Psychology, 83 hours for Teaching Methods and 58.5 hours for the study of Educational Systems and Organisation. From a detailed analysis of the course as presented by the various Departments of Education it is clear that a wide variation exists in the practical interpretation of the purpose of this course. The material may emphasize an extremely theoretical study of philosophic systems - transcendentalism, pragmatism, logical positivism, existentialism - with Book Lists emphasizing this approach such as :

Margaret Knight - William James
 Reeves - Body and Mind in Western Thought
 Plato - The Republic
 Last Days of Socrates
 Protagoras and Meno
 Symposium
 Aristotle - Ethics
 Rousseau - Emile

More commonly the syllabus confines itself to focussing attention on modern educational problems, with recommended reading from the works of Nunn, Clarke, Dewey, Russell, Kilpatrick and other contemporary writers.

Sometimes an attempt is made to link up the present

problems with wider philosophical considerations by including in the general reading list such works as Brubacher - Modern Philosophies of Education, or O'Connor - an Introduction to the Philosophy of Education.

These different approaches all have something to be said for them and much to be said against them. In the case of the course organised on the lines of a course in philosophy it is rightly pointed out that very many students in their training year, particularly science graduates, have never had the opportunity of coming to grips with speculative thinking in any form and that most students, unless they have studied this type of subject in their under-graduate years are woefully weak in the general background of western culture and that such a background is essential for the proper understanding of present-day educational problems, all of which have their roots in a long history of conflicting philosophical positions. Any worthwhile consideration of the aims of education today must be based on some metaphysical view of the nature of man, his place in the Universe and so on, and such a view if it is to be worthwhile must be reached only after a fairly deep study of the original texts illustrating the various philosophical systems upon which educational aims are built.

These arguments are of course indisputable, but the hard fact remains that such a thorough-going basic course could hardly fit into the time allotment of 56.5 hours and would certainly leave no time for an appropriate consideration of the modern problems of education which derive from such philosophical considerations. The zeitgeist of the 20th century has encouraged the rather too obvious solution of this difficulty,

that is to say the rejection of this basic philosophic background in favour of an empirical consideration of "modern" problems of education without reference to their background. The advantages of this method are clear enough, the student especially having the feeling that the questions discussed are real and immediately related to what is shortly to be his actual experience. Deeper philosophic considerations are left for treatment by those relatively few students who later on have the necessary motivation to read a subject perhaps called Theory of Education for a higher degree. The disadvantage and dangers of this method are more subtle and insidious. Because of his lack of background reading the student in training is often out of his depth in considering or discussing a modern problem, sometimes inclined to quote indiscriminately from books without understanding the wider implications of an argument and is generally unable to relate his thinking to any coherent system. The honest student is dissatisfied with this stage of affairs however dully he apprehends its causes, and this undoubtedly is one of the reasons why students, having recently completed a closely knit honours degree in some discipline or other, often feel and express uncertainty about the value of the theoretical side of the training course.

Some Schools of Education, while unwilling or unable to devote any major portion of the very limited time available to the deep study of philosophy but recognising the shallow nature of student thinking and its causes, attempt to correct it as far as possible by including in the general reading list some general work on philosophic systems in the hope that

students will relate their modern problems to more fundamental principles gleaned from such reading. In practice the remedy is often worse than the disease. The honest or deeply read student is still dissatisfied with the potted commentary on philosophic systems while other students find a ready material for the glib and superficial use and misuse of the labels of philosophic systems, again without depth of understanding, and are naturally unable to integrate their ideas into any worthwhile philosophy of education.

Is any way out of this impasse possible? On the one hand if students are to have the obviously desirable background with which to consider modern problems and on which to base their personal development of a philosophy of education throughout their teaching career and if on the other hand they are to study thoughtfully the many educational topics of the contemporary scene, then more time must be spent on the subject. The same problem will arise in connexion with the other courses in the training year and it will be clear that the solution cannot lie in any minor re-allocation of time within the framework of the few months available for theoretical studies during the training year.

Several Canadian Training Departments, following the pattern in U.S.A., include during the under-graduate years certain elementary courses in education subjects and aspects of professional training. This can clearly only be done at the expense of time which could otherwise be available for increasing a student's knowledge of his academic studies or deepening his general background education. The system is partly the outcome of an attempt to orientate the student as

soon as possible to his vocation in which he will spend the rest of his life. On the other hand the McNair Report in advising the abolition of the taking of a "pledge" as a condition for the award of a bursary or loan - advice now accepted by the Ministry of Education - seems to point to the undesirability of young people committing themselves to the profession of teaching until they have completed their under-graduate years and reached a more advanced stage of maturity before making such a decision. It is understandable that educationalists should think in terms of guiding prospective teachers at the earliest possible moment and solving the desperate time problem at the same time. On the weight of the evidence, however, this solution seems to partake of the nature of a counsel of despair and more harm than good can be done by attempting to rob Peter in order to pay Paul. At a time when more than ever it is clear that the future of any country depends on high standards of attainment and when, with double regret, we see such standards in fact threatened and even declining for a variety of reasons, then the wisest course would seem to be to refrain from pressing vocational and professional training down into the academic years and to seek the solution to the urgent problem of more time for professional training in the direction of extending the training course beyond the one year now available for it.

A strong claim has been made to extend the professional training course to two years and although the McNair Commission rejected this claim for two years full time professional training it did not adequately deal with a possible variant on this proposal whereby the second year of training might be

part-time in-service training during the probationary year. This proposal will be dealt with more fully in a later chapter.

We pass now to a more detailed analysis of the content of the course in Principles (or Philosophy) of Education and to an attempt to formulate a considered view of the purposes and desirable outcomes of this course which is generally regarded as the basic theoretical subject of the Diploma.

The following extracts from Departmental rubrics illustrate the very wide variation in interpretation of the functions of the course and this is still further emphasized by the lists of prescribed or recommended books associated with the course.

University of Southampton.

Principles of Education: This subject will involve an enquiry attempting as far as possible to understand the nature of education and to discover the main principles on which a practical philosophy of education may be used. The methods of conducting the enquiry will be :

- (i) To select and examine certain data from the practice of education and teaching experience past and present.
- (ii) To study the ideas of some of the great educational thinkers and reformers against the background of practice in their times.

- (iii) To refer to some of the ways which philosophers have found useful to account for facts of life and mind.
- (iv) To consult the accounts given by different schools of psychology of the development of the individual both in his general and individual features.
- (v) To see the school system against the background of society at large and a child growing up in a social life acting on him in its various ways.

University of Durham.

Principles of Education: The course is planned to cover the general principles of educational theory and the aims and organisation of the English educational system. A knowledge of the history relating to the above will be expected and students must also relate educational problems to the background of the school, as discussed in the lectures on social factors in education. The main lecture course will be on some such plan as the following:

- (i) Brief outline of the educational system in relation to the problems of modern industrial society.
- (ii) Primitive and Greek education.
- (iii) Medieval education.
- (iv) to (xi) The educational processes today. The aims of education, the major division between those who emphasize the needs of society on the

one hand and those who emphasize the needs of the individual on the other. Aims like citizenship, vocation, free development, growth, culture in relation to this division.

- (xii) to (xiv) The curriculum. What should children learn and why.
- (xv) Discipline. Principles underlying sound discipline. Modern experiments in discipline.
- (xvi) (xvii) Theories of activity. Projects and centres of interest. The Dalton Plan.
- (xviii) Assumptions underlying traditional class teaching. Some fundamental principles of method.
- (xix) (xx) Examinations, their functions and weaknesses.
- (xxi) Vocational guidance, its importance in modern society.
- (xxii) The Primary School. Problems of organisation.
- (xxiii) Arguments for and against the multi-lateral and comprehensive schools.
- (xxiv) (xxv) (xxvi) Secondary modern, grammar and technical schools. Their distinctive problems and organisation, curriculum and method.
- (xxvii) The University.
- (xxviii) Further education. The idea of County Colleges.

University of Birmingham.

Principles of Education: The need for a philosophy of education. Freedom and responsibility :

1. The nature of human freedom, responsible choice as a distinctive mark of behaviour at the human, rational and moral level.
2. The education of personal responsibility in the fields of feeling, aesthetic and moral thought.

The Content of Education: Four ingredients in an education designed to produce people who are free in the sense of taking responsibility for their own lives:

1. Some understanding of the process of thought.
2. Some understanding of the world we live in.
3. Direct experience of living in a community.
4. Inspiration.

Some contemporary problems in the light of their historical background. The legacy of the industrial revolution, personal values in education. Students will be required to show knowledge of the original writings of one of a group of educational thinkers.

University of Melbourne.

History and principles of Education. A study of the nature and historical origins of important educational problems of today. The method adopted is to introduce or conclude lectures on each of the following topics with a class discussion on a particular problem or problems associated with

it:

1. Education in ancient Greece and Rome. The meaning of liberal education.
2. The connection of the Church with education. The place of religion in relation to education today.
3. The growth of universities. The place of the university in the modern world.
4. The renaissance and the classical tradition:
 - (a) The place of classics in the modern world
 - (b) A definition of culture to satisfy contemporary needs.
5. The teacher and the classroom in England 1700 - 1833.
6. Discipline in the modern school.
7. The development of educational thought:
 - (a) The modern conflict of philosophies.
 - (b) A philosophic basis for education in a modern, democratic, industrialised community.

University College of the West Indies.

Principles and Philosophies of Education: Our aim is to enable students to think seriously about the meaning and purpose of education, and to draw into unity the other main sections of the course. An introduction to the method and scope of philosophy leads on to a consideration of educational

ideas and problems. Education as personal growth. A philosophical consideration of some of the causes and conditions of this growth. Assumptions underlying certain aims of education, the nature of man and his existence in the world. In considering certain educational problems of today, ideas will be drawn from such thinkers as Plato, Aristotle, Aquinas, Newman, Whitehead, Dewey and Buber. There will also be discussion of the relevance to education of pragmatism, logical positivism and existentialism.

University of Toronto Ontario College of Education.

Introduction to Education: The nature, foundations and status of educational theory, historical review and consideration of purposes and aims of education. The significance for modern educational thought and practice of broadly distinctive schools of philosophy. Surveys of the values and practices emphasized by outstanding educationalists particularly, but not exclusively, of the last two centuries. Current educational thought. Contemporary aims, problems and practices with particular reference to secondary education. School and Society: Relationship of school to the home and other educational agencies in the community.

University of Malaya School of Education.

Principles of Education:

1. Aims in education.
2. The relevance of the curriculum for present-day living.
3. Freedom and discipline in the classroom.

4. (a) The school as a community
or (b) The function of the school in society.
5. (a) Adult education and mass literacy
or (b) The place of the university in Malayan life.
6. Moral education and character training.
7. The agencies of informal education.
8. Significant trends in local education.

The University of Queensland.

Principles of Education: A short study of fundamental purposes in education with reference to the social and historical background. The outline below is the general nature, particular topics may vary from year to year:

1. Nature and aims of education.
2. Approaches to the study of education, historical, psychological, sociological, philosophical, religious.
3. Educational theorists and reformists. European, English and American.
4. The cultural setting of education, authority and freedom.
5. Theory and practice in a democracy. Important events in English education. The Dual System.
6. School, home and community.
7. Educational problems, administration and teaching.

8. Recent experiments in education.
9. The content of education.
10. The function of the university.

Principles of Education: List of most commonly prescribed
Text Books:

Barnard	: A Short History of Education
Hiblett	: Essential Education.
Castle	: People in School.
Brubacher	: A History of the Problems of Education.
Clarke	: Education and Social Change.
Clark ^e	: Freedom in the Educative Society.
Dewey	: School and Society.
Isaacs	: The Children we Teach.
Lester Smith	: Education
Hunn	: Education, Its Data and First Principles.
Reeves	: Growing-Up in Modern Society.
Stapleton	: Philosophy and Living.
Webb	: A History of Philosophy.
Cole and Post- gate	: The Common Peoples, 1796 to 1946.
Trevelyan	: English Social History.
Lowndes	: The Silent Social Revolution.
Stead	: Education of a Community.
Dent	: Education in Transition - Growth in Education
G.H. Thompson	: A Modern Philosophy of Education.
Hambally	: Origins of Education in Primitive Society
Margaret Mead	: Growing up in New Guinea.
Haskins	: Medieval Culture.

- Helen Wadell : The Wandering Scholar.
- Findlay : The School.
- Whitehead : Aims of Education.
- O'Connor : An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education.
- Nettleship : Theory of Education in Plato's Republic.
- Finney : Sociological Philosophy of Education.
- Burnett : Aristotle on Education.
- Livingstone : The Future in Education.
- Russell : On Education.
- Curry : Education for Society.
- Dewey : Democracy and Education.
- James : The Content of Education.
- Thomson : Instinct, Intelligence and Character.
- Bantock : Freedom and authority in Education.
- MacAllister : The Growth of Freedom in Education.
- Spencer : Essay on Moral Education.
- Linch : Individual work and the Dalton Plan.
- Hightz : The art of Teaching.
- Hartogg and Others : The Marks of Examiners.
- Vernon & Parry : Personnel Selection in the British Forces.
- Banks : Parity and Prestige in English Secondary Education, 1955.
- Dempster : Selection for Secondary Education.
- Pedley : Comprehensive Education.
- Yates & Pidgeon : Admission to Grammar Schools.
- Leeson : The Public Schools' Question.
- McEe : The Essential Grammar School.
- Moberly : The Crisis in the University.
- Bruce Fruscott : Redbrick University.

Boyd	: The History of Western Education.
Cubberley	: The History of Education.
Hunro	: Textbook in the History of Education.
Eby	: The Development of Modern Education in Theory, Organisation and Practice.
Curtiss	: History of Education in Great Britain.
Rusk	: Doctrines of the Great Educators.
Curtiss & Boulwood	: A Short History of Educational Ideas.
Butts and Freeman	: Assumptions Underlying Australian Education.
Gandor	: Strife of Tongues.
Hutchins	: The Conflict in Education.
Jacks	: Modern Trends in Education.
Dobinson	: Education in a Changing World.
James	: Education and Leadership.
Plato	: The Republic.
Maryltain	: Education at the Crossroads.
Margaret Knight	: William James.
Reeves	: Body and Mind in Western Thought.
Barnard	: Introduction to Teaching.
Plato	: Last Days of Socrates.
Aristotle	: Ethics.
Hardy	: Truth and Fallacy in Educational Theory
Judges	: Education and the Philosophic Mind.
Kilpatrick	: Philosophy of Education.
Conant	: Education in a Divided World.
Sinclair	: Traditional Formal Logic.
Susan Stebbing	: A Modern Elementary Logic.

What then should be the general shape of this course

in the professional year? Clearly all the material offered in the various approaches is valuable and important. Equally clearly there is only time for a small portion of it in the few months available.

In general, while it would be most undesirable to lay down anything in the nature of a uniform pattern for all training departments, nevertheless since a choice has to be made it seems better on the whole to concentrate during the training year on those aspects of education which deal with modern practical problems and topics, leaving the deeper philosophical studies to what must inevitably be an extension of the training period into the final or probationary year of training.

This is a difficult decision to make because modern problems in education have not sprung up over night - they all have logical antecedents, and considerations of logic would suggest that the basis of the problems should be known before the problems are dealt with. On the other hand there is the overriding need to make the course directly relevant to the work the teacher will be doing in the schools the following year. Any worthwhile study of the basis of the problems involves such deep treatment of theoretical subjects that no time would be left for treatment of the modern problems themselves.

The common compromise solution of giving a very superficial treatment of the philosophic basis and then passing on to deal with modern topics is proving unsatisfactory for reasons already noted - in particular the dissatisfaction which students feel in connexion with the patchy treatment of important material.

If it were possible to consider the professional training of graduates over a two year period - that is, one year full time and one probationary year part time - what then would be a suitable arrangement of the work of the course?

Broadly speaking the work of the first year would be concerned with :

1. fitting the conception of organised education into the wider field of education in the community sense with a consideration of its aims and limitations, the role of other agencies such as the family, the church, the community.
2. the vocational aspect of education.
3. the administration of education with its practical implications for the new teachers.
4. the consideration of detailed topics such as :
 - (a) Parent-teacher co-operation.
 - (b) Co-education.
 - (c) Bilingualism.
 - (d) The School Calendar.
 - (e) Reward and punishment.
 - (f) Competition and co-operation.
 - (g) Self-government.
 - (h) Sex-education.
 - (i) Juvenile Delinquency.
 - (j) Extra-curricular activities.
 - (k) Health Services in Education.

- (l) Examinations and Assessment.
 - (m) Arts, Crafts, Music, Drama.
 - (n) The School Library.
 - (o) Education for leisure.
 - (p) Discipline in the class room.
5. the study of the works of some of the most significant writers on education in this century such as Dewey, Nunn, Clark, Kilpatrick, Whitehead, Jacks, Lester Smith,
6. Modern legislation in Education - The Butler Act.

Such a Scheme of work is about as much as can be done thoroughly during the first year in this subject. It deals entirely with topics of immediate and direct relevance to the experience which the student will have during his teaching practice and during his early teaching life. It gives him an outline of the main points that he will later on have to integrate into his own working philosophy of education. It makes no attempt to deal with the deeper philosophical and historical antecedents of the problems, superficial treatment of which would not help the student at this stage. If he has been fortunate enough to include in his under-graduate years a course in philosophy or sociology so much the better. He will already have something of a frame of reference in which to set this thinking about modern problems. If not it does not seem advisable to attempt to remedy the defect in this first year of professional training during which the student will inevitably be thinking in terms of the practical work he is taking up for the first time.

It is then supposed that the student is given some

temporary certification to allow him to be appointed on probation to a school for a year during which he will continue part time his studies to complete the Diploma requirements and to obtain full certification.

During this second year the course will be oriented towards a much deeper theoretical consideration of the philosophical basis of education.

For those students who have not included such a course in their under-graduate years it might well take as its starting point a formal course in philosophy and logic.

The course would then take up the study of topics such as :

1. Greek educational thought.
2. Medieval education.
3. Philosophic systems - idealism, naturalism, pragmatism, materialism - and their educational implications.
4. Modern conflicts in education; education in a democratic context compared with a totalitarian position.
5. The nature of freedom and authority; personal responsibility.
6. The basis of curriculum making.
7. The integration of philosophical, sociological and psychological factors in education.
8. Modern developments and experiments in educational practice.
9. A deeper study of the nature and functions of the different educational institutions - nursery schools, primary schools, secondary schools, universities.
10. The study of fundamental contributions to the development of education -

Plato - The Republic

Rousseau - Emile

Pestalozzi

Herbart

Montessori

Froebel

During their first year of teaching students would in this way find their horizons expanding as their studies continued. Under the present system it is unfortunately only too true that the great majority of newly qualified teachers do nothing to continue their own intellectual development and become inflexible and limited in their outlook, contenting themselves with the mere mechanics of teaching their subject and making no attempt to integrate their experience into a comprehensive philosophy of education.

General Approach to the Subject.

Most students enter their Diploma course fresh from academic studies in many of which, though not in all, the primary emphasis has been on facts rather than opinions. This is of course particularly true of mathematics and the science subjects but also true of much of the content of courses in the humanities. The difficulty then arises for them during the study of education that very little is or indeed should be presented to them as objective fact. There is for example, no "right answer" to such a question as whether schools should be co-educational. Generally such a topic would be dealt with by way of discussion in a seminar or tutorial class; the pros and cons would emerge; the lecturer guiding the discussion may

or may not indicate in which direction he personally feels the balance lies; he might well point out that in practice decisions on such matters are usually made on the basis of prejudice, snobbery or one's own personal background and finally that it is up to the individual members of the class to digest the material that has emerged from the discussion and form their own opinions.

Some students, particularly if their under-graduate courses have included such subjects as philosophy or logic, find little difficulty in this necessary evaluation of divergent opinion and suffer little from the inconclusive nature of such discussion. They appreciate that such discussion is a valuable means of developing growing points in their thinking. Other students, having been trained to seek a positive answer to an empirical problem during their earlier years find difficulty in coping with problems to which even the lecturer is unable to supply categorical answers and prove them. Some students require careful guidance if they are to learn to arrive at thoughtful and fruitful conclusions from conflicting views and to appreciate the difference between an act of faith, as most solutions to educational problems still must be, and an unthinking acceptance of an uncriticised point of view.

In general, where the topic under discussion is not concerned with fundamental values but deals with a matter of opinion depending on other factors - temperamental or philosophic - the purpose of the course is not to supply cut and dried answers but to present the relevant arguments and to develop in students the ability to analyse, interpret and evaluate them in terms of their own personality.

On the other hand a good deal of the material of the course, particularly in the second half, is concerned with fundamental values and here, though it is still undesirable to indoctrinate, nevertheless, we are today moving away from the extreme neutrality in values which characterized the period between the wars. We are becoming more aware that complete neutrality in values leaves a vacuum which behaves in the same way as a vacuum in nature and can lead to a most dangerous situation in education as in morals. Though it is still desirable that students should approach values in terms of arguments and discussion it is here essential that students be guided towards those values having a strong, positive and worthwhile moral content.

4. Educational Psychology.

It is very generally agreed that the outstanding new contribution to educational theory and practice in the modern period has been that of psychology and in particular that of child psychology. The findings of experimental work with regard to the distribution of intelligence, the nature and extent of individual differences, the importance of early experience and of innate drives, the application of measurement and quantitative methods generally to the study of education have transformed our educational outlook both as regards method and to a lesser degree as regards content.

Yet it is especially in this aspect of the Diploma course that students most frequently feel a lack of relevance to the practical job of teaching which they are about to take up and of which one hears most frequent criticism from young teachers when asked their views about the value of the Diploma course. It is also true that the general public is suspicious and doubtful about psychology in many of its applied fields; in particular in education but also for example in the legal field. Whenever public attention is drawn to juvenile delinquency there arises at once a flood of condemnation of "soft psychology."

In part this has come about as a result of the exaggerated claims and excessive optimism which seem to be inevitable concomitants of any limited step forward today. The success of measurement in the pure sciences has led to unjustified hopes in the application of the same empirical treatment to the social sciences - very largely a bye-product of the easy

optimism and belief in the power of knowledge alone to effect desirable social change which were basic features of the outlook at the turn of the century. We are now realising the limitations of scientific and psychological approaches to educational problems. Karl Jaspers, has admirably expressed the nature of education as an act of faith:

"The decisive factor in all education is the inner substance in the light of which and within which the education takes place; it is the cultural pattern which derives its whole significance from its foundation on faith; it is man's own image; it is all those things which cannot be taught directly but which are given life, in the course of teaching, by example and the choice of subjects and curriculum. Education is always good when children are initiated into a great faith, when they are filled with ideals capable to inspire their whole life, and when they live with traditional symbols. Even an inadequate psychology is not seriously harmful if this essential matter is taken care of; but the best psychology could never replace this essential foundation of education."¹

The attempt to popularize, in language that the layman can understand, many of the very complex and difficult concepts of psychological theory has led to profound and far-reaching misunderstandings both on the part of the educationists and the general public. Typical of this misunderstanding is the popular and, in some parts of the world, the educational interpretation of the psychological concept of repression. In

1) Karl Jaspers : Freedom and authority; Diogenes I, 1953.

the popular sense the interpretation of repression has come to be associated first of all with a naive belief in tolerance of everything to the point of licence. When this is inevitably followed by undesirable social consequences the popular false notion is rejected and by extension psychology, wrongly interpreted, is condemned as "soft". In education too, where we might expect knowledge of the implications of the concept, the desire to avoid repression has led to educational philosophies of freedom in the abstract without attention to the corresponding need for responsibility.

In fact of course repression far from being undesirable, is an essential social skill. In the social as indeed in the physical world the efficiency of the human organism would be brought within very narrow limits, if it were possible to live at all, without constant conscious and unconscious repression. No psychologist has ever maintained the contrary. He has merely indicated the undesirable outcomes in the way of maladjustment and so on when the repressive mechanism is mishandled or fails to function adequately in certain individuals. But it is the false interpretation of the concept by the general public and by some educationalists that has contributed to the scepticism and suspicion concerning the basis of psychological knowledge which we hear about today.

A further and perhaps even more important source of student criticism and dissatisfaction with the educational psychology of Diploma courses is to be found, as in the case of Principles or Philosophy of Education course, in the limited time available for what is indeed a vast subject and the consequent superficial treatment of deeper psychological issues

having little direct reference to the immediate teaching situation in which the student or newly qualified teacher finds himself.

In the outlines of the courses in Education Psychology for the Diploma there is a very varied selection from what is clearly too wide a field to be dealt with in the limited time and often failure to decide on a logical order of presentation which in turn leads too often to lack of confidence on the part of students in the relevance of the material studied to the problems they will face in the classroom. It will be clear from a study of the rubrics and book lists in educational psychology that there is no very definite view of the purpose and role of the course in the preparation of teachers.

University College of the West Indies.

A consideration of physical, mental, emotional and social development from infancy through adolescence to maturity and its bearing on problems at school. The acquisition of knowledge and skills by children. Types of learning. The influence of different methods of teaching. Individual differences of children. The nature, distribution and measurement of intelligence and attainment and their practical use. Backwardness, maladjustment and juvenile delinquency. The foundation and development of personality. Conscious and unconscious adjustment to environment. The growth of interests and aesthetic appreciation and of ideas on conduct and moral development of character.

The University of Birmingham.

The Psychology of Individual Differences. Intellectual differences. The nature, distribution and measurement of intelligence. Temperamental differences. Intellectual, emotional and social development of children. Common mental processes. The psychology of motivation. Psychology of learning. Allocation of pupils at eleven plus. Record cards. Intellectual sub-normality. Backwardness. Mental Health. Maladjusted children.

The University of Queensland.

The Psychology of Individual Differences. The development of personality and the nature of mental characteristics at various stages. Early attempts at mental measurement. The nature, development and testing of intelligence. Backwardness and intellectual sub-normality in pupils. The measurement in attainment in school subjects. The selection of pupils for secondary education. The process of learning. Psychology of basic school subjects. Memory and imagery. Temperament and emotional attitudes. Fundamentals of mental health. Juvenile delinquency. Common misdemeanours and maladjustment at school.

The University of TorontoOntario College of Education.

1. The psychology of adolescence. The place of the adolescent in our culture. His physical, social, emotional and intellectual growth. Formal and informal means of assessing individual development in these areas.

Adapting schooling to individual differences.

2. The psychology of learning. Introduction to the learning process. Motivation, including the nature of goals, classroom motivation. Various patterns of teacher leadership. Classroom discipline. Factors affecting the learning of concepts and principles. Identification and the learning of attitudes. Practice and the learning of skills. Transfer of training. Evaluation of educational progress.
3. The psychology of personality. Adjustment to frustration. Personality structure and character formation. The mental health of teacher and pupils.
4. Guidance. Basic principles and current practices in guidance.

Reading Lists in Educational Psychology:

1. General:

Tiffen and Others	: The Psychology of Normal People
McDougal	: Social Psychology
Fleming	: Social Psychology of Education
Ross	: Basic Psychology
Thomson	: Instinct, Intelligence and Character.
Valentine	: Psychology and its Bearing on Education.
Knight & Knight	: A Modern Introduction to Psychology
Woodworth	: Contemporary Schools of Psychology
Flugel	: A Hundred Years of Psychology

2. The Unconscious Mind and Psycho-Analysis:

- Hart : The Psychology of Insanity
 Freud : Psycho-pathology of Everyday Life.

3. Educational Psychology:

- Peel : The Psychological Basis of Education
 Cronbach : Educational Psychology.
 Hughes & Hughes : Learning and Teaching.
 Schonell : The Psychology and Teaching of Reading.
 Schonell : The Diagnosis of Individual Difficulties in Arithmetic.
 Pinsent : Principles of Teaching Method.
 Gates and Others : Educational Psychology.
 Stephens : Educational Psychology.
 Vernon : Secondary School Selection.

4. Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence:

- Valentine : The Psychology of Early Childhood.
 Isaacs : Social Development in Young Children.
 Isaacs : Intellectual Growth in Young Children.
 Isaacs : The Nursery Years.
 Chesters : Mothering Children.
 Bowley : The Natural Development of the Child.
 Watts : The Language and Mental Development of Children.
 : The Junior School Report by a Committee of the Association of Assistant Mistresses.

Valentine	: The Difficult Child and the Problem of Discipline.
Wall	: The Adolescent Child.
Hollingsworth	: The Psychology of Adolescence.
Fleming	: Psychology of Adolescence.
Fleming	: Advances in Understanding the Adolescent.
Jephcott	: Girls Growing Up.
Mead	: Growing Up in New Guinea.
Mead	: Coming of Age in Samoa.
Morgan	: Young Citizen.
McAllister-Brew	: In the Service of Youth.
Slade	: Child Drama.

5. Examinations, Testing, Assessment, Vocational Guidance:

Hanley & Others	: The Testing of Intelligence.
Terman & Merrill	: Measuring Intelligence.
Ballard	: Group Tests of Intelligence.
Schonell	: Backwardness in the Basic Subjects.
Valentine	: Examinations and the Examinee.

6. Delinquency: Handicapped and Backward Children:

Schonell & Others	: The Education of Backward Children.
Schonell	: Backwardness in the Basic Subjects.
Burt	: The Young Delinquent.
Friedlander	: Psycho-Analytic Study of Delinquency.
Hills	: The Hawkespur Experiment.

7. Statistical

Thompson	: How to Calculate Correlations.
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- Vernon : The Measurement of Abilities.
Garrett : Statistics in Psychology and Education.
Sumner : Statistics in Schools.

8. General:

- Rysenk : Uses and Abuses of Psychology.
Witmer and Others : Personality in the Making.
Morgan : Introduction to Psychology.
Blair and Others : Educational Psychology.

The Role of Educational Psychology.

It will be valuable at this stage to consider what should effectively be the purpose of educational psychology in the training of teachers. Again here it will be useful to make a clear distinction between those aspects of the subject which have a direct, practical and immediate contribution to make to the everyday work of the teacher in the classroom and which are therefore valuable parts of the qualifying course for all teachers in the one hand, and on the other those more abstruse, complex and highly specialised psychological topics which are frequently dealt with superficially in a Diploma Course but which really require much deeper study than time will allow or the ability and experience of the students permit and which should more properly be left to an advanced course for mature students.

In general terms educational psychology is an applied science. As a science it does not deal with values and judgments and therefore has no contribution to make to the aims and purposes of education in the highest sense nor to the content of education which subserves those aims and purposes. Moreover, every psychologist of note fully recognises that the subject is not at present, at any rate, an exact science in the sense that physics, chemistry or mathematics are exact sciences.

Nevertheless, educational psychology has in certain directions most valuable information which the educator can use. In particular, it can make valuable suggestions concerning the most effective methods of teaching, including the role of motivation in learning, the organisation of material

based on an appreciation of individual differences and maturation.

It is somewhat paradoxical that sometimes in the very topics in which educational psychology has become exact and successful it has unfortunately a far from beneficial effect on teaching and education generally simply because it is concerned essentially with means and not with ends. This effect is very obvious in relation to testing learning, and because it illustrates the regrettable divorce between means and ends it is worth looking at in some detail.

The defects of the essay type of examination as an assessment have long been notorious - the subjective nature of the marks allotted, the poor reliability and the large sampling error involved are well established. This has of course led to the development by educational psychologists of "objective" tests which are free from these limitations and can be assessed accurately by a machine. As a measuring device the objective test is infinitely better than an essay. It is a highly successful means of doing something or other. The effect on the end or purpose of education is, however, most unsatisfactory. By its very nature it denies freedom of response, is incapable of measuring wider understandings, puts a premium on "cramming", does nothing to reveal candidates' attitudes and generally has a deleterious effect on teaching methods and study habits. The objective test is a good measuring device of something that may not be worth knowing, whereas the essay is a valuable educational device. Clearly the educational process is more closely related to educational

aims and purposes than is the assessment or measurement of the outcomes of learning.

In general then it is essential that whatever students are taught in the way of psychological techniques should be rigorously subordinated to the overall purposes of education, particularly in the early stages of teacher training. Similarly a psychological concept, fundamentally sound in itself, but for practical reasons incapable of application by the practising teacher is better left to a more advanced stage of study. An example of this is to be found in the standardisation of marks, where the common practice in school examinations is to add up the sets of marks obtained by pupils in the various subjects in order to obtain a rank order of merit. This is of course an incorrect procedure until the sets of marks for the various subjects have been standardised around the same mean and the same standard deviation - otherwise success in one subject may count for more than another in the total. On the other hand the standardisation of the marks would impose quite an intolerable burden on teachers and the lack of validity and reliability in the original marks themselves invalidate such statistical treatment. The concept therefore, although true, has little practical value to the ordinary teacher and may very properly be included in courses for advanced research workers in educational psychology. The tendency to read causal relations into correlation techniques is a further example of the danger of putting powerful tools into the hands of the immature.

On the same grounds of the immaturity of students in training and lack of immediate relevance to the general

teaching situation in which most of them will soon find themselves we would question the appropriateness in the Diploma Course of such topics as abnormality, Maladjustment, Delinquency or even Vocational Guidance since the psychological basis of such studies are very deep and specialised. Treatment of these topics at teacher training level is notoriously superficial and unsatisfactory. Their relevance is clearly at the post-training level and suitable for training specialists in these fields.

In the same way courses in remedial education and in the teaching of the basic skills of reading and arithmetic are a waste of time and are resented by students intending to teach Matriculation Chemistry or History.

It is most desirable that students on entering a Training Department be interviewed individually, their plans and qualifications individually considered and an individual programme drawn up for them in terms of their special requirements. This seems particularly desirable in the field of educational psychology because of its enormous range of topics, many of which are only remotely related to the future work of a High School specialist teacher.

At the same time there is a core of psychological knowledge with which it is desirable that all teachers should be acquainted in order that their approach to children and teaching should be in keeping with modern understanding of the problems involved. In particular the following would seem to be fundamental topics in a course of teacher training designed for future teachers in Secondary Schools:-

1. An appreciation of the importance of individual differences - intellectual, physical, emotional - and the relevance of these difference to the teaching situation.
2. A general understanding of the concept of maturation and its importance in evolving curricula in general and the progressive stages of teaching in particular.
3. An outline of the learning process in terms of concrete teaching situations.
4. Some knowledge of intelligence and attainment testing, including methods of selection for various types of secondary education.

If the Department is also concerned with the training of students for work in the Primary School then such students should have their work in Educational Psychology modified appropriately by the inclusion of such topics as:

1. The psychology of basic school subjects.
2. an introduction to remedial teaching.
3. An introduction to maladjustment (though even here it would be adequate if the ordinary teacher knew enough about the subject to recognise symptoms of maladjustment and to be aware of the proper quarters to which such cases should be referred).

The training of vocational guidance specialists, remedial educationalists and so on should be distinct from the training of the ordinary classroom teacher, though clearly

it is desirable that the latter should be aware of the existence of the various specialist services and should know how to make use of them as required.

In this way the student in training for teaching in the classroom would be freed from the overwhelming number of irrelevant topics, would not have his energies and interests dissipated and would be able to devote himself more thoroughly to those aspects of educational psychology which will seem directly relevant to the task in hand. During his teaching practice for example he will see more clearly and apply more realistically the psychological principles he has studied during the course.

5. Educational Organisation and administration.

It is a surprising and regrettable fact that most teachers in training complete their course and take up their first posts almost entirely without any overall picture of the organisation and administration of public education in their own country. They have of course usually grown up in the system and have a varying degree of knowledge about the types of institution of which they have had direct experience, but are usually ignorant of the inter-relationships of the various sections of public education and the relationship of the latter with other public services.

This is particularly true of the English Training Departments and those in the Commonwealth which have followed the English line of development. The notable exception is to be found in Canadian Colleges of Education where, following the U.S. pattern, we find quite comprehensive courses offered such as the following in the Ontario College of Education :

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND LAW

School Management, School Organisation, School Administration; aims and scope of each; relation of each to the teaching process.

The Ontario school system: Department of Education, and its organization and functions; local administrative units; school boards, their selection, organization and functions; types of schools; school finance and business administration; relation to other public services.

The High School plant: provision, maintenance, care and use; special accommodations; relation to community activities.

The High School curriculum: aim, structure and use; texts; extra-curricular activities.

The High School pupil: attendance, rights, duties, guidance.

The High School teacher: professional status; personal qualifications; training and certification; appointment, tenure, payment, superannuation; duties in relation to trustees, parents and other citizens; duties in relation to supervisors, colleagues and pupils; freedom and responsibility.

High School organization: admission, exclusion, classification, grading, promotion, tests of progress, records and reports, recommendations, staff-meetings, time-tables, supervised study, homework.

Supervision: inspectors, principals, heads of departments; their powers and duties.

Discipline: aim and scope; relation to methods of teaching; incentives; causes of disorder and inattention; methods of dealing with weaknesses and delinquencies.

School Law and Regulations: Public Health Acts and Regulations in so far as they refer to the duties of school boards, teachers and pupils.

Again it is important here to distinguish between the information and knowledge which we might reasonably expect

all teachers to have concerning the organisation and administration of education and the specialist detailed knowledge of an educational administrator or higher executive officer on the administrative staff for the training of whom special courses should be available.

Probably no long course of lectures is required for this general purpose. The material concerned is factual and straightforward, requiring little explanation or discussion. A very short course, giving adequate direction to the relevant official publications and literature is all that is required and very little time need be spent on the topic. There should be available, however, to all teachers in training, copies of the relevant Statutes and Ordinances of the Authority by whom they will shortly be employed, together with a more general statement of the overall educational picture of the country such as that in South Africa for example by Professor R.G. MacMillan under the title "Education in South Africa", off-printed from the Educational Review, June, 1953.

Reference to the "Schools Handbook" or similar publication of all educational authorities will provide the ordinary teacher with all that he requires in the way of essential knowledge of the machinery of the profession he is about to enter. In particular, he needs to have his attention drawn to the teacher's responsibilities in school which are far wider than merely teaching his subject adequately, to his duties and rights both as an employee and as a citizen, to the role of Teachers' Societies in Education.

In general terms the student requires a good deal of

help in making the transition from the status he has occupied for many years to the entirely new one of a professional man responsible for his performance and for his relationships with colleagues, superiors and the world at large. This maturing process cannot of course be taught directly, but it must be the responsibility of Departments concerned with turning out professionally trained men and women to see that they are well acquainted with the machinery of professional life in which they will be expected to play a competent role.

The period of teaching practice which we shall discuss in a later chapter should have a close relationship with this professional aspect. It is quite as important that the student should gain experience and knowledge of the organization and administration of the school in which he practises his teaching as to become an expert teacher of his subject.

6. Academic Studies in Education.

A reference to the allocation of time to the various courses in a Diploma year shows that a considerable portion of the very limited time available for teacher training is spent on what can properly be termed "academic studies" having little or no direct connexion with the practical job of teaching. The most usual of these in order of frequency are:-

(a) History of Education, (b) Comparative Education, (c) Sociology of Education.

In this way training for the profession of teaching differs very sharply from training for other professions such as Medicine, Dentistry, Engineering, the Law and so on, where a historical, a comparative or a sociological approach would only be found, if at all, at an advanced, post-graduate or research level. The actual training for the profession is very closely related to the practical problems and techniques of the job to be done.

There would appear to be two reasons for the difference we find in training for the teaching profession in this respect. One of them undoubtedly has its roots in the early days of University interest in teaching training, in particular the training of teachers of the Humanities, where we find a strong desire to make "Education", as a subject, respectable and in academic conformity with the sort of work done in other University Departments, particularly in Faculties of Arts. This development, accentuated in more recent years, has led to a certain confusion between Teacher Training on the one hand and the academic study of Education on the other.

At the present moment a real attempt is being made to resolve this confusion in England by the separation of certification requirements from those of a Diploma in Education which is now regarded as a further, and more appropriately academic course to be taken after qualification and some experience as a teacher. This approach should encourage a more practical and less theoretical approach to the primary qualification and certification of teachers.

A second reason for the development of academic work in the training year is the very well worthwhile desire that a student's personal education and development should have an important place in his period of professional training. A teacher is not a technician and nothing more. We have discussed elsewhere some of the meanings and purposes of a teacher and have stressed the importance of the educated personality, aware of the wider implications of his work. While a good deal of a student's time and energy will necessarily be taken up with the techniques of his profession, it is most undesirable that he should thereby be given the impression that his personal education and intellectual development have reached their term when he has graduated. More and more there is the need for every teacher to continue his own education throughout his teaching life and it will not encourage him to do so if he is virtually cut off during his period of professional training from all contact with academic studies.

For this purpose some introduction to the academic study of education - its history, comparative studies or sociological basis - are very obviously suitable material though not necessarily the only ones. Other studies which

might be valuable in this direction of continuing the student's personal growth suggest themselves; for example, the need for students who have specialized in the humanities to have the opportunity of widening their horizons by some contact with modern science and its thought processes, and similarly for scientists to renew their interest in literature and the arts. If we are disturbed today by the growing isolation of the "two cultures", it might be possible to offset this to some extent by sending out into the schools teachers who have at least some insight into both sides of our intellectual heritage.

There seems, however, no compelling reason for imposing on all students in training the study of the history of education, comparative education or sociology of education. What does seem to be desirable would be that the Faculty staff should have a much more intensive knowledge of the background and needs of individual students, so that they could be advised and helped to select those courses which would contribute most to their further development, either by filling in gaps in their education or by catering for their special interests.

With these general considerations in mind, we can now discuss in more detail the actual provisions made in the three most common education subjects.

(a) History of Education.

In this field the most significant feature emerging from a study of the outlines of the courses in various University Departments of Education is the uncertainty as to the meaning and content of History of Education. On the one hand the subject is interpreted to mean a study of the historical development of public education from the work of philanthropic individuals and bodies to the latest piece of legislation such as the Butler act of 1944. This is the view taken of the subject for example in the University of Southampton Institute of Education where the course includes the following:

History of Education.

The aim of this course is to study the English systems of education by relating it to its recent historical background. It will deal mainly with Twentieth Century developments, and attention will be paid to :

- 1) the general setting in which the present system of education was created and developed; its political, industrial, social and religious background;
- 2) changing views of the aims of education and their effects;
- 3) the development of the machinery of the public administration education;
- 4) developments in school organisation, government and

discipline.

- 5) development of curricula, and changes in methods of teaching.

The University of Durham Department of Education

has much the same content in mind but, aware of the limitations of time, interest and functional value in the training of teacher prefaces its course outline with the remark : "This is not a consecutive course in the History of Education. It aims at giving some explanation of the growth of the main features of our present educational system".

"The lecture course will deal with the following topics:"

1. The 1944 Act: The Ministry: the L.E.A.'s: the three broad divisions-primary, secondary and further education; the three types of school - county, voluntary and independent.

Ref. H.C. Dent The 1944 Act.

11. The Primary stage: Elementary education at the beginning of the 19th century: the work of the two "Societies": Voluntaryism and the Churches: State support and partial control 1833 on: the Dual System and local control 1870 on: the perpetuation of the Dual System 1902 and the extension of compulsory and free schooling.

Ref.	C. Birchenough	History of Elementary Education in England and Wales.
	F. Smith	History of English Elementary Education
	G.A.N. Lowndes	The Silent Social Revolution
	W.D. Lester Smith	To whom do the schools belong?

and the historical section of the Consultative Committee Report 1931 - The Primary School.

- 111 The Secondary stage: The Grammar, Public and Proprietary schools of the 19th century: the Higher Grade school and other experiments 1870 on: examinations and modern studies: the Regulations of 1940: the tri-partite scheme.

Ref.	R.L. Archer	Secondary Education in the 19th century
	J. Graves	Policy and Progress in Secondary Education
	O. Banks	Parity and Prestige in English Secondary Education.

and the historical sections of the following Consultative Committee Reports -

Differentiation of the Curricula between the Sexes
1922.

The Education of the Adolescent 1926 (The Hadow Report)

Secondary Education 1938 (The Spens Report)

The Public Schools 1944 (The Fleming Report)

- 1V The Universities: Oxford and Cambridge in the 19th century: Durham, London and the provincial universities.

Ref. in addition to relevant chapters in the general histories there are a number of histories of individual universities e.g. C.E. Whiting - Durham; W.M. Childs - Reading.

- V Further education: Adult education - Mechanics Institutes: University Extension and the W.E.A.: adolescent education - continuation schools, the Service of Youth, County Colleges:

other organisations concerned with more informal education.

- Ref. A. Mansbridge An adventure in working class education
 H.C. Dent Part-time education in Great Britain.

VI Training of Teachers: the Monitorial system: the rise of Training Colleges and U.T.D.s: the Emergency Scheme: Institutes and A.T.O.s.

- Ref. R.V. Rich The Training of Teachers in England and Wales in the 19th century.
 G.E. Lance Jones The Training of Teachers in England and Wales

Report of Consultative Committee - Teachers and Youth Leaders, 1944 (The McHair Report)
 Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 17 Challenge and Response 1950.

The University of Birmingham Department of Education follows the same line in its course entitled : "The English Educational System and its Recent History" and defines its contents: "This course of lectures covers the present organisation of English educational institutions, administration and teaching, their development since 1800 and more especially, since 1870."

This development of what might be called "the rise of public education" in a real, practical sense is not, however, the interpretation of history of Education in all University Departments of Education.

In the University of Liverpool for example the following course outline is given :

History of Education.

- 1) Introduction to the History of Education.
- 2) Special periods and prescribed books:
 - a) The Renaissance : Erasmus (Selections)
Elyot : The Governour
 - b) The 17th Century : Comenius : The Great Didactic
Locke : Some Thoughts concerning Education.
 - c) The 18th Century : Rousseau : Emile
Pestalozzi : How Gertrude teaches her children.
 - d) The 19th Century : Newman : Idea of a University.
Arnold : Culture and Anarchy

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| e) The History of
Sciences: | Anthony : Science and its
background.

Butterfield : Origins of
Modern Science. |
|--------------------------------|---|

3) The 20th Century.

This approach is concerned very much with the history of educational ideas rather than the legislative or administrative developments in the history of public education, and indicates the confusion of thought about the respective roles of History and Philosophy of Education. Of course Philosophy of Education is bound up with the development of philosophic ideas. From the practical point of view of avoiding overlapping and confusion in the mind of the student, however, it seems desirable to have a clearer purpose of the course than exists in many Departments.

This uncertainty is further illustrated in those Departments which offer a combined course, such as the University of Melbourne Faculty of Education course in History and Principles of Education, under the general rubric "A study of the nature and historical origins of important educational problems of today." The topics include :

- 1) Education in ancient Greece and Rome. The meaning of liberal Education.
- 2) The connection of the Church with Education. The place of religion in relation to education today.
- 3) The growth of the Universities. The place of the University in the modern world.
- 4) The Renaissance and the classical tradition.

- 1) The place of classics in the modern school.
 - ii) A definition of culture to satisfy contemporary needs.
- 5) The teacher and the classroom in England 1700 - 1833
Discipline in the modern school.
- 6) The development of educational thought.
- 1) The modern conflict of philosophies.
 - ii) A philosophic basis for education is a modern democratic, industrialized community.

A contributory factor to the construction of this type of course in Commonwealth countries is of course the remoteness in space of much of the detailed history of the legislative and administrative growth of public education in England - the contribution of Kaye - Shuttleworth for example, - while yet deeply influenced in their own countries by the events in 18th and 19th century England. At the same time, there is lack of confidence in the value of the historical background of local educational development.

Some more courageous attempts to develop a local History of Education are, however, worth noting. The University of Queensland Faculty of Education for example includes a course entitled "Australian Education Systems and their recent history," the outline of which states that "this course is designed to acquaint students with the varying patterns of education in Australia, and to indicate the influences that have mainly determined the history and the form of the system in each of the Australian States since the beginning of the

twentieth century.

Particular reference will be paid to pre-school and kindergarten education; infant and primary education; secondary education for all children; university education; technical education; agricultural education; the training of teachers; the education of the aborigines and Commonwealth participation in education."

A similar approach is attempted by the Department of Education of the University College of the West Indies course under the title "Development of Education in the British West Indies."

"An examination of the main trends in the development of West Indian education and their significance in determining its administration and form. The influence of social and economic factors and the effect of colonial status. A comparative study of ideas on the aims of popular secondary and further education in other countries - in particular, England, America, France. Some discussion on UNESCO fundamental education projects."

The Canadian University Departments of Education generally avoid the difficulty by having no History of Education course as such in their curricula, partly due to the reasons already advanced, but also no doubt because of its irrelevance to the immediate practical needs of the teaching situation and because their population springs from two different roots with a differing history and tradition.

Many Training Departments allow a varying degree of optional subjects in their curricula, and History of Education frequently appears as an optional study when it is not included as a major, compulsory course. We shall be dealing with optional subjects generally in a later section, but here we might consider that History of Education is indeed most suitably dealt with in this group of subjects as far as it is required at all in the first year of professional training. Clearly a deep study of the History of Education will make a very effective discipline in keeping with other academic studies in an advanced course taken after preliminary professional training and certification.

In an optional course in History of Education during the professional training year, two determinants seem particularly relevant:

- 1) The course should deal with the recent history of the development of public education.
- 2) The course should be in an appropriate framework having reference to local development.

In this way, the History of Education course in a South African training department for example, while having its roots in eighteenth and nineteenth century Europe should then be oriented towards the way in which these roots have given rise to the special features of the development of public education in this country.

b) Comparative Education.

There is again here wide divergence of opinion as to

the place of the comparative study of education in the training of teachers, though the general tendency is to remove the subjects from the curriculum for the primary professional certification of teachers and reserve it for more advanced courses, either as a compulsory or an optional subject. Where the subject is retained in the professional training year it is almost always optional, though the University of Melbourne for example keeps it as a compulsory course in this year with the following outline and reading list:

Comparative Education

A course of lectures and seminars throughout the year.

1. A descriptive study of the educational systems and institutions in certain countries.
2. A study of the above educational systems and institutions in relation to the respective societies of which they are a part.
3. A comparative study of the forms assumed by certain educational institutions (e.g. the secondary school) in different societies.

BOOKS. (a) Preliminary reading for students with little knowledge of the character of society in each of the countries whose educational systems and institutions are to be studied:

- Crawford, R.M. - Australia. (London, Longmans, 1952.)
 Cole, G.D.H. and Postgate, R. - The Common People, 1746 - 1938. (London, Methuen, 1938.)

Nevins, Allan and Commager, H.S. - A Short History of the United States. (New York, Random House, 1945.)

Roe, F.C. - Modern France - An Introduction to French Civilization. (London, Longmans, 1956.)

(b) Prescribed text-books:

De Young, C.A. - Introduction to American Public Education. (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1955.)

Smith, W.O. Lester - Education: An Introductory Survey (Penguin, 1957.)

Banks, Olive - Parity and Prestige in English Secondary Education. (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1955.)

Pedley, R. - Comprehensive Education. (London, Gollancz, 1956.)

Conant, J.B. - Education and Liberty. (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard Univ. Press, 1953.)

(c) Recommended for reference:

Australia:

Radford, W.C. - The Non-Government Schools of Australia. (M.U.P., 1953.)

McDonnell, R.M. Radford, W.C., and Staurenghi, R.M. - Review of Education in Australia. (Melb., A.C.E.R., 1956.)

Butts, R. Freeman - Assumptions Underlying Australian Education. (Melbourne, A.C.E.R., 1955.)

Kandel, I.L. - Types of Administration. (M.U.P., 1938.)

Cunningham, K.S. - 'A Critical Account of Australian Education', in University of London Institute of Education, The Year Book of Education, 1936. (London, Evans, 1936.)

England and Wales.

Curtis, S.J. - Education in Great Britain since 1900.

(London, Dakers, 1952.)

Judges, A.V. (ed.) - Pioneers of English Education.

(London, Faber, 1952.)

Lowndes, G.A.N. - The Silent Social Revolution : An Account

of the Expansion of Public Education in England and

Wales, 1895 - 1935. (O.U.P., London, 1950.)

Dent, H.C. - Growth in English Education 1946 - 1956. (London

Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954.)

Ministry of Education (England and Wales.) The New Secondary

Education. Pamphlet No. 9. (London, H.M.S.O., 1947.)

United States of America:

Brogan, D.V. - American Themes. (New York, Harper, 1947.)

Hutchins, R.K. - Some Observations on American Education.

(Cambridge Univ. Press, 1956.)

Bent, K.R., and Kronenberg, H.H. - Principles of Secondary

Education, (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1955.)

France:

Centre Nationale de Documentation Pedagogique (France) -

L'Organisation de l'Enseignement en France. (Centre

Nationale, etc. Paris, 1952.)

Debiesse, Jean - Compulsory Education in France. (Paris,

U.N.E.S.C.O., 1951.)

Kandel, I.L. - The New Era in Education: a Comparative Study.

(Boston, Houghton-Mifflin, 1955.)

General:

Cramer, J.F., and Browne, G.S. - Contemporary Education.

(New York, Harcourt Brace, 1956.)

Kandel, I.L. - Comparative Education. (New York, Houghton-Mifflin, 1933.)

Moehlman, A.H., and Roucek, J.S. - Comparative Education, (New York, Dryden, 1952.)

EXAMINATION. One 3-hour paper in November.

In the same country, however, in the University of Queensland, a very similar course is offered in the final year for the B. Ed. degree:

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

(60 Lectures)

A comparative study of education in England, Australia, New Zealand and the U.S.A.

An examination will be made of factors, physical and cultural, which influence the development of education, with particular reference to these countries. A number of aspects of education in the English-speaking countries will be considered, more importantly the following:-

- Administration of Education;
- Primary Education;
- Secondary Education;
- University Education;
- The Training of Teachers;
- The Education of Native Peoples.

Text-books

H. Hans: Comparative Education (Lond., Routledge & Kegan Paul, 2nd edit., 1950.)

H.G.R. Mason: Education Today and Tomorrow (Wellington, N.Z. Dept. of Education, 1945.)

U.S. Office of Education: Education in the United States of America - Special Series No. 3.

U.S. Information Office: An outline of American Education. (Both of the above brochures would probably be available free of charge upon request to the United States Information Centre, 46-48 Margaret Street, Sydney.)

Ministry of Education: A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales (London, H.M.S.O., 1945.)

(The above pamphlet and the other Ministry pamphlets in the Reference Lists are available from the University Bookshop.)

A.C.E.R.: A Plan for Australia (Future of Education Series, No. 2.)

Reference Books

I.L. Kandel: Studies in Comparative Education (Lond., Harrap, 1933.)

H.C. Dents: The Education Act, 1944 (Lond., U.L.P., 3rd edit., 1947.)

Ministry of Education Pamphlet: The New Secondary Education (H.M.S.O.).

Ministry of Education Pamphlet: Making Citizens (H.M.S.O.).

Ministry of Education Pamphlet: School and Life (H.M.S.O.).

The Year Books of Education; 1932-40, 1948-53 (Evans Bros.).

A.C.E.R.: Future of Education Series.

Cunningham, McIntyre and Radford: Review of Education in Australia, 1938 (M.U.P. for A.C.E.R., 1939).

- G.W. Parkyn: *The Consolidation of Rural Schools* (Wellington, N.Z.C.E.R., 1952.)
- A.E. Campbell: *Educating New Zealand* (Wellington, N.Z. Dept. of Inland Affairs.)

The University of London offers Comparative Education as an elective subject both for the ordinary Post Graduate Certificate in Education and also for the Academic Diploma in Education, presumably in the first case as an introductory course.

The Commonwealth Education Conference, held in Oxford in July, 1959, stressed the need for the wider exchange of educational ideas and views with special reference to teacher training and it cannot be doubted that a comparative study of education within the Commonwealth, in the English speaking world, in the European tradition and in other parts of the world, should play an increasingly important role in educational thinking.

It is, however, very doubtful whether justice can be done to such a course if it is included as one among many of the large number of matters that have to be attended to during the first year of a student's professional training, oriented as it must be towards the practical aspects of education. Any academic course in education such as Comparative Education must, if it is to receive the appropriate treatment which such a subject undoubtedly warrants, be given the time and mental devotion of any other academic subject in any other Department. The only way in which this can be done is to postpone such a subject until after the primary certification has been completed and to incorporate it into a higher qualification, such

as an Academic Diploma or a B. Ed. degree which should form part of the complete qualification of a teacher, but acquired at leisure over a longer period of time than is possible during the first year of professional training. The use of short introductory courses in such subjects during the first year of training seems to be counter-indicated by the inadequate treatment that can be given in the time and the consequent disappointment of students who expect an academic course to extend them.

c) Sociology of Education.

In any consideration of education three main factors commonly emerge; the philosophic factor, the psychological factor and the sociological factor. The course in Principles of Education is usually regarded to some extent responsible for integrating these three into a coherent whole and in particular concerns itself, in addition to the philosophic basis of education, with the social determinants of education - the role of the family, the home, the Church, the State and so on. Since it is felt that the psychological aspect of education is thoroughly dealt with elsewhere, it does not form part of the main orientation of the Principles course in the same way that social considerations do.

For example the University of Birmingham course in Principles of Education includes a section under the title of "General Social Background" and suggests the following text-books :

- Cole and Postgate - The Common People 1746 - 1946
- G.M. Trevelyan - English Social History
- G.A.H. Lowndes - The Silent Social Revolution

Similarly the University of Durham includes a section on "Social Factors in Education" :

1. Social biology, Social psychology and Sociology.
What do these studies involve? How can we utilise them?
11.) Urban industrial

- | | | | | | |
|-------|--|---|---|---|---------------------------|
| III. | Environment | } | Rural | } | analysis of factors |
| IV. | | | New towns | | affecting social welfare. |
| V. | The Family | } | Biological and sociological aspects of family life with ref. to psychology. Recent studies to families in different settings. | | |
| VI. | | | Problem families. Education for family living. Social welfare work. | | |
| VII. | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| VIII. | Homeless children. | | History of their treatment. Curtis Report, Children Act. Provisions made today. | | |
| IX. | Social status and education opportunity. | | A survey of recent work in this field. | | |

In connexion with this section of the Principles course, the following extensive books list is suggested:

General Introduction

M.J.H. Sprott	Human Groups	Pelican ed.
Barnett, A.	The Human Species	" "
Katz, B.	Animals and Men	" "
Ogburn & Niskoff	Handbook of Sociology	

Environment

Glass R. edit.	The Social Background of a Plan (Middlesbrough)
Williams, W.H.	The Sociology of an English Village Gosforth Cumberland
Report of the Easington Rural District Council	Farewell Squalor (Peterlee)

Family

Spence, J.C.	The Purpose of the Family
Spence & Others	A Thousand Families in Newcastle-on-Tyne.
Hogey, J.M.	Family and Neighbourhood. (Two Studies in Oxford.)

Young and Wilmott	Family and Kinship in East London
Philp and Timms	The Problems of "The Problem Family." Family Service Unit Liverpool.
<u>Social Problems.</u>	
Morris J. edit	Social case-work in Great Britain.
Ford, D.	Deprived Children.
Hoggart R.	The Uses of Literacy.
Floud, J.E. edit.	Social Class and Educational Opportunity.
Glass D.V.	Social Mobility in Britain.
Hall, M.P.	The Social Services of Modern England.

There would seem to be quite wide agreement that some account of the social factor is inseparable from a consideration of the Principles of Education.

Nevertheless, in spite of this apparently adequate practical treatment of social factors in the Principles course we frequently find "Sociology of Education" offered as additional optional academic course.

It seems to the writer difficult to justify this in the year of professional training, for much the same reasons that the other academic subjects, History of Education and Comparative Education would best be left to a post-certification course. From all recent criticism mentioned in a previous chapter it is clear that a mistake has been made in overloading the course of professional training with academic courses which, though extremely worthwhile studying, cannot be adequately treated in the limited time available in a one year course, an increased portion of which must surely be

spent in the schools under such more intensive supervision which will be discussed in a subsequent chapter.

7. Methods Courses.

From the time of the rise of interest in teacher training in Germany and the naive belief that education could be reduced to scientific rules, there developed rather massive systems of methodology which in the beginning contributed to the formulation of a sensible approach to teaching but later on, as is usually the case, crystallised into a rigid set of formal steps, misinterpreted by later teacher training institutions and hampering rather than helping the free development of a personal teaching art.

The inevitable reaction against this formalism, combined with the progressive introduction into teacher training of the academic studies of education referred to in the previous section has led to a regrettable decline in the emphasis placed on teaching methods, particularly methods of teaching specific subjects, but also to a lesser extent on general method. The small allocation of time to methods courses, the examination emphasis on the more readily examinable academic subjects and only too often the unsuitability of teachers of methods subjects because of limited practical experience in schools, have all contributed to this decline.

Although clearly we do not want a return to anything in the nature of a formalistic presentation of teaching subjects it is not unreasonable to feel that a deeper study of the methods of teaching the particular group of subjects in which the student is specially interested might well be the central part of his year of professional training instead of floating rather on the periphery as is now often the case.

a) General Method.

Most students training for work at the Secondary level are naturally chiefly interested in their own subjects and in methods of teaching them, which in many respects will vary with the subjects themselves. There is, however, a body of classroom practice and general approach to teaching which is common to all subjects and which therefore it is convenient for all students to take together while splitting up into their respective groups for particular subjects.

This common body of practice under the title of General Method can and should be a most valuable course for any teacher in training; it is also true to say that it can also become, if mishandled, most tedious and irrelevant to many students.

In principle a General Methods course should be short and it should avoid over emphasis on formal steps (many of which are not applicable to all school subjects). It should concern itself with the immediately relevant and practical aspects of teaching and classroom procedure. All that is really relevant and functional in this context can be said in a very few lectures and its carryover value for the student will be greater if it is not encumbered with the detailed treatment of the teaching of material which is not his province. It is equally important to avoid duplication of work done in other course where they might more properly belong. For example students are encouraged to produce teaching aids such as charts, maps, pictures and so on. But the students also have a separate course in Visual aids which

might include the same sort of thing, as would their courses in Special Methods of teaching specific subjects at the High School level. Indeed the Special Methods courses in the teaching of Geography, say, or Physical Science could be expected to deal more appropriately with the sort of visual aid material that is most useful in those subjects, since the courses themselves are given by practising specialists. In any case, close co-operation to avoid duplication is most desirable.

Much the same point can be made in connexion with lesson preparation, the writing of notes and so on. There are of course some general principles which apply to such preparation whatever the subject to be taught, but in the main the type of preparation required varies enormously with the various subjects of the High School curriculum, and it is merely frustrating to students to be taken through rules of lesson preparation which have little relevance to their own subject and emphasized by a lecturer who has little or no knowledge of the special requirements of the students' special subjects. It is not appropriate to treat students preparing for relatively specialized subject teaching in a High School in exactly the same way that one might prepare general class teachers to work in a primary school. It is of course true that they are all teachers, but the implications of this can be and often are taken too far. It is equally important to be aware of the differences of the task at the various stages of education.

b) Special Method.

We are considering the training requirements of

University Graduates who are intending to teach one or, more usually, two subjects in secondary schools. Without wishing to take an extremely narrow or exclusive view of their function in the school, it does seem realistic to feel that an intensive study of the arrangement, presentation and objectives of the material the students are to teach should occupy a central place in their professional training.

This is not the case generally at the present time. It is usual to find one hour a week allotted to each of the special method courses, in contrast to the three or four hours each for Principles of Education, Psychology of Education, History or Sociology of Education. It is difficult to justify this imbalance of time spent on the academic study of education in comparison with that spent on the study of the actual teaching of the school subjects in which the student is particularly interested. There seems every reason to believe that this imbalance contributes substantially to the criticism made of the course generally.

It is equally true that courses in the Special Methods of teaching specific subjects can themselves be deeply frustrating if they are not well handled. The student is quick to feel the irrelevance of a lot of time spent for example on the History of the teaching of Mathematics rather than on practical problems in the subject as experienced in the classroom. The student is naturally suspicious of a lecturer in methods who has not himself had substantial practical teaching experience in the schools in that subject. It is essential that the lecturer in methods should be a highly successful teacher in his own right and one who, in addition to that

fundamental qualification, has kept himself abreast of recent literature on the teaching of his subject and who has given evidence of a readiness to experiment in new methods and to make a critical assessment of them.

This is a great deal to expect of a lecturer, but it is crucial to the success of the professional training of students. The system employed by the Scottish Colleges of Education has much to commend it. Highly successful practical teachers are seconded from the teaching service for a period of four years during which they have the time and leisure to study the wider aspects of the teaching of their subject and to give students in training the benefit of the best possible approaches to methods of teaching a particular subject. At the end of the four year period the lecturer either returns to school teaching or goes on to the further academic study of education, and a fresh secondment is made. It seems undesirable that a lecturer should continue to talk about teaching methods for a long period of years without returning to practical experience of the job in the schools.

Far too often students receive an essentially theoretical training in methods of teaching specific subjects, particularly where such courses are given by members of University academic staffs in the various departments or where they are given by practising teachers employed by the University on a part-time basis to give a course on the teaching of their special subject. The most valuable aspects of such a course, namely demonstration lessons, can only adequately be given in the schools. Normally neither members of University departmental staffs nor practising teachers are free to devote

their time to this kind of activity in the schools. It would seem that the only way in which this can be done is through the appointment to the Education Faculty staff of lecturers who are expert and experienced teachers of the various teaching subjects, and who are capable of actually going into the schools, by arrangement with the Principals, and giving demonstration lessons in the presence of small groups of students. If such demonstration lessons are followed up by discussion of the methods and techniques used and of the results obtained there is a very real gain to students in training which they are quick to appreciate. The four year secondment system lends itself well to this approach, for the lecturers thus appointed, with their recent contact with schools, are well suited to develop that liaison between the training department and the schools which should be the very core of teacher training.

The close liaison with a number of schools in this way seems preferable to the sole use of a Faculty Demonstration School which has found favour in some systems, notably in Scotland. The Demonstration School has certain obvious advantages, in that it is centralised, oriented specifically to the requirements of student training and staffed by highly skilled teachers in every subject of the curriculum. Its disadvantages flow from its virtues to some extent; it can become fossilised, it is a somewhat artificial institution and tends to suffer from in-breeding. A variety of ordinary schools, carefully selected because some subject or group of subjects is particularly well taught there, and which can be changed according to circumstances, offers a more natural medium for practical training in special methods. It does, however, require very

considerable knowledge of individual teachers in such schools and the closest possible relationship with them. A such closer liaison is desirable than that often found at present when University lecturers visit the schools usually only to supervise students during teaching practice and never themselves teach a lesson in the schools.

It would help very considerably in this direction if each lecturer concerned with method teaching was encouraged to build up a special personal relationship with one or two schools to such an extent that he became almost an unofficial member of their teaching staff and regarded as an expert adviser in a particular subject or group of subjects. This deeper penetration of the schools would make a most significant contribution to the improvement of teacher training and to the status of teacher training in the teaching profession.

8. Minor Courses.

There are a number of minor courses which are to be found in almost all teacher training institutions, of which the most usual are a) Speech Training, b) Health Education and c) the use of Audio-Visual aids in Teaching. They all have an obvious relevance to teaching, but frequently fail in their objective and leave students dissatisfied because of inept treatment.

a) Speech Training.

It is a commonplace to point out that speech is the teacher's main tool in his chosen profession, and it seems therefore logical to include training in the use of the voice and in the development of good speech in a teacher training course. There are, however, many pitfalls in presenting such a course and considerable danger in attempting to produce a "good teaching voice". We are all familiar with the harsh, metallic, artificial teaching voice of teachers trained in a rigid system of voice production, and the irritating over-use of tricks such as the interrogative tone and pause before the end of the sentence.

The improvement of voice and speech is an extremely personal and individual matter, and no useful purpose whatever is served by handing over the whole of a Diploma class to a protracted series of lectures on voice production, phonetics and the development of mass habits of speech. Such a course is treated with contempt by those students whose speech and voice are adequate and is ineffective in the case of the usually limited number who require therapeutic treatment.

It is most desirable that students with quite inadequate voice or speech should be eliminated before embarking on training as teachers, that those students whose voice requires attention should be ear-marked for special training in the improvement of their particular defect and that those students with adequate voice and speech should be freed from the burden of a valueless course and should not be encouraged to develop anything in the nature of an artificial teaching voice.

b) Audio-Visual Aids.

again the criticism that can usually be made of a course in Audio-Visual aids is related not to the need for such instruction, but to the way in which the subject is presented to students.

It is well agreed that learning is facilitated if pupils are stimulated through more than one sense organ, and teachers in training should therefore be well aware of the use that can be made of films, film strips, tape-recorders and so on. The possible uses of the aids, however, vary very greatly from subject to subject and the student needs to know the detailed practical use of the aids in his particular subjects. It is therefore better to include the use of such aids in the courses on Special Methods, where the lecturer is fully aware of the material available in a particular subject and how best to use it, rather than in a separate course which often seems to be concerned with technical details about the aid which is of little importance to the student.

The overall aim of all teaching about the use of

audio-visual aids should always be the practical application to which they can be put in teaching a particular subject.

Method lecturers should treat the use of teaching aids as an integral part of their methods courses and should therefore be aware of all the most recent material produced in their particular subject. A general lecturer in audio-visual aids cannot in the nature of things be aware of such material in all fields, and students are very often left with a good deal of knowledge about the various aids themselves, but without a real incentive to use them in their own teaching.

In Australia a great use is made of radio lessons and an increasing use of television. Here again it is essential that students in training should know how to make use of such aids in particular subjects, since the success of all such aids depends entirely on proper preparation, presentation and follow-up of the lessons by the subject teacher. If this is not done the aids rapidly degenerate into entertainment and contribute little to the actual learning process.

c) Health Education.

Like so many other now traditional courses included in the Diploma in Education year, Health Education, or School Hygiene as it is still sometimes called, has commonly become an additional burden placed on students without real relevance to the teaching situation in which they will find themselves.

In Training Colleges producing students for teaching in primary schools in slum areas some thirty or forty years ago it was necessary to give great importance to matters of hygiene, infectious, contagious and deficiency diseases and so on. A great deal of this is now, fortunately, out of date, particularly in secondary school teaching and an entirely new approach to the needs of adolescents in the way of health education and services would provide an invaluable short course for teachers in training.

In particular, all teachers should be aware of the provisions of the school medical services available in their own area, including the provision of psychological services. There is, however, little need to waste valuable time with prolonged lectures on such topics, since the information is readily available in the official publications of medical and Educational Authorities. It should be sufficient to draw students attention to the importance of the services and to the existence of the publications. They should also know the proper channels of communication, normally through the Principal, in cases requiring attention which come to their knowledge.

An elementary knowledge of First Aid is clearly useful to any teacher and can readily be acquired through such organisations as the Red Cross, rather than as a University course. Students should also know what action, in addition to administering First Aid, they should take in the event of an accident to a pupil in school or on the playing field in the particular school in which they are teaching.

Most of the information required by graduate students in this field of Health Education with reference to secondary education can well be supplied in the form of printed notes and references to official publications. The material is clear and factual, requiring nothing beyond the ordinary intelligence of the student for comprehension. It is therefore undesirable that the subject be treated academically through time consuming lectures.

9. Optional Courses.

We shall consider the further development of the teacher in a later chapter on the provision of in-service training; it is, however, appropriate to this section to consider the importance for successful teaching of continued self education on the part of the teacher. It is regrettably true that the acquiring of a minimum academic qualification together with professional certification is regarded by the overwhelming number of teachers as the end of their own education. Far too many teachers then spend the next thirty or forty years without any real growing points in their own development, with progressively diminishing enthusiasm for the subjects they are teaching and without any compensating development in any other educational field.

It is therefore particularly valuable to ensure during the period of professional training and qualification that students are encouraged to continue their own educational development along some line of their own choice.

It is the writer's main thesis that such pruning of irrelevant and unsatisfactory material from the Diploma in Education course would release valuable time for two purposes :

- 1) A such more thorough practical training in the schools under more intensive supervision and
- 2) the opportunity for the student in training to continue to develop himself in the direction that holds most interest for him.

The provision of a wide range of optional courses is a step in this direction, but it is essential that such courses should be conceived, not in any narrow professional sense, but in the freest possible way since the essence of their success lies in the personal satisfaction to the student which alone will guarantee its carry-over value to later life and provide the basis on which the teacher's continued expansion will depend.

Accordingly the options available should include not only academic studies in Education such as History of Education, Sociology of Education, Comparative Education and various specialized courses in different aspects of the Psychology or Philosophy of Education for those students having interests in these directions, but also opportunities to pursue a personal interest in drama, music, art, crafts, physical education and games, librarianship, social service or indeed any subject having a broad liberal relationship to education.

Although the time available will not usually permit students in training to undertake new courses in their academic studies, nevertheless it is undesirable that students on the completion of their academic qualification should sever completely their association with the subjects in which they have been particularly interested. If, later on as teachers, they are to continue their own academic education it is useful if, during their professional training, they are not cut off completely from their earlier academic associations, but are encouraged, if their interests are in a particular direction, to

maintain contact with and undertake further directed reading in their academic specializations.

The judicious use of optional courses related to students' personal interests would help to break down the undesirable "water-tight" phases of their present development, that is to say 1) Academic education 2) Professional training 3) Teaching. Although these three phases correspond logical to the stages in their personal development, the first, Academic education should not cease abruptly when the second, Professional training is started, nor should the first and second cease when the third stage, Teaching, is begun.

The role of optional courses in the period of Professional training should therefore be borne in mind when we come to consider the students' further development during the teaching stage.

10. The Essentials.

It was indicated at the outset of this study that a major source of confusion in the organising of an appropriate first training of graduate students for the practical task of teaching in secondary schools lies in the dual purpose of the Diploma in Education still operating in many Commonwealth countries, though now largely overcome in England. That is to say, the Diploma is used both as a method of certification of qualified, professionally trained teachers, and also as the first part of the academic B. Ed. degree. In order to satisfy the requirements of the latter and maintain its standards as comparable as possible to those required for an Honours degree in other Faculties, particularly in the Faculty of Arts, it has been found necessary to include in the first or Diploma part courses of an academic nature in the study of education which fail at two points.

In the first place, because of the wide range of courses necessary in professional training, including provision for teaching practice, and the consequent limited time available, these academic courses frequently fall short of the intensity and rigour to which the students are accustomed in their academic studies in other Faculties.

Secondly, they make little or no direct and obvious contribution to the success of the student in his actual teaching, particularly during the early stages when the student is usually enthusiastically oriented towards the practical aspects of his vocation. In other words such academic courses are psychologically inappropriate to the students' needs at

this stage.

For these reasons it seems desirable to separate first professional qualifications and certification from the academic study of education as a University discipline leading to an Academic Diploma or Degree in Education.

As we are here concerned chiefly with this first professional training of Secondary School teachers, we should, in the light of what has already been said, consider the desirable components of such a Teacher's Certificate.

In general such a training should :

- 1) be directed towards the immediate and obvious needs of students in order to make the best possible psychological use of the students' new mental orientation and motivation.
- 2) be freed from an imposed burden of ill-timed, purely academic and theoretical courses.
- 3) be freed from any need to give the period of professional training an aura of "respectability" by approximating it to under-graduate courses in the Faculty of Arts or elsewhere.
- 4) be fundamentally school-oriented.

We shall discuss "teaching-practice" in the next chapter; it might however be stated here that it is the writer's view that "teaching-practice" as at present organised is totally inadequate both in time and in the nature of the supervision for the purposes of this first certification. The

thesis will be developed that the greater part of a student's first professional training should be spent in the schools and that all work done in the University should be organised entirely around the practical teaching after a very short full time period of orientation (approximately two weeks) in the University at the beginning of the course. In this way the present distinction between "theory" and "teaching practice" would disappear and the two aspects would be replaced by guided teaching experience.

In the light of this new concept of guided teaching experience, we should now consider the form this guidance should take insofar as it derives from the older concept of theoretical subjects.

It has been repeatedly pointed out that education is more than instruction and should be concerned with the "development of the total personality", "social integration" and so on. Nevertheless, subject matter teaching is the one aspect of education which schools alone of all the many educational agencies at work on the young can undertake. There is every indication that this will continue to be the case. Moreover the threat of lowering intellectual and academic standards is a major source of danger in the western world today.

In the light of these facts it is imperative that the training of secondary school teachers should in the first period of professional training be oriented around high intellectual and academic standards and the highest degree of ability in teaching subject matter.

To achieve this, professional training must be practically centred on the schools and primary importance in the "theoretical" subjects given to methods of teaching. That is to say a certain amount of General Method, concerned with common class-room practice, and intensive study and application of the "Special Methods" related to the subjects the students will actually teach. This study should include the use of audio-visual and all other aids to the effective teaching of specific subjects.

Secondly, all students should be made aware of the organisation and administration of education as it applies to them, including an insight into the practical use that can be made of the many auxillary services available - health services, library services and so on.

Thirdly, all students should know that their contribution to the life of a school is expected to go beyond class teaching. There is at the present time a most regrettable falling away from any kind of educational activity with pupils in secondary schools at the end of formal teaching. The only answer would seem to lie in the much closer integration of so-called "extra-curricula activities" into the normal school programme. From the side of teacher training such can be done by making a clear assumption that every student will be expected to choose some activity from a wide range, to give time and thought to the study of its application to school life and to be prepared to make that contribution to school life as an integral part of his job. As for the academic studies of education, Principles of Education, Psychology of

Education, History of Education, Sociology of Education, Comparative Education, a critic previously quoted has pointed out that "a little goes a long way" at this stage of preliminary professional training. There is a real place for discussion group work in which general education and psychological topics of immediate relevance can be thought out and the framework laid for the future evolution of a philosophy of education, but no attempt can profitably be made at this stage to give "respectable" academic courses of degree standard.

Finally all students should be encouraged to maintain contact with their intellectual and academic fields and to continue some reading in this direction.

These appear to the writer to form the irreducible minimum of theoretical work necessary at this stage of training, and at the same time the most that can be done if anything like adequate time is to be given to relevant experience in the schools.

Chapter 1V

Teaching Practice.

1. Present Practice
2. Relationships with School Principals and Staffs.
3. Preparation of Students for experience in the Schools.
4. The Supervisor's Task.

Chapter IV.Teaching Practice.1. Present Practice.

School practice is at present primarily under the directions of the staffs of the Training Colleges or the University Department of Education. No specific provision is made for it in the schools as regards staffing, accommodation or equipment. The work of the schools in making school practice possible is an extra task thrown upon them; they generally undertake it willingly, though arrangements can be made with difficulty and the help of the school staff receives no special recognition. School practice under present conditions has been criticised perhaps with justice, as too brief, confused in objective and somewhat artificial.

Almost universally throughout Commonwealth Universities teaching practice takes the form of :

1. A short preliminary period of two or three weeks spent in schools at the beginning of the course with little or no previous preparation.
2. A period of continuous teaching practice lasting some eight weeks during the middle period of the course.
3. Further experience of schools by occasional day practice, visits, demonstration lessons.

The first of these periods of teaching experience is used in the main as a "shock-absorber" to give students

an opportunity of overcoming early diffidence in front of a class, and to become acquainted with the atmosphere of the school. The period, however, gains in value if the students are given a short course, largely informational, before entering the school, so that they have at least in outline the main points related to class room attitude rather than groping in complete uncertainty.

The main criticism that can be directed towards the larger period of teaching practice in the middle of the year is that it is too remote in time from the students' actual assumption of teaching posts in the following year. Because of the present emphasis on the theoretical curricula and the need for a lengthy period of preparation for the end of the year examinations, teaching experience is virtually written off by the middle of the course, and fails to form, as it should, the central core of professional preparation throughout the year.

If, however, the training course can be re-oriented away from the theoretical study of education and towards guided teaching experience as the essential part of professional training, it should be possible to maintain the students in the schools throughout the whole of the year. This would require a much closer relationship between members of the University Department and the schools than exists at present, and this relationship will be the subject of separate consideration at a later stage in this chapter. The McHair Report suggests that there should be two distinguishable types of school practice and that both should, wherever possible, be required of all students in training. The first of these is that which

the Report calls Practical Training in schools. The first purpose of school practice is to provide the concrete evidence, illustrations and examples to supplement and give point to the theoretical part of the student's training, that is to say, in particular, by means of demonstration lessons and so on. The schools are his laboratory and the scene of his field studies. School practice of this character should include, as now, comparatively discontinued periods of teaching and observations in the schools, visits, minor investigations and so on. This type of practice requires variety, ease of access to schools and flexibility of organisation and it should be an integral part of the course in education. It will necessarily be maintained at local schools and, as now, primarily under the direction of the training college staff working in co-operation with the schools.

The second period of teaching practice is what the McHair Report calls Continuous Teaching Practice. It says the second purpose of school practice is to provide a situation in which the student can experience what it is to be a teacher; that is, to become as far as possible, a member of the school staff. To achieve this, he must spend a considerable time continuously in a school developing relationships between himself and his pupils and colleagues and being responsible to the headmaster for the work he undertakes. This kind of practice should be characterised by settled conditions and continuity. He should not be under the direct supervision of the staff of the training institution. It should normally be taken in a

school at some distance away or even in another training area and the staff of the school should be primarily responsible for directing and supervising it, though student's college tutors might visit him occasionally. Such an organization, goes on the McHair Report, will involve the local educational authorities and the schools in a real responsibility for training. The plan could not be successful without their wholehearted co-operation which we have every reason to believe would be given. The arrangements for placing individual students in various schools for continuous teaching practice, would probably be made by the area training authority rather than by any individual institution.

For this and among other reasons, it is important that local educational authorities should be represented on the area training authorities and take an active interest in the management of the training of teachers as a whole. The staffs of the selected schools would have to be prepared to receive and admit to their commonroom a young student in training and give him teaching duties and entrust him with responsibilities which make him a real member of the staff. The student, apart from exceptional circumstances, will be a supernumerary to the staff in the sense that the school will be fully staffed for ordinary purposes if he were not there. The danger would be that either the student would have too little to do, in which case the period would come to be regarded as a soft part of his training or that he was overburdened with work and responsibility by being treated as someone who relieved the regular staff of some of their regular duties. The accommodatio

of the school would have to be such that classes would be divided if necessary and the staff such that they welcomed the presence of a learner and put themselves out to meet his needs.

It would of course be a distinction for a school to be selected for training purposes and the new responsibility might prove to be a valuable stimulus especially to those schools which hitherto have had little contact with training. There should be one member of the staff, not necessarily the headmaster, entrusted with special responsibility for supervising the students' work during the time of their apprenticeship. A person other than the headmaster who holds this post of tutor or supervisor, should be regarded as holding a post of special responsibility and be remunerated accordingly. The McHair Report goes on to say : "This scheme for giving teachers in the school some direct responsibility for the training of students is one of the two ways in which they intend to express the principle that in teaching, as in other professions, it should be a privilege and responsibility for outstanding practitioners to take a definite and not a merely incidental and casual share in training their successors."

2. Relationships with School Principals and Staffs.

Although it is clear that the success of teaching practice, and therefore of teacher training as a whole, depends on intimate co-operation between the University Department of Education and the School Principals and Staffs, we find an extremely wide range of liaison in different University Departments. In some cases, students are virtually sent into schools without the Principal being aware of what is expected of him, and he is left to encourage or neglect the students as he sees fit. In other cases, a short letter setting out the main principles of teaching practice requirements may be sent to the Headmaster, as for example the following:-

(a) My dear Headmaster,

I am writing to ask if you will be able next term to receive one of our students for teaching practice. Since we have some 200 students each year doing this, I hope you will not mind a duplicated letter. The Department is very grateful for the help which schools are giving to students who come to them for practice teaching. At the same time, we hope that the students are often able to give useful service, especially in a term when illness is apt to cause gaps in the Common Room. In any case, since they are the recruits who will be coming to you, it is in our joint interest that they should get as much value as possible out of their teaching term, and they can only do this if the school and the Department are working together and are fully aware of each other's views

and intentions. May I therefore ask your co-operation on the following basis :

1. The period of practice is a complete school term, but we may sometimes have to ask that a student should leave a few days early in order to join an educational tour of some foreign country.
2. We expect the student to remain in the school during all the regular school hours on exactly the same terms as a regular member of the staff.
3. The student should be under the care and supervision of an experienced member of the staff who will act as his supervisor. If you would be kind enough to let me know the supervisor's name, I will ask the tutor from the Department who is responsible for the student to get in touch with him direct before the Lent term begins.
4. Approximately half the school hours should be spent in regular observation or teaching in the classroom. The remainder will normally be needed by the student for preparation of lessons, marking, and private study.
5. The student normally starts by observing lessons given by members of the school staff, and as soon as seems suitable gives some lessons himself. It is generally found possible to let the lessons taught rise to a fair number weekly, but the actual

number naturally varies with circumstances and student's ability. As the student grows in competence he may teach increasingly without supervision and take over a regular part of the time-table.

6. In their own interests students are expected to take part in the general life of the school and to make themselves useful in any way they can. They are sometimes diffident of putting themselves forward and Heads can help by finding them jobs to do. They should of course help out in any emergency.
7. Heads are often kind enough to arrange for the student to visit other schools of various types in the neighbourhood, and this is of value to the students and much appreciated by the Department.

If you can accept the student, a member of the tutorial staff of this Department will visit the school by arrangement with you to assess the student's teaching and discuss his work with you or with other members of the staff. This normally happens during the second half of term when the student has found his feet. If for any reason you feel in the first weeks that things are not going too well, it is most valuable if you will let us know at once so that an additional early visit for advice and consultation can be fitted in before the student is assessed. Details of the student we should propose to send are given below.

Yours sincerely,

Name of student:

School and College:

Degree:

Subjects in which he wishes to have
practical experience of teaching:

Main:

Subsidiary:

Games and other interests:

(b) Suggested Points for Guidance of Head Teachers and Teachers in arranging Teaching Practice for Graduate Students.

The Faculty of Education would like to thank you for your willingness to receive our students for the purpose of teaching practice in the next few weeks. In the accompanying letter, I have set out a list of those students who have been allocated to your school and the dates on which they are expected to attend. During their time with you, they should be considered members of your teaching staff for all practical purposes. The first half-day's visit is intended to give the students an opportunity of discussing with the class teacher and if you wish with you, the schemes of work which they will be following during term. This first half-day should also allow some time for observation in the forms and with the teacher or teachers with whom the student is to work during his period of teaching practice.

We should be grateful if after this initial period of observation, the students could be allowed to teach for two or three periods at least each day they are in the school. During some of the periods when they are not teaching, we hope you will be able to give them facilities to observe the teachers or to work with small groups of children who need special help.

Students are expected to teach the subjects listed against his or her name on the accompanying letter if this can be arranged. The major subject should be taught most regularly and to the highest class available in your school.

We should like students to have increasingly frequent opportunities of being alone with their classes if this is convenient to you.

The Faculty would value all the guidance which the school cares to give the students during their period of practice and would appreciate a general report on their teaching at the end of the time. A prepared form will be forwarded later. Faculty lecturers will keep in close touch with students and will also be responsible for the general supervision of their notes of lessons.

Your co-operation in these arrangements is very much appreciated.

The Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta issues the following to all teachers in schools who will have students in their care during teaching practice :

SUGGESTIONS TO SUPERVISING TEACHERS.

The supervising teacher is the key individual in the student teaching program. His influence and guidance will largely determine the success or failure of the undertaking. Through his teaching, conduct and attitude he influences the thinking and doing of the students. The following suggestions are offered as a guide.

1. Regard the student as an assistant or junior who is equally interested in the welfare of the school and the individual pupils, but who may be handicapped because of lack of experience.
2. Make suitable adjustments in the program to meet individual needs of student teachers. Gradual induction into class performance is a problem calling for the exercise of careful judgment.
3. Provide such help in lesson planning as may seem necessary to assure success. Make sure the student teacher understands his assignments and know something of the background of the class.
4. Check lesson plans prior to the teaching of a lesson. Unless there is evidence of adequate student planning the demonstration teacher, for the protection of his pupils, may take over the class.

5. Teach several lessons for the student teacher to observe, preferably before assigning lessons for the student to teach, thereby provide an opportunity for reviewing theory and seeing different techniques of teaching and learning such as :
 - (a) Group planning
 - (b) Committee work
 - (c) Question and answer methods of class recitation
 - (d) Discussions
 - (e) Appreciation lessons
 - (f) activity lessons (physical education music, etc.)
 - (g) Drill lessons
 - (h) Continuous evaluation and testing.
6. Provide an opportunity for a conference after a student observes or teaches a lesson. Students like to know how well they are doing.
7. Assign lessons to student teachers far enough in advance to allow adequate preparation. The making of assignment at least two days in advance is recommended.
8. Plan the student teaching in your room so that it will be profitable and enjoyable to yourself, the student teacher and the pupils.

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION - McDONALD COLLEGE
ASSISTING TEACHER'S REPORT.

Section : _____

Student Teacher _____ Assisting Teacher _____

Attendance : absent: _____ School: _____ Grade: _____

Punctuality: _____ Date: _____

The Assisting Teacher is asked to complete this form basing opinions on the work of the student during the two-week period (not on individual or daily lessons.) This report should be returned by mail or by Macdonald Supervisor on the last day of Practice Teaching or early the following week if possible.

Lessons Taught by Student Teacher.

	<u>Monday</u>	<u>Tuesday</u>	<u>Wednesday</u>	<u>Thursday</u>	<u>Friday</u>
1.	_____				
2.	_____				
3.	_____				
4.	_____				
5.	_____				
6.	_____				
7.	_____				
8.	_____				

For a second week please use the lower half of each space with different colour of ink or pencil.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSSCHOOL DUTIES: Student did the following duties:SCHOOL ACTIVITIES: Student took part in following activities:REMARKS ON INTEREST SHOWN IN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY:GENERAL REMARKS: _____PRINCIPAL'S REMARKS: _____

Check the remark which seems the more appropriate to the student.
If it needs qualifying, do so in space for remarks.

1. PREPARATION AND PLANNING.PREPARATION

Subject matter	studies the lesson knows the material	<u> </u> <u> </u> <u> </u>	Makes errors Or is vague
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LESSON PLANS

In general	Well prepared	<u> </u>	Poorly prepared
Promptness	Submitted in advance	<u> </u>	Tardy
English	Good	<u> </u>	Faulty
Aids	Precisely stated	<u> </u>	Vaguely stated
Imagination	Conceives variety	<u> </u>	Stereotyped
Phases	Plans for changes	<u> </u>	Sameness
Pupil activity	Plans ways for pupil to learn by doing	<u> </u>	Too much teacher activity
Individual differences	Plans for bright pupil Plans for weak pupil	<u> </u>	Not planned in advance
Pivotal ques- tions	Written in advance	<u> </u>	Ignored
Audio-visual aids	Varied yet effec- tive	<u> </u>	Inappropriate or lacking
Blackboard work	Planned in advance	<u> </u>	Not planned

Remarks qualifying the above _____

CLASS MANAGEMENT

		A	B	C	D	F	
Rapport	Learned names quickly	_____					Slow in learning names
	Takes pupils the right way	_____					Rubs pupils the wrong way
	Friendly with due reserve	_____					Friendly but familiar
Leadership	Takes initiative with confidence	_____					Carries on without leading
Discipline:	Maintained by interest	_____					Enforced
Type:							
Success:	Has control of class	_____					Control weak or lacking
Accomplish- ment	Gets the work done	_____					Unsatisfactory
Child Develop- ment:	Interested in each child	_____					Treats class en masse

Remarks qualifying the above _____

111.

PERSONALITY

		A	B	C	D	F
Animation	Is enthusiastic without being over exciting Is cheerful	_____				Lacks life Is glum
Maturity	Keeps calm	_____				easily upset
Initiative	Sees work to be done and offers to do it	_____				Waits to be given work
Industry	A hard worker	_____				"Gets by"
Co-operation	Willing	_____				Unwilling or timid
Attitude to criticism	Opportunity to learn	_____				Defensive
Congeniality	Works well with other teachers	_____				Reserved or offending

Remarks qualifying the above _____

The suggestions may or may not be passed on to the teachers with whom the students will be most closely associated. It should be the duty of the University Department Supervisors to maintain such close liaison with the schools as will ensure that this is done.

3. Preparation of Students for experience in Schools.

It is important that before the student starts his teaching practice, he should have at any rate in outline, a certain knowledge of the basic requirements of a teacher. His attention should be drawn in particular to the following important aspects of his task:

- a) Voice - the main tool of his trade; loud enough to be heard; clear, good enunciation, but not pedantically stilted; speed; deliberation when necessary; the use of the pause; variety and contrast; colour and emphasis.
- b) Language - choice of words, avoidance of slang; grammatically correct, but not pedantic; la mot juste; speech injected with personality.
- c) General Bearing - general appearance; posture, facial expression; position in room; ease and confidence of movement; looking at the class; avoidance of impersonal delivery of information; "contact" with class; spread of looking; approach to blackboard; gestures; avoidance of mannerisms.
- d) Adequacy of lesson preparation - importance of sure knowledge of subject; variety of presentation; advance preparation of material and aids; the preparation of lesson notes - in

this connection the student needs to be supplied with somewhat detailed information such as the following :

Diploma in Education Course : Suggestions concerning Lessons and Lesson Notes.

1. Your school practice note book should be a record of your teaching and observation in the school and it should be handed to the class teacher at the beginning of a lesson. It should contain your teaching timetable, the notes of your lessons, and records of general observation, together with any helpful information about the nature of the class to be taught.
2. Students should aim at teaching two lessons during each half day practice, and not less than three lessons per day during the continuous practice period. Full notes should be prepared for one lesson in each case and outline notes only for the remaining lessons. Students should spend some time each week in definitely allocated observation.
3. Notes should be systematically arranged so that each lesson can be readily connected with the course to which it belongs. Use only the right-hand pages of the book for the lesson notes. Notes of lessons should be arranged for each day in the order in which the lessons are to be given.
4. The left-hand page of the note book should be reserved

for actual teaching material (as distinct from method) such as a history summary, a sketch map or examples in mathematics, comments by supervisors, records by the student of the response of the children and critical accounts of teaching experiences. Students own comments on observation lessons will be found helpful when preparing a similar lesson.

5. Except for project work, each lesson should normally be set out according to the following scheme :

Date: Time of Day: From: Till:
 Form: Age: Girls, Boys, Mixed:
 Subject: Particular Aim:
 Books, apparatus and illustrations to have ready:
 Outline of Blackboard Preparation (if to be prepared prior to lesson): Brief summary of subject-matter:
 Method of procedure - arranged in sections showing at each stage what is expected of the children or the teacher.

6. The body of the notes should indicate :-

- (1) how the lesson is to be linked with a previous lesson or with the pupils' background of knowledge,
- (2) how the new material (unless the lesson is simply a practice or revision lesson) is to be introduced;
- (3) the development of the lesson step by step, outlining if necessary, the stages to be reached during the course of the lesson. The notes should clearly reveal procedure indicating not only what the teacher is preparing to do but what the pupils will be expected

to do;

- (4) how the material taught is to be applied, or how it is to be revised. Set out briefly the nature of the blackboard summary, the notes or the exercises.

Notes should not be long blocks of subject matter but an outline of procedure and development; subject matter should be introduced into the body of your notes only to explain your technique and the development of the lesson (you may, of course, put an outline of any subject matter you require on the left-hand page).

7. When it is proposed to set the children exercises (including those from a text-book) a few examples of these exercises should be given in the notes on the left-hand side of the page.
8. Students should give attention to neatness, spelling and grammar when writing their notes.
9. Notes are intended to help students to achieve clearness, definiteness and fullness in their teaching. They should provide evidence of careful and thoughtful preparation, and they should serve as a programme of events, but they should not be allowed to impose rigidity or to discourage spontaneity.

LESSON PLANNING

1. Careful planning is essential for successful teaching.
2. A good lesson plan should be sufficiently flexible that the lesson procedure may be adapted to specific situations as they arise.
3. The following outline will serve as a guide for adequately planned lessons:
 - (a) Subject of lesson.
 - (b) Today's assignment - (How is it related to what has gone before?)
 - (c) Objective: (State what you expect the children to learn in this lesson.)
 - (d) Preparation: (pictures, lines on blackboard, etc.)
 - (e) Introduction: Linking the new work with previous work; purpose clarified; interest aroused; problem recognized and defined.
 - (f) Presentation of lesson.

Subject Matter -

What you plan to teach

Make such headings or notes as may be necessary to show the material to be covered. Summary outlines are usually sufficient.

Method -

How you plan to teach it.

In this column tell in what manner you expect to bring out or develop the content, or how you are going to get the pupils to react to it. Place this opposite the appropriate part of the content. Be Specific! The inclusion

of sample statements or questions is usually necessary. Indicate how you propose to assign, supervise, and correct practice exercises.

Conclusion or Summary - Tell here what you intend to do to :

1. Tie the lesson together.
2. Summarize its main points.
3. Apply it to life situation, or
4. Show recognition of progress - evaluate,

Assignment - (If necessary)

Note: Sample plans appear on the following pages.

Note: In the student's plan book, lesson plans should be written on the LEFT HAND pages only. Demonstration teachers and staff consultants will make their running comments on the right-hand page. The plans should be complete enough to show the development of the lesson and to reflect the extent of pre-development of the lesson and to reflect the extent of preparation made.

LESSON OBSERVATION

Hints for Guidance of Supervising Teachers and Student Teachers.

1. It would seem desirable that the first day be spent in observing, although many will be able to assist in some of the routine activities such as are suggested under "Participation". (Page 15.)

2. The process of observing must be active rather than passive. The student who relies upon watching and listening only is likely to become bored in a very short time. On the other hand the student should not be kept so busy performing routine tasks that he has no time to observe the teacher in action and to study the pupils' reaction.
3. Wherever possible the student should know what has gone before, what is to be accomplished now, and how the results are to be measured. When texts are used the student teacher should have a copy to enable him to follow the development of the lesson. Such procedure will be particularly helpful where the teacher assigns a similar lesson for the following day, and in the case of written observations.
4. Supervising teachers can assist student teachers by directing their attention to such matters as:
 - (a) Objective: What is the aim of the lesson?
 - (b) Content.
 - (c) Various teaching techniques.
 - (d) Various teaching aids.
 - (e) Methods of evaluation.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR WHEN OBSERVING A LESSON

(This form should be used for all
subjects)

School _____

Date _____ Grade _____

1. Subject _____

2. (a) Topic of lesson _____

(b) Type of lesson _____
(Introductory, new material, review, drill, testing.)

(c) Objective of lesson _____

(d) Procedure _____
(Direct, socialised, discussion)

3. Lesson procedure.

Teacher Activity

Pupil Activity

(a) INTRODUCTION: In this include introductory statements or questions. e.g. (a) Oral answers to questions.

(b) BODY OF LESSON: Instructions given by teacher and material used. (b) questions asked by pupils.

(c) EVALUATION: Methods used by teacher e.g. observation of pupils as they worked. (c) Activities in which pupils engage. Were pupils provided with materials and if so, how did they use them?

4. Comments.

Comments on the lesson including any particularly interesting features of the lesson.

- e) Class Management -
discipline as a personal equation; - talking in class; flexibility; value of enthusiasm and personal interest; dramatisation; hist difference between teacher and text-book; sense of humour.
- f) Class Participation -
teaching and lecturing; oral questioning methods; choral work; distribution of work;
- g) Use of Blackboard -
visual aids generally; regarded as part of preparation; writing and drawing;
- h) Other aspects of teaching -
duties of Form-Master; Registers, Mark lists; Class and Home-work; Time-Tables; Examinations; Reports; Extra-curricular activities; Requisitions. Records of work, vocational guidance; classification and promotion of pupils; library; classroom decoration; Relations with pupils and staff; professionalism.

A brief course dealing with these essentials seems most necessary, although such can be done by supplying each student with notes such as the following:

(a) SHEFFIELD UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Teaching Practice Notes of
Students.

The purpose of the first period of practice is to afford opportunity for observation of experienced teachers at work, for practice in actual teaching and for studying the work and organisation of the school as a whole. The practice is not intended to be spent observing and teaching specialist subjects only.

The student in school.

During the period of practice the student will, as far as possible be treated as a member of the school staff, and will be expected to conform to the regulations and customs of the school (and of its staff-room) and to share in routine duties and supervision. Students should not forget that they owe courtesy and consideration to the school whose guests they are. They should assist with general school activities and take an interest in all aspects of the school's life and work.

Attendance.

Students are required to be at school each day for the whole of the school day, including assembly, unless otherwise directed by the head teacher. Permission to be absent must be obtained from the head teacher and from the supervisor. In cases of unforeseen and unavoidable absence the head teacher and the Education Department Office must be informed as soon as possible.

Distribution of time.

Students will start by observing all lessons and by the end of the practice will probably be teaching about half their time. How quickly they work up to this amount of teaching will depend on the school. Time not occupied by teaching should be used for observation, marking or preparation of lessons.

School Discipline.

Students should seek to secure good discipline by (a) good teaching - which interests the children and (b) efficient classroom administration - which prevents opportunities for disorder. Hence students should note and employ the procedures adopted for such routine matters as giving out books, etc. Occasion for the use of some form of punishment may, however, arise and students must, at the beginning of their practice, ascertain exactly what powers of punishment are at their disposal in that particular school. Under no circumstances whatever must any form of corporal punishment be administered by a student.

Notebooks - General.

A full record of teaching practice must be kept, and must be available at any time for inspection by the head teacher and by the staff of the school as well as by supervisors. It should be preserved throughout the session.

Notes on lessons taught.

All lessons taught must be prepared and written up beforehand, preferably a clear day ahead. For the student the systematic making of notes is a means of ensuring the thorough preparation of lessons and of compiling a useful record of methods, observations and comments. For the supervisors the notebook is a valuable guide to the quality of a student's preparation and to the relation of one lesson to another in a series.

It is not possible to lay down one rigid pattern of notes applicable to all lessons. It is a good plan to keep notes of method, with as much subject matter as is necessary, under a heading giving the date, class and time, on the right hand page while the left hand page is reserved for subsequent comment on the lesson.

All lessons must have a specific Aim and all lessons need a reference to previous knowledge to which the teaching must obviously be linked. All lessons have some Introduction either general or involving recall of previous work. Other headings will have been suggested and should be used appropriately.

The following points indicate the main lines on which lesson preparation must be thought out.

- (a) The preparation of a lesson involves more than a knowledge of the subject matter.

- (b) Notes
are inadequate unless they describe the orderly development of the lesson in some detail, including, for example, key questions to be asked; the use to be made of text books, the blackboard, and other visual aids; the planning of the pupils' practical and written work.
- (c) It is an essential procedure, without which the work loses precision and vigour, to define the precise aim and purpose of the lesson as distinct from its subject and title, and as distinct from the general aim of teaching the subject as a whole.
- (d) The pupils' activities and opportunities for co-operation should be planned and indicated in the notes in such a way as to be easily distinguishable from the teacher's part in the lesson.
- (e) The work accomplished should be summarised (preferably by the pupils or, at least with their co-operation) at convenient intervals or at the end of a lesson. The lines of such summarising should be indicated in the notes.
- (f) The blackboard is used for some purpose in most lessons. For some lessons blackboard work prepared before hand is valuable. Students should pay particular attention to thinking about ways in which blackboard work can help their teaching. Nearly all of them will need to practice in their spare time in order to acquire reasonable

proficiency in writing and drawing diagrams, etc. on the board.

- (g) Lessons should be prepared for enough in advance to give time for the collection of the necessary materials and illustrations.
- (h) As soon as convenient an opportunity should be taken to review the success, or otherwise, of such lesson taught. Points to be considered include the extent to which the stated aims were achieved with all the children the suitability of the aims, introduction, questions and vocabulary; the use of the voice and the response of the class, and the modification, which would be introduced if the lesson were to be repeated with a similar set of children. Some such review of the lesson should be written under the heading "Comments" on the left hand pages of your school practice note-book.

Notes on lessons observed

Two copies of students' time-tables on the printed forms should be handed in the office by 10 o'clock on Saturday mornings for the following week. Much time is wasted by supervisors if time-tables are not handed in promptly. For the same reason all alterations must be notified to the office. Time-tables should clearly show the name of school and of student; time of lessons; subject and class for each lesson, and whether observed (marked O) or taught (T); kind of lesson, e.g. oral, written, practical; room in which lesson takes place indicating if in a building other than the main school.

Time-table alterations should be notified immediately to the Education Department Office unless a Supervisor requests otherwise.

(b) UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

Education Department.

Instructions and suggestions to students on School Practice.

1. General advice.

The period spent in schools presents opportunities of various kinds. To get the best value from "School Practice" be on the alert at all times to enlarge your knowledge and experience of all aspects of education, not only through actual teaching, but in every way that presents itself. These opportunities fall under three headings:-

- (a) General observation: Learn all you can about the way in which the school is planned and run - with special consideration of local and temporary difficulties and problems. Note the government and organisation, the buildings, the games, the societies. Note how these features differ from those of your own school and others. Try to evaluate such things in an enquiring, not dogmatic spirit.
- (b) Observation of lessons (given by others): Here make your observations active not passive. Attend to what is said and done with questions in your mind. Be critical (in the true sense of that term). Evaluate in a learning and judicial mood. Watch the pupils in their responses and how they contribute to the lesson. Consider the choice of material and the

methods and devices used. Note in your book the essential of each lesson thus observed with any special features that arise.

- (c) Your own teaching: Do not aim at merely "giving a lesson" or "taking a lesson" however satisfactorily. Gather the experience that will help you in the future to plan a series of lessons on a topic, to prepare, arrange and illustrate a particular lesson, and to link it up with other parts of the technique. Try out different ways of questioning, demonstrating, explaining, using text books, planning practical work, setting homework, conducting tests.

2. The School Practice Record Book.

- (a) You should provide yourself with a stout notebook in which to record observations and set out the notes made in preparation for each lesson. This notebook should be kept-up-to-date and must be available at all times for the inspection of the University Tutors, the Head Teacher or teacher in charge and Her Majesty's Inspectors.
- (b) This book should give on its first two or three pages a record of relevant facts about yourself - previous school or schools, degree, subjects, interests, etcetera and also some observations about the life and work of the school.
- (c) One part of the book should be devoted to notes of

lessons observed, made during the lesson and after reflection and discussion.

(d) Prepared lesson notes made in advance of each lesson to be given by yourself should be arranged in your notebook as follows:-

- (i) To date, time, duration of the lesson, the form, the age range of the pupils.
- (ii) The exact subject of the lesson.
- (iii) Your precise and concrete aim in this lesson.
- (iv) The sequence of the lesson. Indicate clearly how you intend to proceed, what apparatus you will use, what material (documents, textbooks, etcetera) what blackboard summary you will build up. Tabulate your notes as far as possible so that the stages and progress of the lesson may be clear in your own mind and in the mind of anyone assessing your work. No rigid pattern can be laid down since each lesson has its own peculiar characteristics. Do not write an essay on the subject matter. Do not record in monologue what you intend to say. Give examples of types of questions you will use : give perhaps a sequence of questions occasionally if they are to lead to a specific point. Do

not, of course, record every question you propose to ask : this would be over-preparing to the extent of denying flexibility to your lesson.

(v) "Follow up" such as homework, proposals for further activity or a cue for proceeding to the next lesson.

(vi) A critical afternote. Leave a space for an appraisal of your lesson after you have given it. Was it a success? Could it have been improved? If so, how?

3. Visits by Tutors.

You are asked to complete the time-table form handed to you with these instructions and to send it to Miss Forbe as soon as possible. Tutors from the department will call and see you from time to time to give help and advice. They have a heavy programme of visits and you should warn them in good time of any changes in your teaching programme so that their time will not be wasted. Do not on any account hesitate to approach your tutor in case of difficulty of any sort that you are unable to deal with alone.

4. Reading and further studies.

It is of course of the greatest importance that you should consolidate and extend your studies in the history and theory of education during this term of practice and make good progress in collecting material, both from reading

and from observation, for the three essays that you are required to hand in punctually on the dates stated. You should require a good understanding of the main contemporary educational controversies, and these you will find discussed in the contemporary educational press. Your attention is drawn particularly to the following topics:-

- (a) The examination for the General Certificate of Education. What arrangements in regard to this examination are being made for different types of boy and girl in the grammar school and the secondary school.
- (b) Specialisation and general education in grammar schools and secondary modern schools.
- (c) The comprehensive secondary school. Are experiments along this line desirable? What are the arguments for and against?
- (d) Modern tendencies in the development of secondary modern schools.
- (e) The sciences, technology and the humanities in present day comprehensive education (not necessarily comprehensive schools.)
- (f) Co-education. Is this desirable? For what age groups?
- (g) Boarding schools. For what children is a Boarding

school education and desirable or necessary?

To what extent should the State provide boarding education? What problems now face the old established Boarding schools?

- (h) Teaching methods. To what extent have changes in teaching method developed in this century, what theoretical arguments and practical evidence support their use?
- (i) Teaching aids. Are audio-visual aids sufficiently employed? What practical problems are associated with their use?
- (j) Teaching techniques. Consider specially such matters as questioning, corrections, setting examination papers, marking.
- (k) The curriculum. How far is the curriculum related to the needs of the children of various ages and abilities? What modifications, if any, would you propose?
- (l) Discipline and school government. How does this work in your school? What system of rewards and punishments obtain? Are they just? Do they work?
- (m) School societies. How are they organised? What part do they play in the life of the school? What value do you attach to them?

A final word.

Be as cheerful and co-operative as you can in school. You are in a very real sense an ambassador of the University. The happiness of students in the schools in future years depends very largely on the impression you make.

(c) University of Manchester Department of Education

Graduate Certificate in Education

SUGGESTIONS ON PRELIMINARY SCHOOL PRACTICE

Read carefully the following suggestions. Discuss them with your tutor and the head of the school in which you will be practising. It should be clearly understood that the extent to which the suggestions made below can be carried out is a matter for the decision of the head.

Time-Table.

You are advised to visit the school, if possible, before your period of practice begins, in order to arrange your time-table with the headmaster or headmistress.

If it can be arranged you should be attached to one class for a considerable portion of the time, but see something also of other classes. It is useful to see all the work of one class in one main subject of its curriculum, e.g. English, arithmetic, in order to observe the relation of individual lessons to what comes before and after.

Your time-table should include lessons in a variety of subjects, and where possible, those in which you are particularly interested. Try also to see something of the pupils outside the classroom, e.g. in the playground, at games, at individual work.

Most of your time will be spent in two ways - observing and teaching. It is a good plan to spend the first two

days or so observing, and then to begin teaching. A good average amount of teaching in a secondary school is two periods a day for the first week and three periods a day after that. In an infant or junior school you may be able to help groups of children with reading or arithmetic at any time, and to give a lesson in another subject to the whole class once a day. In a nursery school you should be able to spend the greater part of the day in observation and help.

Observation

Here are some suggestions about observations you can make.

- (1) Observe the pupils. Note the number in the class, their average age, and the range of their ages. What do they actually do? For example, they listen, answer questions, do practical work, write, draw, act, etc. Compare the degree of attention the children pay to different activities, e.g. to stories, reasoning, demonstration, practical work. Compare the degree of attention paid to different activities by children of different ages and different levels of ability, e.g. dull, average, bright.

Observe one child particularly during a whole lesson, or during a whole day, including time in the playground, etc. Try to study in this way a normal child, a dull child, a naughty child. Note his age, and ask his teacher what is his intelligence quotient, if it is known.

- (2) Note what the teacher actually does, e.g. he narrates, describes, develops an argument, asks questions, reads to the class, writes and draws on the blackboard, demonstrates etc.
- (3) Observe the school as a society. How is it organised, e.g. in classes, houses, with a prefect or monitorial system? What are its rules? How are they enforced? What rewards (including praise) and punishments (including reproof) are used? How effective do they seem to be?

Consider the school buildings, equipment and grounds from the point of view of the health and convenience of the pupils and the staff.

Ask if you may see the time-table of the school as a whole, and also the syllabuses of work for any subjects in which you are specially interested.

Learn what you can about the homes and neighbourhood in which the children live.

Write notes on what you observe, with any conclusions you draw.

Teaching

Make fairly full notes in preparation for one lesson each day and notes, which may be briefer, for all other lessons.

In preparing your notes for lessons pay particular attention to the following points:

- (a) Your aim: What are you trying to do, and why?
- (b) What are the children going to do during the lesson?

after each lesson you teach write a short commentary on it.

ask the staff of the school for help and criticism in connection with your lesson notes and the lessons themselves.

Books you may find useful are Barnard, H.C. "An Introduction to Teaching" (University of London Press, 1952, 9/6); Green and Birchenough, "A Primer of Teaching Practice" (Longmans, Green & Co. 4/6); Hamilton, E.R., "The Teacher on the Threshold" (University of London Press, 1945, 6/-).

Note-book

Bring your note-book containing your time-table, your notes on what you have observed and your lesson notes to the University at the beginning of the Michaelmas term, and be prepared to discuss them. The note-book should be handed to your tutor.

(d) OBSERVATION OF CHILDREN IN AND OUT OF SCHOOL AND
PRELIMINARY TEACHING PRACTICE.

CHILDREN IN AND OUT OF SCHOOL.

It will help you in your teaching practice, your observation visits, and in your approach to the theoretical studies of the autumn term if during the vacation you turn your mind to thinking about children as individuals.

You may learn much by looking back over your own childhood and by noting the behaviour of any children with whom you come in daily contact. Visit a children's library and find out what books are popular with different age groups. Look at children's programmes on television, and listen to 'Children's Hour' on the radio.

Much may be learnt from studying the periodicals that children enjoy. You might obtain copies of the weekly papers, Robin, Swift, Eagle and Girl, and try to discover what it is that makes each one appropriate for a particular group of children. (Robin is meant for children between 4 and 7, Swift for those between 7 and 10, Eagle for boys from about 10 years of age, and Girl for girls of about the same age).

As a further stimulus to thinking about children it is suggested that during the vacation you should include some of the following books in your reading. You will have an opportunity to discuss this vacation reading at tutorial meetings early in the term.

Henry Williamson:	The Beautiful Years.
" "	Dandelion Days.
Joyce Cary:	Charlie is my Darling.
" "	a House of Children.
Carson McCullers:	The Member of the Wedding.
" "	The Heart is a lonely Hunter.
L.P. Hartley:	The Shrimp and the Anemone.
"	The Go-Between.
Richard Hughes:	A High Wind in Jamaica.
Mark Twain:	Tom Sawyer: Huckleberry Fin.
William Golding:	Lord of the Flies.
Betty Smith:	The Tree in the Yard.
Ivy Compton-Burnett:	Two Worlds and their Ways.
Richard Church:	Over the Bridge.
Edward Blishen:	Roaring Boys.
D. Ashton Warner:	Spinster.
Keith Waterhouse:	There is a Happy Land.

It is also important that you should understand enough about English Education to see where each kind of school fits in and also something of the general principles on which the system is based.

For this purpose it is suggested that you should read:-

- British Education: H.C. Dent (Longmans, Green 2/-)
 A Guide to the Educational System of England & Wales:
 (H.M.S.O. 1/9)
 The Art of Teaching: Gilbert Highet. (Methuen. 12/6)

Teaching Practice

When you first go to the school you will be concerned to find your way about, to get to know members of staff and to watch teachers and children in lessons. It will be the beginning of the school year; the routine may not be the usual one and there may be opportunities for you to help with the day-to-day organisation and administration even if some time passes before you talk to a group or teach a class. This is an important part of school life. You will learn something of a teacher's responsibilities from inside the staffroom.

When you go into a classroom you will want to watch the teacher, as it is his/her job you will take over. But it is the class which you are to teach; the children whose education you are to study. These notes are to help you during your time in school and to prepare you for the first term in the Department. They consist of:-

1. Instructions to be carried out by all students.
2. Suggestions for the observation of children and lessons and ways of recording observation. This material is used during the first stages of your work in the Department.

Instructions

- (1) Time-table. When you have arranged your time-table and had it given to you, send a copy to the Department on the official form. Indicate clearly:-

- 1) exact times of lessons
 - 2) subject: room number
 - 3) whether you teach or observe.
- 2) Leave of absence. You should not ask for leave of absence except for serious reasons. If you are unwell, the school must be told. Conditions which apply to regular members of staff should be observed by you. They are mostly accepted courtesies.
- 3) Notebooks. Divide a notebook into parts for:
- 1) Diary
 - 2) Notes of lesson preparation and comment
 - 3) Lesson observation
 - 4) Special observation of children.

Diary. Is a record and summary of the number and kind of lessons you have taught and observed. This summary will be required as an official form at the end of the practice.

Lesson Notes: These notes are your preparation for the lesson, the working out of the plan and the subsequent record of modifications and your opinion of what happened. Prepare the material before you give the lesson and as soon as possible afterwards record any change of plan and make any comment.

When you take an 'emergency' lesson, and you should expect to do so, record what happened.

Observation Notes. These form the most useful part of the

preliminary practice because students learn most from watching the relationships between experienced teachers and their classes and from their selection and presentation of material. The field of observation includes:-

- the school organisation
- the relationship of teacher and class
- the prevalent attitude to authority
- the subject matter
- the teaching method.

As your time will be given more to observation than to teaching the suggestions which follow on pp. 3-4 are made to help you to select relevant details. Exact notes must be kept, but these should be clear rather than prolific.

Special observation of children. The conditions governing these observations should be carefully noted. Student-teachers, aware of their own lack of experience, are often over-critical of older members of staff and the observations made are sometimes personal reflections of a purely negative kind. The Department does not want a series of personal criticisms; it is better to record a discussion of a lesson with a class teacher.

In observing children you must be unobtrusive and indirect in your approach. Direct inquiry into home circumstances and obtrusive questioning of children are undesirable. It is better to get to know them through some activity in which you are both engaged.

In recording lesson material you should try to

assess what the children have grasped and what their reaction was as well as noting the teacher's method of presentation.

4. Visits to other schools. Headmasters and Headmistresses will be asked to release you each week so that you can pay a morning visit to a Nursery School (or Nursery class in an Infants' school), a morning visit to an Infants' School and spend a whole day in a Junior School. Make notes about these visits in your observation note book. You will have an opportunity to discuss them at tutorial meetings early in the term.

Try to find out something about the following:

- 1) The purpose of the school in relation to the age-group for which it caters.
- 2) The buildings and their effect on the organisation and life of the school.
- 3) The programme of work - the kind of work done.
- 4) Relationships between teachers and pupils.

If you can manage it, talk to both teachers and pupils about their work.

e) SUGGESTIONS for observation of children during preliminary teaching practice.

In your teaching practice it is best, if school arrangements make it possible, for you to be attached for most of the time to one class. Even so, it is impossible for you to get to know well all the children in the class in three weeks. It is suggested, therefore, that in consultation with the class teacher you should choose three pupils to observe more closely. These three children may well be those who have caught your eye during the first five days. It may be useful for you to make notes on what you have seen before asking the head or the class teacher to supply information from school records.

The following headings and questions suggest some aspects of children's behaviour which are worth observing and describing as accurately as you can.

Individuality expressed in appearance and movement.

Body build	Is this child (boy or girl as appropriate) muscular, scrawny, plump, tall shapeless.....?
Movement and posture	Does he trot, stoop, stride, skip, relax, fidget.....? In class, does he remain very still, doodle while being attentive, suddenly perk up, and if so, why.....?

Attitude to own appearance and possessions

Does he have hair which is styled, well-brushed, dirty, full of brillian-tine? Does he have torn elbows, clean shoes, spots, scars, a row of fountain pens.....?

Special abilities or lack of them

Is the child a tap dancer, centre forward, marbles champion, non-swimmer, chronic avoider of games.....?

Individuality expressed in relationships with others.

Friends

Does he play on his own, with two or three of his own age, with an older clique, with younger children, generally with someone different.....? With another child - is he naive, big-brotherly, scolding, ignoring, supporting, factual, smothering.....?

Status in the group

How do other children treat him? Do they coax, bribe, hit, persuade, come for advice, tell tales on, follow everywhere.....?

With adults

Is he confidential, cautious, angry, sturdy, practical, doubtful.....? Does he get on with most adults, only a few, both sexes, those he knows well, those he doesn't know well.....? How does he react when adults are sharp, approving,

puzzled, amused, furious.....? Does he behave like this regularly, in fits and starts, in cycles.....? Is he very different in school, on the bus, in the Youth Club.....?

Individuality expressed in learning and discovery

General awareness and interest

Does he want to try everything, keep in the background, show sudden enthusiasms, ignore the current craze? Is he a model builder, street corner sloucher, pigeon fancier, hepcat, home-bird.....? What lessons is he easily successful in, trying hard in, indifferent to, bored with.....? Are these lessons which demand a lot of concentration, courage, skill with words, getting along with other children, fading into the background?

Reading, writing and reckoning

Is he good at reading but not writing, quick at mental arithmetic, bad at all three.....? How does he compare with the average for the class, for the school.....?

Work done

Is the work done enlivened by imaginative flashes, marred by recurrent mistakes, unorthodox and stimulating very variable from time to time, conscientious but stationary.....? Can

he get his ideas out by writing, speaking, drawing, demonstration....? when does he persist, give up, rush ahead, complain about the task.....? Is his work affected by his appearance and movement, special abilities, friendships, status in the group, way of coping with adults, evening activities, basic skills.....?

How did you come to pick this child for observation?

Information from class teacher, school records or Head.

Age, previous schools, attendance record, brothers and sisters, parent's occupation, parent's visits to school, any other known details of home background, etc.

This document is sent to students during the long vacation before they undertake their preliminary teaching practice.

Students undertaking teaching practice are guests in the school. Many students are naturally courteous and have a highly developed sense of social behaviour, but a minority are regrettably difficult in this respect and need to have pointed out to them the ordinary courtesies such as telephoning the Principal of the school if they are unable for any reason to attend school when expected.

At the same time, students must be encouraged to overcome any diffidence or shyness they manifest, to regard

themselves as far as possible as members of the staff of the school. It is part of their task to ask questions about anything concerned with the school, its running and organisation. They must earn the right to do this by co-operation and willingness to fill any gap or do any reasonable service asked them.

4. The Supervisor's Task.

In the present all too common system of teaching practice, students are seen only two or three times by their supervisors and the whole approach is based on the "crit" lesson for assessment purposes. This method merely serves to emphasize still further the essentially artificial nature of much current teaching practice. A situation in which the student knows little or nothing of the class he is teaching, does not even know the names of individual children nor their capabilities and where the supervisor is in the same position, often knowing little of the subject the student is teaching and ignorant of the content of the preceding lessons is clearly totally inadequate either for judging the teaching ability of the student or for the real task of the supervisor.

The question of the assessment of the teaching ability of the student may be left to the next chapter which deals with the whole problem of assessment, and we concern ourselves here with the role of the supervisor other than that of assessment, noting with regret that supervision all too often is equated with assessment.

The real purpose of supervision is simply this: to help the student improve his teaching ability to the utmost in the limited time available and within the limiting framework of his personal maturity and experience.

From this proposition there flow certain fundamental requirements and a number of desiderata which we should expect to find in anyone undertaking this difficult task which is the

essence of the whole concept of teacher-training. Almost anyone can lecture on the Principles or Psychology of Education; the same cannot be said of those undertaking the practical supervision of young students in the classroom. And yet far too often University Education Department staffs are not recruited with this basic aspect of the work in mind.

The first obvious requirement then of the supervisor in teaching practice is that he should himself have the personal confidence of his own ability to teach a class and teach it well that can be developed only through actually doing the job successfully over a substantial period of time. It is of course impossible to state a fixed number of years experience as a sine qua non of appointment to a supervisor's work. The very rare outstandingly gifted teacher may require only a year or two; some teachers learn little or nothing by twenty years experience. On the whole, however, something of the order of five years successful experience in more than one school might be said to form a basic minimum requirement which even the gifted teacher needs in order to develop and mature his teaching method and philosophy before taking on the complex task of helping novices. In addition, he should give evidence of having kept up with the latest developments in the teaching of his subject, both at home and abroad. If he can also have had teaching experience in another Province or country, so much the better. A further desideratum would be evidence that the intending supervisor of students has maintained his own interest and progress in the academic field in which he has specialised.

In addition to selecting and recruiting the right members of the staff of a University Education Department for

this work, it is essential to employ them intelligently. There are still many such Departments holding the view that a Lecturer in Education can adequately supervise students in a variety of subjects from Latin to Bookkeeping or Biology irrespective of the supervisor's knowledge or interest in these subjects. It is of course true that the experienced teacher and supervisor can sit through a lesson in some completely alien subject and form a pretty good impression as to the student's general teaching personality; he can recognise the teacher with a flair or the rather humdrum routine type, or the occasional complete misfit; he can rate them quite adequately on a five point scale.

This, however, is not teaching practice supervision at the level we should expect to find it after fifty or sixty years experience of the work.

In order to do the job properly, the supervisor must be a specialist in the student's subject and must be in a position to concern himself with improving the professional competence of the student in his own teaching field in addition to thinking about the student's teaching in general personality terms.

It is not possible to do this work adequately by two or three visits, even with a specialist supervisor. The main theme of the present dissertation lies in the direction of urging that students in training should spend the greater part of their professional year in the schools.

A natural corollary of this is that the supervisors should do the same. Freed from the burden of unnecessary and

unproductive lectures, students and supervisors alike will be able to carry out guided teaching experience in the practical laboratory; that is to say in the schools. We have already stressed the need for such closer liaison between University Education Department staffs and the schools. Indeed, both Lecturers and students should be prepared to spend the greater part of their time in the school. Clearly this will require and will encourage individual supervisors to form a strong association with a small number of schools - two or three - and to become virtually part of the staffs of those schools, with a detailed knowledge of the special aptitudes of teachers of the supervisor's subject as well as the general working of the school.

It should be possible so to build up mutual confidence between the school and the supervisor of students that not only can the official teacher give demonstration lessons, but that the supervisor himself is allowed to do so frequently. The possible gains to the school, to the students in training and not least to the supervisor himself are very great indeed. In particular, this possibility would do something to refresh the supervisor and prevent the teaching decay which years of talking about teaching without practising it are liable to incur.

Although we are suggesting that guided teaching experience should do something vastly different from the mere criticism of specially prepared lessons, nevertheless, the supervisor does need to evaluate the student's state as a teacher at various stages in order to give effective guidance, and to do so he usually needs some outline of major aspects of the problem to help form this estimate. The following are

typical forms used in this connexion. It must, however, be repeated that the value of such summaries lies entirely in the use which the supervisor makes of them.

REPORT ON LESSON

Student's name: _____

School: _____ Standard or Form: _____

Date: _____ Subject: _____

1. Adequacy of voice:
2. Language and expressions:
3. General bearing, degree of confidence and "contact" with class:
4. Adequacy of lesson preparation:
5. Use of blackboards:
6. Use of illustrative material and aids:
7. Variety and interest in lesson preparation:
8. Degree of flexibility of class control:
9. Extent of class participation and distribution of questions:
10. Was the lesson put into its "context" with reference to previous work and an indication of future work?

11. Any general comments:

Signed _____

Senior Teacher

School Principal

University Supervisor.

(b) TEACHING PRACTICE.

From.....to.....

Student's names:

Lesson Notes & Preparation:

Development of Lesson:

Balance of Work:

Classroom Management:

Teacher-pupil Relationship:

Attitude to School Life:

Voice & Mannerisms:

Teaching Practice Marks:

COMMENTS:

Supervisor:

- (c) It is hoped that this will be filled in fully and frankly.

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Faculty of Education.

(To be forwarded
to supervisor of
student teaching)

Staff Consultant

Report of Supervising Teacher

Student Teacher _____

Name of School _____ Grade enrolled _____

Dates of Attendance _____

i. A. Personal qualities.

E D C B A

(appearance, health, poise,
voice, manner)

B. Use of English

E D C B A

(grammar, vocabulary, enuncia-
tion, delivery, fluency)

C. Attitude Towards Teaching

E D C B A

(enthusiasm, initiative, sense
of professional responsibility)

ii. Preparation for Teaching

E D C B A

(knowledge of subject, organi-
zation of work, definiteness
of aim, suitability of lesson
materials)

iii. Presentation of Lessons

E D C B A

(adequacy of methods, resource-
fulness, balance between
teacher and pupil activity,
provision for individual dif-
ferences, profitable use of
aids.)

IV. a. Contact with Pupils

E D C B A

(adjustment to grade level, sensitivity to pupil difficulty, questioning, class discussion, etc.)

B. Pupils' Reaction

E D C B A

(pupil interest and attention, pupil participation, courtesy and respect)

C. Classroom Management

E D C B A

(control of class, giving directions, making assignments, handling routine matters)

V. Direction of Enterprise

E D C B A

(adequacy of preplan, daily planning, correlation or integration, committee work, evaluation, culmination)

VI. General Evaluation

E D C B AX X X X X20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90

Remarks or General Comments: (outstanding abilities, significant handicaps, evidence of promise, advice offered, etc.)

Supervising teacher.

(d) INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION - MACDONALD COLLEGE
SUPERVISOR'S CRITICISM

TEACHING PRACTICE

Name: _____ Date: _____

Assisting Teacher: _____ School: _____

Lesson: _____ Length: _____ Grade: _____

SYNOPSIS OF LESSON

REMARKS

PRESENTATION OF LESSON:

Introduction

Force

Animation

Pace

Phases

Methods

Subject Matter

Individual Differences

English

Questions

Answers

248.

Drill

Learning Situation

SUPERVISOR: _____

RATING: _____

Decisive Points for this Rating were:

PROS

CONS

1. PREPARATION AND PLANNINGPREPARATION

Subject Matter

LESSON PLANS

In general

Promptness

English

Aim

Imagination

Phases

Pupil Activity

Individual differences

Pivotal questions

Audio-visual aids

Blackboard work

Remarks qualifying the above _____

11. CLASS MANAGEMENT

Rapport

Leadership

Discipline: Type:

Accomplishment

Child development

Remarks qualifying the above _____

III. PERSONALITY.

Animation

Maturity

Initiative

Industry

Co-operation

Attitude to criticism

Congeniality

Remarks qualifying the above _____

(e) EVALUATION OF STUDENT TEACHING

1. Some Guiding Principles:

A fundamental principle of evaluation is that it should be a guidance procedure. The following are suggested as directives for the observation of this principle.

- (a) Evaluation should be used for improvement of the student teacher.
- (b) True evaluation is permeated with the idea of improvement and growth through analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the person evaluated.
- (c) Student teachers should be acquainted with the constructive concept of evaluation.
- (d) The criteria of good teaching should be uppermost in the minds of the student teacher, demonstration teacher and faculty representative.
- (e) Student teachers should receive some indication of the adequacy of their work.
- (f) Appraisal of student teachers should be a continuing rather than a periodic procedure.
- (g) The evaluation must result from evidence gathered in all revealing situations:
 - (1) from observation of the teaching in the classroom.
 - (2) from conferences.
 - a. between student teacher and demonstration teacher.
 - b. between student teacher and faculty representative.
 - c. between demonstration teacher and faculty representative.

- (3) from written material submitted by the student teacher.
- (4) from the student teacher's self-evaluation.
- (5) such other evidence as may suggest itself.

2. Specific Suggestions to the Demonstration Teacher:

- (a) At the start, you are evaluating a beginning student teacher and can not expect a finished performance.
- (b) Have your criteria of good teaching in mind and watch for improvement in the student teacher.
- (c) If possible, at the conclusion of each lesson, tell the student teacher the strengths he has exhibited and areas for improvement. Such comment should at least be recorded in the student's plan book.
- (d) In the process of evaluation the areas of possible improvement should be indicated. The student teacher will realize that the demonstrator is not in this personal attack but is trying to help develop abilities.
- (e) Student teachers who make an exceptionally good start might well receive an A grading. Unless, however, they show growth in teaching, this mark should not remain as an A in subsequent evaluation. That is, some student teachers might receive an A in the first round a B in the second round, and a C in the third round because of lack of improvement.

Chapter V. The Student in the Department.

1. Teaching Methods :
 - (a) The importance of Method.
 - (b) Present practice.
 - (c) The essential educational process.
 - (d) Demonstration Lessons.

2. Assessment of Students :
 - (a) Current Practice.
 - (b) Advanced methods of Assessment.
 - (c) Final Assessment.

Chapter V.The Student in the Department.1. Teaching Methods

(a) The Importance of Method.

The methods employed in handling students in training for teaching have consequences more far-reaching than the impact on the student himself. Indeed they might be said to have philosophical, social and even political implications at the very deepest level because the tone of teacher training is inevitably reflected by the students in their approach to their pupils when the students enter the schools - indeed this is a major purpose of teacher training. The authoritative and dogmatic training of students still to be found in many Training Colleges is followed by authoritarian and dogmatic methods by the teachers in the primary schools. The most successful authoritarian teachers then find their way to Lectureships in Training Colleges and the system is perpetuated so that generation after generation of children in the State primary systems of education are brought up in a certain way. It is for this sort of reason that well-to-do parents often prefer to send their children to private schools and that the Great Public Schools of England and elsewhere still avoid teacher training.

Teacher training in Universities, although derived from similar roots through the early Day Training Colleges, has, however, inevitably been influenced away from an authoritarian approach through its contacts with the work of other Departments in the University. Whatever criticisms are made

of Diploma courses in the Universities by graduate teachers in Secondary Schools such criticism never suggests that these teachers would prefer training in a more authoritarian institution.

It is clear that our beliefs about education in the widest sense of the word and in particular the kind of influence we desire teachers to have on pupils in schools must be reflected in the way students are prepared for their task.

Much depends on earlier experiences, and the student who has long been accustomed within the family and later in school to take real responsibilities in decisions and actions is likely to show in college a mature and responsible attitude towards standards of behaviour. Students have to be dealt with at the stage they have reached and with full consciousness of the shortness of the course and the time lag between the first exposure to an idea and the fruition of that idea in thought and action. Fortunately, most students are still receptive to ideas, and full use should be made of this fact in training teachers for leadership. The essential question is how to foster in students the ability to work out their own standards and the integrity to maintain them. These powers are hard to acquire but quite plainly the method used in the training of teachers will have an important effect upon the degree to which they will use democratic methods in their own teaching. The first impulse even of adults is to look up or look for the appropriate authority before deciding what to do. The hardest thing to acquire is discrimination in deciding when initiative and independent action are called for; when to abstain from autocratic actions and get a consensus, and when to

act from the book according to the appropriate external authority.

Those concerned with teacher training should aim at fostering this discrimination. There should exist in such a community what is described as a "permissive atmosphere," in which every member staff or student would know that they were free to express differences of opinions without imperilling the stability and security of their relation to the group. The proper handling of discussion groups would seem to be the key to this situation. The students at the level of discussion suited to their ability and experiences should consider some of the general problems of freedom and authority.

Furthermore, the teacher trainer must consider the proper place of his authority and that of the heritage of educational ideas from the past in the development of the student's idea about education. Our aim should clearly be to teach students or help students to think for themselves. Freedom or independence of thought is necessary for the full development of personality; purposeful living involves the ability in a mature personality to judge and choose. Moreover, independence of thought is necessary if we are to avoid types of society in which all members are expected to conform to a particular ideology. We have to educate the rebels as well as the conformer.

It is important for students to learn to be responsible for something not merely responsible to somebody.¹

1) Education for Teaching : Journal of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education. London November, 1954.

In this way, we can help to create and maintain personal relationships in training departments without impairing the function of proper authority. Students in a sensible society develop an appreciation of the types of approach appropriate to particular situations. They acquire greater flexibility of mind and in turn will pass this on to the children they teach. They will learn that decisions can only properly be made in areas in which responsibility can be fully taken, and the results of the decision fully enjoyed or suffered by the people who make it. This greater freedom does not lead to lowering of standards as has been feared in some places; standards are in fact not merely maintained but raised, because responsibility rests where properly it must rest and one can fully expect that as teachers trained in new methods and new traditions become established in the schools, suitable areas of decision in work and school life will be opened up for many more children.

If it is agreed that the essence of all successful education is a personal relationship between teacher and student, then it is essential that this relationship should form the basis of teacher training. Any attempt at mass-production of teachers will naturally produce teachers with the same attitude to their pupils. From the moment of entering the Department of Education each student should be oriented towards a member of staff who will throughout the year build up this personal relationship and be personally responsible for the individual development of a small group of students allotted to him.

The capacities, needs and personal characteristics

of students in training vary enormously and therefore these should be studied intensively at the beginning of the year at an individual level, and an individual programme devised to meet the requirements of individual students. In this way, both the training of the students will be improved and also, and perhaps more important, each student will assimilate the idea that education is a person to person affair in a such more fundamental way than if he were lectured on the topic.

We have discussed in the previous chapter the need for supervisors and tutors to have an appropriate degree of maturity and experience to carry out this task. They need also to have a vital interest in the well-being and development of individual students and must be supplied with all the relevant information about the students. This would include not only the student's academic record but also as much information as possible about his background, outside interests and special problems and needs. It is useless to talk about the "total development of the individual" and "importance of factors other than the intellectual" in education generally unless we put these principles into practice in our own education of students.

It follows from what we have said about education as a person to person relationship that the formal lecture to a large group of students should have a very limited place in teacher training at this level. When it is necessary to give common factual information, not available in works of reference, to all students, something on the lines of a formal lecture may well be the simplest and most economical way of doing so, and this might very well be the case during the short preliminary

course in the University before students enter the schools and occasionally during the year. But even this kind of material can often be imparted adequately by means of printed notes.

(b) Present Practice

In practice, however, we find that the formal lecture is still more widely used than the tutorial method and even when the latter is used it forms a relatively minor part of the whole picture.

In the University of Birmingham Department of Education, which can be taken as one of the most advanced Departments, we find the following distribution :

Proportion - Lectures/Tutorial

	Lectures	Tutorials and Seminars
Principles of Education	22	8
Educational Psychology	19	10
Educational System and its recent History	21	3
General Method	7	3 (estim)
Health of School Child	10	-
Visual Aids	6	2 (pract)
Principal Method	22	
Subsidiary Method (some students take 2 subsidiary methods)	12	
Optional Subject	12	
Other Tutorials		18

This gives a ratio of 3:1 for lectures: tutorials, but the figure is variable. Some tutors conduct their method courses on lines which are largely tutorial; others do not. Some optional subjects are practical e.g. physical education. The ratio 3:1 might diminish to 2:1 for some students.

Again the Department of Education of the Durham Colleges has provided the following information with regard to their teaching methods:

Proportion, lectures/tutorials. 38 lectures, 2 set tutorials. It will be realised that the proportion of lectures to tutorials is much smaller than appears here since attendance at lectures is voluntary and attendance at tutorials compulsory. Most students would aim at attending about 10 lectures a week with 2 tutorials in addition. Moreover in addition to tutorials, which take the form of discussions, students spend a considerable time, which varies from student to student, in doing essay work with their tutors. It should also be added that few students as a rule attend more than two methods courses throughout the session, though many take three to start with.

In the University College of North Staffordshire, one of the most experimental colleges in outlook, the system allows for a proportion of three lectures to one tutorial during the first year of study, but reverses this proportion in the second and third years.

Similar proportions of lectures to tutorials are included in the courses offered by the Departments of Education of the Universities in Belfast (4 to 1), Leeds (2 to 1), Hong Kong (4 to 1), St. Andrews (2 to 1), Southampton (10 to 1).

In general, opinion is highly favourable to the use of tutorial methods but limitations are imposed by the time available for the course and by the staff/student ratio. It is significant that the larger the Department the more use is made of tutorial methods in proportion to formal lectures, although the staff/student ratio remains very constant at about 1 staff to 8 or 9 students with occasional exceptions as in the case of the University of Southampton with a staff/student

ratio of 1 to 15 which would seem to account for the low proportion of tutorials quoted for this Department.

The size of the tutorial groups is naturally a function of the staff/student ratio and also varies from subject to subject, particularly in the case of the Method Courses. The size ranges from 2 or 3 to 15 or 20, but in the case of the larger groups, Heads of Departments report that they are too big and would be reduced if additional staff could be made available. In general, an average size of 8 to 10 is accepted as the most useful, being small enough to allow for individual attention and contribution on the one hand, and yet on the other hand big enough to provide the necessary discussion and variety of thought.

In all cases where methods used in tutorials are reported the commonest form is to have students prepare an essay or a paper, read it to the group and follow this by general discussion of the topic. In about half the cases this method is varied by the tutor introducing the topic with a short analysis in order to open up the topic. It is clear, however, that the first method is generally preferred because it enables the students to do more preparatory work before discussing a topic. In the second method the students, unless previously told to prepare the topic, may come to the tutorial without the necessary work to continue the discussion, with the danger that the tutorial will revert to an informal lecture by the tutor.

Only three of the Departments contributing to the study report specific arrangements for private discussion between tutor and student of particular problems, personal and

educational, although in many more cases this type of discussion occurs sporadically to deal with problems arising, depending entirely on the personal interest of the member of staff and the initiative of individual students. It seems probable that more extensive and valuable work could be done in this direction if the private discussion between tutor and student could be put on a more regular basis, even of one such meeting a term. The possibilities of such a system are again clearly a function of available time and staff/student ratio. It is interesting, however, to note that the Department of Education of British Columbia which has a low staff/student ratio (1 to 25) nevertheless finds time to stress the importance of the private discussion between tutor and student and believes this to be the key to the whole teaching situation.

It has been well pointed out that the success of any tutorial method depends entirely on the quality of mind of the tutors so engaged. This factor is clearly so resistant to analysis that mere qualifications and even experience can give little information as to the quality of the work done.

So far as qualifications are concerned, general and specific, the pattern is that all full-time staff are both general lecturers in Education and at the same time specialists in some field such as some aspect of educational theory or psychology. In about three quarters of the institutions studied there are specialist departmental lecturers in High School Method subjects in numbers varying with the size of the Department. Usually it is an economic proposition to have specialist lecturers in the Department in the most frequent academic subjects - English, History, Mathematics, Physical Science, Modern

Languages - but not possible in subjects with relatively small numbers of students such as Classics or Music. Again it is possible and commonly found that a Lecturer would be responsible for more than one Method subject, as for example English and History or Physics and Mathematics.

Where numbers of students do not justify the use of full-time Lecturers it is common practice to have assistance from either other academic departments in the University or from outstanding High School teachers. This system, however, presents obvious difficulties which require careful attention if the real purpose of method instruction is to be achieved. It does happen that Method Lecturers from other academic Departments are sometimes out of touch with actual practice in the schools and cases are not unknown of such courses being given by members of University Staffs who have never taught in a school. At the same time High School Teachers, though highly successful teachers themselves, may or may not be in touch with the latest developments at home and abroad in the teaching of their subject.

A combination of the two with academic department staff and High School teachers each responsible for a portion of the course, as in the Department of Education of the University of Natal, meets this danger but is administratively cumbersome and further increases the already rather bewildering number of lecturers involved in the various portions of the Diploma curriculum. This defect militates against the sense of unity of the course which it is most desirable that students should acquire.

For these reasons and because of the need to increase the importance of the role of practical experience in the schools during the training year, it appears desirable to develop the use of specialist Method Lecturers within the University Departments.

Analysis of Teaching Methods in 28 University Departments of Education

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Number of Students per staff member	25	17	20	8	13	8	9	10	10	15	30	8	12
Proportion of Lectures to Tutorials	9/1	8/1	3/1	4/1	4/1	1/1	8/1	6/1	3/1	10/1	3/1	7/1	6/1
Numbers in tutorial groups	20	12	10	12	13	6	8	10	17	5	8	12	13
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Number of Students per staff member	17	20	11	9	14	22	10	12	15	12	20	17	11
Proportion of Lectures to tutorials	3/1	8/1	6/1	7/1	3/1	8/1	4/1	6/1	3/1	4/1	8/1	7/1	4/1
Number in tutorial groups	8	12	8	17	5	8	10	7	8	12	15	6	8

Averages for the 28 Departments:

Number of Students per staff member :	14
Proportion of Lectures to Tutorials :	$5\frac{1}{2}/1$
Numbers in Tutorial groups :	10

c) The Essential Educational Process.

The essential educational process will in the main take the form of : 1) individual discussion between tutor and student, and 2) small group discussion led in the first place by the tutor, but progressively led more and more by other members of the group. The roles and methods of these two forms of discussion require separate consideration.

(1) Individual discussion between tutor and student.

Each student has personal problems in his own life and therefore in his approach to his task as a teacher. Some of these problems the student will know about; others may well not be clearly conscious to the student, but are revealed to the tutor/supervisor in the classroom. Because of the extremely personal nature of many of these problems - speech, self-confidence and so on - they cannot be dealt with adequately except privately; a lecture to a class on the desirability of self-confidence has obvious limitations as a therapeutic technique.

It is therefore at the level of personal discussion that the tutor and student can set about the task of improving the student in the teaching situation. If this work is to be successful it clearly requires the tutor to have appropriate psychological training, personal maturity and that deep respect for the personality of the student which alone will make possible the essential rapport.

The frequency of such individual discussion sessions

obviously cannot be laid down; the requirements of individual students alone can determine this; it is, however, to be noted that is not always the student with the most apparent difficulties who requires most attention; the student who claims to have no difficulties or problems is of course very often the one who reveals in the classroom weaknesses of which he may well be unaware but which are very apparent to the experienced tutor. Such students frequently require the most careful and extended treatment.

2) Small group discussion

The democratic discussion group is probably the most valuable educational device at the disposal of a training department. In the form of an organized conversation, its contribution is never based on instruction but lies in the field of social development, the encouragement of self-confidence, and the development of clear and logical thinking. In contrast with debating, another valuable educational device, it places high value on the desirable virtues of sincerity, honesty and co-operation.

Although the discussion group is essentially a conversation piece its success as an educational device depends on the indirect control by a leader; it is not a mere "free for all". The leader will normally be the tutor, at any rate in the early meetings of the group, but the method can also be used with profit to give students an insight into the leader's role and an opportunity to exercise it, and to develop powers of self-discipline, sympathy, tact, the ability to subjugate personal views, to summarize all views and to extract the main points of an argument.

In this situation the tutor must create a situation in which he is accepted as a member of the group; at the most his position must be that of "primus inter pares" and his participation must be that of a fellow seeker for the truth, rather than a "pronunciamento ex cathedra". The physical environment itself is important in this connexion and seating round a table or in a circle the most effective arrangement.

It is quite inadequate for the tutor to drift in with a group and to see what happens. The success of a discussion depends quite as much as a formal lecture on careful preparation of the topic by the leader. Although the whole purpose of the discussion would be vitiated if its progress were cut and dried beforehand, the leader must have some plan of campaign for which he has considered.

- a) the interest and purpose of the topic.
- b) the main facts, unburdened by excess.
- c) the main points of controversy.
- d) the presentation of the topic.
- e) the headings of the most important aspects which the leader wishes to cover.

In particular the tutor needs to consider whether the topic is factual or emotional and to prepare his control accordingly. This control will clearly be based on the need to encourage all members of the group to participate and this in turn will require the negative control of students who talk too much, who know too much, who talk as exhibitionists and the obsessional student. The leader needs to exercise firmness without appearing authoritarian, to use good-humoured control, to help the incoherent student, to show patience with the slow thinking, to stimulate the uninterested. He should be prepared to recapitulate or partially sum up the main threads of the discussion from time to time and to give his own opinion where called for as a member of the group. He should be prepared to deal tactfully with false arguments and guide the group towards clear thinking, the proper use of words, the difference between fact and opinion, between evidence and propaganda.

The work of the discussion group can then be consolidated and integrated into the students' developing educational philosophy by appropriate means, such as the production of a summary of arguments by a Recorder or by essays written by members of the group.

(d) Demonstration Lessons.

If it is clear that the professional training of teachers is essentially a matter of practical preparation for doing the job, then a most important part of such preparation will be concerned with giving students the opportunity of seeing lessons taught, not only by the ordinary run of teachers in the schools but also by experts who will have the needs of the students in mind and who will know them well. For this reason it is most desirable that the tutors in the Department of Education should regard the giving of demonstration lessons in their own academic fields as one of their most important tasks.

Demonstration lessons of this kind are at present often artificial and unreal because the tutor has little knowledge of the class to be used for the lesson and very often fails to establish the lesson in its proper context in terms of what the class has just done. However, in the proposed new relationship between tutors and schools discussed in Chapter IV, it should be possible to establish a much more normal situation which in turn would enable demonstration lessons to be given very much as part of the ordinary work of the class and so to offer a much more realistic picture to students.

The demonstration lesson has little value if it is

given without adequate preparation by the tutor and without adequate understanding on the part of the students of the aims and methods of the particular lesson. A demonstration lesson should, therefore, be preceded by a tutorial meeting in which tutor and students discuss the problems to be overcome and the material that will be used. In the same way, a "post-mortem" tutorial discussion in which the success of the lesson, the response of the class and "follow-up" lessons can be dealt with is necessary if the students are to get the best out of the demonstration.

It is, however, the writer's main thesis that the whole of the full time year of professional training should be oriented around work in the schools both by students and by the members of the staff of the University Department. In this arrangement the present conception of an artificial "demonstration" lesson would be replaced by a "workshop practice" approach to the school and will be dealt with as such in the final chapter analysing the details of the proposed new scheme.

2. Assessment of Students.

"In the attempt to assess the results of teacher training, there is a growing tendency to reduce the weight attached to written examinations and to include in the basis of final judgment such things as the pooled estimates of tutors, reports from practice schools and considerable pieces of written work prepared by the student at leisure throughout the final year. When the results of such pooled criteria are not expressed in a spuriously exact numerical or percentage form but simply as a category of pass or fail, a five point scale or even as a rank order of merit, then they probably come as near as is humanly possible to a fair, objective and reliable estimate of a complex educational product." ¹

(a) Current Practice.

From a survey of the assessment methods used in the forty-three teacher-training institutions contributing to this study it is safe to say that the tendency referred to by Dr. Wall may be growing but has so far affected a very limited change in the traditional examination method of assessment.

These traditional examinations naturally reflect the various courses in Principles of Education, Psychology of Education, History and Sociology of Education and Teaching Methods which we have discussed in Chapter III, and vary according to the relative emphasis given to a topic by different University Departments. ²

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- 1) W.D. Wall : International Review of Education. Vol. IV No. 3
1958.
 - 2) A typical set of examination papers in the various theoretical branches will be found in appendix II, Page 364

The common practice is that students must reach a satisfactory standard in each subject, but may be allowed a special examination at a later date in one or more subjects in which they have failed. In addition, students must reach a satisfactory standard in teaching practice assessed usually on a five point scale, but still in some cases assessed on a spurious percentage basis.

In part, criticism of a written examination of this kind is linked with criticism of the courses themselves as a method of training teachers and which we have already considered. Beyond such linked criticism, however, the written examination itself is open to criticism as a testing device. Graduate students training for the profession of teaching have already shown during their undergraduate years that they are capable of writing four or five short essays under examination conditions on several occasions and it seems clear that some more mature form of stimulating study and assessing intellectual appreciation of educational problems is required.

Analysis of Examination Requirements:

The general pattern of examination requirements for the Diploma in Education or the Certificate of Education, as the first certification of teachers is now usually called in the U.K., emerges from the following analysis :

1) University of Belfast.

There are five written papers, one in Principles of Education, two in Practice of Education and two in Educational Psychology.

2) University of Bristol.

"The examination for the Certificate will be based on a continuous assessment of work throughout the whole period of training. The assessment will take into account written work, practical work, if any, tests and examinations, as well as the quality of the candidate's teaching. A cumulative record of each candidate for the whole period of training will be available for inspection by the examiners."

3) Cambridge University.

The written examination consists of papers on Psychology and Health Education, the History of English Education, the Teaching of Special Subjects, and on Educational Organization and Practice.

4) University of Wales.

Written papers on : (1) Theory of Education,

including Educational Psychology and an elementary study of Political Philosophy. (2) History of Education (3) Health Education (4) Methods of Teaching Special Subjects.

5) University of Durham.

The written examination consists of the following papers : (1) Principles of Education I. (Theory of Education,) (2) Principles of Education II (Educational Psychology) (3) Principles and Methods of teaching a group of subjects (4) a dissertation on an aspect of educational theory or practice.

6) University of London.

One written paper in each of the following : (1) Principles of Education (2) Special Method (3) The present educational system of England and its recent history (4) an optional subject (5) Psychology and Health Education.

7) University College of Ghana

Two written papers on the foundations of Educational Thought and Practice, one paper on Methodology, one paper on Health Education and Speech Training, one paper on either History of Education or Comparative Education and one paper on an ancillary subject (optional subjects).

8) Exeter University.

"The arrangement of assessment of work at intervals throughout the course takes the place of written examination papers at the end. The assessment covers work

done in lecture courses tutorials and seminars, as well as the practice teaching in schools."

9) University of Hong Kong.

written papers in the following subjects :

- (1) Principles of Education
- (2) Educational Psychology
- (3) The English Educational System since 1944
- (4) The development of Education in Hong Kong
- (5) Health Education
- (6) Methods of teaching

Candidates must also present a dissertation or complete certain assignments, in one major teaching subject.

10) University of Leicester.

Since the re-opening of the Department there have been no formal examinations in the form of written papers at the end of the course. This is not because written work is undervalued; essays are written during the course on prescribed topics and all students complete a child study and a special long essay on a subject of their own choice. In addition, assessments are made of teaching ability and of the contribution made to discussion and group work. It is felt that these forms of assessment are more appropriate to the aims of a teacher training course and encourage the student to relate theory to practice. The written work of a number

of students is assessed by external examiners and the students concerned are interviewed by them in the last week of the course.

11) University of Malaya.

Part 1: A written examination comprising the following six papers:

- (a) Theory of Education
- (b) Comparative Education
- (c) History of Education
- (d) Principles of Teaching
- (e) Educational Psychology
- (f) (i) Special Methods of Teaching and
(ii) Health Education

The essays written during the course will be taken into account in assessing whether the candidate has reached a satisfactory standard in Part 1.

12) University of Manchester.

The written part of the examination will consist of :

- (i) one three-hour paper in each of the subjects Philosophy of Education, Psychology of Education, Child Development and the English Educational System, together with a paper of two-and-a-half hours in Curriculum and Methods of Teaching
- (ii) an essay on an approved subject.

13) University of Melbourne

The theoretical work of the students in Comparative Education, History and Principles of Education, Educational Psychology, General and Special Methods is assessed by various means: by essays, objective tests, assignments and possibly a final examination. Students who pass in the work set for Educational Psychology and History and Principles throughout the year and who have at least a 50% attendance at lectures may be exempted from the final examination.

14) University of North Staffordshire

Part I, taken in June at the end of the second principal year, consists of four papers:

1. History and Administration of Education
2. Child Development
3. Theory of Education
4. Principles of Teaching Method

Part II, taken in the third principal year, consists of:

1. Practical Examination. This is taken in October at the end of the third period of teaching practice.
2. Educational Sociology and Psychology. This paper is taken in June.

15) University of Nottingham

The written examination consists of three papers:

- a) The Aims and Organisation of Education
- b) The Study of Child Development
- c) The Sociology of Education

Together with a major essay on the Method of Teaching
a special subject and sessional written work.

16) University of New Zealand.

One written paper in each of the following:

- a) History of Education
- b) Principles of Teaching
- c) Experimental Education

17) University of Ottawa.

Semester credits by written examination in :

- a) Principles and History of Education
- b) Educational and Developmental Psychology
- c) Principles of Guidance and Measurement
- d) Teaching Methods
- e) Problems of Administration

18) Oxford University.

written papers in :

- a) The Aims and Principles of Education
- b) Development in Childhood and Adolescence
- c) The Practice of Education
- d) The Educational System of England and Wales
and its recent history.

Together with extended essays on a) the teaching of a special subject and b) an optional subject.

19) University of Reading.

written papers in :

- a) The Principles and Practice of Education
- b) Psychology
- c) The English Educational System in its recent historical setting
- d) Special Methods of Teaching
- e) An optional subject

Permission may be given for a thesis to be submitted in lieu of the optional paper (e) and in lieu of the written examination in Special Methods of Teaching (d)

20) University of Sheffield.

written papers in :

- a) The meaning and purpose of education
- b) The scientific basis of education
- c) Methods of Teaching
- d) The historical foundations of Modern educational theory and practice
- e) School Hygiene
- f) An optional subject

21) University of Southampton.

written papers in :

- a) Principles of Education
- b) Practice of Education
- c) History of Education

Together with an extended essay on an optional subject

22) University of Western Australia.

The training of teachers in Western Australia presents particular interest in that qualification may be obtained either by studying for the degree of B. Ed. as a first degree or in the more conventional manner by taking the Diploma in Education in one year of post graduate study. The requirements for the B. Ed. degree are as follows:-

The Pass Degree

To obtain the pass degree of Bachelor of Education every candidate shall pursue a course of study, pass the examinations hereinafter prescribed, and complete to the satisfaction of the Faculty a course of professional training including the practice of teaching.

Every candidate must pass examinations in the following:

- a) Education I
- b) Education II
- c) Education III
- d) Psychology IA
- e) Philosophy I
- f) Psychology II or Philosophy II or Anthropology I

- g) (i) Social Foundations of School and Community
 (ii) Principles of Physical Education
 (iii) Teaching Methods (to be taken at an affiliated Teachers' College or elsewhere as approved)
- h) Five units chosen from the following groups, at least two of which must be chosen from group II:

Group I

English I; French I; German I; Italian I; Greek IA or IB; Latin I; History I; Economics I; Physical Geography
 Music I; Music Education; Physical Education I.
 Mathematics I; Applied Mathematics I
 Physics I; Chemistry I; Geology I; Botany I; Zoology I

Group II

English II; French II; German II; Greek II; Ancient History; Latin II; History IIA or IIB or IIC or IID; Economics II or Economic History; Economic and Social Geography.
 Music II; Physical Education II; Anatomy I (half unit) and Physiology II (half unit).
 Mathematics II; Applied Mathematics II.
 Physics II; Chemistry II; Geology II; Botany II; Zoology II.

The course for the pass degree shall be arranged as follows:

a) For Undergraduate StudentsFirst Year

Psychology IA
 Philosophy I
 2 units from Group I above

Second Year

Education I
 Psychology II or Philosophy II or Anthropology I
 1 unit from Groups I or II above
 Practical work in teaching (at least three weeks)

Third Year

Education II
 2 units from Groups I and/or II above
 Practical work in teaching (five weeks)

Fourth Year

Education III
 Social Foundations of School and Community
 Principles of Physical Education
 Teaching Methods
 Practical work in teaching (at least six weeks)

} Part-units
 }

b) For Graduate studentsFirst Year

Education I
 Psychology IA
 Social Foundations of School and Community
 Principles of Physical Education
 Teaching Methods
 Practical work in teaching (at least six weeks)

} Part-units
 }

Second Year

Education II
 Philosophy I
 Practical work in teaching

The first year of the B. Ed. degree for graduates is the same as for Dip. Ed. except that for Dip. Ed. the alternative Philosophy I and Psychological Foundations of Education can be taken instead of Psychology IA.

A further eight weeks of teaching practice is required during the second and third years of the course.

Third Year

Education III
 Psychology II or Philosophy II or Anthropology I
 Practical work in teaching

No candidate shall be admitted to the supplementary examinations except by resolution of the Board of Examiners in Education. Undergraduate candidates will be allowed not more than two supplementary examinations in their first year, and not more than one in their second year. Graduate candidates will be allowed one supplementary examination only in their first year, (that is the M. Ed. year) and only one in their second year. No supplementary examinations will be granted in Education II. No supplementary examinations will be granted after the second year of either course.

Any student withdrawing from a course after the commencement of the third term shall be reported to the Board of Examiners in Education and may be required to show cause why he should not be classified as an unsatisfactory student.

Before the degree of Bachelor of Education is conferred as a second degree on a candidate, the Diploma in Education must be surrendered.

Candidates who on or after 1 January, 1950 enrol for the first time in the course for the Pass or Honours degree of Bachelor of Education including candidates who in 1950 enrol for the Diploma in Education, shall be subject to the present regulations. Candidates whose initial enrolment was in 1957 or earlier will be permitted to complete their degrees under regulations operative at the time, or on application made in writing they may be allowed to qualify under present regulations. Permission to complete degrees under earlier regulations, including transitional regulations published in the

1957 Calendar shall cease to have effect after the month of February 1961.

The Honours Degree

To qualify for the degree of Bachelor of Education with Honours, full-time candidates must complete the requirements of the degree within five years of beginning their course as undergraduates or within three years of beginning their course as graduates. Undergraduate candidates who have been studying part-time may be allowed a maximum period of eight years in which to qualify for Honours, and graduate candidates who have been studying part-time, a maximum period of four years.

Candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Education with Honours should not later than the end of the second term in the third year apply in writing to the Dean for permission to read for Honours, at the same time indicating the branch or branches of Education in which they wish to specialise.

On receiving the Dean's permission to sit for Honours each candidate will be required to undertake such additional work in the final year as may be prescribed. He must also present a thesis on a topic previously approved by the Dean. The thesis, which will form part of the final Honours examination in education, must be submitted not later than the last day of October in the year of the examination.

Candidates who do not meet in full the requirements of the Honours degree may be considered for the award of the Pass degree of Bachelor of Education.

A further eight weeks of teaching practice is required during the second and third years of the course.

The regulations for the diploma in education are as follows:

before entering on the course for the diploma in Education, candidates shall have graduated in the University of Western Australia or shall have been granted graduate status under Statute No. 5.

The Diploma in Education may be gained by full-time students in **one** year.* Candidates must pursue their studies, undertake the practical work, and pass examinations in the units prescribed hereunder. They must also attain a standard of teaching skill satisfactory to the Faculty.

The course for the Diploma in Education shall be as follows:

- (a) Education I
- (b) Psychology I or Philosophy I and Psychological Foundations of Education
- (c) Social Foundations of School and Community)
- (d) Principles of Physical Education) Part-units
- (e) Teaching Methods)
- (f) Practical work in teaching (at least six weeks)

Candidates for the Diploma in Education who hold the post-graduate Teachers' Certificate of the University of Western Australia must surrender their certificates before the diploma is awarded.

* This also represents the first year of the course for the degree of Bachelor of Education for graduates, except that candidates proceeding to the second year of B. Ed. must have previously passed an experimental unit in Psychology.

(b) Advanced methods of assessment.

Of the forty-three training institutions studied, only three have abandoned completely the formal written examination as a means of assessment of students in training, one of them having held no formal examinations for some thirty five years. Having renounced assessment as a main purpose of the course they nevertheless recognise that assessment is a useful device:

- (i) to enable staff to review the work of students in a organised way.
- (ii) to give students, usually indirectly, an idea of how they stand.
- (iii) to satisfy the outside world that the functions of an examination have been performed.

The general purpose of the training and certification of teachers is assumed to be a form of guarantee that the student (a) has ability to handle educational responsibility and (b) is committed to assuming educational responsibility. These requirements can be met by much more satisfactory methods than a straight academic examination which merely tests ability to handle the content of the academic discipline on the occasion of the examination - an ability which has already been tested frequently during the student's undergraduate career. What is required at the level of professional certification for teaching is a reliable assessment of factors such as commitment, responsibility and potential - factors which can only be assessed as they develop; that is to say over a relatively long

period of time, bearing constantly in mind that the development is far more important than the assessment.

The two main sources of information about the student which can be used in such a longitudinal assessment are of course (1) written work and (2) the quality of the student's contribution to discussion in seminars and tutorial meetings. A background to this material should be available through the tutor's contact with the student as an individual and his knowledge of the student's activities in the University or elsewhere outside the Department of Education. This information must then be integrated with a balanced view of the student's progress in his practice school.

(1) Written work

The following examples of essay work expected of students in training in the Department of Education of the University of Bristol illustrate the kind of thinking that should be expected of such students, their ability to work independently and in their own time and to make appropriate use of the library. They clearly test educational factors of great value which are not assessed in any way by a formal examination, and in addition to their use for assessment purposes are of even greater value as an educational technique:

CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION 1958 - 1959.

During the course of the academic year, students are required to submit for examination assessment five pieces of written work apart from any work set in tutorial groups. These five pieces are as follows:-

- 1 and 2. Essays set and written in the autumn term.
3. An essay written during the first weekend of the summer term.
4. A seminar paper in the summer term.
5. The Method Essay in the summer term, on the teaching of a subject or group of subjects in which the student is specialising.

This present paper is about the first 2 of the above items.

Autumn Term Essays.

Students are asked to choose one essay from each of Groups A and B below and hand in one of these to their tutors by 10.0 a.m. on Monday, November 17th; and the other by 10.0 a.m. on Friday, December 12th. It does not matter which essay you do first.

Quality is naturally much more important than quantity and in such a varied list of subjects all essays cannot be the same length. 1,500 to 2,000 words may be a rough guide to length. A short bibliography of books consulted should be

given at the end of each essay. If quotations are used references must be given.

Written work cannot be accepted after the final date save in quite exceptional circumstances. Each essay mark has a place in the continuous assessment of a student's work. If there are gaps in this assessment through failure to produce required work a student cannot qualify for the Certificate in Education.

Group A.

1. When you look at a child, what do you see - a lively young animal, a future member of a particular social group, a soul to be saved, a potential wage-earner, a scholar in the making, an image of yourself as a child, an intimation of the person he may become?

Discuss the ways in which a teacher's approach to his job depends on his conception of childhood.

2. How far and in what conditions is there transfer of learning from one subject to another? Discuss this question both in general terms and with special reference to your main teaching subject and any other subject.
3. "Something is seriously wrong with a child if he does not or cannot learn and something is wrong with a schoolmaster who cannot keep the interest of his pupils and gain their respect."

Comment on this statement.

4. "We seem to believe nowadays in original virtue, or at least in original innocence, and to think that what a child needs if he is to grow properly is not prevention but opportunity." Discuss the adequacy of this view of childhood as a basis for educational practice.
5. Trace the steps through which a child probably passes in developing one or more concepts connected with your special subject.
6. Do you think it is justifiable to evaluate teachers in terms of the progress that is made by their pupils?
7. From any book you have recently read dealing with adolescents, pick out one or two points and discuss them.

Group B.

1. Does a democracy need to have schools which are independent of the official educational system? If so, on what conditions?
2. What difference has it made to the development of English education that the creation of a system of public secondary education was guided by Sir Robert Morant rather than by Sir Michael Sadler?
3. "The driving force is for status rather than for education as such" (Clarke). Use this quotation as a starting point for a critical assessment of the pattern

of English Education.

4. "We use the same word, education, for two different processes - for the general elementary instruction and social training of the mass and the severe intellectual discipline of the few." How does it come about that these two educational processes, apparently so dissimilar, can exist side by side in modern, democratic states, and can their existence be reconciled with democratic principles?
5. "What are schools for?" Discuss the difference in answers which you might expect from educationalists in this country and from educationalists in some one other country of whose educational practice you have experience or have read substantially.
6. "The lycee was founded by Napoleon in 1802; its organization, administration, social objectives, boarding facilities, classes, curricula, its uniformity and cultural superiority - all these still bear the mark of its origin." (Roger Gal, of the French Ministry of Education).

Compare and contrast the French lycee and the English grammar school.

7. What part should external examinations play in secondary education? Discuss in the light of changing opinion since 1918.

An alternative to any of the above questions

Groups A and B), a student may suggest an essay subject of his own, on which he would like to write. In the first instance he must discuss his proposal with his tutor not later than November 10th.

CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION COURSE 1957 - 1958. SUMMER TERM
 ESSAY TOPICS (3rd SPECIAL ESSAY.)

Write an essay on one of the following themes, and hand it in to the Department Office by 10 a.m. on Monday, April 21st. You may write it where and when you like, after consultation with your friends, books or notes; but all quotations must be acknowledged. This third special essay should show that you have thought about your school experience as pupil, student in training, or teacher. In length, the essay should be about what you would write in a 3-hour paper written under formal examination conditions, say 1500/2000 words. But if you have said all you have to say more shortly than that, please do not go on.

1. Discuss what seems to you to be fundamental in any one of the "beacons of permanent value in the study of education."
2. "And it has always seemed to me that every ordinary child is by nature a delinquent, that the only difference between us as children was the extent of our delinquency, whether we were found out in it, and how we were punished for it."

Joyce Cary : Charlie is my Darling.

Cary is here using delinquency in its very widest sense, and not in the legal one. Consider this view of childhood, its implications for education and for the teacher's view of himself in his relationship with children.

3. "..... the school dayshall begin with collective worship....."

Section 25 of the 1944 Education Act.

What, if anything, has this requirement to do with what you conceive to be the purpose of schooling?

4. What makes teaching memorable?

- 5.(a) "Girl number twenty," said Mr. Gradgrind, squarely pointing with his square forefinger, "I don't know that girl. Who is that girl?"

"Sissy June, sir," explained number twenty, blushing, standing up, and curtsying.

"Sissy is not a name," said Mr. Gradgrind. "Don't call yourself Sissy. Call yourself Cecilia."

"It's father as calls me Sissy, sir," returned the young girl in a trembling voice, and with another curtsy.

"Then he has no business to do it," said Mr. Gradgrind. "Tell him he mustn't. Cecilia June. Let me see. What is your father?"

"He belongs to the horse-riding, if you please, sir." Mr. Gradgrind frowned, and waved off the objectionable calling with his hand.

"We don't want to know anything about that, here. You mustn't tell us about that here. Your father breaks horses, don't he?"

"If you please, sir, when they can get any to break, they do break horses in the ring, sir."

"You mustn't tell us about the ring, here. Very well, then. Describe your father as a horse-breaker. Do doctors sick horses, I dare say?"

"Oh, yes, sir."

"Very well, then. He is a veterinary surgeon, a farrier, and horsebreaker. Give me your definition of a horse."

(Sissy Jane thrown into the greatest alarm by this demand.)

"Girl number twenty unable to define a horse!" said Mr. Gradgrind, for the general behoof of all the little pitchers.

"Girl number twenty possessed of no facts, in reference to one of the commonest of animals! Some boy's definition of a horse. Bitzer, yours."....

"Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth, namely
 . . . grinders, four eyeteeth, and twelve
 incisive. Sheds coat in the spring; in marshy
 countries, sheds hoofs too. Hoofs hard, but re-
 quiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks
 in mouth." Thus (and much more) Bitzer.

"Now girl number twenty," said Mr. Gradgrind, "you know what a horse is."

(b) "Here is the response of a child of ten to an invitation to write an essay (its genuineness is guaranteed) on a bird and a beast:

"The bird that I am going to write about is the Owl. The Owl cannot see at all by day and at night is as blind as a bat.

"I do not know much about the Owl, so I will go on to the beast which I am going to choose. It is the Cow. The Cow is a mammal. It has six sides - right, left, an upper and below. At the back it has a tail on which hangs a brush. With this it sends the flies away so that they do not fall into the milk. The head is for the purpose of growing horns and so that the mouth can be somewhere. The horns are to butt with, and the mouth is to moo with. Under the cow hangs the milk. It is arranged for milking. When people milk, the milk comes and there is never an end to the supply. How the cow does it I have not yet realised, but it makes more and more. The cow has a fine sense of smell; one can smell it far away. This is the reason for the fresh air in the country.

"The man cow is called an ox. It is not a mammal. The cow does not eat much, but what it eats it eats twice, so that it gets enough. When it is hungry it moos, and when it says nothing it is because its

inside is all full up with grass."

(Gowers - Plain Words.)

Use these quotations as starting points for a discussion about general teaching methods.

If you write on this question, you had better read at least the first two chapters of "Hard Times" before beginning to write. A number of copies will be found in the Institute Library.

6. Discuss, as between a parent and a teacher, the rule which forbids girls to wear jewellery and make-up in school.
7. "One cannot be genuinely human unless one has become the bearer of a culture. Without that, one's humanity had no determinate shape and no expressive outlets..... Hence the need for a certain measure of conformity before we can even begin to be free. It is the first business of education to induce such conformity in terms of the culture in which the child will grow up."

(Sir Fred Clarke: Freedom in the Educative Society)

Is Clarke right in stressing a measure of conformity as the pre-requisite of freedom? Discuss this with particular reference to the work of present-day secondary education in this country.

8. "A good school today is supposed, in addition to formal

teaching, to offer a way of living which, within its small compass and under artificial conditions, shall be as nearly as possible complete and satisfactory. It undertakes to provide purposefully and in concentration the food needed by the whole complex expanding nature of a boy or girl, believing that in the environment of ordinary life, whether in village, town or country, the necessary nourishment, if it is there at all, is there in such weak solution that it can be come-it only by luck or accident, and may be missed altogether."

(de Selincourt: The School-
master.)

Consider this definition of the school's responsibilities, and discuss critically with special reference to any schools of which you have personal knowledge.

It is clear that this type of general essay is concerned with the demonstration of the student's capacity to handle theoretical concepts within a general educational framework. Again their purpose is concerned more with getting the student to go through the process of thinking about educational topics and organising his ideas than with assessment as such; that is to say we are concerned more with the education of the student than with some spurious measurement, for the outcome of his thinking will be properly revealed, not in the essay itself, but in its carry-over value to his practical teaching in later years.

The lack of validity and reliability in marks assigned to essays and examinations generally is now so well known that it is unnecessary here to develop the theme beyond drawing the obvious conclusion that the assessment of these essays can only be in the broadest categories such as good, adequate, poor or possibly on a five point scale. "The essays are expected to show a grasp of subject matter, authenticity of judgment, a measure of originality, insight and a certain quality of intellectual and literary elegance. It is possible to obtain a fair degree of agreement among tutors as to the measure of these qualities in broad categories; anything in the nature of a precise numerical mark is, however, unrealistic." ¹

1) From confidential staff papers of the Department of Education, University of Bristol. 1950.

(11) Seminars and Tutorials.

It is in the small group seminar or tutorial that the tutor has the best opportunity of assessing a student's commitment to education and his ability to marshal material and wrestle with ideas. The assessment again is obviously subjective to a degree but with experience the tutor is able to make a fair judgment of a student's contribution to discussion and to the evolution of the group as a whole. The tutor's mark will then represent his personal assessment of the student as a educator, bearing in mind that tutorial experience is designed to help students in the following ways:

- (i) To have a sense that they are anchored somewhere in the Department.
- (ii) to develop their power to question presuppositions, to gain theoretical insight into what education is, and to move towards some personal definition of the aims of education.
- (iii) to grow in a capacity actively to think about education as a member of an arbitrarily assembled group (the tutorial group) of intending teachers.
- (iv) to grow in understanding of the personal relationships involved in teaching and learning.

Some of the factors discernible through tutorials and assessed in the tutor's mark will be:

- (a) the degree of the student's personal commitment
 - (i) to the enterprise of education.
 - (ii) to the theoretical study of it.
- (b) their potential, as distinct from their effort and commitment, in relation to (ii), (iii) and (iv) above.
- (c) their quality as personalities in the Departmental setting, related to an estimate of how they are likely to develop as educators in the school.

Intellectual ability, as such, and classroom skill, as such, will for the most part be assessed in other ways than through the tutor's mark, though they cannot altogether be excluded at a common sense level from the latter.

It is clear that the assessment cannot in the nature of things be more exact than a five point scale or its equivalent.

The system of longitudinal assessment has now been in operation in the Department of Education, University of Bristol for some thirty-five years. It may, therefore, be said to have been well tried, although it has not been extensively copied in other University Departments. An indication of its success in the Bristol area, however, was provided some twelve years ago at the time of the formation of the Institutes of Education in England. The affiliated Colleges of the Institute accepted the system of examination by assessment as used in the University Department and every indication is that the change is proving beneficial.

John G. Lang points out in an article in the Bulletin of Education that the key to the success of the system lies very largely in the role of the external examiner who is expected to do a great deal more under the new system than under the old.¹ The external examiner is regarded by the internal examiner as a colleague who can evaluate work in a particular subject and who can give helpful advice on difficult and controversial problems, having discussions both with the lecturer in charge of the subject and, later with individual students as well as assessing the students' work and grading them. All written and practical work in each subject is kept in a folio by each student and is available to the external examiner.

Generally this longitudinal assessment is based on the following :

- a) long essays or shorter pieces of written work.
- b) a detailed investigation of a selected topic to be assessed at the end of the course.
- c) at least two internal examinations in the case of Training College students.
- d) field work or practical work, including records where relevant, systematically kept and assessed throughout the course.
- e) oral examination.

The work of assessment is materially assisted by the use of cumulative record cards for each student.

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- 1) John G. Lang : The Examination for the Certificate in Education of the University of Bristol : The Bulletin of Education ; Nov. 1950.

"How does this system of examination by assessment compare with other systems of examining students training to be teachers? This is a difficult question to answer for many reasons, but it can be said quite definitely that the colleges of the Bristol Institute and the Department of Education all believe that the new system is decidedly superior to the old. It is too early yet to make any final judgement but it is of interest to note that many of the external examiners (drawn from a very wide range of institutions) have stated that... there has been no lowering of standards as was feared in some quarters; indeed in some subjects there has been a raising of standards." ¹

1) *ibid.*

(c) Final assessment of students.

Ideally it is no doubt desirable that a student's total commitment to teaching at the stage of professional training, including both performance in the classroom and contribution to educational thinking in the tutorial room should be assessed as a whole and expressed as one symbol.

In practice, however, even in those institutions, practising the more advanced forms of assessment, a separate mark is given for actual teaching performance and another for theoretical work. Moreover in the theoretical field wide differences of assessment practice are to be found, not only between different Commonwealth countries but also in institutions within a country. In Canadian University Departments of Education for example, we find that whereas in most cases a higher value is placed on the final examination than on assignments, classmarks and so on, an exception is found in Mount St. Vincent College which allots $66 \frac{2}{3}\%$ to class marks and the remainder to the final examination in most courses. Manitoba's general practice is that of assigning 50% to the examination and 50% to tests and reports. Ottawa and Mount Allison allow 60% for the final in most courses. St. Francis Xavier 70%, Dalhousie 75%, New Brunswick 80% and Bishop's from 80% to 100%.

In general, very few students fail the Diploma examinations, although owing to the large number of courses, major and minor, at present included in the course, a number of students are required to take supplementary examinations after a period of a few months.

Since the actual marks allotted to students in this type of examination are now well known to be unreliable and subjective it might reasonably be expected that Education Departments would take the lead in replacing such marks by more general categories of "pass" or "fail". There is still probably a case for retaining some overall symbol of "distinction", although clearly the notion of a distinguished teacher during the training period begs the question. As teachers, however, it is valuable to think each year of what has been distinguished work and to students there is a value in recognizing and being recognized, as having excellence. To retain its value, however, the symbol should be used with great discretion and should be associated with excellence and not with "the best of a mediocre group".

It is the writer's main thesis, however, that the first year of professional training should be concerned almost entirely with practical work in the school with a minimum of theoretical work, and that related closely to teaching experience. The true test therefore of anything of a theoretical nature will be found in its application in teaching. A tutor may find some aspect of a student's performance in the classroom that requires treatment. The matter is discussed at a tutorial and subsequently the tutor finds that the student has now incorporated the findings of the discussion in his teaching. It is at this level that valuable assessment can be given. It is useless for Educational Psychology to insist year after year that "a pupil's ability should be assessed in terms of his own progress" if the Department itself does not employ the same principle in

its assessment or vitiates such assessment in teaching practice by allotting spurious marks to a theoretical examination. During this first year of professional training the essential matter to assess is the student's progress towards competent and improving teaching ability and commitment.

With this re-orientation of the year's work, assessment will be associated with the applied aspect of education and theoretical considerations and assessment left to a later stage in the teacher's education. The assessment of speech ability for example should clearly be a function of the total classroom performance rather than an artificial five-minute test.

In assessing students at the end of the year there are two or three major considerations:

1. The purpose of the assessment. This is essentially concerned with a guarantee that the student is fit to be employed as a teacher. It is concerned with a minimum standard and is unfortunately affected by extraneous factors such as the state of the market and the overall quality of students offering themselves for training as teachers. Here again, it is clear that this basic standard should be concerned much more with psychological and personality factors in the student than with his ability to pass a written examination in Educational Psychology.
2. The potential of the student. The student at the end of his year of professional training is still an immature

teacher. It is important and valuable to make some assessment of his likely progress in future years. Some insight into this progress can be obtained from a study of the student's progress and improvement during the year. It is for this purpose that assessment of the student in terms of his own starting point and subsequent improvement is particularly valuable.

3. The outstanding student. Although all students are immature teachers at the end of the professional training year with such consolidation and self-confidence still to be achieved through future experience and study, it is, however, occasionally quite apparent that a student has an outstanding gift or flair for teaching. If he is prepared to associate this special ability with adequate training and organisation, he is likely to achieve distinguished work during the year and offer the probability of the continuance of such outstanding teaching in later year. Such distinguished performance needs to be recognised and encouraged by the award of an appropriate symbol or distinction mark.

Finally it should be stressed that evaluation or assessment is not an end in itself. Its sole virtue lies in the contribution that it can make to improving the performance of the teacher in the class-room. The immediate aim (of assessment) is to reveal both where individuals stand, what progress they have been making and also the effectiveness of the educational program that has been provided for them. But the primary aim is improvement, made possible by a clear

demonstration of strengths and weaknesses. There should, therefore, be a close relationship between evaluation and instruction... Evaluation can itself be a learning experience." ¹

The implication is clearly that assessment should as far as possible be thought of "longitudinally" as part of the teaching process rather than as a separate aspect of teacher training. "Evaluation ought not to be an intermittent mystery carried on exclusively by specialists but rather a persuasive activity participated in, though with expert assistance, by all faculty members and students." ²

We have already discussed in Chapter I the effect that the type of training given to teachers will have on their attitude to the education of the children they will meet in the classroom, and that democratic procedures and methods in the one is the only means of developing them in the other. "When the students have experienced the satisfaction of learning to appraise their own strengths and weaknesses and of being treated democratically by their instructors as these have carved out their evaluative responsibilities, it is likely that they will wish and know how to provide similar satisfactions for the children with whom they eventually work."

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- 1) The Improvement of Teacher Education : American Council on Education. Washington, D.C. 1946.
 - 2) *ibid.*

It has been the writer's main thesis that the first year of professional training should be almost entirely practical with little theoretical work and consequently at this stage, we should be concerned with an essentially practical assessment of the students as educators. It remains, however, to emphasize that this first qualification of teachers is only the first stage of their full certification as educators and that their final qualification should be given not at the end of this year of full time training, but at the end of their first year of actual teaching during which they will be expected to continue with their theoretical study of education on a part time basis and to satisfy examination requirements. A consideration of this second stage of teacher training will be the subject of the next chapter.

Chapter VI - The Student after Certification

- 1) The present position.
- 2) Raising the status of teachers.
- 3) The probationary year.
- 4) The further in-service training of teachers.

1) The Present Position.

The present position can be stated simply : on completion of the Diploma in Education at the end of one year of mixed practical and theoretical training a student is regarded as a teacher and need not continue his studies or training in anyway for the remainder of his teaching career. This is the position adopted by the great majority of teachers who, provided that they satisfy the requirements of Inspectors during their occasional visits, may continue to teach for some forty years without so much as attending a refresher course in the subjects they are teaching or taking any formal steps to integrate their practical experience into a comprehensive philosophy of education.

Provision is universally made in University Departments of Education for part-time study for higher degrees in education, B.Ed. , M. Ed., Ph.D., but the proportion of students proceeding even to the B.Ed. level is extremely small in comparison with the numbers of certificated teachers with a Diploma in Education turned out every year. In spite of inducements in the form of additional salary increments for further qualifications only the ambitious teacher seeking promotion in the schools or to some administrative post continues his studies in this way. This may in part be caused by unsatisfactory and hasty theoretical courses in the training year.

In addition to such provisions for formal study leading to higher degrees, enterprising University Departments of Education frequently provide voluntary short courses for

practising teachers, though this is to be found mostly in the U.K. and only to a very limited extent in other Commonwealth countries.

Reporting on one such typical session in which part-time study was associated with a period of full-time work for experienced teachers, J. A. Higginson writes :

"Recently on conclusion of the sixth session of the Diploma in Secondary Education, a course for teachers with a minimum of five years experience in Secondary Schools, we have experimented concurrently with full-time attendance for one University year and with two years part-time attendance of which one year must be spent in full-time attendance in common with the one year candidate. Full-time attendance almost invariably meant residence, with its additional chances of taking part in University life, and opinion in the survey is unanimously in favour of the extension of this opportunity." ¹

These teachers, released from the everyday tasks of schools, studied :

- a) The historical evolution of Secondary Education for all.
- b) The physical and emotional development of adolescence.
- c) English Secondary Education compared with Secondary Education in certain other countries as expounded by teachers from those countries and also in relation to primary and adult education in England.
- d) The sociological setting of education today.

1) "The In-Service Training of Teachers"; Times Educational Supplement, October 25th, 1957.

at the same time a more general philosophical study was made with much reading and tutorial work. Something of the flavour of the teaching methods used in the course comes through in the teachers' replies to an inquiry. Mr. Higginson invited all those who, having gained the new award, had also been back in the classroom for at least a year to reply to two questions: (1) In retrospect, which pieces of the course do you feel are worth retaining when we re-organise? (2) Was the time taken from your professional career worthwhile? Please be frank.

Taking the reply of one such teacher as typical of the vast majority of replies received, Mr. Higginson finds that his first comments are on the distinctive features of the University method embodied in the course, the small groups and tutorials, as opposed to massed lectures. He then passes on to the course content and finally glances at the ultimate examination. In particular, the teacher appreciated :

- (i) The small size of the group and the varied membership of it.
- (ii) The visits made by the group and the visits received by the group from a variety of educational establishments at home and abroad.
- (iii) The hall tea parties and all that went with them.
- (iv) The free time for reading books from the institute library and for "just thinking".

(He queries, was there really enough free time and wasn't there rather too much organised activity?)

- (v) The minimum of time devoted to one's own subject and hence the maximum of time for the rest of the curriculum leading to a widening of outlook, the

time for reviewing one's own subject comes in one's own time after the course.

- (vi) The study of comparative education gave perspective, the study of the historical development of secondary education in Britain including the study of one special subject was helpful.
- (vii) The study of adolescence was useful and studies of Plato's "Republic" and Whitehead's "Essays" were rewarding.
- (viii) The examination. Not for the breathless rush to answer a number of questions against the clock, but for the experience of sitting in exam conditions, which is what one's own pupils have to do so often.

He puts forward two points for consideration :

1. I gained more when a little ground was cultivated fairly thoroughly rather than when a wider field was scratched at shallow depth.
2. I felt the religious basis of education was implied rather than stated. This may be the wiser policy, but I know I felt at the time, opportunities of discussing religious and philosophical aspects of education were neglected. Almost every candidate speaks with approval of the study of the school, particularly one of a type other than one's own. (This refers to the detailed study each teacher makes of a secondary school with which he is put in personal touch.)

With regard to examination, Higginson reports that his experience is in line with that of M.F. Clark who asked a hundred teachers who had been through an advanced diploma course for experienced teachers, their views about written

examinations in such a course. Seventy-nine per cent felt that such examinations were necessary and desirable. Other considerations have to be weighed too in addition to those which are purely educational. Those who release and recommend teachers for such courses have committees to face and an examination offers evidence of a standard of attainment that is understood. The response to the question about the worthwhileness, in retrospect, of the time taken from teaching in school to follow this kind of scholarly course, produced an almost unanimous batch of affirmatives. Everyone did in fact emphasise the personal gain he or she felt and those who have tutored this kind of older group, will be aware of the therapeutic element underlying much of this work. Of particular interest, is the handful of candidates who, while eager to recognise the personal benefits, honestly raise a professional doubt; that is to say, whether the acquisition of such a diploma in the career of the teacher helps in the direction of promotion; the fact being that such a diploma is only another piece of paper and the committees responsible for promotion and so on, are more impressed with a piece of paper that gives a definite qualification in the form of a degree rather than of a diploma.

From a professional point of view, some of these teachers felt that their time would have been better spent from a professional point of view only in taking steps to acquire a further degree. From this point of view, of course, the B.Ed. degree might be considered to have more professional value. Higginson sums up by saying : "From this stocktaking, it is clear that the first phase has been encouraging, but that

some clear sighted decisions will now be called for to determine whose needs are to be served if those virtues which candidates cherish as due to the specific University settings of the course, are to be made available to increasing numbers from the variety of secondary schools." "Given imaginative handling" he says, "there is a unique opportunity of narrowing the professional gap among secondary teachers." ¹

In similar vein The American Council in Education has stressed the importance of the in-service training of teachers and the role in such training by University Departments of Education. Their Report on The Improvement of Teacher Education makes the following points :

1. If the full potentialities created by proper selection and preparation of teachers are to be realised and if children at any given time and place are to receive the best teaching possible, it is essential that the conditions under which teaching is done should be conducive to the full realisation of each teacher's existing powers. If these powers are to increase steadily, the working situation should be further conducive to continuous personal and professional development. The school system is central to the in-service teaching of teachers and provisions for such education are essential to a good system.
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1) *ibid.*

2. Democratic theory and practical experience both point to the conclusion that the improvement of teaching on the job requires that teachers should share responsibility in planning and carrying out programme improvements. Group activities designed to bring about such improvements have proved particularly effective in leading to teacher growth.
3. Such group activities today deserve particular encouragement and support as complements to more familiar and more individualistic means of teacher education in service. Individual efforts at personal and professional self-improvement through continued study, travel, summer work, experience, participation in community affairs and the like remain important. Contemporary circumstances, however, justify special attention to co-operative endeavours.
4. Every effort should be made to attract as large a proportion of teachers as possible to participation in group activities designed to improve the local educational programme.
5. Representative School Policies Councils demonstrated the value of sharing in policy making and administrative functions. They have enabled good ideas to obtain a hearing whatever their source.
6. An important function of planning committees has been the maintenance of channels of communication. Written reports have proved less successful as a means of keeping

all teachers informed about in-service programmes and have occasional meetings of the entire staff organised into small groups.

7. Study groups during the school year are the most important feature of any system centred programme of in-service education. They provide an ideal means for wide-spread participation by teachers.
8. Such groups successfully served many different purposes. They study child growth and development, local communities and the broader social scene, curricula and instructional problems, articulation between levels in a school's system, teacher welfare and staff personnel, teacher-pupil relations, school community relations and also subjects of personal interest. They lead to changes that represent programme improvements.
9. Successful group study requires a good human relations within the group to be developed and maintained. The emotional climate should be conducive to general participation and to free exchange and examination of views. Group members of superior status have special responsibilities for the creation of such a climate.
10. Local conferences when arranged to focus on topics of concern to teachers and to provide these with maximum opportunity for participation, have demonstrated their value as part of the in-service programmes.
11. Colleges and universities and their staff members have

important roles to play in the in-service education of teachers. In addition to offering on-campus instruction at the graduate and undergraduate levels, they are developing workshops and other new services related to in-service programmes promoted by particular school systems. A commendable example would be field-consultant services.

12. The tendency towards developing closer working relations between school systems on the one hand and the colleges and universities on the other in connection with the in-service education of teachers deserves all encouragement, not least because it promises to influence preservice programmes desirably. Experiments in co-operative relations whereby particular schools' systems may draw on the resources of several graduate institutions are particularly worthy of support. ¹

1) "The Improvement of Teacher Education". American Council on Education : Washington D.C. 1946.

2) Raising the Status of Teachers.

The status of teachers in society is ultimately bound up with questions of training, including in-service training.

In an outstanding analysis of the status of teachers, Carol Dare¹ draws attention to the psychological basis of low status. When children grow up they often retain memories of their instructors which are terrifying, contemptuous or grotesque. It is this memory which in later life makes them patronise or shun teachers as a whole. "Was it by chance" he asks, "that the Greeks delegated their schoolmastering to slaves?" Moreover, and again for psychological reasons, it attracts some types which are definitely unsuitable - for example a person with a driving itch for power, one who has reacted violently against the sex instinct, the timid and inferior who are looking for a place to hide from the shocks of life and the immature who want comfort without responsibility. Too many of these find a refuge in the cloistered life of the school.

To prevent this he suggests that there must be a change in the teacher's outlook and that too much specialisation is bad. The teacher should have closer and wider contacts with the rest of humanity and for this reason, a year or two in Industry, Commerce or agriculture would be valuable before commencing a University Course. Since teaching affords wide scope

1) "The Status of Teachers". Carol Dare : Journal of Education Vol. 76 No. 894, January, 1944.

for such great human qualities as enterprise and initiative the teacher must know himself as a person as well as his pupils. Only when this is achieved says the writer will the outside world treat teachers as men and women of full stature. Teachers have already done much in this respect; the profession stands today far higher in public estimation than it did 30 years ago, and almost inconceivably higher than it did in 1807.

The McHair Committee again was of the opinion that not only increased salaries and better conditions are needed to improve the status of the profession but also the standing of education itself must be raised, and this throughout the whole range of education. The McHair report points out that it does not make sense to regard the education of young people as one thing and that of adults another and quite different thing, or to consider that although it may be desirable to have cultured teachers in charge of the sixth form of the grammar school, it does not matter what kind of a person is left in charge of the education of infants, as long as she is fond of children. It goes on to say that in order to secure higher public regard for education, the universities obviously have an important role to play. As centres of study and research they ought to give education a high place in their range of studies and as institutions maintaining high cultural standards, they ought to exercise a profound influence upon the education of teachers. Teaching is indeed a form of social service, but unfortunately this encourages people to treat teachers as a race apart when the prime need is that they should be regarded

as what in fact they are, ordinary people with a personal life to live and a necessary and therefore useful task to perform. Teaching as a profession will not be accorded the esteem it deserves until the interests of men and women extend beyond the happiness of their own children and beyond schools which they happen to know and reaches out to an appreciation of Education as something of vital concern to all citizens.

Another suggestion frequently recurring is that there should be greater mobility within the profession, the narrowing existence of so many teachers at present is partly due to the fact that, in general, promotion is slow, transfer from one branch of the service to another is difficult, refresher courses are few, sabbatical leave is a thing unknown to the ordinary class-teacher. In short when a teacher fresh from college enters a classroom, it is quite likely that from then on, he will spend the rest of his teaching days in the same environment. Teachers are often criticised for holding themselves aloof from the social and cultural affairs of the community. The reason for this of course is often not hard to seek. The heavy teaching load, financial difficulty, too many school responsibilities and often an actual ban imposed on taking any active part in local or political affairs.

Cunningham and Moroy¹ list some of the things that are necessary to improve the status of teachers.

1) E.S. Cunningham and E.A. Moroy : "Children Need Teachers"; Australian Council for Educational Research ; Melbourne, 1947.

- 1) Salaries must be made comparable with other professions. This is universally recognised to be the first step to be taken and is mentioned by writers of all countries.
- 2) Certification and registration of all teachers is necessary.
- 3) Psychological reasons are very important. The restricted field into which many teachers are forced tends to narrow their whole outlook. Again there is the tendency to recruit too many specialists to the profession.
- 4) It is universally agreed that better working conditions and greater opportunities for promotion would help to improve the status of serving teachers.
- 5) Greater mobility both within the profession and without would broaden the general outlook of teachers themselves. More active contacts outside the school and more active participation in local affairs would do much to help also. The idea of more exchange posts overseas is considered valuable. A sabbatical year and refresher courses should be introduced.
- 6) Grants to intending teachers would seem to impose a means test on entry into the profession. This tends to make teaching a class occupation.
- 7) Students should not be bound down to enter the profession when they are too young and then forced to carry on against

their wishes because of heavy financial obligations. The whole system of earmarking and segregating intending teachers should be revised. (It should be noted in this connexion that since 1952, the use of the "Pledge", whereby students undertake to teach for a number of years in return for financial assistance, has been abandoned in Britain and replaced by generous scholarships free from conditions.)

8. The status will not be raised until teachers themselves develop a higher regard for the profession. They must develop a solidarity similar to that given to the medical profession by the B.M.A.
9. The status of teachers would be improved if every teacher had more share in controlling the policy and government of his school.

The McHair committee could not reach a decision on the point as to whether all teacher-training should take place in universities. Half the committee supported the one view and the other half supported the other view that separate colleges should continue, and in the actual outcome separate colleges continue to exist though, through the Institutes of Education, in close connection with the Universities. As far as the university training is concerned H.A.C. Oliver, professor of Education, Manchester, suggests ¹ that the present four year course in England should be extended to a five year course and that approximately three fifths of that time should be devoted

1) H.A.C. Oliver: "The Training of Teachers at Universities"; London, 1943.

to the study of those subjects which the student will later teach in school and two fifths of that time to subjects giving that background professional skill and knowledge which every student in training should have.

Another English Professor of Education, M.L. Jacks of Oxford University presents similar proposals in the Report on the Training of Teachers in England for the Committee on Post War University Education set out by the British Association. He too advocates a five year period of preparation, two years of which should be spent in professional studies. He believes that the university department of education should exercise control over the whole of the post-school education of intending teachers, and this he hopes will result in changes of emphasis in some of the university courses studied by intending teachers.

Such a suggestion, if carried out, would present an additional financial problem to students although this could be covered by grants and loans. If on the other hand, it were not found to be practicable to extend the course from four years to five years then it might well be that the first year of actual teaching by the student should be one in which they are still members of the department of Education of the Universities and still have work to carry out. In this way, though the first year of their professional training could be focused very much on the practical side of the training for teachers; the second year could be devoted to the more theoretical subjects.

The Training College Delegacy of the University of

London, giving evidence to the McNair Committee, also stated that two years is necessary for the completion of the purely professional studies, theoretical and practical in the case of a student who has already shown evidence of an adequate knowledge of the subjects he is to teach.

The McNair Committee is of the opinion that lengthening the present one year course for graduates would not improve the situation, but recommends instead that these teachers should have the opportunity to take refresher courses after four or five years. The advantage, however, of having the additional work done in the first year of teaching, rather than after four or five years, would be that such work could be included in the official certification of the student whereas, if he has been teaching for four or five years already, he is presumably a certificated teacher.

The Educational Institute of Scotland, in its proposals for reconstruction, recommends the establishment of a Faculty of Education in each of the Scottish Universities where the whole of the teacher training will be undertaken; this course would last for five years, three years to be spent on a general course and the fourth and fifth years to be devoted to professional training for the Teachers General Certificate. The Scottish Advisory Council on Education make several further important recommendations on teacher training. It is suggested that the status of training institutions should be raised by strengthening the staffing arrangements by developing a research department in each and by increasing the number of non-graduating teaching who take certain classes at

the University.

The Education Enquiry Committee of Australia strongly supports the view that all training for teachers should have some connection with the university. The committee states that "we do not argue that the whole of the work included in the teachers training should be carried on at university level, but we are convinced that some of the teachers' professional studies can and should be conducted in a manner and at a level which will educate the teacher-student in the sense that they will cultivate and discipline his mind. The integration of some of the professional studies into a well planned degree course would at one stroke remove the harmful effects of the sharp distinction between academic and professional studies. It would encourage far more teachers to pursue their studies to a higher level, which consideration is sufficient in itself to justify our recommendation. We believe that both the training and the educating of the teacher student should be greatly advanced and we earnestly recommend the establishment of a first degree in Education." This indeed is the case in Western Australia, where the B.Ed. is a first degree.

Cunningham and Morey list a number of requirements by which the standard of teacher training is to be improved in Australia and many of these requirements are applicable to the situation in South Africa. Among them :

1. The Training Courses for teaching should be given either by the universities or by colleges which form an integral part of the universities. The

control of such training might well be placed under a specially appointed Board on which the education department, the university and teachers' professional bodies will all be represented.

2. admission to professional courses of training for teachers should be based on the attainment of the required academic standard followed by a special enquiry by a selection Board. This would include medical, psychiatric and psychological examination preceding an interview. The purpose of this would be to eliminate candidates with communicable diseases or with mental or temperamental disqualifications for teaching. Successful completion of the training course should lead to an appointment on probation for two years. At any time during this period it should be possible to terminate appointment if marked unsuitability for teaching is revealed. At the end of the two years the selection board should, if satisfied, certify that the teacher is fully qualified. This period of probation could obviously be used for further training, both academic and practical.
3. A co-ordinating link should be established between all State teacher training institutions so that exchanges of professors and lecturers in Education could be arranged. Exchanges between inspectors should be a frequent occurrence. Exchanges should also be encouraged with England United States, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and possibly other countries. Exchanges of practising teachers should be renewed and developed to include all

English speaking countries but exchanges of those who train teachers are even more important.

4. The question of financial aid to teachers while undergoing training is part of the total question of state or commonwealth aid to student preparing for professional careers. At such it must be subject to general development in this matter. On account of its essential nature, teaching must not suffer in comparison with other professions. In the past, the other professions have attracted recruits by offering good rewards for a long period of preparation during which the student has been supported by his parents, and by the community as a whole insofar as university fees do not cover the costs of training. Public teaching services on the other hand gained recruits by giving free tuition and offering living allowances to students rather than by offering professional salaries. Security of employment and superannuation schemes have of course been part of the attraction.

Assuming adequate salaries for teachers after training, it might well be advisable to abolish fixed allowances for students in training but to have a system in which free education after seventeen or eighteen years is supplemented by a generous system of student loans for professional training as such. For those who enter the teaching service of the state and perhaps other nominated services repayment of any loan could be worked out on a long term basis with provision for certain remissions according to length of service. An arrangement such as the

foregoing would make it possible to avoid the "bond" which at present makes an unfortunate differentiation between teaching and other professions. The principle throughout should be that teaching is sufficiently attractive to hold its own with other professions taking into account the total number to be recruited, the length of time required in training and so on. By way of illustration, the actual figure to be offered would be lower than the income of the average medical practitioner because of the latter's longer period of training and of the teacher's comparative security. At the present time, however, the average medical salary is probably three times that of the average teacher, a discrepancy far too great.

5. The foregoing scheme should apply to all teachers, but a number would secure more rapid advancement through being successful applicants for senior and administrative positions. The present importance given to seniority in making these appointments arises largely from the keen competition for a small number of posts. If all teachers were well paid it should be possible to give key appointments in the main to teachers of outstanding ability while still in their late thirties or early forties. The salaries to be offered for higher educational posts must be in proportion to the increased salaries for all teachers. At present, the salaries of the highest administrative officers are far from being commensurate with the responsibility of the posts. They are considerably lower than those paid for important positions in industry or by the community for the chief positions in other Government services.

6. There should be a clearer recognition of the special qualities and qualifications needed for administrative posts in education. Special opportunities should be given to promising young teachers to undergo courses of training in Educational Administration.
7. The system of classification should not be such that it is possible to enter the teaching service only at the bottom of the ladder. Relatively mature persons of suitable qualification should be encouraged to enter the service. Special arrangements could be made for those who need professional training. At the present time some States cannot even admit to their service, except at the bottom, trained teachers from other States, unless they happen to be successful applicants for specially advertised positions. Such special positions are rare. It is especially desirable that the profession of teaching should welcome into its ranks adults who have had experience in other walks of life. The service takes on a cloistered character if its recruits consist solely of those who decide at the age of sixteen or seventeen years to make teaching their career. If teaching were made more attractive and if mature and suitable persons could be given appointments at appropriate salaries education as a whole would profit greatly.
8. Marked improvement in school buildings and equipment and reduction in the size of classes have a good effect

on the morale of teachers. These measures would abolish the feeling of frustration which is especially likely to beset those teachers who have the best grasp of the potentialities of education under good conditions. A discontented teacher is one of the strongest deterrents to the taking up of teaching by others. It is even rumoured that some teachers have actually dissuaded senior pupils from taking up teaching as a career. To the harassed administrator this may seem almost immoral. It may indeed be a dubious way of drawing attention to grievances. If this is the motive, the overriding consideration is that the teacher should have no grounds for painting an unattractive picture of teaching as a career. It is extremely bad for systems of education to cramp initiative and to over-emphasise conformity. This is due partly to the centralised control of education and partly to inadequate standards of training. One of the chief problems of the future is to work out an educational structure which will retain the important advantages of central control whilst giving much greater scope for the freedom of the individual teacher.

10. Much dissatisfaction arises in the minds of teachers because of the time and energy which has to be given to the organising of money-raising activities in order to improve school buildings and their surroundings or to obtain equipment. The teacher cannot do full justice to his work if he has to be a money-raiser for essential

or near essential equipment.

11. Finally the justification of a new deal for teachers lies not in what the teachers will gain, though they of course have their rights, but only thus can we secure that new deal for the children in our schools which will enable education to perform its functions in a modern society.

Although the McWair Report cannot find it practical politics to extend the period of graduate teacher training by an additional year, nevertheless there is wide support for the need for this extension because of the well-nigh impossible task of giving adequate training in one year and because it is felt that such extension would enhance the status of the teaching profession.

Already in 1946 the American Council on Education advised this step at the same time that it stressed the importance of a high standard of scholarship in the advanced subject matter offered in courses in Education for teachers-in-training. The chief conclusions of the 1946 Commission of the American Council are as follows:-

1. The improvement of teacher preparation depends immediately on the capacity, understanding and co-operativeness of those charged with its conduct at particular colleges and Universities. Every effort then should be made to strengthen faculties, extend participation in the realistic study of the

job jointly to be done. Encourage co-ordination to effort and support the continuous evaluation of programmes, as well as experimental efforts to better them. This implies employment of democratic procedures calculated to facilitate the in-service growth of teachers.

2. Whatever increases a faculty's sense of shared responsibility for teacher preparation, and its stock of common understanding of the factors to be considered, is likely to increase the unity of an institution or programme and lead to added effectiveness. In the co-operative study, the development of personnel programmes in which many instructors learn how to counsel students respecting personal, academic, and vocational problems, helped in this connection. So did first hand study of the schools and teachers in service and their actual problems, study participated in by both subject matter professors and educationists.
3. The use of consultants. Including college and university experts, state department officials, school administrators, and experienced teachers, proved helpful as did visits to schools and to other colleges where outstanding practices might be observed. Also of definite value were participation and work conferences, workshops and statewide co-operative studies.
4. The most effective way of making steady improvement was that which combined continuous attention to fundamental

institutional purposes and policies with spearhead attacks at a succession of particular points.

5. The most effective and justifiable recruiting and selective processes are those that consider a variety of factors together, that concern themselves with the guidance of the student, as well as with the welfare of the children and of society, that enable the individual to share in the responsibilities of decision and that provide for periodical reconsideration of the wisdom of previous decisions. Prospective teachers should be superior specimens of the culture, but it ought to be recognised that good teachers may represent various combinations of talent, background and interest.
6. The trend towards five year programmes of both Secondary and Elementary School teachers deserves encouragement where practical considerations permit it to operate.
7. Advance subject matter instructions for teachers should exhibit high standards of scholarship. Offerings in a particular field should, however, be planned and conducted with informed reference to the tasks that prospective teachers will eventually be called upon to perform. This should result in more attention to the inter-relations of departmentalised subjects and to practical implications for personal and social well being.
8. The study of human growth and development particularly during childhood and adolescence should constitute one

of the basic elements in the professional preparation of teachers. This implies attention both to a synthesis of materials drawn from various biological, psychological and social sciences and also to the cases of particular individuals.

9. Of comparable importance in teacher education, is the study of the nature of problems of community and broader social existence. Instruction should not only aim at comprehension, but also at developing the impulse to share in social action and skill in so doing. Informed social purpose and intelligent social participation are particularly desirable in teachers.
10. It is particularly important that programmes of teacher education should contribute throughout to the development and strengthening of democratic powers. These not only create the ability to think, feel and act for oneself and also capacity to work effectively as one of a group. Consequently professional preparation should consistently enable prospective teachers to share responsibility in planning and carrying out their own educational programmes and provide them with regular experience in co-operative endeavour.
11. The entire programme of teacher preparation, including extra curricula experiences, should be designed to facilitate the balanced growth of the prospective teacher as a whole person.

3. The Probationary Year.

almost universally teachers, upon certification, are appointed either directly to schools under Local Authorities, as in England, or to the service of an Educational system, as in Natal, on a probationary basis; this period of probation usually lasts for a year and is entirely a matter for the employing Authority; it has nothing to do with the University Department, nor for that matter with Training Colleges. After obtaining the Diploma or Certificate of Education from the University, the latter regards the teacher as fully trained and undertakes no further compulsory responsibility in the matter.

The McNair Report endorses this position, stressing the value of the probationary year, pointing out that the purpose of the probationary year is not to "catch teachers out", but to help the young teacher to settle into his profession with the minimum of disappointment, discomfort or difficulty.

It seems to the writer, however, entirely regrettable that the University Department of Education has no further responsibility for the teacher during this probationary year, with the exception of the extremely limited number who enrol for a further course, leading usually to a B.Ed. degree, or similar qualification for specialized work in Education such as Vocational Guidance Officer or Administrative Officer.

The McNair Report goes on to say, however, that a young teacher's first year's work should be under supervision and inspection which makes it impossible for them to secure

permanent recognition unless they have definitely shown sufficient promise to justify the expectation that they would make at least moderately good teachers.

If this is to be the case, the present practice in Australia and South Africa of sending out newly qualified teachers to relatively remote areas, away from any further contact with a University centre is to be deplored. It may well be that it is desirable to send young teachers with a minimum of personal commitments out into the remote areas in order to allow older teachers with families to return to the major cities. It seems, however, educationally unsound to do this in the young teacher's first or probationary year of teaching which would be more profitably spent in a good school under experienced teachers in the major cities. The young teacher would then develop a good teaching technique and a more mature attitude to his task which would enable him to give very much better service when posted, perhaps in his second year of teaching, to a school in a more remote area; he would have acquired something of value to take with him.

Such an arrangement, educationally sound in itself, would enable the young teacher to continue his studies part-time in the University Department during his probationary year and to receive his final accreditation both in practical teaching and in certain theoretical subjects at the end of this probationary year.

From the evidence given in the McNair Report, it seems clear that the desirable two years of full-time study after graduation for Diploma in Education students is not

likely to be implemented for many years because of obvious economic and staffing difficulties. The answer would seem to be one year of full-time study followed by one year of part-time study during the probationary year. This could easily be put into effect if young teachers newly appointed to posts, spent their first year in schools closely accessible to the University Department, and which gradually, because specially staffed for receiving and supervising such young teachers on probation. These young teachers would then still be regarded as students-in-training, although receiving full salary as teachers.

Such a system would show a threefold gain :

- (1) The students would receive a more satisfactory training for their work.
- (2) The employing authority would receive more mature and better-trained teachers.
- (3) The University Departments of Education would be in a position to recast entirely their training programmes on a two year basis and avoid much of the criticism that is now made of such courses, and which has been discussed in earlier chapters.

It has already been noted earlier that one method of overcoming the difficulties of training teachers in one academic year after graduation is to force the pedagogic preparation down into the undergraduate years. This method is favoured in Canadian University Departments of Education, following the practice in the U.S.A. The criticisms that

can be made of this method have also been noted, namely:-

1. Pedagogic preparation in the undergraduate years must detract from the highest level of academic scholarship by absorbing time and energy that would otherwise be devoted to the academic subjects.
2. While some students at the age of seventeen or eighteen are so conscious of a sense of teaching vocation that they may safely be committed to the profession at this early age, in the great majority of cases it is dangerously restrictive to insist on this early commitment which may work well in other professions. Teaching success and happiness depend to such a high degree on the maturity and personal development of the intending teacher that any forcing of the commitment is likely to defeat its purpose. Psychological insight and common sense would indicate that this sort of commitment should be made later rather than earlier in most cases, in the same way that we would deprecate early commitment to a priesthood.

The only alternative is to look towards an extension of the year of professional training to two years when this is possible. A practicable step in this direction can be taken without special provision if the probationary year can be incorporated as suggested into the period of training so that the training course can be re-organised in terms of one year of full-time preparation and one year of part-time study.

In the final chapter we shall consider in what way the most satisfactory use could be made of this proposed period

of training.

4. The further in-service training of teachers.

"A college should recognise and accept responsibility for continued service to its graduates, especially during the first year or two of active employment. Sound follow-up procedures, viewed as an integral part of the college's programme of teacher education, will have the advantage not only of assuring needed and welcome help to graduates and to the schools in which they are at work, but also of enabling the institution to maintain a constant check on the suitability and effectiveness of its own pre-service activities." ¹

None of the Education Departments contributing to this study report any organised follow-up of teachers trained in them. All of them offer post-graduate degrees in Education as a theoretical subject with proportions of students returning for such advanced courses ranging from 5% to 25% with an average of about 10%. In addition a wide range of Refresher Courses are provided, particularly in areas in England operating an Institute of Education, in the teaching of various subjects; again, these courses are entirely on a voluntary basis and it might well be the case that those teachers most in need of such further assistance do not in fact volunteer for such courses. The outcome of this situation is that throughout the Commonwealth teachers in general no longer feel that they still form part of the Faculty of Education; after certification they are "on their own", and although those most interested in either furthering their

1) "The Improvement of Teacher Education" : American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. 1946.

careers or keeping abreast of new developments in the teaching of their special subjects may do so on a voluntary basis, the University Departments are unable to maintain full contact with the newly appointed teachers and are not in a position to give the further help and guidance at an individual level which is still necessary. Recognition of this need and an attempt to do something to meet it is to be found in such Departments as that of the University of Queensland which sponsors the organisation of an Association of former students with their own News Letter and periodic meetings in the University Department where some attempt is made to deal with their emergent problems as young teachers.

It would seem, however, that a more thorough-going prolongation of the training period could be effected on lines already suggested in connexion with the probationary year during which young teachers would still be very much a part of the Faculty of Education since their final certification would be given only at the end of that year. The Department should, however, during this probationary year be concerned not only with the giving of courses in the theoretical subjects and the examination of students, but much more comprehensively with their performance as teachers in the classroom. In order to do this to the best advantage, the closest possible integration of the work of the Faculty with that of the Inspectorate is clearly essential.

Although in recent years the Inspectorate generally has been concerned to impress on young teachers that the Inspector is concerned very much more with giving advice and assistance rather than with judging and possibly condemning

the attitude of the young teacher to a visit from the Inspector is still very often one of submitting to judgment since they are, in fact, being visited by superior officers in their own professional Department of Education. The young teacher in this situation is, therefore, naturally averse very often to revealing weaknesses and doubts which he thinks, rightly or wrongly, will affect the rapport made by the Inspector and may adversely affect his career. The University Department staff tutor, however, can much more easily in the nature of things establish a freer rapport with the young teacher since his approach is less official and moreover the members of staff will during the proceeding period of full-time study by the students have become well known to them at a guidance level. It would, however, be valuable if the Inspector's reports on young teachers could be made available to the University Department in order that particular help could be given at reported weak points in the young teacher's performance by the appropriate tutor.

The most important advantage of a system in which the University Department still had a measure of responsibility, shared with the Inspectorate, for young teachers during their probationary year at least would be that the work of the University Department staff would be focussed still further on the schools and a workshop approach to the training of teachers. The continued theoretical work that students would still need to undertake during this year in order to complete their full certification would then be in effect a natural extension of their work during the first year of training and continuity would be maintained with the work in the schools in that year.

There would also be a gain to the University Department staff in having this further contact with the schools. "The importance of continuous give and take between college faculties and the staffs of representative schools is so great as to deserve special emphasis. In this way the college program can be checked at every point as to its effectiveness for teacher preparation. In this way also, the schools can be kept in constant touch with valuable resources for the steady improvement of their own programs and the systematic facilitation of professional growth on the part of their personnel." ¹

1) *ibid.*

Chapter VII

Conclusion.

Page

- 1) Main criticisms of the present situation
- 2) Guided teaching experience
- 3) The role of theoretical subjects and the evolution of teaching-training.

Chapter VII(1) Main criticisms of the present situation

"The training of teachers must always be the subject of experiment. It is the growing point of education."¹ And, it might be added, the only satisfactory root for experiment will always be a critical awareness of the shortcomings of an existing situation.

The main criticisms levelled at teacher-training in University Departments may be listed as follows:-

- (1) The course is too academic and insufficiently oriented around the actual teaching situation in the classroom.
- (2) The course, with its insistence on a heavy load of theoretical subjects is an anti-climax after the disciplines of the undergraduate years, since lack of time and proliferation of subjects make it impossible to do full justice to any of them.
- (3) There is a regrettable divorce between the study of the academic subjects in which the students have engaged for three or four years and the course of professional training.
- (4) There is some doubt, usually very much exaggerated, concerning the actual school-teaching ability and experience of some of the people engaged in training teachers.

1) The McNair Report : London, 1944.

It seems clear that these criticisms cannot adequately be dealt with inside the existing framework of a course lasting some nine months. The only possible solution, in such a framework to criticisms (1) and (2) would be the total removal of most of the theoretical work of the course, leaving a more extensive period of time to be spent in practical teaching. This solution is indeed advocated by a limited number of critics of teacher-training, but is never likely to be accepted by those who believe that teacher-training must be more than merely training classroom technologists. Nor is any adequate answer provided in such a solution to the third criticism listed. With regard to criticism (4), the only answer would seem to be that such cases are becoming rare as a wider field of selection becomes available. Nevertheless, such a weakness can obviously be so fatal to establishing the right kind of confidence in students that the greatest care is needed to ensure that posts in Training Departments are not regarded as a means of escape by unsuccessful or inexperienced teachers from an exacting profession.

(2) Guided Teaching Experience.

We have considered in earlier chapters, both the theoretical curricula of the present professional training year and also teaching practice in the schools. It is now possible to draw these two threads together and, in the light of the criticism made, attempt a synthesis of the two into the new concept of guided teaching experience, to look at the training as a whole and consider what shape it might take in an experimental re-organisation.

The needs of students in training during this first professional training year can be summarized briefly as follows:-

- (1) Actual teaching experience under supervision.
- (2) Knowledge of the administration and organisation of the educational system in general and of the working of the school in which they are practising in particular.
- (3) An association with one or more of the so-called "extra-curricular" activities of the school.
- (4) The study at case history level of a small group of children.
- (5) The study of methods of teaching and in particular methods of teaching the student's special teaching subjects.
- (6) An awareness of the most important contemporary

educational problems.

- (7) Continued contact with the student's special academic interests or the opportunity of expanding his horizons in a wide variety of optional courses, such as science for Arts graduates and humanities for science specialists.

The practice of sending students into the schools for preliminary experience without any preparation and rather on the lines of letting them sort themselves out seems undesirable. The time so employed might be better used if incorporated into a general scheme of training such as the following:-

- (1) One week at University before starting school experience during which the student could be made acquainted with the general purpose and outline of the year's work and could make the acquaintance of supervisors and lecturers who in turn would investigate the special needs of individual students and would for example discover which students needed speech attention. The allocation of students to schools best suited to their needs could be undertaken during this period and the essential liaison established between the University Department and the schools. The students could also at this time receive basic information on educational administration and general classroom procedure.
- (2) Four days a week in school throughout the year. It

should be possible during this time to enable students to have teaching experience in at least two schools. Supervisors would also spend the greater part of this time in the schools, maintaining close contact with the group of students allotted to them, building up a close association with two or three schools and a few highly capable and experienced teachers, and arranging demonstration lessons.

- (3) One day a week at University for discussion work in methods, educational problems and opportunity for the students' personal development along lines already discussed.
- (4) One week at University towards the end of the year for any assessment, finishing off case histories, final information and preparation for the following year which will be discussed in a later chapter.

It is suggested that in a scheme of this kind, in which the year is regarded as only the first stage of training, the present dichotomy between theoretical courses and teaching practice will disappear, leading to a much better integrated understanding on the part of the student of the purpose of the year's professional training. The whole course will be organised on a "laboratory" basis in the schools with the lecture room relegated to a very secondary position.

The success of such a scheme will depend very clearly on the relationship between supervisor, school teacher and the student and the willingness of all three to collaborate closely

together towards a common purpose. In this connexion the Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta stresses the importance of conferences between these three members of a team in their Handbook for Student Teaching:

CONFERENCES:

During the student teaching, conferences will prove a major source of help in increasing your teaching ability. Many problems successively arise to intrigue you. You are anxious to ask questions and talk over the situations baffling you with someone whose judgment and experience you respect. You desire a sympathetic listener to your successes and accomplishments. The sharing of ideas seems essential to your continuing growth in the art of teaching.

For such purposes as these, student-teaching conferences should be included in your program. These conferences, between you and your supervising teacher and between you and your staff consultant, should be directed to assuring good mental and physical health and at providing sympathetic and helpful guidance during your student teaching career. You will have practice in participating in conferences. You should be consistently guided toward more and more effective ways of doing your best work with children.

Conferring and consulting mean considering or counseling Democratic principles of conduct, common purposes, co-ordination of efforts and activities, and mutual respect for the other person's individuality and welfare are primary attributes of successful conference procedure. The spirit of a functioning

conference is one which permits the meeting of minds pleasantly disposed towards the best interests of the participants - in this case, the best interest of the student teacher are primary goals.

More than professional reading, more than the courses you are required to take, or other professional requirements, the conferences with your supervising teacher or staff consultant should provide the most direct help in your growth as a teacher. They should deal with your peculiar and personal needs and purposes as you work with children. These conferences are especially for you, and their primary purpose is to make you a more effective teacher.

Effective conferences do not just happen. Their value depends upon the willingness of two people to understand each other and to be socially sensitive to the welfare of each other. Conferences should be creative, the pooling of the best ideas about matters agreed upon. At least two co-operatively-minded individuals, thinking together independently, are required to make any conference worthwhile.

Some characteristics of a conference are given below:

1. Each participant has equal responsibility for determining the purpose of each conference. A clear understanding of what must be talked over should be arrived at. Individual conferences will naturally vary in their emphasis, but each must have its major emphasis.
2. Each participant must accept individual responsibility

for bringing to the conference essential information and material dealing with the subject under discussion; the supervising teacher, and more particularly the staff consultant, should have studied the student's plan-book and all other available records which contribute to the success of the conference; the student should insure that he has come equally well prepared.

3. Each participant must come willing and prepared to communicate freely and clearly - to think aloud as the meeting progresses. Differences of opinion should be set forth frankly but pleasantly. Supporting evidence should be freely sought, and the raising of important issues, the presenting of differing proposals, and the asking of pertinent question should be considered a normal phase of the conference.
4. Each participant should accept responsibility for the efficient use of the conference period, realizing that the time of busy folk is at a premium. The student should be certain that the matter proposed for discussion really warrants the attention devoted to it.
5. Each participant should be responsible for the recording of suggestions, agreements, and individual undertakings arising from the conference.
6. At the close of the conference, each participant should leave prepared to carry out the individual undertakings agreed upon. Between any two of a series of conferences, there are invariably specific things to be attended to by

one or the other of the members, with definite commitments as to any assistance to be expected from the other member(s).

7. Each participant should assume personal responsibility for objective consideration of problems discussed. Personal prejudices, bits of gossip, or harmful generalizations should have no place in the procedures. Frankness, calmness, and objectivity, rather than emotional horror, antagonism or concern, should prevail.

In preparing for the conference, the student teacher should consider carefully several questions: Have I thought through clearly and in detail my contribution to this conference? What are my real problems? What questions or statements will best bring these problems out clearly? What are the probable queries or problems which will be raised by someone else? What observations and conclusions should be presented for consideration? It would be expedient for you to jot down on a sheet of paper those matters which you wish to be considered during the conference.

Finally, the contribution of the school teacher to the success of guided teaching experience is so essential that it is most desirable that the co-operation of the local Education Authority should be obtained and that the Authority should be urged to make a special payment to practising teachers who, because of their ability and experience, are most suited to giving this assistance. It is no longer good enough to expect teachers to take on this onerous task without adequate recognition and payment. Only by such recognition

and payment can the task be raised above the level of casual assistance.

With such a year of practical training behind them, provisionally certificated teachers will then be regarded as partially trained. They will, in their first year of teaching, still be regarded as students-in-training and will undertake theoretical courses in Education to complete their qualification for the Diploma in Education and full certification.

3. The role of theoretical subjects and the evolution of the teacher.

While conceding that in the limited time available during the first training year, it is neither possible nor desirable to attempt academic and theoretical courses which can bear comparison with undergraduate disciplines, it is also clear that democratic society requires its members to have responsible knowledge and understanding of the work they are doing as well as technical expertise. To this end a study of the philosophical basis of education, of the psychological nature of children, of the historical and sociological background of education together with a comparative study of educational systems in other parts of the world are an essential part of the education of all teachers.

In a world of increasing specialization, undergraduates are more and more tending to concentrate their energies on relatively narrow fields of study, especially in the sciences. If they are to become educators in the fullest sense of the word, a corrective to this narrowness of specialization is essential and it can fairly be considered the responsibility of the Departments of Education concerned with the preparation of teachers to see that this is done. Indeed there is no other agency in a position to attempt this work.

If, however, Departments of Education are to be responsible for this function, they must clearly have the time in which to carry it out with satisfaction to the students and to themselves. It has proved satisfactory to neither to attempt to compress this work into the few months of training

now allowed since these months must of necessity be primarily concerned with the elementary practical training of students in the classroom. We have discussed earlier, the disadvantages of the Canadian system (following the pattern of the U.S.A. training institutions) in which pedagogical studies are introduced into the undergraduate years, and considered that the better solution lies in the direction of extending the training period in order that proper attention may be paid to the theoretical study of education and to the continued development of the teacher. It is worth noting that in the U.S.A. also the extension of the course of preparation of teachers to five years is supported by the American Council on Education :

"The Commission sympathises with the tendency toward the establishment of five year programs of teacher preparation. The case rests on a proper recognition of the social significance of the teacher's function and of the range and complexity of understanding and skill required for the adequate exercise of that function. Five years of collegiate and university experience is certainly not too much if a teacher's general education is to be adequately advanced, if a sufficient grounding in particular subjects is to be attained, if the necessary understanding of child growth and development and of society and the community are to be achieved, and if a suitable amount of direct experience in conjunction with classroom study is to be had. This is all the more true in a world of rapidly advancing knowledge and one marked by changes and complexities that make sound teaching a matter requiring increased understanding and skill."¹

1) "The Improvement of Teacher Education" : American Council on Education. Washington. D.C. 1946.

We have indicated that if it at present is not possible for a variety of reasons to have the students for for two years full time work in the Department, the needs of the situation could be very well met by considering them as being still members of the Department in training during their first year of teaching which is in any case a probationary year. In this way, it would be possible to envisage a two year course leading to a Diploma in Education in two stages:

- (1) Stage one :- one year of full time study with emphasis on Teaching Practice under extensive supervision and a minimum of theoretical work. Successful completion of this year's work would lead to probationary certification, enabling students to be appointed on probation to posts in the schools.
- (2) Stage two :- one year of part-time in-service training during the probationary year with further supervision of teaching and attendance at courses in the theoretical subjects which could here be expected to form a rigorous discipline. Success at the end of this year would lead to the Diploma in Education and full confirmation of teacher status.

This separation of preliminary certification from the full Diploma in Education is already adopted by many progressive University Departments of Education in England and others give every indication of moving in this direction.

Such a solution would undoubtedly enable the University Departments of Education to perform their important

task with greater satisfaction both to the students and to themselves. The over-all gain to the teaching profession is equally apparent and one might justifiably feel that the whole approach to teacher-training at the graduate level had taken an important step forward, and that University Departments of Education, by a bold experimental approach to teacher training were playing a leading role in advancing the study and practice of Education.

appendices

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Appendix IUniversity Departments contributing material to the study.

Aberdeen
Alberta
Auckland
Belfast
Birmingham
Bristol
British Columbia
Cambridge
Cape Town
Cardiff
Durham
Edinburgh
Exeter
Ghana
Glasgow
Hong Kong
Leeds
Leicester
Liverpool
London
Malaya
Manchester
Manitoba
McGill
Melbourne
Natal
New Brunswick

363.

Newcastle
North Staffordshire
Nottingham
Otago
Ottawa
Oxford
Queensland
Reading
Rhodes
Rhodesia
Saskatchewan
Sheffield
Southampton
St. Andrew's
Toronto
Western Australia

Appendix II

Example of formal type examination for
Diploma in Education

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION I.

(General)

June, 1957 : THREE HOURS

(Attempt **five** questions, including at least two
questions from SECTION A.)

SECTION A

1. 'The paradox of education lies in the fact that the process of growing up is at once intensely personal, yet essentially social.' Discuss.
2. 'We must not continue the old argument of science versus the humanities; nor must we mingle old humanities with new science. Instead the way in which the humanities are taught must be changed - or they will die.' Discuss.
3. 'To reconcile the pupil to his work it is necessary that the work should attract him.' To what extent do you agree with this statement?
4. 'It is important to realise that the ideal of a free society involves a twofold value, the value of freedom and that of society. Democracy is a community of

free men' (Report of the Harvard Committee on General Education in a Free Society.) Explain this statement and consider its bearing on education.

5. Comment on the view that, in the grammar school, excessive time is spent on teaching 'subjects' to the neglect of education of the emotions.
6. 'State-provided security is tending to develop attitudes which are by no means consistent with good citizenship.' Discuss with special reference to the role of either the secondary modern or the grammar school in fostering social principles.
7. Comment on this advice given to a schoolmaster by John Ruskin: 'Never waste pains on bad ground; let it remain rough, though properly looked after and cared for; it will be of best service so; but spare no labour on good, or on what has in it the capacity of good.'
8. 'The roots from which the impulse to freedom springs... are identical, in fact, with the roots of a true religion. It is with such roots that education is concerned' (SIR FRED CLARKE). Examine this view.
9. Give an account of the more important educational theories of either John Dewey or Bertrand Russell.

SECTION B

10. Review the arguments which might be used to decide

whether it would be better to raise the school leaving age to sixteen years, or to require compulsory part-time education to the age of eighteen years for all young workers.

11. 'Happiness is not an adequate criterion of the quality of education; every child must pass through conflict; the experience is necessary to maturity and must not be side-tracked.' Consider the implications of this statement with regard to school discipline.
12. 'The great danger facing the secondary modern school is the danger of sacrificing the fundamental content of education to catch the fleeting interest of pupils who are hostile or quite uninterested.' Discuss the truth and the implications of this view.
13. Discuss the arguments for and against a leaving examination in the secondary modern school.
14. 'Science is now ravelled up in everything we do and think about the world, and it must, therefore, be taught to everyone, as English and history are, as a necessary and imaginative part of their culture.... How can the syllabus of schools be changed so that it can make the fundamentals of science native in the mind of every pupil?' (J. BRONOWSKI). To what extent do you agree with this statement and how, briefly, would you attempt to answer the question?
15. 'Television will increasingly present a challenge to

the work of the class teacher.' Discuss.

16. What visit made to a school or institution has most interested you? Discuss the principles underlying the work of the school or institutions selected and consider their practical application.
17. Write a critical review of one book on education (other than a history) published during the last fifty years.
18. Discuss the influence of education in general, and public examinations in particular, upon social stability in this country.

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION II.

(Prescribed Books)

June, 1957 : THREE HOURS

(attempt **five** questions, including not more than **three** from either section. Answers to each section to be handed in separately.)

SECTION A

1. Explain and discuss the definition of justice put forward by Thrasymachus, showing to what extent you agree with the criticisms of it made by Socrates.
2. Show how Plato's account of the origin of the state is related to his analysis of the individual soul.
3. What account of the prevailing attitudes to morality is provided by Glaucon and Adeimantus, and why did they consider such attitudes undesirable?
4. State as precisely as you can why instruction in 'music' was considered by Plato an essential part of the education of the young.
5. Indicate the more important respects in which our own educational aims and methods differ from those described in the Republic.
6. Elucidate the following statement of Socrates: "To produce justice is to put the parts of the soul in their natural relations of authority or subservience...."

so that virtue, seemingly, will be a kind of health and beauty and good condition of the soul, vice a disease and ugliness and weakness.' Discuss the statement, making clear your own views on moral training and the attitude to be adopted towards moral delinquents.

7. Explain what Plato meant by a "Form" and show how his 'theory of Forms' influenced his proposals concerning the higher education of the guardians.

SECTION B

8. 'Aristotle is not a hedonist but a eudaimonist.' What does this statement mean? Outline his conception of the ultimate end of human action.
9. Explain carefully, with illustrations, Aristotle's contrast between 'potentiality' and 'actuality'. How, precisely, does he use it in his account of the development of moral character?
10. 'We require to be trained from our earliest youth, as Plato has it, to find pleasure and pain at the right things. True education is just that.' Explain and criticize Aristotle's view of the importance of habit in education.
11. 'The vaunted principle of Aristotle that virtue is a mean between two vices is false' (KANT). What can be said in Aristotle's defence? Discuss fully.
12. 'What we have to do is to put on immortality so far as we may, and to do all that we do with the view of

living the life of the highest thing in us.'

Elucidate this remark and consider what relevance
it may have for us today.

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION III

(Logical and Psychological Basis of Education)

June, 1957 : THREE HOURS

(Attempt six questions; at least three questions and not more than four must be taken from section C and the remaining questions either from section A or from section B. Answers to each section to be handed in separately. Candidates are required to pass in both sections of the paper.)

A. LOGIC AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD

1. 'What is called induction appears to be either a disguised deduction or a mere method of making plausible guesses' (B. RUSSELL). Discuss.

What view do you hold of the relation between induction and deduction?
2. (a) Granted that Some girls are intelligent is true, show which of the following statements may be inferred to be true, which false, and which doubtful:
 - (i) Some who are not girls are unintelligent.
 - (ii) No intelligent people are girls.
 - (iii) Some intelligent people are not other than girls.
 - (iv) No unintelligent people are girls.
 - (v) Some girls are not unintelligent.
- (b) Show by means of the general rules of the

syllogism, together with the corollaries, in how many ways it is possible to prove a proposition of the form AEP .

3. Express the following arguments as syllogisms, giving a symbolic representation and indicating distribution. Examine their validity and, if invalid, explain why:
 - (a) The introduction by the Government of Premium Bonds is an investment for everybody who desires monetary gain. It is not a gamble, because the investors cannot lose their money. It follows that gamblers are never motivated by monetary gain.
 - (b) There must be some members of the class who do not understand the lecture which was delivered last Monday, for though all who were present understood it, some were absent.
 - (c) The country needs strong, silent men. It follows that politicians are useless, for they all talk too much.

4. Examine the following arguments for validity, expressing them where possible in logical form. If they are invalid, explain why:
 - (a) Thrift ensures a comfortable old age. So spend, and end up in want if you must.
 - (b) Either the Pythagorean theorem in geometry is true

or it is not worth the labour of studying it; but it is true; therefore it is not worthwhile to study it.

(c) This author is certainly muddle-headed; for if I follow his argument, he is certainly muddled, and if I do not follow it, he is obscure in his statement of the argument.

5. What do you understand by the Law of the Uniformity of Nature and what is its value in inductive reasoning?
6. 'How odd it is that anyone should not see that all observation must be for or against some view, if it is to be of any service' (CHARLES DARWIN). Discuss, in the light of this statement, the role of hypothesis in scientific method and give illustrations from any science known to you.

B. STATISTICS AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD

7. Explain the terms 'rank order', 'median', 'quartile', 'percentile', and give some instances of the use of percentile scores.

The following marks were obtained in an examination:
 5, 10, 20, 27, 33, 37, 41, 43, 45, 46, 48, 48, 50, 51,
 51, 51, 53, 54, 56, 56, 58, 60, 63, 66, 72, 75, 79, 84,
 88, 91, 96. Draw a cumulative frequency curve for this distribution of marks and describe how this curve may be used to obtain percentile scores. Give the percentile

score corresponding to a mark of 75 and the mark corresponding to the 75th percentile.

8. Explain the terms 'mean' and 'standard deviation' and give instances of the uses which are made of these statistics.

For the set of marks given in the previous question, calculate the mean and the standard deviation. If these marks are now scaled to give a mean score of 100 and a standard deviation of 15, calculate the scaled scores corresponding to marks of 75 and 88 marks.

9. (a) A multilateral school has 500, 200 and 200 children in the modern, grammar and technical sides respectively. In a school society there are 40 children from the modern, 35 from the grammar, and 15 from the technical side. What 'null hypothesis' would you set up to test whether the society represents a random sample of the school as a whole? Would you have to reject this hypothesis?

(chi-square, for 2 degrees of freedom, is 5.99 at the 5 per cent. and 9.21 at the 1 per cent. level).

- (b) In an experiment a test of observation was given to children in the 'A' and 'B' forms of a grammar school. The results (rounded) were as follows:
 'A' form, 25 pupils, mean score 6.0, variance 5.5;
 'B' form, 30 pupils, mean score 5.0, variance 3.5.
 Did the forms differ significantly in performance

on this test?

(For 53 degrees of freedom, t is 2.00 at the 5 per cent., and 2.66 at the 1 per cent. level.)

10. Describe the place which statistical techniques occupy in scientific procedure.
11. Plan an experiment to determine whether the Direct Method is more effective than the traditional way of teaching Latin, making use of the Method of Agreement and the Method of Difference. Show how Mill's formulation of these Methods was inadequate and how your investigation would take these deficiencies into account.
12. Discuss the view that scientific theories describe but do not explain what occurs.

C. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

13. 'Obviously heredity is reinforced by environment, and it would be a bold sociologist who claimed to be able to separate and measure the contribution of each.' Describe and summarize the results of investigations which have been undertaken in order to justify such a claim in the field of intelligence.
14. Give and discuss briefly three examples of the bearing of psychology on education and the training of children.
15. Write notes on two of the following: (a) the conditioned response; (b) whole and part methods of learning;

- (c) the length and distribution of learning periods;
 - (d) reward and punishment in learning.
16. Give a short description of any one type of intelligence test. Enumerate some of the ways in which intelligence test results may be expressed and say what information these afford about those tested.
17. What are the chief difficulties involved in obtaining a reliable measurement of educational attainments? Give a brief account of some of the means which may be employed to minimize these difficulties.
18. Discuss some of the problems involved in allocating pupils to appropriate courses of secondary education.
19. For what types of maladjustment would you refer children to a Child Guidance Clinic? What methods of investigation and treatment are used in a typical clinic?

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

June, 1957 : THREE HOURS

(Attempt five questions, not more than three from any one section of the paper. Answers to each section to be handed in separately.)

A. ENGLISH

1. Make notes for a lesson in which the following poem is included, stating the age of the children for whom the lesson is intended:

PANGUR BAN

Written by a student of the monastery of Carinthia on a copy of St. Paul's Epistles, in the eighth century.

I and Pangur Ban, my cat,
'Tis a like task we are at;
Hunting mice is his delight,
Hunting words I sit all night.

Better far than praise of men
'Tis to sit with book and pen;
Pangur bears me no ill-will;
He too plies his simple skill.

'Tis a merry thing to see
At our tasks how glad are we,
When at home we sit and find
Entertainment to our mind.

Oftentimes a mouse will stray
In the hero Pangur's way;
Oftentimes my keen thought set
Takes a meaning in its net.

'Gainst the wall he sets his eye
 Full and fierce and sharp and sly;
 'Gainst the wall of knowledge I
 All my little wisdom try.

When a mouse darts from its den,
 O how glad is Pangur then!
 O what gladness do I prove,
 When I solve the doubts I love!

So in peace our tasks we ply,
 Pangur Ban, my cat, and I;
 In our arts we find our bliss,
 I have mine and he has his.

Practice every day has made
 Pangur perfect in his trade;
 I get wisdom day and night,
 Turning darkness into light.

(ANON : translated from the Gaelic by Robin Flower.)

2. Since most children engage freely in oral composition without encouragement from teachers, what justification is there for devoting teaching periods to the subject? What do you believe to be the criteria by which an oral composition lesson should be judged? Write notes for an oral composition lesson, indicating the age of the pupil and the type of school.
3. Discuss the value of precis-writing, and outline a lesson on summarising to be given to a class of fourteen year old children in a secondary modern school.
4. Indicate what different kinds of written composition you would expect the children in a middle form of a grammar school to attempt during a school year. Write notes for a lesson designed to give guidance concerning

the writing of one such kind of composition.

5. Plan a term's work for a class of fourteen-year-old grammar school pupils studying Macbeth. Write an account of the introductory lesson to be given.
6. Discuss any one of the following:
 - (a) 'Formal sentence analysis and analysis into clauses is neither a congenial nor a desirable pursuit for the non-linguistic type of child.'
 - (b) 'Many English classics selected for study in the grammar school do not provide an incentive to reading.'
 - (c) 'The double English period in the secondary modern school is of advantage neither to teacher nor pupil.'

B. MODERN LANGUAGES

1. 'A phonetic approach to the study of a modern language is the only way to ensure good speech habits.' Discuss this statement and say what special features would characterize your work in the first few weeks of a modern language course. Specify the age-group and the language you have in mind.
2. Give some idea of the way in which you would deal with a specific play of Racine or of Lessing or of Lope de Vega in a sixth form, in order to ensure adequate preparation for the advanced level examination and at

the same time widen the culture of your pupils.

3. What long-term and what intensive preparation would you make with pupils presenting themselves for the oral examination in French, German, or Spanish at Ordinary level, G.C.E.?
4. Would you agree that the 'middle-school ruddle' in the modern language class-room is a reality? If so, how would you (a) deal with it, (b) prevent it from arising?
5. How would you attempt to build up ability and interest in the reading of a foreign language in the main grammar school course?
6. Name and discuss **five** types of modern language lesson which you would judge linguistically effective with children of twelve years of age in a secondary modern school. Make precise reference to the environment and interests of the children you have in view.

C. GREEK AND LATIN

1. What cogent arguments may be put forward for the retention of Latin or Greek or both in the grammar school curriculum today? Indicate clearly in your answer what you consider to be the main aims of classical study.
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Direct Method in Latin teaching? How far is a modified or partial use of it possible or desirable?

3. How would you distinguish between suitable and unsuitable homework at various stages of the main school course? Illustrate your answer from either Latin or Greek.
4. In giving an impression of Graeco-Roman civilization to pupils under sixteen years of age, what are the matters which you consider of most importance and how would you bring them home?
5. 'For the English pupil continuous prose composition is probably the most beneficial exercise and the most important part of his study of the Latin tongue.' Attack or defend this statement, and describe how you would teach prose composition to a first-year sixth-form class.
6. Select a book of the Aeneid or of the Georgics and indicate the sort of background you would give to your pupils in the course of the year to help them to an appreciation of the book.
7. Discuss the difficulties which arise in the teaching of Greek from the demand for the exclusion of all but Attic or atticized writers in the interests of Greek composition.

D. HISTORY

1. 'Anyone who is going to make anything out of history will, sooner or later, have to do most of the work himself or herself' (G. BARREACLOUGH). Discuss this statement and its implications for the history teacher

in school.

2. What, in the light of your recent experience in secondary schools, would you suggest should be the aims of history teaching in the primary school?
3. 'History can only be studied effectively when the boy's mind is reaching a certain stage of maturity. There is much to be said for by-passing history as an examination subject in the fifth form' (P.C. HAPPOLD). Do you agree with this view?
4. Examine critically the history syllabus of either (a) the secondary grammar, or (b) the secondary modern school in which you have been teaching recently.
5. Enumerate the various aids available to the history teacher. Assess the value of, and illustrate in some detail how you would use, any one of them.
6. Consider the place and importance of (a) essays, and (b) individual reading, with reference to history teaching in the sixth form.

E. GEOGRAPHY

1. 'At no time did the youth of our country need more greatly to be shown the mental stimulus combined with the solace of mind and spirit which come from learning to read and understand the country' (S.V. WOOLBRIDGE). Discuss in relation to the teaching of geography in schools.
2. Either, comment on the value of two of the following

in presenting a broad view of the world in the modern school: (a) farm adoptions; (b) pen friends; (c) travel pamphlets; (d) shipping reports.

Or, in treating the regional geography of any one continent with children of thirteen years of age, how would you contrive to make your teaching both realistic and purposeful?

3. Examine the use and misuse of visual aids in the teaching of geography.
4. Discuss any problems which you encountered during your school practice in teaching the interpretation of Ordnance Survey topographical maps.

P. MATHEMATICS

1. 'Mathematics should be seen to be an integral and worthy part of a young child's education' (Mathematical Association's Report on The Teaching of Mathematics in Primary Schools). Discuss some of the reasons you would advance for including mathematics in the curriculum of the primary and the secondary school.
2. Choose any topic normally included in the mathematics syllabus for first-year pupils in a grammar school, and draw up notes for a short series of lessons on it.
3. How would you introduce the subject of logarithms? State the type of class you have in mind.
4. Write on one of the following topics:

- (a) The importance of oral work in the teaching of mathematics.
 - (b) The value to the teacher of a knowledge of the history of mathematics.
5. Mention possible causes of backwardness in arithmetic. Discuss one or two in detail, suggesting remedial measures.
6. 'Some of the ideas which require systematic discussion as soon as the pupil begins a calculus course may usefully be introduced incidentally and informally at a much earlier stage' (Mathematical Association's Report on The Teaching of Calculus in Schools). What are these ideas, and in what way can earlier work contribute to the understanding of them?

G. NATURAL SCIENCE (PHYSICS)

1. 'The stimulating nature of the advance in science has not been matched by an increase in the stimulating power of the teaching' (PROFESSOR ROSENHEAD). Discuss this judgment with reference to physics and in the light of your own experience.
2. Outline a series of lessons suitable for middle forms in a grammar school or **either** (a) electromagnetism leading up to the electric motor and dynamo, or (b) specific and latent heats. Mention any practical work (demonstrations or individual experiments) which is to be done.

3. Write full notes for a lesson on either (a) Ohm's law, or (b) the reflection of light. State the type of class you have in mind, and include any instructions you would give the pupils to guide their practical work.
4. What would be your aims in teaching the topic 'machines' to the senior boys in a secondary modern school? Outline the course you would present if you had none of the usual laboratory apparatus except for some weights and spring balances. (Some boys would be willing to lend their Meccano sets.)

H. NATURAL SCIENCE (CHEMISTRY)

1. 'Our aims in teaching should constantly keep in mind the need for providing a background or 'recognition' knowledge of a broad outline of the scientific field, together with a more detailed and even 'research' treatment of certain specialized topics' (SUMNER, 1947). Discuss this statement in connexion with the teaching of chemistry.
2. How would you deal with the topic 'acids, Bases and Salts' in the grammar school curriculum?
3. Draw up a scheme of brief lesson-notes on Chemical Combination as an introduction to chemistry at secondary school level, mentioning the experiments to be demonstrated and the substances to be used in them.
4. Indicate your treatment of the subject of Crystallization from the first elementary ideas up to advanced

level of the G.C.E.

5. State the chief difficulties likely to be encountered when large classes have to carry out gravimetric or volumetric experiments in the chemistry laboratory, and say how you would propose to overcome these difficulties.

I. NATURAL SCIENCE (BIOLOGY)

1. 'I recall, when addressing a college class at the beginning of a session, suggesting that the test they should all apply as to whether I was teaching them botany in the right way and whether they were learning it in the right way, was whether or not their study of botany made a walk in the country more interesting' (SIR EDWARD SALISBURY). Comment on this criterion, and consider also its applicability to the teaching of zoology.
2. You are responsible for introducing biology into a grammar school and you are required to select (a) textbooks for use in junior, middle and upper forms, and (b) books to form the nucleus of a biology reference library. State briefly the considerations you would have in mind in making your choice.
3. Describe how you would teach the circulatory system of a mammal to fourteen-year-old grammar school children who had just finished studying digestion. (allow yourself about two double periods.)

4. Write notes on two or three of the following:
- (a) School natural history societies.
 - (b) Teaching biological names and terms.
 - (c) Microscopic phenomena in the biology syllabus.
 - (d) Teaching embryology to the sixth form.
 - (e) Pupils' note books.
5. 'The classroom and the science laboratory can be just as limiting as the printed word, for biology can be taught in gardens, aquaria and museums no less than in laboratories.' Critically examine this statement with particular reference to the urban school.

J. NATURAL SCIENCE (GENERAL)

1. 'An invaluable introduction to science could be given in Primary schools' (The supply of mathematics and science teachers.) Describe the form which such an introduction might take, mentioning any changes which it may be necessary to make in the secondary schools general science course.
2. It has been said that in grammar schools there is 'too little emphasis on the know how and too much on the know what', and the General Science examination syllabus in particular has been condemned on these grounds. Give your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with this criticism and, if any are necessary, suggest modifications which might be made to the teaching of the subject.
3. Assuming that you are responsible for the teaching of

all branches of General Science to middle forms in a grammar school, how would you deal with the topic 'energy'?

4. Outline the main features of the chemistry of nitrogen as required for a General Science course.

K. SCRIPTURE

1. 'The scripture teacher must attempt to translate the realities of Christian belief so that they become meaningful and relevant for the modern mind.' Consider some of the difficulties involved in this task and how you would seek to surmount them.
2. Enumerate the main principles involved in the construction of any one syllabus of religious instruction which you have studied. Indicate what criticisms, if any, you would make of its plan of selection or arrangement.
3. Discuss the special value in school education of the use of (a) the Authorised Version, (b) The Revised Version, (c) a Modern Version, (d) a Shorter Bible, containing selected passages.
4. What, in your opinion, is the importance of the Old Testament in the teaching of Christianity in schools?
5. What are the main difficulties which arise in handling the Biblical stories of miracles? Show, with illustrations, how you would tackle some of these difficulties, and specify the age of the children you have in mind.

6. 'Biblical scholarship has destroyed the mechanical infallibility of the Bible.' How does this fact affect the task of the teacher? In what sense, if any, can the Bible still be studied as 'the Word of God'?

L. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

A. (Men)

1. What are the aims and objects of Physical Education in schools?
2. What do you understand to be the functions of the Organized Games periods in a school physical education programme?
3. What form of progression is recommended by the Football Association for teaching the various skills of the game to school groups? Illustrate your answer with reference to one particular skill.

B. (Women)

4. Netball is the most common winter game for schoolgirls. Why? Describe the game, give major rules and penalties for their infringement, and outline some preliminary class practices for this activity.
5. For a class of girls in the eleven plus age-group make up a framework for a weekly dance session of ten weeks. Give your programme for the first and last class.
6. Describe the class method of teaching beginners in

390.

swimming (a) breast stroke, (b) diving, both
on the bath side and in the water.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

June, 1957 : THREE HOURS

(Candidates who take Experimental Psychology are allowed Two hours in which to attempt four questions, including at least one question from each section.

Candidates who take History of Education (special periods) are allowed Three hours in which to attempt five questions; including at least two on their selected period and at least one from each of the other sections.

Answers to SECTIONS A, B, and C to be handed in separately.)

SECTION A

1. Estimate the importance of the printers' contribution to educational thought and activity in western Europe during the sixteenth century.
2. Discuss the view that the new Church in England during the Tudor period assumed the control of education previously exercised by the old Church.
3. In what respects do the opinions of Erasmus on the education of the young differ from those expressed by Elyot in *The Governour*?
4. What suggestions for improving the educational system

system of their times were made by Francis Bacon and Charles Loole?

5. Compare and contrast the views on education of John Milton and Sir William Petty.
6. Discuss the opinions of John Locke and Johann Amos Comenius on the parts to be played in education by (a) discipline, and (b) religious instruction.

SECTION B

7. What form of elementary instruction in the eighteenth century seems to you to have been the most effective preparation for compulsory elementary education in nineteenth-century England?
8. 'The foundations of the Civic University were really laid in the eighteenth century.' To what extent do you agree with this statement?
9. To what extent do Pestalozzi's educational principles conform with Rousseau's plan for the education of Emile?
10. State the achievements of Kay Shuttleworth in his work for elementary education and explain why the phrase 'conciliatory leadership' may be applied to his work in this sphere.
11. Comment on the work and significance of one of the following: the Newcastle Commission, the Taunton Commission, or the Bryce Commission.

12. Assess the value of the contributions made to educational thought by Newman's Idea of a University and Arnold's Culture and Anarchy.

SECTION C

13. Outline the expansion of public education in England and Wales since 1895 and comment on the view that a silent social revolution has taken place.
14. How far is it true to say that the roots of the 1944 Education Act lie in the Education Act of 1918 and in the Cadow Report?
15. Account for the recent rise to power and responsibility of Local Education Authorities and comment on the attendant administrative organization.
16. Examine critically either the development of public examinations in the last fifty years, or the expansion of university education in this century.
17. Write a critical account of the development during the present century of the social and medical services available to schoolchildren.

PHYSIOLOGY AND SCHOOL HYGIENE

June, 1957 : TWO HOURS

(Attempt five questions)

1. What benefits follow in normal children from vigorous muscular exercise?
2. Into what main classes are foods divided? What need does each class of food supply? Where do the products of digestion pass when they leave the intestine?
3. Give a brief account of the chief parts and functions of the central nervous system, using annotated diagrams if possible.
4. What endocrine factors influence the menstrual period in women?
5. What is a virus? Name three or more important diseases caused by viruses. Against which is some immunity obtained by vaccines?
6. Why is ventilation of classrooms important? Describe one method of ventilation and assess its value.
7. State what needs the following organs or substances supply : (a) iron, (b) the thyroid gland, (c) the kidneys, (d) the iris of the eye, (e) the Eustachian tube.

HISTORY OF MUSIC AND FORM

June, 1957 : Pages 40-41

(attempt five questions, of which one must be taken from SECTION A, one from SECTION B, and three from SECTION C.)

SECTION A

1. Describe the differences between rondo, sonata, and sonata-rondo forms.
2. Define the differences between suite and sonata, sonata da camera and sonata da chiesa, fantasia and fugue, ballad and lied.

SECTION B

3. Write a brief account of any five of the following: Josquin des Pres, Monteverdi, Tallis, Kuhnau, Spohr, Scriabin, Lully, Palla, G. S. Weinberger.
4. Write brief notes on six of the following: gigue, toccata, tritone, sonnet, passacaglia, cantata, tango, canzone, oratorio, ballet-music, Julecker, viola d'amore.

SECTION C

5. Describe the influence of Handel and Vivaldi on music in England.
6. Give details of the orchestras used by Monteverdi, Bach, Beethoven, and Strauss.
7. Plan a lesson to a class (aged about fifteen) on either the piano or the organ. The lesson is not to include the

playing of pieces.

8. Trace the development of modern music.
9. Describe the influence on music of one of the following : Bach, Schubert, Schumann, Debussy.

Appendix III.FORM 150 R.T.C.
(1958/9)

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

GRANTS FOR RECOGNISED STUDENTS AT DEPARTMENTS OF
EDUCATION

1. This form applies to recognised students at University Departments of Education (including students taking the year of professional training for intending art teachers.) It applies also to serving teachers not seconded on salary who attend supplementary courses or special courses for experienced serving teachers as recognised students at University Departments of Education or Institutes of Education. It does not apply to serving teachers seconded on salary to take such courses. Reference to Departments apply equally to Institutes. Paragraphs 9 to 16 concern only students dependent on their parents, paragraphs 17 to 25 only self-supporting and married women students. The grants, income scale and method of assessment described below are those in force at present and may be revised in 1958/9.

Grants

2. The maximum grants to recognised students are:-
- (a) a term-time maintenance grant for board, lodging and incidental expenses (see paragraph 3);
 - (b) a tuition grant (see paragraph 5);
 - (c) a vacation maintenance grant (see paragraph 6).

3. The maximum annual term-time maintenance grants are:-
Oxford and Cambridge Universities

Resident students-

	£
(a) College, hostel or lodgings	283
(b) St. Catherine's Society and Fitzwilliam House	265
(c) St. Anne's College, lodgings	265
(d) St. Anne's College, others	243
Day Students	182

London University

Resident students-

(a) College or hostel	252
(b) Lodgings	243
Day students	171

Other Universities and University Colleges

Resident students-

(a) College or hostel	225
(b) Lodgings	212
Day Students	156

A resident student is one living in a college, hostel or approved lodgings; a day student is any student other than a resident student. For the purposes of assessment a married woman living with her husband is always regarded as a day student.

4. The term-time maintenance grant includes an element for necessary travelling expenses during term-time, on travelling to and from the university at the beginning and end of term and on teaching practice. For a resident student at any Department and for a day student in London the element so included is £10; for day students elsewhere the element is £5. Where a Department is satisfied that a student's travelling expenses necessarily exceed these sums, it pays grant to cover the excess.

5. The maximum tuition grant is the full tuition fee for the course. It is not paid in cash but the student is not required to pay anything towards the cost of tuition unless his contribution (see paragraph 7) has completely extinguished the term-time maintenance grant.

6. Vacation maintenance grants are:-

Oxford and Cambridge	£25
London and other Universities and University Colleges	£20

In practice some Departments do not pay these grants separately but add them to the term-time maintenance grant. They are not normally paid where the parents' "scale income" (see paragraphs 15 and 16) exceeds £1,000.

Students' Contributions

7. A student dependent on his parents is required to contribute towards the cost of his training in accordance with his parents' (and his own) income, a self-supporting student

in accordance with own and, if he is married, with his wife's income. grants described above are paid in full only if the condition is assessed at nil. Otherwise the student's contribution reduces the term-time maintenance grant. If it equishes it completely, the balance reduces the value of the tuition grant.

8. The Department assesses the student's contribution (except for students eligible for dependants' grants, who are the responsibility of the Ministry) and the "home" local education authority certifies the information given on Form 155 R.T.C. (see paragraph 9) or Form 155a R.T.C. (see paragraph 19). The "home" local education authority is the County or County Borough Council in whose area the student will live during the vacation or, where there is no such authority (e.g. if he will live outside England and Wales), the County or County Borough Council for the area in which the Department lies. Forms 155 and 155a R.T.C. for students from Jersey, Guernsey and the Isle of Man are sent to the authorities for those areas.

Assessment of students' contribution for students dependent upon their parents

9. When a student is accepted by a University Department of Education as a recognised student, it sends him or his parents two copies of Form 155 R.T.C., on which the parents give particulars of the student's and their own income. The father or guardian completes sections A, B and D and sends the forms to the "home" local education authority which, after any necessary

investigation, sends one copy to the Department. The Department then assesses the student's contribution, deducts it from the maximum maintenance grant and pays the balance to the student in instalments. Pending an accurate assessment, students normally receive at the beginning of the session an advance payment "on account" of part of their maintenance grant. All information about financial circumstances is treated as strictly confidential.

10. If a parent has other dependent children attending Departments or training colleges as recognised students of universities as State Scholars he pays only one contribution, which is divided equally between the children. No allowance may, however, be made under paragraphs 14(e) and (g) for such children. Local education authorities have been asked to adopt the same procedure where other dependent children hold Major Awards.

11. Where the student has unearned income of his own during the course (other than an award or bursary from the University or assistance from any other body - see following paragraph), the Department ignores the first £50 and treats the balance as follows:-

- (a) if the parents' scale income is £450 or less, the whole balance is added to it before the student's contribution is assessed;
- (b) if the parents' scale income is between £450 and £750 half the balance is added to it before the student's contribution is assessed; the other half is added to the contribution after it has been assessed;

- (c) if the parents' scale income exceeds £750, the whole balance is added to the student's contribution assessed on the scale income.

12. A student may retain any non-recurring grant awarded from school-leaving scholarships, educational trusts or other such funds up to £100 without any reduction of grant. Prizes and awards of merit which are in the nature of single payments made after competition or in recognition of merit may also be retained up to £100.

Assessment of students' contributions for students dependent on their parents

13. The student's contribution is calculated from the "scale income" by reference to the scale set out in paragraph 15. To determine the scale income, the first step is to take the total gross income, including that of the wife, from all sources, earned and unearned, for the last complete financial year ended 5th April. Commission, bonus, overtime, deferred emoluments, proceeds of partnership or profit-sharing schemes, value of free quarters or meals, income from lodgers, etc., net annual value of owner-occupied house, family allowances, unemployment benefit, sickness benefit, pension, etc. (but not disability pension) are also included in total gross income. It is not necessarily that used for assessment of income tax, particularly where that assessment includes allowances for capital expenditure or where (e.g., in the case of a newly established business) special arrangements or concessions have been made by the income tax authorities.

14. From the income as defined in paragraph 13 may be deducted:-

- (a) contributions to a superannuation fund under a Superannuation Act or compulsory superannuation scheme (but not National Insurance contributions); or
- (b) life insurance premiums or contributions to a voluntary superannuation scheme up to 10 per cent of the total earned income, if no contributions are payable under (a).

Both (a) and (b) are allowable if together they do not exceed 10 per cent of the total earned income. Where the pension scheme is non-contributory, deduction for (b) should be made only up to 5 per cent of the total earned income.

- (c) ground rent and mortgage interest in respect of owner-occupied property;
- (d) annual payments (other than rent, rates, insurance premiums and payments under an educational trust) which are made under a legal agreement or covenant and from which the payer is entitled to deduct income tax but not necessarily including all items (e.g. cost of tools or protective clothing), in respect of which an allowance is made against income tax;
- (e) £150 for each additional wholly dependent child (but see paragraph 10);
- (f) an allowance for other dependents (e.g. relatives or

other children earning but not self-supporting) assessed at the discretion of the local education authority with a maximum of £150 and in no case exceeding the estimated amount of the parent's assistance to the dependant;

- (g) the cost of school fees (including boarding) and other educational expenses (with a maximum of £150 for each wholly dependent child other than the student) and of university education of professional training (with a maximum of £300 for each child, but see paragraph 10);
- (h) an allowance assessed at the discretion of the local education authority for additional expenses caused where the mother is employed or incapacitated and a housekeeper or domestic assistance is necessary.

15. The scale income is the income as defined in paragraph 13 less any of the allowances described in paragraph 14. The student's contribution is calculated from the scale income taken to the nearest £ by reference to the scale set out below. The contribution itself is assessed to the nearest £ : an even 10s. is rounded down.

Scale Income	Student's Contribution	Scale Income	Student's Contribution	Scale Income	Student's Contribution
£	£	£	£	£	£
450	NIL	1,100	97	180	202
500	7	1,200	112	1900	219
600	22	1,300	127	2000	238
700	37	1,400	142	2100	259
800	52	1,500	157	2200	282
900	67	1,600	172	2300	307
1,000	82	1,700	187	thereafter the contribution increases by £30 per £100 of scale income.	

Examples of assessments for students dependent on their parents

16. The following examples assume that the student is a resident student at a university other than Oxford, Cambridge or London and that his necessary travelling expenses are less than £10:-

- (a) If the scale income is £450 or less, the student's contribution is nil : the student therefore receives the maximum term-time maintenance grant of £225, free tuition and a vacation maintenance grant of £20;
- (b) If the scale income is £900, the student's contribution is £7 : the maximum term-time maintenance grant of £225 is therefore reduced to £150 but tuition is still free and there is a vacation maintenance grant of £20;
- (c) If the scale income is £2,000, the student's contribution is £250 : this completely extinguishes the maximum term-time maintenance grant of £225 and the remainder (£15) is paid towards tuition. Since the scale income exceeds £1,000, there is no vacation maintenance grant.

Self-supporting and married women students

17. If a student claims to be self-supporting (that is to say, no longer dependent upon his parents), it rests with him to establish the fact to the satisfaction of his "home" local education authority. The authority determines the matter in the light of all the relevant factors, such as the length of time and extent to which he has been responsible for his own upkeep

and the nature of his previous job. Age (and in particular whether or not he is over 21) and the completion of National Service are not in themselves decisive but are taken into account. Stop-gap employment before entering the Department is not normally held of itself to establish a claim to be self-supporting.

18. A married woman student is regarded as dependent upon her husband, not upon her parents.

Assessment of student's contributions of self-supporting and married students

19. The student's contribution of self-supporting and married women students is assessed by the Department (or by the Ministry if they are eligible for dependents' grants) on the income available to them during the academic year of the course : if the student is married, both the husband's and the wife's income are regarded as so available. If the student marries during the course, the contribution is not reassessed. Self-supporting and married women students should obtain copies of Form 155a A.T.C. (not Form 155 R.T.C.) from the Department and, after completing Sections A, B and D, send them to their "home" local education authority.

20. The method of assessment, which is primarily designed for married students but is used, so far as it applies, also for single students, is as follows:-

- (a) First, the net income is calculated by deduction from the gross earned and unearned income of :-

- (i) any of the charges and allowances set out in paragraph 14 which are applicable;
- (ii) the first £100 of the wife's income (where the student is a married man);
- (iii) £300 for the student's husband or wife;
- (iv) up to £2 a week for the stated cost of care of children during term time (where the wife is the student);
- (v) a supplementary vacation allowance of £22.10.0 for students at Oxford and Cambridge and £10.10.0 for students at other universities.

- (b) The student's contribution is one-third of the net income calculated at (a).

Some examples of assessments for self-supporting and married women students

21. A married woman student whose husband's income together with her own is £500 and who can claim none of the charges and allowances set out in paragraph 14 is liable for a contribution of £60. No contribution is paid in similar circumstances by a married woman student where the joint income is less than £320 or by a married man student whose wife is earning and where the joint income is less than £420.

Grants at the lodgings rate for day students

22. A department may apply to the Ministry to pay grant at the lodgings rate to a self-supporting day student who is :-

- (a) a man married before the start of the course and, with the consent of the Department, living in his own home or in lodgings with his wife and family while attending the Department daily; or
- (b) single, but obliged for compelling domestic reasons (e.g., the need to care for an aged and infirm parent for whose care no other arrangements can be made) to live at home rather than seek a place as a resident student and unable to look to the support normally available to students living at home with their parents.

Grant at the lodgings rate is intended to help only with the student's own expenses of board and lodging and is in no sense a dependant's allowance. It is not paid to a day student who marries during the course.

Dependants' grants for self-supporting students attending one-year courses

23. Self-supporting men students who are 25 and already married before 1st October of the year in which the course starts and other self-supporting students who are 25 before 1st October and have a close relative (e.g., a widowed mother) wholly dependent on them are eligible for the following additional grants:-

	£.	s.	d.
(i) for a wife or wholly dependent relative	112*	0	0
(ii) for the first dependent child	38*	0	0
(iii) for the second and other dependent children	23*	0	0

		£	s	d
(iv)	for supplementary vacation grant	22	10	0
) at Oxford and Cambridge			
) elsewhere	18	10	0
(v)	"two homes" grant	25	0	0

*These sums are calculated on the basis of a 40-week session, including vacations, and will be adjusted where necessary.

"Two homes" grant is paid only to a resident student who continues to maintain an established home for his wife and family elsewhere. A continuous supplementary course does not receive dependants' grants unless they were paid during his initial training. A student who marries during the course is ineligible for dependants' grants for his wife. No student may receive grants for more than one adult dependant.

24. Dependants' grants are paid in full where neither the student nor his wife has any income during the course and are reduced according to their combined income. They are not paid if there is a student's contribution calculated by the method described in paragraph 20.

25. Dependants' grants are assessed and paid by the Ministry through the Department in instalments at the beginning of each term. Students should ask the Department for Form 106 R.T.C., which must be completed in addition to Form 155a R.T.C. The latter should be sent to the "home" local education authority in the normal way, but the Form 106 R.T.C. should be returned to the Department (not to the Ministry).

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