A STUDY OF SOME RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

by

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the whole of this thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work.

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PART THREE

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RATIONALE AND APPROACH

It has become a fairly common practice in Natal to borrow ideas from the English educational scene. No doubt this is to our advantage but perhaps not necessarily always so. It is possible that an idea is copied and pursued diligently here yet meanwhile, back at its source of development in England, the idea is fast loosing favour. It is necessary to sift the good from the bad before we borrow, and that can only be done by surveying the field thoroughly. The author of this thesis after spending a number of years in primary education was fortunate enough to receive a study grant from the Natal Education Department which enabled him to visit England and other countries, and study at first hand the primary schools there.

The primary aim of this thesis is, therefore, to examine some of the recent developments in primary education in England, to evaluate them and to consider the feasibility of adapting and utilising them in the primary schools of Natal. These developments offer an alternative approach to education and one that is closer to what we now know about children and the nature of the learning process. The English primary school offers hope to those who believe that because change is difficult, it is either an impossibility or it takes generations to bring about.

This study should supply the answer to the question: "What is happening in British primary schools?", which Brian Young poses in Children At School - Primary Education in

Britain Today (1). It may in addition minimise the chances of the merely faddish aspects being slavishly copied and avoid change for the sake of change. It may also be of assistance to those concerned with policy making in primary education, particularly in Natal, especially if they are seriously interested in exploring alternatives to existing patterns of instructions.

The basic assumption underlying the whole study is that each child is an unique individual who is characterised by an unmatched set of gifts and limitations. While the approach adopted is a child-centred one, a confrontation with exclusive choices is avoided. It is not a question of the child or the teacher, children or subjects, subjects or an integrated programme, the individual or society, or freedom or discipline. The question: "How far do we need a concept of the educated man as well as the notion of the educated child?" (2), is very relevant to this study.

Part One of this thesis is a discussion of the various factors from which present-day practices have evolved. No historical account of the developments is undertaken, but a brief survey of the old elementary school is followed by a résumé of the changing educational demands of a society which has undergone extensive changes in the last 75 years. Immense scientific and technological developments and the concomitant social and economic unheavels have called for new curricula, subject content and teaching methods. The role played by the progressives, a small group of avant-garde educationists whose views were considered eccentric in their time, is discussed

in detail. The direct and indirect influence of educationists, philosophers and psychologists is more difficult to establish. This and the impact of official educational reports and Acts are also studied.

Part Two concerns the purpose of English primary education. It is no theoretical dissertation on the aims of education. It rather attempts to establish what the primary school seeks to achieve for its pupils. The concept of 'being educated' is analysed and is followed by a discussion of what are termed immediate aims. Here attention is focused on the belief that primary education is to serve solely as a preparation for the education that is to follow and on the acquisition of skills such as reading, writing and arithmetic , and the ability to speak properly and listen attentively. Next follows a discussion of so-called long-term aims. Particular attention is given to the preparation of children for the society in which they will one day be adults; prerequisites such as adaptability and a critical mind are highlighted. The freedom of the individual and his place in society is examined. Finally, the opinions of teachers as reflected in a Schools Council exploratory study of aims, influences and attitudes, are briefly analysed.

A comprehensive survey of every primary school in England by Her Majesty's Inspectorate revealed certain trend-setting schools. Part Three is a study of some of the recent developments that reflect the ethos prevalent in these schools. The blend of freedom and support where teachers and headteachers are relatively free to decide

what to teach, how to teach it and the support they receive from a variety of sources, is discussed in detail. The move to what has become known as open or informal schooling and other features of these schools, such as the integrated day, team teaching and open plan schools are described.

Part Four of this study concerns those aspects of English primary education that could with success be adapted and introduced into the primary schools of Natal. The features that are considered are the introduction of a more child-centred approach, the appointment of experts in primary education to decision- and policy-making positions, the in-service education of teachers, the fuller utilization of teachers' centres and the building design of primary schools.

1. CREDC; Children At School - Primary Education in Britain Today, Heinemann, 1969 (p.vii)

2. Entwistle, H.; Child-Centred Education Methuen and Co., 1970 (p.12)

P A R T O N E

FACTORS WHICH HAVE INFLUENCED DEVELOPMENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the factors which influenced and gave rise to present-day developments in English primary education. Events are not traced in any chronological or historical order and no attempt is made to examine these factors in depth. The aim is rather to sketch the background from which the existing practices grew.

Even before 1914 it had become increasingly evident that the elementary school, which became compulsory in 1870, was unable to prepare its pupils adequately for an ever-changing society. The two world wars and the unsettled period between saw few real changes in the education of the primary school child. It is true that the elementary school had changed, but not by very much. The curriculum had expanded, but the emphasis remained on the three Rs. Yet this period is very important because in it was formed the basis on which many present-day practices rest. During this time the progressives gained recognition for many of their ideas and official education reports and Act of Parliament lent respectability to their practices.

The period following World War II is of importance because during that time the changes which were slow in coming about before the War rapidly gained momentum. War conditions which saw teachers in new relationships with their pupils also resulted in classrooms being exchanged for fields, or the hills, or the farmlands and teachers returned to the classrooms after the War with a

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very different outlook. The desire to change the world into a better place was very strong and is reflected in the Education Act of 1944. This Act and the Plowden Report of 1967 are important enough to be described in detail.

2. THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The Plowden Report of 1967 starts its chapter on the aims of primary education with the words:

> "All schools reflect the views of society, or of some section of society, about the way children should be brought up, whether these views are consciously held or defined." (1)

It is not surprising then that the old primary school in England - called the elementary school - was very clear about its aims. They were to prepare children for the society into which they would grow up.

The children of the rich and the middle class attended church or independent schools. The elementary school was for the children of the working class (2). Education for the working class was to include only that which was necessary for working class people. Dearden calls this social utility which he describes as:

> "... what is useful to teach the sons and daughters of the working classes." (3)

The curriculum of the elementary school was confined to the three Rs - reading, writing and arithmetic. Much later the fourth R - religion - was added. The emphasis was on reading correctly, writing neatly and legible and with the correct punctuation. Quick and accurate computation was stressed in arithmetic which was confined to number, mass, money, length, capacity and time - all with practical, everyday social applications. These constituted the 'basic skills' and only

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later was added some factual material, the geography and history of the British Isles and its Empire and some biological facts. The curriculum was, therefore, very limited, but it served its purpose.

Robert Lowe, Vice-President of the Education Department, who inaugurated the payment-by-results system in the Revised Code of 1862 described the education best suited for the poor.

> "The lower classes ought to be educated to discharge the duties cast upon them. They should also be educated that they may appreciate and defer to a higher cultivation when they meet it, and the higher classes ought to be educated in a very different manner, in order that they may exhibit to the lower classes that higher education to which, if it were shown to them, they would bow down and defer." (4)

It was essential that the schooling for the working class should be cheap because little public money was available for the education of the poor. Classes were large and the facilities were meagre. Buildings were old and often in poor state of repair. The furniture consisted of a table and chair for the teacher and "jump-over forms with attached desks" (5) for the pupils. Books were few and the standard of teaching poor with the majority of teachers poorly qualified. Because parents were usually anxious that their children should supplement the family income the children's stay at school was of short duration. It is interesting to note that the first training of teachers occured soon after the turn of the nineteenth century with the birth of the "monitorial" system where

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selected pupils were used to teach others.

Teaching methods were uncomplicated and the general pattern followed was that of the teacher instructing and the pupils listening. Drill exercises, sometimes written but usually chanted in unison, and the memorization of facts, made up the greater part of the school day. It was the aim of the teacher to ensure a uniform standard of attainment for all pupils. The pupils were grouped according to these set 'standards' which were maintained by the inspectorate. The annual inspection had a dual purpose. Firstly, it was to ascertain if these standards were in fact maintained and, secondly, to determine the salary of the teacher for the next year. Payment-by-results and outrageous ways to outwit the inspector went hand in hand. This system was abolished in England in 1898.

Teachers maintained strict discipline and their authority was boundless and evident in many ways - even to the extent of the teacher sitting on a high chair or dais (6). Teachers countered breeches of discipline by harsh measures, and corporal punishment was both swift and severe. The teachers and headteachers did not escape this rigour.

> "The teachers and headteachers stood similarly subordinated and receptive towards the acts and decisions of yet higher authorities, ..." (7)

This control, although obviously different from that to which the pupils were subjected, was in its own way forbidding and uncompromising.

Primary education, even up to the 1930s can aptly be summar-

ised in the words of Brown and Precious (8).

> "Education based on mechanical proficiency, the obedience and passivity of the pupil and verbal instruction by the teacher was the general rule. Most teachers were instructors and ruled by fear."

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1. Plowden Report: H.M.S.O., 1967 (para. 493)
2. Dearden, R.F.; The Philosophy of Primary Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969 (p.3)
3. Ibid; (p.3)
4. Quoted by S.J. Curtis; History of Education in Great Britain, University Tutorial Press, 1948 (p.256)
5. Clegg, A.B.; The Changing Primary School, Chatto and Windus, 1972 (p.12)
6. Dearden, R.F.; op. cit. (p.4)
7. Ibid; (p.4)
8. Brown and Precious; The Integrated Day in the Primary School, Ward Lock Educational, 1968 (p.11)

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3. THE CHANGING DEMANDS OF SOCIETY

A problem facing educationists when considering the type of education most relevant to the needs of the child and that of society is that a wide variety of factors has to be considered. In discussing the changes that have come about in society only environmental factors will be considered. For convenience sake these factors have been grouped into three categories: the home, the school and the wide world beyond. It is, however, becoming increasingly difficult to justify this division because the 'wide world beyond' is impinging more and more on both the home and the school;

> "though a variety of agencies not least television and sound broadcasting." (1)

In order of time the home comes first and while the influence it exerts is particularly strong and hence very important, it is essentially a social institution which serves as an aid during the period when the child is immature. Bowlby (2) sees this as taking place in two ways. In the first instance it satisfies the biological needs of the child and, secondly, it assists the physical, mental and social development of the child.

Life and conditions within the home have undergone great changes during the twentieth century. There are few children in the Western World today who are unfamiliar with the electric light, stoves, washing machines, refrigerators and other house hold appliances. The radio, television and the printed word have not only widened their horizons by disseminating factual

knowledge, but they also shaped their opinions and influenced their judgements. Outside the home scientific and technological advances have brought into their everyday life the motor car, train, ship, aeroplane, space capsule, rockets and space travel. Modern engineering feats such as bridges, sky-scrapers, dams and super motorways are common sights.

These are not the only factors outside the home that have had an influence. Considerations will now be given to some of the economic and industrial changes that have come about in England since the turn of the twentieth century. England has always been one of the leading industrial countries in the world and today it still is an industrial advanced society. This is so in spite of the fact that the size of the society ruled by the English, has steadily diminished over the last seventy years. The dissolution of the British Empire has changed the English society from a dominant imperial power to a post-imperial one. Halsey (3) refers to this as a "contracting society". Yet the British productive system has continued to expand. The Gross National Product has increased some 90% from 1900 to 1968. The white collar force shows a growth of 176% between 1911 and 1966 when it was 40% of the total labour force (4). Within the ranks of this sector of the labour force the number of scientific and technical workers has increased 2160%. Conditions of work for the working class have changed drastically. Working hours per week have been reduced and unemployment is now localised to small minorities and localities. The growth of trade unionism has resulted in greater protection of the

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interests of the workers. The working class living standards have improved and material affluence is reflected in a gradual changing of the definition of the cost of living. Previously this was stated in terms of life necessities. At present it is expressed in a retail price index which reflects the consumption patterns of the general population. Greater emphasis is now placed on leisure, private transport and consumer goods. Women and especially married women have entered the labour market in increasing numbers and this raises many questions about the changing structure of family life.

In summarising trends in British society Halsey (5) concludes that in the "reproductive system" expansion has taken place as follows:

the population of England has increased by 45% since 1900,
the fertility rate has shown a decline,
the mortality rate has declined,
marriage rates have increased,
couples are marrying at a younger age,
the size of families has decreased,
divorce is now more common than before,
families are smaller than before and are more mobile,
increased immigration has created new problems.

Halsey also says that the State "has increasingly intervened in the distribution of life chances in this century" (6). So, for example, more money is being spent on social services. Housing subsidies have increased from £0,20m in 1919/20 to £92,40m in 1966/67. Health and welfare services rose £1084m

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between 1949/50 and 1967/68 (7).

In the past the requirements of society were fairly stable (8), and it was relatively easy to establish what these were and to educate the pupils accordingly. The basic skills taught in the old elementary school were sufficient to equip the children for their future occupations. These were essentially factory workers, shop assistants, low-grade clerical workers and domestic servants (9).

It is evident that society in England has undergone vast changes in virtually every sphere. These changes have set new educational demands. Education no longer aims at training a child for the "station of life into which he was born but to enable him to find the station for which his aptitudes and interests best fit him". (10) There is greater social mobility and the demands for equalisation of educational opportunities have resulted in educational expansion as more schools and better facilities have to be provided. Scientific and technological development have resulted in new curriculum, subject content and teaching methods. A reappraisal of aims and practices in the light of these demands indicated that pupils should be encouraged to develop attitudes which will enable them to cope with changing conditions.

> "Factual knowledge in itself is of less importance than the urge to ask questions and the will and ability to find the answers." (11)

These are the attitudes that ought to be developed and opportunities must be created that will enable the pupils to learn how to learn. The possession of factual knowledge remains

11./...

important but it is even more important to foster intellectual curiosity and to be able to acquire knowledge independently and to be able to interpret it meaningfully. The Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario comes to this conclusion in its report when it says: (12)

> "Should we continue to think of education as the acquisition of knowledge by the pupil by whatever means, or should we be concerned more with the pupil's ability to get knowledge when needed, to interpret it and collate it and to use it? The committee favours the second alternative."

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1. Primary Education in Scotland; H.M.S.O., 1965 (p.15)
2. Bowlby, John; Child Care and the Growth of Love, Pelican Books, 1953 (p.84)
3. Halsey, A.H. (Ed.); Trends in British Society Since 1900, Macmillan, 1972 (p.9)
4. Ibid; (p.9-11)
5. Ibid; (p.11-13)
6. Ibid; (p.13)
7. Ibid; (p.13)
8. Primary Education in Scotland; op. cit., (p.11)
9. Dearden, R.F.; The Philosophy of Primary Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969 (p.6)
10. Washburne, C; Schools Aren't What They Were, William Heinemann, 1953 (p.9)

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11. Primary Education in Scotland; op. cit., (p.18)

12. The Report of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives in the Schools of Ontario, Ontario Department of Education, 1968 (p.69)

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4. PROGRESSIVES

This section on the progressives divides naturally into two main parts. The first is no more than an outline of certain aspects of progressive education and serves as a background to the second part in which the importance of the progressives as a factor that contributed towards the present trends in English primary education is summarized.

In the years immediately before and after the First World War a small group of educationists were looking beyond the narrow confines of the existing curriculum and rigid methodology perpetuated and reinforced by the payment-by-results policy. They expounded the view that there might be more to education than the three Rs. Terms such as freedom, interest, play, growth, self-activity, self-expression and correlation became their slogans (1).

While wide differences existed among these advocates of the 'New Education', they were united in their criticism of the existing elementary school (2). Some of these progressives, as they were called, founded their own schools where they put their ideas into practice. The better known and at the time more extreme schools were A.S. Neill's Summerhill, J.H. Simpson's Rendcomb, N. MacMunn's Tiptree Hall, and the Russells' school at Beacon Hill.

Others less radical set about the "founding of a faith" (3) in a quieter and more unobtrusive way. Of these Edward F. O'Neill at Prestolee School, T.J. Faithful at Priory Gate School, J.H. Whitehouse at Bembridge, J.B. Badley at Badales, J.B. Curry

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at Dartington Hall, and Dr. Reddie at Abbotsholme are the more important. Susan Isaacs, first as assistant to Geoffrey Pyke then as headteacher at the Maltinghouse School and finally as head of the Department of Child Development at the University of London, was another of the leading figures in the Progressive Movement whose influence was far-reaching. She drew her inspiration from the work of Maria Montessori, John Dewey and Sigmund Freud (4).

Somewhat more of a radical was Caldwell Cook who, while at Perse School, Cambridge, developed his 'Play-Way' method. This he maintained was an active way of learning and "not a relaxation or diversion from real study" (5).

Of far greater moment is the influence exerted by Maria Montessori, who not only stressed the nature of the difference between the child and the adult, but based her method on "the principle of freedom in a prepared environment" (6). Her methods were put into practice both as she advocated and with adaptions and variations. Jessie Mackinder, headmistress of Marlborough Infants' School, developed her own apparatus to assist "auto-education" (7). This was based on the material used by Montessori. There were few who did more than Maria Montessori in establishing the new education and bringing about changes.

> "... the Montessori movement stands for something very much wider and deeper than a new method of teaching ... it represents the beginning of a great new social revolution based on the revelation of the hitherto unknown potentialities of childhood." (8)

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Helen Parkhurst's Dalton Plan was based on an assignment system with a contract between teacher and pupil. It had many disciples in Great Britain after her visit there in 1921. The Dalton Plan was initially considered very fashionable because it put into practice the ideas the progressives were advocating. It satisfied the criteria of 'individuality' and 'freedom' (9). Some two thousand schools are believed to have used this method. Fifteen years later the movement had lost momentum in Britain and was no longer as popular as at first (10). It had lost favour for a number of reasons. Firstly, although the child was free to work at his own pace he was still expected to cover the same work in the same time as his class-mates. Secondly, teachers found it difficult when putting the Plan into operation to change their old attitudes.

> "For all the newness of the Plan the teacher was obsessed with the old problems - slow children, shirkers and copying." (11)

Helen Parkhurst visited Natal in 1934 on a lecture tour. One of the schools in the Durban area, the Greenwood Park Government School, had applied the Dalton Plan in some of its upper classes and Helen Parkhurst visited this school to look at the work. The headmaster's comments on her visit, as recorded in the school's log book, are given in Appendix A.

Other schemes similar to the Dalton Plan were also fashionable. Of these Heard Kilpatrick's project method and Dr. M. O'Brien Harris' Howard Plan were the best known.

E. Jacques-Dalcroze, Professor of Harmony at the Geneva

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Conservatoire, had as early as 1892 evolved a method to attune "the nervous system to every rhythmic impulse" (12). His school at Hellerau in Austria became the centre of the movement. A.S. Neill spent some time there in 1921. After Dalcroze visited London in 1912 a Delcroze Society was started which established centres where teachers were trained. The 1919 Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools showed that Dalcroze's influence had made some impact, especially in the provisions for children under seven. It is significant that it was later physical education and art that first showed signs of breaking away from the formal type of instruction (13).

In 1915 the Conference on New Ideals in Education was founded. It met annually until shortly before the Second World War serving as a platform for the majority of those who aimed at educational reform. Many well known progressives made use of it (14).

The Theosophists, who made important contributions to educational change in England (15), were active members of the Conference on New Ideals in Education which they supported until their own numbers warranted the formation of a society of their own, the Theosophical Fraternity in Education. In 1920, with a membership of over five hundred, they held their own conference at Letchworth (16). The Fraternity published its own magazine 'Education for the New Era'. With Beatrice Ensor as its editor it aimed at a wider audience than just the British. The formation of The New Education Fellowship soon followed and fulfilled this role holding conferences at Calais (1921), Montreux (1923), Heidelberg (1925), Locarno

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(1927), Elsignore (1929), Nice (1932), and Cheltenham (1936).

Not only did these societies give the progressives a forum for educational reform, but in doing so avoided taking a dogmatic stand too closely aligned with any particular pedagogical school (17). The themes the New Education Fellowship choose for its first few conferences illustrate this point and reflect the trends that were permeating their ranks. The theme at the Calais conference was "The Creative Self-Expression of the Child". At Montreux an "education for creative service" was discussed. The Heidelberg conference reviewed the schools of the New Education movement. Locarno's theme was "the meaning of the freedom in education". The new psychology of Freud, Adler, Jung, Piaget, behaviourism and mental measurements were highlighted at Elsinore. The conference at Nice focussed its attention on "education and changing society" while the theme for the Cheltenham conference was "The Educational Foundations of Freedom in a Free Community" (18).

W.A.C. Stewart sees the Fellowship as having a dual aim. He says (19): "The two aims of the fraternity were:

1. To further the Ideal in all branches of Education;
2. To secure conditions which will give freedom for its expression."

The New Educational Fellowship published its principles in all the editions of the New Era and in its French and German counterparts, La Ligue Internationale pour L'Education and Der Weltbund für Erneuerung der Erziebung. Here was set out in lucid terms what the Progressive Movement stood for and what it hoped to achieve.

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"1. The essential aim of all education is to prepare the child to seek and realize in his own life the supremacy of the spirit. Whatever other view the educator may take, education should aim at maintaining and increasing spiritual energy in the child.

2. Education should respect the child's individuality. This individuality can only be developed by means of a discipline which sets free the spiritual powers within him.

3. The studies, and indeed the whole training for life, should give free play to the child's innate interests - interests which awaken spontaneously in him and find their expression in various manual, intellectual, aesthetic, social and other activities.

4. Each age has its special character. For this reason individual and corporate disciplines need to be organised by the children themselves in collaboration with their teachers. These disciplines should make for a deeper sense of individuality and social responsibility.

5. Selfish competition must disappear from education and be replaced by the co-operation which teaches the child to put himself at the service of his community.

6. Co-education - instruction and education in common - does not mean the identical treatment of the two sexes, but a collaboration which allows each sex to exercise a salutary influence on the other.

7. The New Education fits the child to become not only a citizen capable of doing his duties to his neighbours, his nation and humanity at large, but a human being

19./...

conscious of his personal dignity." (20)

A closer look at these statements reveals that they are rather vague and express no definite philosophy or methodology of education (21). The uniqueness of the child's individuality and the readiness to initiate learning are, however, stressed and while 'selfish competition' is considered undesirable, competition itself is not excluded. However, co-operation is preferred. The seven statements are of such a nature that they did not offend the more extreme members of the movement. Statement 7 for example, does not explicitly recommend co-education it merely says that the sexes have a 'salutary' influence on each other.

It is significant that the views expressed in these statements are similar to those that enjoy prominence in present-day practices. This will become apparent in Part Three of this study.

The preceding part of this section is no more than an outline of some aspects of the so-called progressive education in England. These may be summarised as follows:

1. The movement started from a position of protest against the existing schools and the methods employed in the schools, against the role allocated to the child by and in society, against academic emphasis in the curriculum and against formality and authoritarianism (22). Reform was its objective. The extent to which the progressives succeeded can be gauged by the opening remarks of the 1967 Plowden Report:

   "At the heart of the educational process lies the child."(23)

   R.J.W. Selleck refers to these words when he says (24):

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"Much else the Committee had to say showed a similar regard for progressive attitudes." The attitudes of the progressives can be gleaned from the statement of principles that appeared in all editions of the New Era. Knowledge of these attitudes furthers an understanding of present-day English primary schools.

2. The break-away from the formalism of traditional methods characterised progressive education. Pupils were trained to discover principles for themselves by self-directed inquiry and logical inference. This is what W. Kenneth Richmond understands as an open-ended learning situation. He says (25): "Gone, one hopes for ever, is the abject notion that the art of teaching is nothing better than the process of imparting information, the philosophy of someone-who-knows-telling-those-who-don't."

3. The progressives pursued practices which were at the time, regarded with suspicion by both the parents and the authorities and rejected as extreme and undesirable. Today these same practices are common in England and in many other Western countries. The curriculum of the progressive school for example included English, modern languages, mathematics, science, history, geography, economics, social studies and physical education (26). In terms of present-day curricula this is not extraordinary, but compared with the old elementary school curriculum this was extremely revolutionary. There are other aspects too which are found in many English primary schools today, and which would have only been tolerated

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in the progressive schools some fifty years ago.

J.W. Tibble (27) says that "some aspects of progressive education are widely accepted by teachers and have affected most schools." He continues to say that in some respects all schools today differ from those of a generation ago. The aspects he refers to are:

a. the attention paid by teachers to individual differences among children;
b. the measures applied to gain the co-operation of the pupils in the learning situation;
c. the lowering of barriers between the school and the community; and
d. the provision of activities that take place out of the classroom.

In 1914 the progressives had not yet produced a reasonably uniform set of ideas and procedures. They were still outsiders but more important they were seen as extremists. By 1939 their ideas were more widely accepted and, while not convincing everyone of their cause, they had convinced the educational opinion-makers. They had in fact become the "intellectual orthodoxy". (28) While a detailed description of how this came about lies outside the scope of this thesis, the role played by philosophers of education and psychologists is important and will now be discussed.

22./...

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3. Ibid; (p.23)
4. Stewart, W.A.C.; The Educational Innovators; Vol.II Progressive Schools 1884 - 1967, Macmillan, 1968 (p.120)
5. Morrish, Ivor; Education Since 1800, George Allen and Unwin, 1970 (p.232)
6. Standing, E.M.; The Montessori Revolution in Education, Schocken Books, 1966 (p.5)
7. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.43)
8. Standing, E.M.; op. cit., (p.201)
9. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (pp.150/1)
10. Stewart, W.A.C.; op. cit., (p.174)
11. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.152)
12. Ibid.; (p.43)
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15. Stewart, W.A.C.; op. cit., (p.50)
16. Ibid.; (p.56)
17. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.47)
18. Stewart, W.A.C.; op. cit., (p.223-5)
19. Ibid.; op. cit., Footnote page 56
20. Ibid.; (p.220)
21. Ibid.; (p.221)

23./...

22. Ibid.; (p.343)

23. Plowden Report; H.M.S.O., 1967 (para. 9)

24. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.125)

25. Richmond, W. Kenneth; The Teaching Revolution, Methuen and Co. 1967 (p.3)

26. Stewart, W.A.C.; op. cit. (p.343)

27. Washburne, C.; Schools Aren't What They Were, William Heineman, 1953 (p.9)

28. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.156)

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5. EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY AND PSYCHOLOGY

Educational Philosophy

The direct influence of educational philosophers and psychologists on teaching practice is extremely difficult to ascertain. Plowden (1) says it is to be doubted if the works of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Whitehead, Dewey, Montessori and the McMillan sisters who all encouraged change and innovation, had any significant influence, because not many teachers had made serious studies of educational theory even during their teacher training. John Blackie is of similar opinion when referring to Roger Ascham, Michel Montaigne, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, John Pestalozzi, Freidrich Froebel, John Dewey and Jean Piaget. He says (2):

> "It is difficult to estimate at all precisely the influence of these thinkers and others like them on English primary education."

There is, however, enough evidence to suggest that many people who thought and wrote about education, be they called philosophers, psychologists, or educationists, were instruments of change. Many desired no more than to improve the lot of the less fortunate and crusaded against social and political injustices.

> "Yet many of these giants had no inkling that they would make changes in educational practices - their only motivation was a desire to present concepts which they personally felt would improve life in their times."(3)

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In many instances the work of these 'giants' lent respectibility to existing practices. This was particularly true of the progressives who sought to justify their theories and practices in the light of the work of one or other of these 'giants'. While some sought such justification others based their own ideas and theories upon the work of these 'giants'.

It is important to note that there was no common progressive theory. Certain concepts such as individuality, creativity, need, nature, instinct, innate goodness, child-centredness and self-activity were central to their work and practices. However, divergent views frequently existed as to what each meant. Selleck (4) says: "They shared not a dogma or a doctrine but a tendency of thought."

Two of the philosophers from the 19th century who influenced progressive thinking are Pestalozzi and Froebel (5). Pestalozzi saw education as being child-centred and he based much of his work on an unhindered growth of the child's capabilities. M.R. Heafford (6) quotes Pestalozzi as saying:

> "... education was for the child and not the child for education."

Pestalozzi stressed the place of the individual in education. Davis (7) says of him:

> "His classes were designed to use methods of individualized instruction which still gave each child the opportunity to learn the foundational aspects of subjects."

He did not confine his work to theoretical considerations. He was practical and aimed at the reform of educational

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practice. This desire is reflected in his Anschauung or object lesson where pupils both saw and handled the objects about which they were learning. Kate Silber (8) says in her book Pestalozzi : The Man and his Work that some influence of Pestalozzi's ideas on British education cannot be denied and that it penetrated into both the infant schools and training colleges.

It is possible that Rudolp Ackerman, an art dealer, was the first to introduce the Pestalozzian method into English schools at more or less the turn of the 19th century.

Davis (9) says: "In the steps of giants walk other giants." and also that it was Froebel who put much of Pestalozzi's ideas into "imaginative practice" (10). Froebel's philosophy is preoccupied with man's relationship to God, to his fellow man and to nature. He saw the child as a vessel for the spirit of God and not as being full of original sin. It was, therefore, unnecessary to chastise the evil out of him. Froebel wanted the child to grow up experiencing the good while at the same time protecting him from the evil, the ugly and the dangerous. While a good environment was most necessary in education, he believed that religion was to be the basis of it all.

> "The whole of education becomes religious training since the search for truth must lead one nearer to God and all the good training makes one a fitter vessel for His Spirit." (11)

As with Pestalozzi it is difficult to establish the exact influence of Froebel's religious ideas on education in England.

27./...

It nevertheless led to a reverence for childhood and a fostering of the inner life of the child. Froebel was quite explicit in how children could learn from each other. His views on play as a method of learning are important. He saw play as a systematic activity that was presented to children. Two basic concepts, which he called gifts and occupations, were involved. The gifts were objects that Froebel had over the years observed children play with. Specific gifts were given to children to play with in specific circumstances for specific purposes and it was this use of the gifts that was referred to as the occupations. To Froebel play was a creative activity through which knowledge and training for life was acquired (12). To Froebel the term 'inner connection', which he used frequently, was synonymous with the 'law of development' or the principle of evolution. It was the self-activity of the pupil in a 'natural environment' - a kindergarten - where and how education took place. While the kindergarten had its origin elsewhere, Froebel developed the idea and today it occupies an important place in education (13).

Froebel's influence was probably not as marked in his native Germany as in English-speaking countries (14) where his ideas on teaching methods and his insight into the activities, which developed from the child's interest and play, found favour. Selleck (15) says that both Froebel and Pestalozzi influenced the Consultative Committee's report, Infant and Nursery Schools (1933) in so far as they

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were two of the authorities upon which the Committee relied. While it might be true that it is difficult to establish the direct influence of these two philosophers on English primary education it is equally true that their work and theories were factors that contributed to the changes that came about.

Unlike Pestalozzi and Froebel, Maria Montessori lived in the era of the progressives. As a scientist and doctor she enjoyed prestige and credibility accorded to few of her contempories. Her method, which she demonstrated and explained in person on lecture tours, was not based on some unproved theory or theoretical postulation, but was based upon the practices in the classroom and founded "directly on the laws of life itself" (16). Her system was evolved through experimentation, and the equipment she used embodied her principles. At the risk of oversimplification it might be said that the cornerstone of her method was the difference that existed between the child and an adult. Standing (17) explains this difference as:

> "The child is in a state of continuous and intense transformation, of body and mind, whereas the adult has reached the norm of the species."

Montessori says that while the child is continually growing there are sensitive periods in his development when he is at optimum readiness to acquire knowledge. It is through a prepared environment, the classroom, where everything has its proper place and where there is a fixed way in which every action is performed, that maximum used is made of

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these sensitive periods.

> "At each stage in the child's mental growth, corresponding occupations are provided by means of which he develops his faculties." (18)

Montessori, therefore, surrounded the child with a wide variety of objects in all situations, believing that when the right moment comes the child will discard the concrete for the abstract. This spontaneous grasping of the abstract requires a general maturity of mind and a thorough familarisation of the concrete process in question. She emphasised the role that play assumes in the child's learning. The materials she designed were objects with which the child plays, but the sequence in which the material was used enabled the child to graps abstract ideas.

> "Montessori materials were designed so that when used in the proper sequence they gradually led the child, over a period of several years, into an understanding of abstract ideas with a minimum of adult explanation and interference." (19)

The child should also have the freedom to discard the concrete for the abstract and Montessori believed that the child enjoyed a sense of achievement every time this occurred.

She believed that the child developed a measure of independence by being removed from an overwhelming adult influence. A large measure of freedom was given to the child who, by being able to choose his own activities, was spared the dangers of overstrain and feelings of inferiority resulting from competition and coercion. Co-operation and mutual

30./...

help between pupils did away with the competitive spirit. Each child worked at his own pace. She did away with rewards and punishment believing that through her method self-discipline originated from within the child.

Montessori was criticised on the one hand for allowing too much freedom to the child, and on the other hand because there was too little (20). Like Rousseau she saw the teacher as an organiser of the environment who, although involved in the intellectual and emotional development of the child, did not participate in the child's activities (21). More than any other educationist of her time, she moved the focus from the teacher to the child (22).

The progressives studied Montessori's method and implemented many of the activities she advocated. Mrs. Beatrice Ensor, editor of The New Era, wrote that the "Montessori System was a valuable element in the forward movement in Education." (23) That journal also devoted space to Montessori in every edition. Percy Nunn, writing about freedom in education, said that the Montessori system had deservedly "attracted world-wide attention" and that of lasting value was:

> "... her courageous and resolute attempt to throw upon the child as completely as possible the responsibility for his own education, and to reduce external interferences with his development to a minimum." (24)

Her work and ideas were one of the pillars upon which progressive education was built. Curtis and Boultwood (25) say:

> "The publication of The Montessori Method in 1912 proved to be excellent propoganda for a 'new movement which took

31./...

hold in U.S.A. and Britain' ".

Dewey played a dominant part in the progressive movement especially in the U.S.A. Selleck (26) sounds the warning that there might be exaggerated estimates of Dewey's influence on English education. He does say, however,

> "There is no doubt that Dewey mattered and that being able to link his name with their educational practice was of assistance to the 'progressives' ..." (27)

He also says that two of the reformers who owed much to Dewey are Susan Isaacs and Helen Parkhurst. (28)

Dewey went to great lengths to compare and contrast the traditional education with the new. He says, referring to the traditional education first:

> "To imposition from above is opposed expression and cultivation of individuality; to learning from tests and teachers, learning through experience; to acquisition of isolated skills and techniques by drill, is opposed acquisition of them as means of attaining ends which make direct vital appeal; to preparation for a more or less remote future is opposed making the most of the opportunities of present life; to static aims and materials is opposed acquaintance with a changing world." (29)

Elsewhere Dewey describes the 'typical points of the old education' as:

> "... its passivity of attitude, its mechanical massing of children, its uniformity of curriculum and method. It may be summed up by stating that the centre of gravity

32./...

is outside the child. It is in the teacher, the textbook, anywhere and everywhere you please except in the immediate instincts and activities of the child himself." (30)

William Frankena (31) summarises Dewey's objections to traditional education as:

"1. It is unscientific in so far as it was not based on the scientific study of the psychology of learning.
2. The spirit of democracy was lacking.
3. It had as its method the teacher drilling, lecturing, reading and telling and the child listening, memorizing and studying and not learning by doing or experiencing.
4. It ignored the 'natural interests' and 'free activity' of the child.
5. The child was too passive and attitudes of 'docility, receptivity and obedience were inculcated'.
6. The child's school years served too much as a preparation for later life.
7. The subject-matter was the focal point rather than the child.
8. The organisation of the subject-matter was more suited to adults than children."

According to Frankena (32) Dewey advocated the following in the place of the traditional education:

"... freedom, scientific intelligence, democracy, looking to the future, learning by doing and experiencing, making connection with the interests and capacities of the child, continuity with life outside school, co-operative activity, unifying method and subject-matter."

33./...

Dewey stated that certain pre-requisites were necessary if the child was to acquire knowledge and dispositions that were worthwhile. These were:

"1. The pupil must be engaged in activities, occupations, etc.

2. These activities must involve physical action and be somewhat prolonged.

3. Each activity must involve a problem to be solved by thinking.

4. Activities must be carried out in co-operation with other pupils and the teacher.

5. Activities must be related to the normal interests of the pupils and within their capacities through challenging them.

6. The atmosphere in the group must be free and as democratic as possible.

7. The whole experience of the activity must be worthwhile." (33)

While only Dewey's views on the old and new education have been discussed much can still be said about his philosophy of education, his theory of growth and his views on child-centred education. It was he who said: "The child is the starting point, the centre and the end." (34) One also need not be in complete agreement with Boyd and King (35) who speak about his "messianic role", but Dewey as a factor in the changing character of primary education cannot be ignored.

The McMillan sisters, Rachel and Margaret, developed their first real nursery school in 1911 in the garden of their

34./...

Deptford house in the slums of London. They envisaged the ideal nursery school as consisting of large open spaces with laid out gardens, lawns, greenhouse and shelters that could be used in inclement weather. It was to be a 'kindergarten' where children could participate in natural activity and play in the open air. They campaigned not only for the establishment of nursery schools for both the rich and the poor, but also for the adequate provision of the physical well being and development of the young child. (36)

Their work was concerned as much with the moral, physical, and social welfare of children as with their education, particularly of the preschool child. Stewart says (37):

> "They pioneered the provision of school baths, school medical inspection, school meals. Public health, hygiene and preventive medicine were their arenas at first and they were campaigning for twenty years for these causes as part of the Socialist strategy before they stumbled upon the need to care for children even before they came to school."

In speaking about the founding of nursery schools by private effort Plowden (38) says of the McMillan sisters:

> "Rachel and Margaret McMillan were outstanding among the pioneers."

It was as liberal thinkers more than anything else that they were instruments of change. (39)

Psychology

No one exercised more influence on the educational scene in this respect in the 1920s and '30s in England than William McDougall. His book, An Introduction to Social Psychology, written in 1908 was widely read and very popular in both educational and psychological circles for a period of about thirty years (40). The importance he assigned to the instincts, which he said was the basis of all human activity - "the springs of human action" - together with the corresponding emotions elicted by the instincts, was acclaimed and criticised.

Many of the textbook writers of that time such as T.P. Nunn and educational psychologists such as Cyril Burt, Godfrey Thomson, R.B. Cattell, O. Wheeler and R. Rusk accepted his views and based much of their own work on them (41). The 1931 Hadow Report, The Primary School, fell back on McDougall (42). While he probably did not inspire many teachers to translate his theories into classroom practice he did bring about an awareness in educational circles that human behaviour was determined by instincts (43). This view has subsequently been challenged and refuted. The value of his work, as far as the progressives were concerned, was that he supported their theories and practices rather than formed them. Selleck (44) says:

> "... by providing support for the progressives' effort to break with the old mechanical ways ... McDougall made his most important contribution."

It was in much the same way that the work of Freud achieved the same effect. There were probably not many teachers then, as at any time, who were "fully abreast of the literature"

36./...

(45). But there were some who were reading Freud. It was during the twenties and thirties that Freud and the psycho-analysists were making a great impact and awakening an interest in not only their own ideas, but in psychology as a whole. Many of the progressives such as Lane, Neill, Susan Isaacs, T.J. Faithfull and D. Revel (46) were drawing 'direct and elaborate methodological conclusions' from Freud's theory. This applied particularly to A.S. Neill. Stewart (47) says:

> "... Neill saw psycho-analysis as the chart by which he wished to steer and Freud as his pilot."

There were essentially two groups who were attempting to make the study of education more scientific. The progressives were benefiting from the work of these groups. Firstly, it was the psychologists who in applying the 'scientific method' to their work placed it on a more scientific footing. The 'new psychology' could speak of 'research showing ...' or 'the finding of the experiment ...' or 'an intelligence quotient of ...'. Prominent among British psychologists in this respect was Cyril Burt (48). The second group were the various research committees in education. One such committee was the British Psychological Society with Susan Isaacs as secretary. This committee was founded in 1922 but it was not very active as it lacked the resources to employ research workers. Its function was advisory (49). Some of the aspects that were studied were:

> "... fatigue, memorization, tests of intelligence and attainment, methods of teaching, examinations, learning

37./...

Theory, child development ..." (50)

The 'enthusiastic missionaries' - the progressives - could justify their work and ideals by claiming "the support of the detached scientist" (51).

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6. EDUCATIONAL ACTS

Parliamentary Acts are means by which a government can influence educational practice. This is evident in England where during the last seventy-five years numerous Acts have resulted in vast changes in the educational system. This section is concerned with three of these Acts, the Acts of 1902, 1918 and 1944, all of which paved the way for great advances. The discussion that follows is as much an attempt to outline these advances, not all of which are confined to primary education, as it is a brief historical survey of the circumstances surrounding these changes.

In England the local authorities and the teachers through their professional associations, of which there are fourteen principal ones, play a very important part in shaping the policy for education:

1. The role of the Department of Education is essentially confined to "matters of organisation, finance, man-power and economic controls"
2. With the exception of the present statutory provision for religious education the Department does not take issue on matters concerning curricula or methods.

There are obviously innumerable factors and opinions that shape Acts of Parliament. Political issues play a part and nowhere is it more clearly illustrated than the Labour Government's decision to implement comprehensive education and the succeeding Conservative Government's reversal of this decision. No more need to be said about

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these factors, but what is of importance for this thesis is that once Acts of Parliament have been passed changes become obligatory.

The Education Act of 1902 empowered local authorities to provide both elementary education and 'education other than elementary' (3). The latter included secondary education. While placing local authorities under statutory duty to provide adequate facilities for elementary education no such provision existed for 'education other than elementary' (4). The Act also greatly improved the pupil-teacher system and the training of teachers (5). It has rightly been looked upon as the basis on which the English system was built until at least 1944 (6) when many modifications were made. Curtis says: (7)

> "The Act of 1902 opened a new chapter in the history of English education. It created local education authorities empowered to co-ordinate elementary and higher education, and provided what at the time was described as 'the ladder from the elementary school to the university'..."

It was, however, the Fisher Act of 1918 which promised much for the progressive movement and the long sought reforms seemed to be within their reach. At the conclusion of World War I there was a determination to "remake England so that it would be worthy of those who had made the great sacrifice" (8). If reform, change and an effort to give meaning to the War did not follow, the 'great sacrifice' would have been in vain. The wish to reconstruct was very strong. Out of this hope grew the Education Act of 1918. Its purpose was to ensure

42./...

that:

> "... children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees." (9)

This was the climate in which the progressives hoped to extend their appeal (10). Optimism and enthusiasm were at a peak, especially when the Act was followed by the promises of the Burnham Scales which:

> "... cannot be said to have offered a generous remuneration, but they eased the teachers' financial problems considerably. (11)

However, the post-war economic slump and the recommendations of the Geddes' committee on National Expenditure - the so called 'Geddes' Axe' - put an end to these hopes and effectively brought a halt to further educational development (12).

It is interesting to note that Fisher probably would have initiated further reforms had the circumstances been more favourable.

> "There is perhaps some evidence that Fisher did mean the Bill as an instalment in the sense that if it was well received and put into practice without too many teething-troubles, it might lead to a more extensive programme." (13)

Selleck summarises the effects of the Act on progressive thought as follows:

> "Whatever the limitations of this Act, it made a serious attempt to develop a full system of state schools. Grants

43./...

were re-organised so that progressive authorities could push ahead with improvements; all authorities were required to submit schemes to show how they were providing for the 'progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education' in their area; the leaving age was fixed at fourteen and the half-time system abolished; medical inspection was extended to secondary schools; and the local authorities were empowered to open nursery schools. The most important of all was the provision made for continuation schools;..." (14)

The circumstances in which the Education Act of 1944 was passed were similar to those that existed when the Fisher Act of 1918 became law. In both cases Britain and her allies were involved in war and in both cases the desire to plan and reconstruct for the future was strong. The Second World War was still in progress when the President of the Board of Education, Mr. R.A. Butler, presented Parliament a 'White Paper', entitled Educational Reconstruction, containing the proposed reforms. The Bill presented to Parliament some five months later in December 1943:

"... provoked little denominational or other serious controversy."

It had an easy passage through Parliament and became law in August 1944. Comprehensive changes had been made in the statutory system of public education in both England and Wales (16). Of great significance was Section 7 (17) which says that:

"The statutory system of public education shall be

44./...

organised in three progressive stages to be known as primary education, secondary education and further education."

It was now the duty of local authorities to provide efficient facilities for primary and secondary education for every child and further education for every adult who desires it (18). Full and appropriate educational opportunity for those who desired it was now possible.

It was the 1902 Act that paved the way for subsequent changes and the 1918 Act which initially promised much but which achieved relatively little. It was the 1944 Act which resulted in an enormous amount of expansion. Dent (19) sees this as being in four main areas:

1. The number of teachers qualifying had, in 1969, grown to five times the number that had qualified between 1945 and 1951 under the Emergency Training Scheme.
2. Not only had the number of children attending schools increased, but a great number of new schools had been built. By 1969 over 8 500 new schools had been built.
3. Great advances had been made in further education and by 1969 there were three times as many universities as in 1939.
4. Many innovations to assist and enhance curriculum development were introduced. A school television service came into being in 1957; language laboratories and other audio-visual aids were made available. Of importance was the launching of 'large-scale research' and experimenting and the establishment of a Schools Council for the

Curriculum and Examinations in 1964.

Dent is of the opinion that there are three principal causes for these tremendous developments. These are:

1. A school population which has continually increased because of a rising birth-rate and the trend to stay at school longer.
2. An ever increasing demand for higher education.
3. A realisation that "the future belongs to the highly educated nations." (20)

The Education Act of 1944 has directly resulted in important and substantial advances in England (21). These advances are also relevant to the primary school and will be dealt with in detail in Part 3 of this thesis.

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7. EDUCATIONAL REPORTS

Having just examined the effects that education Acts have had on the developments in England primary education it would now seem appropriate to consider the influence of educational reports.

A study of the reports of advisory councils and committees, especially in the period after 1920, reveal the changes and developments in education in England and particularly in the primary school. Before discussing the general trends that these reports have highlighted it is necessary to establish the part played by these councils and committees in the English system of government.

Kogan and Packwood (1) mention two contrary views regarding these bodies. One, held by Chapman, is 'the Establishment's desire to procrastinate, or to assimilate criticism and neutralise the critics of the existing order'. The other, that of Graves, is that they 'were created as a reaction to the administrative despotism of Robert Morant'. It is, however, acceptable that these bodies fulfil the function of "the policy-forming and testing-system" in British government (2).

The councils and committees established for educational purposes may be one of two types. No official classification of these committees exists, but the Department of Education and Science refers to the one type as 'statutory' committees and the other as 'departmental' committees. The statutory committees are also known as standing committees and their

48./...

scope and procedures are governed by rules laid down by law. The departmental committees are committees that operate on an ad hoc basis and disband once their report has been presented. Of the statutory committees the most important are the Central Advisory Councils for Education for both England and Wales, (these replaced the Counsultative Committees in 1944), the National Advisory Council for Education for Industry and Commerce, the Secondary Schools Examinations Council, the National Council for Educational Technology and the Youth Development Council.

These advisory councils and committees serve a variety of purposes. They may identify a problem, or collect information about an existing problem. Their function may be purely descriptive as when describing existing policies and practices, or they may be critical of poor practices and laudatory of good ones. And, important, they may make recommendations that result in new policies (3).

Over thirty major educational reports have been published by such bodies since 1925. Of these the second by the Hadow Committee and the one by the Plowden Committee were concerned exclusively with primary education while the third report by the Hadow Committee was devoted to a sector of primary education, the nursery school. It is necessary to consider the impact of the second Hadow Report and the Plowden Report.

In the 1920s it was the progressives, considered in official circles as extremists, "an intellectual avant-garde", who were breaking away from the dour, formal and restrictive curriculum (4). Their ideas and doctrines were taken up by

49./...

the Hadow Committees "with vigor and confidence" (5). Kogan and Packwood say (6):

> "The Hadow Reports of 1926, 1931 and 1933 were instrumental in promulgating what must have been the thinking of a small minority."

It was to this 'avant-garde', this 'small minority' to whom the Hadow Reports lent an air of respectability. Blackie (7) says:

> "The Hadow Report on the Primary School (1931) was beginning to be read and it gave respectability to ideas which had hitherto been thought of as cranky or idealistic."

The extent to which these 'cranky' ideas influenced the Hadow Reports can be seen from the following quotations from the 1931 Report:

> "These activities are not aimless but form the process by which children grow." (page xv)

> "It will best serve their future by a single-minded devotion to their needs in the present, and the question which most concerns it is not what children should be ... but what, in actual fact, children are." (page xiv)

> "A good school, in short, is not a place of compulsory instruction, but a community of old and young, engaged in learning by co-operative experiment." (page xv)

According to Selleck (8) much of the evidence that was put before the Hadow Committee was very much coloured by progressive thinking.

A detailed study of the 1931 Hadow Report is unnecessary, but its relevance to present-day practices is important.

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Caution must be exercised, however, in not ascribing to it practices which, although suggested by the Report, were not in fact put into practice. Razzell(9) says that the Hadow Report was "something of a non-starter", implying that not much came of it. This is true to a certain extent, because many of its recommendations were slow in being implemented.

> "The Hadow reorganisation was patchy and in 1939, as we have seen, only completed in a minority of areas. Indeed it was only completed all over the country in 1965." (10)

The importance of the Hadow Report lay in its promulgation of new ideas in education, lending to them the stamp of official approval. The following are some of the more important.

1. Its recommendation that the old elementary school with its 5 to 14 age range be divided into the primary school (5 to 11 age range) and the senior elementary school (11 to 14 age range). Blackie (11) says this was the Hadow Report's most far-reaching recommendation. In the 1930s this was referred to as 'decapitation' (12) of the elementary school and was resented by many headteachers.
2. Probably the most often quoted words from the 1931 Report are:

> "... the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored." (13)

51./...

Here the Report comes out strongly in favour of child-centred education where the child is considered the agent of his own learning (14).

Plowden (15) endorses this view when it sees the two main themes of the Hadow Report as:

(a) "to enlarge the children's experience"

(b) "to involve them more actively in the learning process."

3. The Hadow Committee maitained (16) that the primary school played an important part in improving "the health, the manners, the level of intellectual attainment, the vitality and happiness of the rising generation."

Furthermore it saw the primary school as the:

"... common school of the whole population, so excellent and so generally esteemed that all the parents will desire their children to attend it." (17)

4. The Hadow Report, in seeing the child in a new light paved the way for later developments. Selleck sums up the ideals of the 1931 and 1933 Reports as:

"... the Consultative Committee followed the advice of the progressives; it tried to dissolve the formal curriculum of the primary school, to relax its discipline, to reduce competition, to increase the time given to art, drama and music, to make the child the centre of the educational process and to organise the school round his needs." (18)

This is in fact what Kogan and Packwood (19) are referring to when they speak about "educational liberalism". They also

52./...

maintain that from the first Hadow Report in 1926 to the Plowden Report in 1967:

> "... the doctrines of progressive, open child-centred education have been pressed home "

in many of the major educational reports.

The Central Advisory Council for Education in England under the chairmanship of Lady Plowden was asked in August 1963 to:

> "Consider primary education in all of its aspects, and the transition to secondary education."

It submitted its report to the Minister in October 1966, exemplifying the state of English primary education (20). It was received with much acclaim by educationists and the press, and with rather less enthusiasm by the Department (21). It reached a great number of conclusions - 197 in all - backed by a mass of statistical evidence. Some of the more important conclusions and recommendations can be summarised as follows:

1. Much attention was to be given to the education of the younger child, to nursery and pre-school education.
2. The 'educational liberalism' mentioned previously was approved of and endorsed by the Report. Sadler calls this 'liberalism' the "revolution in primary education" (22)
3. The Report came out strongly in favour of greater co-operation between the parents and the school.
4. The concept of 'positive discrimination' was brought to the fore by the Report. Educationally deprived areas

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were to be identified and designated educational priority areas and were then to receive preferential treatment in terms of buildings, facilities and staffing ratios.

5. It was recommended that the period of primary education be extended by a year and the transition to secondary education be more gradual. Primary education was to be re-organised into 'First School' and 'Middle School' which meant radical changes in both the ages and the stages of primary education. (23)

6. A re-organisation of teacher training, in-service training, qualifications and the distribution of primary teachers was to be made. (24)

P.H. Taylor (25) sees the 'first principles' of the Plowden Report as residing in five areas. These are:

"1. Evidence arising from the study of child development and psychology.

2. Judgements about the educational value likely to accrue from extending the influence of the methods and attitudes of the junior school.

3. A view that the age of 11 is too soon to fix educational decisions having considerable personal and social consequences.

4. The opinion that something needs to be done at an earlier stage than in secondary school to inhibit the readiness of many pupils who in the third forms opt out of much which schools attempt to achieve.

5. The need for the present organisation of schools to

54./...

find some way of moderating the pressure on staff and facilities in the secondary schools arising from the marked trend towards a longer school life for more pupils."

Criticisms of the Report have been made on a number of grounds. Unsound research methodology (26), projecting the philosophy of the infant school upwards (27), theoretically unsatisfactory (28), and the role ascribed to the teacher by Plowden (29) - these are but a few.

Kogan and Packwood (30) maintain that as "an immediate planning and social engineering exercise" the Report was no great success, but that its success lies in "less easy-to-define" fields. The following three are then mentioned:

1. "strengthening and reinforcing the liberating effects of progressive education" and thereby the Report succeeds "in its evangelical purpose".
2. the somewhat unexpected result of having a great impact on other educational systems and in particular in the U.S.A. and a 'ripple' effect on the schools and teachers in England who started emulating what Plowden described as good.
3. the evidence that some of the recommendations are being implemented by the Government.

Professor Dearden (31) believes that two of the areas in which Plowden has had the greatest effect are in the provision of facilities in the educational priority areas and in the establishment of middle schools.

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In 1931 and 1933 it was the Hadow report which described new ideas in primary education but apart from the few progressive schools, where these ideas were put into practice, they remained vague theoretical postulations. They were, however, given 'official' approval by the Hadow reports. Gradually more schools, teachers and headteachers put them into classroom practice. It was the Plowden Report of 1967 which fully recognised and described these practices and thereby focused the attention on what Razzell(32) calls the 'trend-setting' schools.

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1. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; Advisory Councils and Committees in Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974 (p.1)
2. Ibid.; (p.1)
3. Ibid.; (p.2)
4. Ibid.; (p.36)
5. Selleck, R.J.S.; English Primary Education and the Progressives 1914-1939, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1972 (p.86)
6. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; op. cit., (p.36)
7. Blackie, John; Inside the Primary School, H.M.S.O., 1967 (p.9)
8. Selleck, R.J.W.; op. cit., (p.125)

56./...

9. Razzell, Arthur; Juniors,
Penguin Books 1968 (p.140)

10. Blackie, John; op. cit., (p.5)

11. Ibid.; (p.4)

12. Ibid.; (p.5)

13. Report of the Consultative Committee on The Primary School,
H.M.S.O., 1931 (para.75)

14. Plowden Report; H.M.S.O., 1967 (para.529)

15. Ibid.; (para.513)

16. Hadow Report, 1931 (p.xxiv)

17. Ibid.; (p.xxiv)

18. Selleck, R.J.S.; op. cit., (p.143)

19. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; op. cit., (p.37)

20. Ibid.; (p.69)

21. Ibid.; (p.73)

22. Sadler, John; Concepts in Primary Education,
George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1974 (p.51)

23. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; op. cit., (p.70)

24. Sadler, John.; op. cit., (pp.51-52)

25. The Schools Council; Working Paper No. 22; The Middle
Years of Schooling from 8 to 13
H.M.S.O., 1969 (p.5)

26. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; op. cit., (p.71)

27. Peters, R.S.; Perspectives on Plowden,
Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969 (p.ix)

28. Ibid.; (p.103)

29. Ibid.; (p.81)

30. Kogan, M. and Packwood, T.; op. cit., (p.74)

31. Views expressed to the author in an interview in June 1974.

32. Razzel, Arthur; op. cit., (p.71)

PART TWO

THE PURPOSE OF ENGLISH PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. INTRODUCTION

While in Part I of this study some of the more important factors that influenced developments in primary education were described in broad outline it would now seem appropriate to consider the purpose of English primary education. This section of the thesis is not intended to be a theoretical discussion of the aims of primary education. It rather seeks to explain what the purpose of the primary school is. It divides naturally into two parts. First, an introduction and second, an analysis of the purpose of English Primary education.

Ralph Tyler in his book, Basic Principles of Curriculum Development, suggests four basic questions that concern any curriculum. He says (1):

1. "What educational purpose should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?"

Dennis Lawton (2) simplifies these questions into what he calls a "linear model".

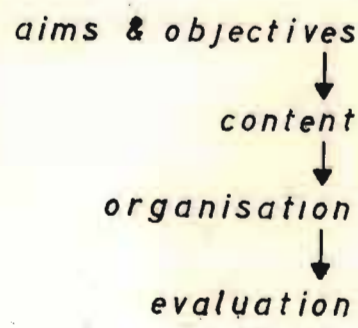

fig. 1

58./...

He feels, however, that this is an oversimplification which tends to distort Tyler's four fundamental questions. He then discusses (3) Wheeler's conversion of the 'linear model' into a cyclical one, which he then schematically presents as:

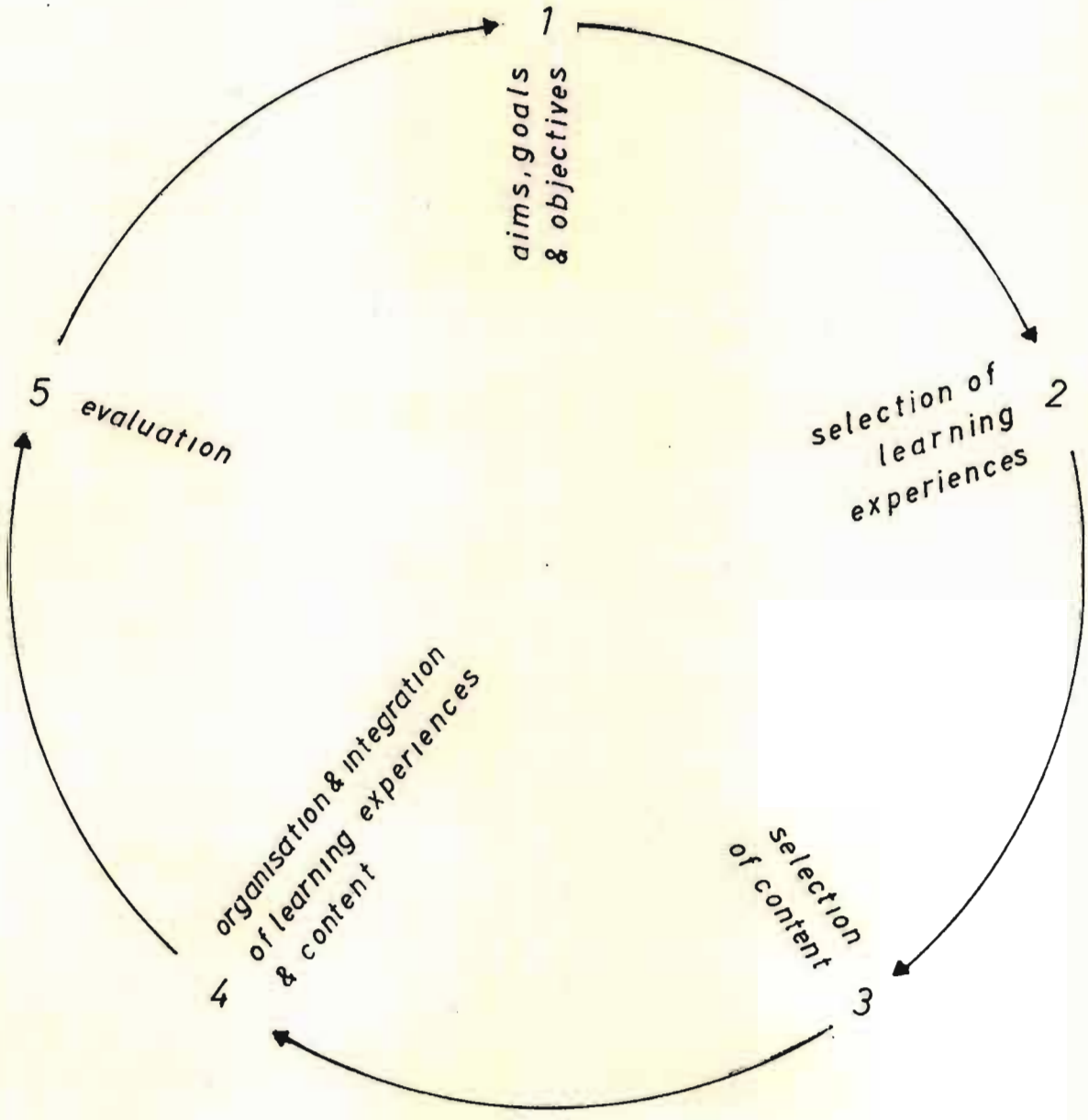

fig. 2

59./...

Tyler, Lawton and Wheeler all have a common starting point - the aims, goals or purpose of education. Only when these are established, they say, is it possible to decide upon curriculum, content, teaching methods, school organisation and pupil and curriculum evaluation. Dearden (4) emphasises the teacher's responsibility when he says:

"... in no system of education can the teacher escape responsibility for the direction which things take."

Although it might not be possible to predict the exact outcome of this 'direction' the teacher ought to have an idea of where it can lead.

Yet the teacher's task is made more difficult because the general terms in which statements of educational aims are frequently expressed is a cause of concern for many educationists. The Plowden Report devoted a mere 14 out of a total of 1252 paragraphs to the question of aims and it "virtually despaired of the usefulness of discussing general aims at all" (5). While many educationists are wary of committing themselves to statements of aim others believe such statements are of little value as they do not show exactly what kind of teaching will achieve the desired goal. It is, however, not the function of statements of aim to provide the solution to teaching methods or school organisations. (6)

The purpose of this part of the thesis was neatly summed up by John Kerr (7) when he declared:

"... we cannot, or should not decide "what" or "how" to teach in any situation until we know "why" we are doing it".

This "why", the purpose of English primary education, will now be analysed.

1. Tyler, R.W.; Basic Principles of Curriculum Development, University of Chicago Press, 1950 (pp1-2

2. Lawton, Dennis; Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, University of London Press, 1973 (p.13)

3. Ibid.; (pp.14-15)

4. Dearden, R.F.; The Philosophy of Primary Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1968 (p.13)

5. Lawton, Dennis; op. cit., (p.14)

6. Dearden, R.F.; op. cit., (p.51)

7. Kerr, John F (Ed.); Changing the Curriculum, University of London Press, 1968 (p.21)

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2. THE PURPOSE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Any discussion of educational aims is bound to invite criticism because it frequently raises additional problems. The Plowden Committee (1) discussed aims but was depressed by the vague phrases of Child-centred theory such as "whole personality", "happy atmosphere", and "satisfaction of curiosity" they received from their witnesses. Peters (2) defines education as involving "the initiation of others into worthwhile activities", but does not deal with the problem of defining "worthwhile". Blackie (3), in a chapter on aims of primary education, contends with the same problem. He states that there are certain short-term pedagogical aims such as teaching a child to read fluently or teaching a child to add, subtract, multiply and divide but that questions are raised at every point. "What sort of reading matter is suitable?" "Why teach mathematics at all?". The aims of education are sometimes defined in terms of the child's needs. Primary Education in Scotland (4) attempts to do this in terms of the need for security, for guidance, for freedom, to understand, and for the "real and the concrete". But it does not solve the problem of which of these needs should be given priority. Nevertheless, statements of aim cannot be ignored on the grounds that they create further problems, because as Dearden says (5), they "provide an overall orientation and direction for some complex activity, such as educating may be taken to be".

Underlying this section of the study is the basic assump-

tion that the primary school is concerned in some way with the process of 'being educated'. This concept will first be analysed and then the way in which the primary school is concerned will be discussed.

"What does to be 'educated' mean?" (6)

John Sadler poses this question and then says that the Renaissance humanists would answer by stating that "educated men are an élite". (7) He also says that if "higher or professional training" was the criterion by which the educated man was to be judged, then the majority of citizens would be excluded.

R.S. Peters (8) sees 'being educated' as pursuing worthwhile activities, possessing knowledge and the understanding of principles which are not limited to a single sphere. Education cannot be separated from what is worthwhile; it ought to be transmitted "in a morally unobjectionable manner". A further element he refers to is "the attitudinal aspect" where "man's outlook is transformed by what he knows" (9). Here man is concerned with and committed to knowledge and understanding.

John Passmore in an article On Teaching to be Critical (10), sees the educated man as a person who possesses a critical and creative mind. The educated man must be more than the "merely cultivated" man, who like the educated man is "independent, critical, capable of facing problems". Passmore says the educated man "must be able to participate in the great human traditions of critico-creative thought: science, history, literature, philosophy, technology, ..." (11)

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Sadler, on the other hand, is more concerned with the process than the final product when he sees being educated as a functional condition - as being "in action, in work, in conduct". (12) He lists some of the ways in which this can operate as:

"Following a purpose with consistency ...

Giving reasons for what it is proposed to do ...

Tackling a problem with understanding ...

Collecting evidence ..."

Important too, he sees this as functioning in the present, as being educated now and not only at and for some time in the future. The educated man is adaptable because he can adjust to unaccustomed environments. He is critical and does not merely accept what he finds; and the principles he possesses, while not exclusively Christian, have been consistently upheld by Christianity.

It is now necessary to examine the way in which the primary school is concerned with man being educated. Attention will first be focussed on the primary school and its immediate aims and then on the primary school and its long-term aims. This division is more one of convenience than one of fact as there is a great deal of overlapping between the two categories.

Immediate Aims

According to Section 8 (1) of the Education Act of 1944 primary education in England is:

"education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils".

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A junior pupil according to Section 114 of the same Act is:

"a child who has not yet attained the age of twelve years".

The age limits of primary education were amended by Section 3 of the Education Act of 1948 and Dent (13) sums up the amended Act as meaning:

> "... primary education might be concluded as early as the age of ten years six months and must be concluded before the twelfth birthday."

While the age limits for primary education are clearly demarcated by law, this period, as indeed any other, is but part of a continuous process which education must be taken to be. As early as 1924 Dr. Tawney (14) stated:

> "... the only policy which is at once educationally sound and suited to a democratic community is one under which primary and secondary education are organised as two stages in a single and continuous process."

Far too frequently the primary school is seen only as the place and stage where a child learns the basic skills which will equip and prepare him for the education that is to follow. It is this belief that the primary school is subservient to some later stage, that has led people like Professor Blyth (15), Lester Smith (16), and Arthur Razzell (17) to refer to the primary school as the "Cinderella" of the English system.

The Fyfe Report on Primary Education in Scotland (1946) sees the acquisition of skills as being prerequisites of primary education when it is to serve as a preparation for what is to follow:

65./...

"We may look on these seven years as the period for learning the use of tools which will be required for secondary and further education ..." (18)

The 'tools' mentioned are the ability to speak properly, listern attentively, write legibly and correctly and use arithmetical rules accurately. Although it was only in 1944 that education in England was finally demarcated into primary, secondary and further education stages, it was the 1926 Hadow Report on The Education of the Adolescent that was responsible for the idea that in the life-long process of education it is primary education that is the first stage (19). The word primary is used in the sense of the 'earliest' or 'original' rather than with the supposition that it was to serve something that was to follow. While the subsequent Hadow Reports, The Primary School (1931) and Infant and Nursery Schools (1933), set out in detail the "aims, content, and methods to be desired in the primary stage" (20). Some of this detail was discussed in Part I (pages 49-52) when the 1931 Hadow Report was examined.

"The Primary school should not, therefore, be regarded merely as a preparatory department for the subsequent stage ..." (21)

An important factor in the development of primary education in England is the acceptance of the idea that the primary school's purpose is not solely to prepare its pupils for the education that is to follow. The Plowden Report (22) states this unequivocally. Professor P.H. Taylor

66./...

(23) has this to say about the Plowden Report in this respect:

> "What Plowden is really arguing for is a view of the child in the school which accepts him for what he is, not for what he might become."

The sole purpose of primary education cannot be to prepare the child only for education that is to come. But it certainly is incumbent on the primary school to equip its pupils so that they can profit from the next stage.

> "The child's education is a continuous process of a comprehensive whole. In such a content no one denies that one stage should make him ready to profit from the next." (24)

Certain aspects of this 'process' will enjoy more prominence during one particular stage than during another. The essential difference is that of emphasis. Dearden says (26):

> "... there are no aims of primary education. There are only aims of education which are to be pursued in a manner appropriate to the primary stage".

The immediate aims to be pursued in the primary stage should, therefore, be seen as the acquisition of the basic skills necessary for whatever education is to follow. The child must be taught to read, to reckon, to write, to speak properly and to listen attentively.

The primary school should also aim at creating the climate where each child can enjoy the greatest measure of personal happiness possible. W.H. Burston quotes James Mills as stating the aims of education as follows:

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"The aim of education is to render the individual, as much as possible, an instrument of happiness, first to himself, and next to other beings." (26)

This also applies to the primary school. Entwistle (27) disagrees when he questions the practice of proponents of child-centred education elevating the happiness of a child to the status of an educational aim.

Long-Term Aims

What Plowden has to say about the aims of primary education is not all that clear. In chapter 15 the aims of the primary school are discussed but at the same time doubt is expressed if it is of any value trying to state them (28). The aims Plowden gives may be summarised as follows:

1. "to fit children for the society into which they will grow up" (para.494)
2. "the all round development of the individual" (para.497)
3. "the acquisition of the basic skills necessary in contemporary society" (para.497)
4. "the religious and moral development of the child" (para.497)
5. "the children's physical development and acquisition of motor skills" (para.497)

It could be argued that these are more the outcome of education than the aims or, as Professor P.H. Taylor (29) contends, the aim of schooling. What is important, however, about these statements is not the label that can be attached to them, but that they reflect what the primary schools of England seek to attain for their pupils.

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In addition to the short-term pedagogical aims of teaching a child to read and do arithmetic, Blackie lists two more pedagogical aims which merit consideration. The one, "Children are to learn how to think", he calls a more subtle aim (30) and feels the good teachers will keep it in mind in all their teaching. He says the other, "the initiation of children into worthwhile activities", implies that same fields of study are more important than others and all children ought to be introduced to these (31). Peters (32) says that it is the learner who is led - initiated - by someone else into what is to be learnt or remembered. But if he is to be led into an activity which is considered to be educational then that activity must be considered to be worthwhile.

"For if something is to count as 'education', what is learnt must be regarded as worthwhile ..." (33)

Blackie (34) also sees education having moral, social and political aims.

a) Equipping Children for a Changing Society

One of the more important long-term aims of the primary school is to prepare the children for the society in which they will one day be adults.

An issue that warrants attention at the outset is the merit of the rights of the individual as opposed to those of society. Plowden says (35):

"Our society is in a state of transition and there is controversy about the relative rights of society and the individual."

A similar view is expressed by the Royal Commission of Education, in Ontario, Canada.

"Most prominent among major issues affecting education is that of the relative importance of the individual

and society." (36)

John Sadler maintains that in the development of progressive education there has been a conflict between 'individuality' and 'sociality', but he continues to say (37):

> "... social good is also a condition of individual good".

He concludes that (38):

> "community-centred education is just as important as child-centred."

What he is in fact saying is that neither the one nor the other is the more important. The report, Primary Education in Scotland, expresses a similar opinion placing both the individual's interests and society's expectations of him on a par.

> "Education must therefore have due regard for both the needs of the child as an individual with his own characteristics and tendencies, and also for the attainments, qualities and attitudes which society will expect of him as an adult." (39)

In equipping children for this changing society it is necessary to know, or at least to venture a guess, what this society will be like. Plowden (40) attempts such a description.

> "... one marked by rapid and far reaching economic and social change
>
> "... richer than now"
>
> "... dominated by majorities"

70./...

"... more leisure for all"

"... more people ... to change their occupations"

"... much engrossed with the pursuit of material wealth"

"... too hostile to minorities"

"... too dominated by mass opinion"

"... to uncertain of its values"

Plowden then concludes (41)

"for such a society, children, and the adults they will become, will need above all to be adaptable and capable of adjusting to their changing environment."

Educating children to be adaptable will now be examined.

(i) Adaptability

With its narrow curriculum and strict discipline, education in the past had the effect of subduing the personalities of its pupils and it attempted to bring about a 'conformity and obedience' that was considered important. The 'standards' set and maintained in the old elementary school, and indeed in some educational systems today, is an example.

The changing society sets new demands. Brown and Precious say (42):

"If we stop for a moment to consider what sort of citizen is required in the twentieth century world, it is perhaps valid to say we need a citizen who is able to adjust to new situations."

In speaking about the changing pattern and character of occupations Dearden says (43) that not only are

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the 'narrow skills drilled' into children in the past inadequate, but more firms are providing their own training as 'low-grade' work is becoming increasingly mechanised. Prerequisites for this changing society are 'adaptability and flexibility' where adaptability is "as much a function of having general concepts and principles at one's command as it is an attitude of readiness to try something different." Blackie sees the educated man as being able to look at his environment objectively so that he can adapt to changing circumstances. The uneducated man, on the other hand, is unhappy in a strange environment. He says (44)

> "One of the marks of the educated man is that he is adaptable."

The 1965 report, Primary Education in Scotland, while describing the 'striking changes' brought about by the 'scientific and technical revolution', says that the primary school is obliged to develop in the pupils the correct attitudes which will enable them to cope with the changes. Here once again adaptability is a necessity.

> "To an increasing extent the need of our present-day society is for men and women who are capable of adapting themselves to changing tasks and problems." (45)

A second prerequisite for this changing society is the cultivation of a critical mind in its prospective

72./...

citizens.

(ii) A Critical Mind

Blackie says (46):

"... the educated man is also critical."

This educated man, he continues, might not accept what he finds and he may even turn to violence as a last resort to change that which he wishes to alter. He would, however, prefer to use argument and persuasion and if this did not succeed, accept a majority decision arrived at by fair means.

"It is this kind of man that British primary education aims at producing." (47)

More important today than the "acquisition of knowledge and skills" is the "fostering of intellectual curiosity, and the development of the capacity to acquire knowledge independently." (48) The acquisition and possession of knowledge and skills remains important, but cannot rank in the society in which the child of today will find himself, with the ability to obtain knowledge independently, to critically assess and interpret it, and to draw conclusions from it.

The encouragement of a critical outlook cannot be accepted without reservations. If it is to teach the child only to question and not also evaluate, then it can serve no real purpose. The child ought to be led to look critically at not only the level of performance expected of him, but also be encouraged

73./...

to judge the value of the performance. Passmore says (49):

> "For to exhibit a critical spirit one must be alert to the possibility that the established norms themselves ought to be rejected, that the rules ought to be changed, the criteria used in judging performances modified."

There is an obvious danger in the acquisition of a critical outlook that could result in primary school children rejecting the existing norms. It is highly desirable on the other hand that children, even during the earlier stages of their schooling, should be encouraged through critical discussions to an understanding rather than a mere acceptance of what they are taught. It is equally undesirable on the other hand that they, in the light of their rather limited experience criticise with the view to changing existing norms and standards. Passmore is aware of the tendency to accept or reject totally the existing norms and practices as being either good or bad. He says (50):

> "The educator's problem is to break down the tendency to suppose that what is established by authority may be either accepted in toto or else merely evaded - a tendency to which, very probably, the child's early training will have inclined him."

Passmore (51) also maintains that there are two

74./...

requirements to place critical thinking on a sound footing. Firstly, the pupils ought to build up a body of knowledge and a set of habits. Secondly, children should be introduced to critical discussions at an early age.

It is also necessary to take into account developments such as the concern over the place of the individual in society.

The Freedom of the Individual

It is not strange that individual freedom is highly regarded in a country steeped in a history where the development of the democratic ideal has, probably since the signing of the Magna Charta, been one of the great motivating forces in the life of its people. Whether it is with a political connotation, where democracy is held to be the exercising of political power of the people, or as a social principle where the quality of all men is held to be sacrosanct, the rights of the individual is held nowhere higher than in England. Percy Nunn says (52);

"Individuality is the ideal of Life."

The abhorrence of totalitarianism, particularly since World War II, is undoubtely another factor that has led English society to place such a high premium on the ideal of personal freedom. While the Plowden Report is criticised for its lack of clarity and its vagueness on its stand on aims (53) it does state explicitly, albeit in an unsystematised and meagre way, that personal autonomy is a worthwhile value. Its numerous references to 'learning by discovery', 'being oneself',

75./...

'being creative', 'self-realization', focus the attention on the freedom of the will of the individual.

"... it (Plowden) is implicitly advocating personal autonomy." (54)

Dearden (55) believes two factors, understanding the choice, are important in this ideal of personal autonomy. With regard to understanding, personal autonomy presupposes the right of the individual to test for himself the truth of things, either in the light of his own experience or that of a critical assessment by himself of the experience of others. In the matter of choice, it means the individual will have the freedom of will not only to form his own intentions, but to make his choice according to his own set of values. The autonomy of the will is emphasised. The actual choice must be seen as the right of the individual to choose, either one way or another, or even to choose to make no choice at all. For understanding and choice to confirm to this ideal of personal autonomy, they ought to be based on reason and not imposed on the individual from without.

"Both understanding and choice, or thought and action, are therefore to be independent of authority and based instead on reason. This is the ideal." (56)

It is also necessary to consider personal autonomy as a value. Peters (57) in discussing 'autonomy as a moral principle' says Plowden is making a 'powerful plea' for the value of individual autonomy because of:

"... the importance attached in a democratic society to individual choice, independence of mind, and to

76./...

more recondite virtues such as creativeness and originality."

Undeniable in a democratic society such as England the freedom of the individual is highly regarded. But can personal autonomy as a value be accepted unconditionally? Peters offers three comments.

1. The worthwhileness of personal autonomy, as in the case of any other value, cannot be accepted unconditionally. There are certain circumstances where the autonomy of the individual must be subservient to the 'good' of others or of society. Peters (58) quotes the following example:

> "... How far are we going to press the value of self-chosen activities if young people overwhelmingly reject scientific subjects in a highly industralized society which needs increasingly a vast array of technicians and technologists?"

2. As too little is known about the development of individual autonomy it might be wrong, or even harmful, to allow children unrestricted choice at too young an age. It seems to suggest, rather strongly, that before children are allowed unrestricted freedom of choice they must first have a 'grasp from the inside of what following rules means' and be able to discriminate between the choices open to them.
3. If children are to be allowed to function as autonomous individuals in a pluralistic type of society they ought to be properly equipped to do so. A variety of options,

77./...

from which they can choose, must be open to them. Literature, history and social studies would be of assistance in this.

Peters is showing the need for curbes on the over-valuing of freedom. It is insufficient to allow children only to be themselves at school. They must be assisted by being given the equipment to find out what sort of persons they would like to be.

A final word on personal autonomy from Dearden (59) who, while recognising its importance, says:

"... autonomy is enhanced in value as we increase in our understanding and appreciation of other sorts of value, which ought not to be depreciated in a one-sided adulation of the child."

Teachers' Opinions Regarding Aims

In a discussion of the purpose of primary education it is also necessary to take into account the opinions of the people who are directly concerned with the primary school - the teachers. The Schools Council conducted an exploratory study of aims, influences and attitudes in primary education in 1974 in what is known as the Aims of Primary Education Project (60). Although this study was based on twelve primary schools only, it provided an indication of what more detailed studies could reveal. Interesting results have come to light regarding the assessment of educational aims by the practising teacher. Teachers in the sample, were asked to rate eight aims of primary education indicating which two

they would most emphasise and which two they would least emphasise. The following table shows the percentage of 'most emphasis' ratings awarded to each aim:

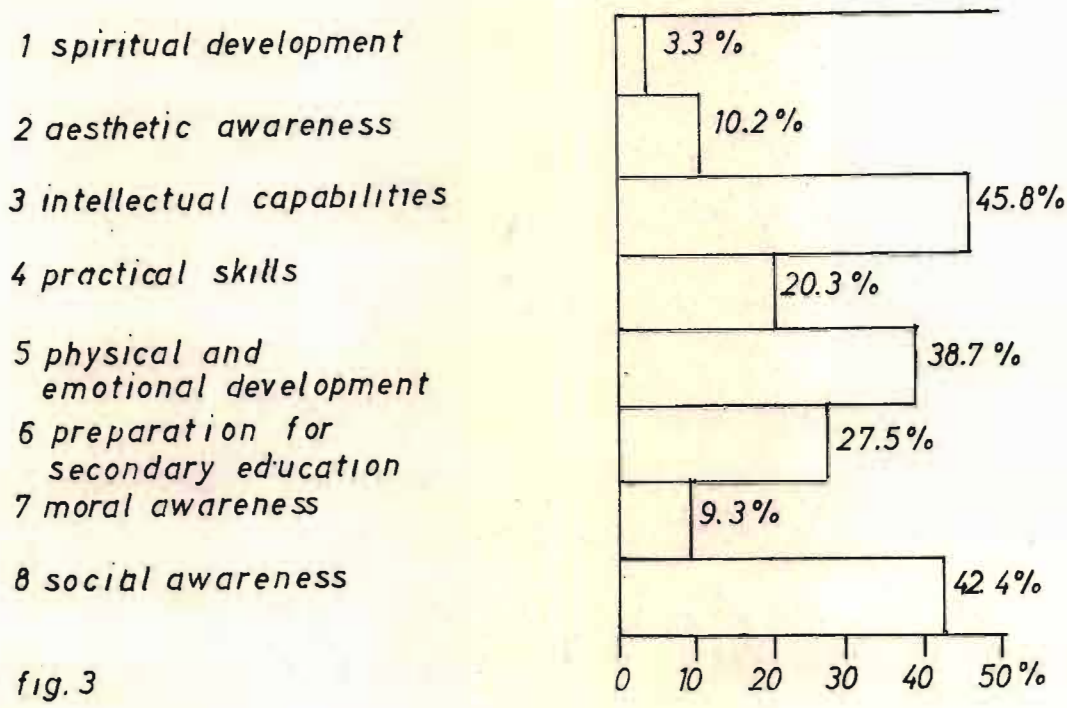

fig. 3

Teachers considered the development of intellectual capacities and social awareness as more important than the rest. While the least important is attached to moral awareness and spiritual development.

Another interesting feature is the choice of the eight aims from which the teachers had to choose. Each of these statements start with the words:

"The purpose of primary education is ..."

What is important is that they indicate those aspects which the primary school seeks to achieve. These statements are given in full in Appendix B. A closer look at them reveal that three theoretical considerations predominate. These are:

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1. the child as an individual;
2. that education is to serve as a preparation for future living; and
3. the social obligations of education.

In all eight statements reference is made to the child. Some examples are:

"... to assist the child"

"... to help the child"

"... exercise his intellectual powers"

"... fitting him to make a choice"

"... he has every opportunity and every choice"

"... each child must find his ..."

The doctrines of child-centred education obviously played an important part in drawing up these statements. The preparation of the child for his future role also enjoys prominance. Statements 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8 as set out in Appendix B all stress this aspect while statement 6, "preparation for secondary education", is devoted exclusively to it.

"... he will be prepared to make a clear decision"

"... every chance of becoming physically and emotionally a mature adult"

"... enable him to undertake the work he wants to do"

"... as a basis for his future rational moral conduct"

Two statements refer to the social utility of education. Reference is made in No. 4 of equipping the child for "an occupational role in society", while No. 6 states that it must be made possible for the child to "make his fullest contribution to society in adult life". Statement No. 8 is

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devoted exclusively to the development of social awareness.

If the education the child receives in the primary school is to serve the purposes that have been examined, it follows that a certain approach will have to be adopted in the schools. Part III of this thesis examines this approach which is the same as the one Blackie has in mind when he declares (61):

> "An approach which encourages children to think for themselves, to exercise choice, to ask questions, to co-operate, will not also encourage them to accept unexamined the society in which they live and its institutions; nor will it encourage an unthinking iconoclasm."

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PART THREE

"A GENERAL AND QUICKENING TREND" *

* Plowden Report (para. 505)

1. INTRODUCTION

In a centralised system of education the central authorities usually prescribe curricula, syllabuses, methods or organisation. But in a decentralised system it could be misleading to set up models that are supposed to represent the system as a whole. This is certainly true of English primary education as there is no single model. Kogan (1) says English primary education

> "... is characterised by the freedom of the schools to create their own curriculum, models of internal grouping and organisation, and style and attitudes in their relationships with children."

While there is no single model and while it would be difficult to find the 'typical' English primary school, there are certain features, the origins of which were traced in chapter one of this thesis, which are generally considered good and worthwhile and which merit emulation. More and more teachers throughout England are thinking along common lines and hold similar views of what is good in primary education and what the primary school should seek to achieve (2).

A study made in 1964 by H.M. Inspectors and quoted in the Plowden Report (3) showed that, of the 20 000 primary schools in England that were included in the study, a third had shown little change and were still following traditional methods. The report classified the schools in nine categories as follows:

"1. Schools outstanding in their work, their relationships

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with children and their understanding of current developments. The trend-setting schools.

2. Schools of high quality, well above the average, but lacking the rare distinction of the first category.
3. Good schools, but without any special distinction. They have friendly relationships between staff and pupils, and produce a good standard of work.
4. Schools without many good features but showing the possibilities of development - 'signs of life with seeds of growth in it', to quote Plowden.
5. Schools with special problems of environment, often facing language problems associated with overseas children. They have too many weaknesses to be regarded as high quality, but they have good personal relationships.
6. The average run-of-the-mill school.
7. A school with both good and bad features, likely to be unstable. It could improve or fall back further.
8. A school markedly out of touch with current practice and knowledge, and a few compensating features.
9. A bad school where children suffer from laziness, gross imcompetence or unkindness on the part of the staff."

This classification may seem overcomplicated if it is reasoned that all that need be known is how well the children can read, write and do arithmetic. Such a simple assessment, if one considers the position of schools during the payment by results period, is too crude and not a valid measure of a school's efficiency. The categories devised by Plowden are based on the observations of a highly skilled team of professional observers and "makes its value and reliability extremely high." (4)

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Razzell (5) sees the 109 schools placed in category 1 as the "trend-setting schools" and together with those in categories 2 and 3 as schools "of which the nation has every right to be proud" (6). He considers the remaining schools as either facing considerable problems or in need of radical improvement. Blackie (7) says that while the schools in categories 7, 8 and 9 might have some merit, their approach to teaching would be more appropriate to the 1930's than the schools in categories 1, 2 and 3.

D.D. Mackay (8) contends that many schools are unaffected by the so called 'modern approach' and that they prefer formal methods and traditional forms of organisation. The Plowden Report states in paragraph 505 that a school is not a teaching shop and it then describes in detail what it is. The paragraph is concluded with the words:

> "Not all primary schools correspond to this picture, but it does represent a general and quickening trend."

What is equally true is that a particular ethos has evolved in English primary schools and that this is reflected in many descriptions of schools (9). Before considering the factors that have given rise to this particular ethos, commonly present in the schools of Plowden's category 1, there now follows three descriptions of what can be considered a 'trend-setting school', its pupils and its teachers.

<u>The School</u>

> "... many British headteachers and teachers are coming to think of a good school as one in which children are taught to work, independently and in small groups, in an

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environment thoughtfully planned to permit choices from an array of materials - water, sand, clay, pottery klins, pets, practical maths apparatus and science equipment, all kinds of reference books and books for individual reading, private words books and free writing notebooks, powder paint, easels, puppet theatres, 'home' corners." (10)

The Pupils:

"... children will have learnt to behave as responsible members of a community, aware of themselves and sensitive to the needs of others. They will have intellectual achievements related to their own abilities. They will have shared, on many different levels and according to their varying tastes and inclinations, imaginative literature, mathematical experiences, art, music, physical education and a number of creative crafts. They will have worked in a carefully prepared environment, will have been encouraged to experiment and to choose from a wide field of available studies, and at every stage will have been encouraged to use their native language." (11)

The Teachers:

"The modern professional teacher is a person who guides the learning process. He places the pupil in the centre of the learning activity and encourages and assists him in learning how to enquire, organise, and discuss, and to discover answers to problems of interest to him. The emphasis is on the process of enquiry as well as on the concepts discovered." (12)

The three descriptions portrait accurately the changes

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that are taking place in the English primary school and are indicitive of a new thinking. The results being achieved in these schools are due to the unremitting effort by the pupils and teachers alike and occur in schools where personal relationships between children and adults are good. A characteristic spirit distinguishes these schools from the unimaginative and stereotype school.

It is now necessary to take into account the factors from which this characteristic spirit have developed.

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2. THE ETHOS OF ENGLISH PRIMARY EDUCATION

The development of primary education as outlined in Part One is characterised by the movement away from formal teaching to informal learning. In a Management Analysis Paper: Open Plan Education in Sheffield, Mr. G. Long, General Advisor of the Sheffield District Council, sees open plan schools (1) as the natural development in building design because of changes in educational thought which have produced not only a very different approach to learning but also a different way of organising the primary school. The changes he describes mirror the ethos of English primary education. This can be seen as:

1. a change of emphasis from teaching to learning;
2. the distinction between subjects in the curriculum no longer important and subject matter integrated making the process of education more meaningful and relevant to the child's needs and interests;
3. children being recognised as individuals who learn and mature at different rates and in different ways;
4. the school being a place where pupils learn to live as members of a community;
5. the learning environment consisting of the whole school building and the immediate surroundings; and
6. children learning from each other and not only from their teachers and consequently a different relationship between teacher and teacher, teacher and pupil, and pupil and pupil.

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The essential characteristics of the English primary school are clearly stated by Blackie (2) when he describes what the changes in primary education involve in practice. He says there are five characteristic features, informality, choice, initiative, discovery and integration. Under informality he discusses the physical changes that are involved. The traditional rows of desks have disappeared and tables and chairs are grouped in such a way that freer movement is possible and a more economical use of space can be made. Teaching and learning materials such as "books, maps, writing materials, apparatus, tools, brushes and paint" are readily available to pupils.

Because of the greater informality the children not only have a wider choice in what they do, but also when they do it. This choice is not 'completely unfettered' but falls within the compass of a scheme of which the pupils might not be fully aware, but which is clear to the teacher. Furthermore, there is minimal coercion, and interest is the main motivation.

With regards to initiative two aspects are emphasised. It is both the teacher and the pupils who use their initiative, and initiative and choice are closely connected. It is the pupils who are encouraged to undertake studies in which they show particular interest and it is the teachers who are able to deviate from preconceived plans when the situation demands it.

Children are encouraged at all times to learn through their own discoveries. Blackie recognises the dangers inherent in so called 'discovery methods' where it is sometimes

92./...

assumed that learning can take place without teaching, and he feels there is a place for both 'didactic instruction' and 'learning by experience and discovery'.

In discussing the integrational aspect Blackie (3) says that it "may be described as a variety of practices and devices, all of which break up the subdivisions of the time-table and the curriculum characteristic of the traditional approach, and rearrange both in a more organic form".

The ethos of the primary school becomes clearer when the following four counts on which Blackie rejects the traditional school, are considered. These are the imposition of a scheme of work on the teachers by an outside body, the fixed time-table, the assumption that children are unwilling learners and the rejection of the authoritarian relationship between teacher and pupil. His most serious objection is against the imposition of "a syllabus, a methodology, a plan of work, an outline of study" (4) by some central body upon the teacher. He rejects it, be it good or bad, because the teacher who is in the 'front line' is deprived of "initiative, imagination and inventiveness." In the second place he rejects the compartmentalisation of the school day into a fixed time-table on two grounds.

(a) That it is undesirable for anybody to decide "what it is best for all children to be doing at any given moment and how long they ought to be doing it" (5); and

(b) that knowledge should not be subdivided into separate compartments.

He qualifies this by recognising that all knowledge cannot be one and that there are different kinds of knowledge and

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different ways of acquiring it. What is important is that the child in the primary school ignores the boundaries between the disciplines. Thirdly, he rejects the assumption that children are not willing learners. At times children will certainly offer resistance to learning but the underlying cause frequently lies outside the teacher's sphere of influence. In the fourth place, Blackie, rejects the authoritarian teacher-pupil relationship of the traditional school.

What Blackie is rejecting is the formalism of the traditional primary school. While the grounds on which he does this are not important for the purpose of this discussion the absence of these features certainly characterise the 'trend-setting' primary school. Here the work programme is drawn up by the headteacher in consultation with his staff and not by some outside body. The school day is an integrated whole and it is not broken up into a number of fixed periods with a time-table that dictates what will be taught when and for how long. Subject boundaries may or may not exist within this arrangement. Children are seen as responsible beings who, if given the opportunity and enouragement, will embark upon independent studies. The relationship between the teacher and pupils rests more upon mutual trust where the teachers's role is to provide experiences and means of expression, than on the de jure authority of the traditional teacher.

Jack Walton (6) quotes R.S. Barth as saying that open education is a particular way of thinking about children, learning and knowledge. This particular way of thinking is

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characterised by "openness". It is this 'openness' which accurately reflects the ethos of the English primary school. Barth describes the 'openness' as follows:

> "There is a physical openness of schools. Doors are ajar, children come and go in the space within the school and without. Classrooms are open and children bring objects of interest to them in and take objects of interest out. Space in the open classroom is not pre-empted by desks and chairs organised in rows or in any other way. There is a variety of spaces filled with a variety of materials. Children move in this openness from place to place, from activity to activity. Both the world inside and outside the school is accessible to them. Space is fluid and changes with changing needs. The curriculum is open ... open to choices by adults and by children as a function of the interests of children. The curriculum is the dependent variable - dependent upon the child rather than the independent variable upon which the child must depend."

Featherstone sees a 'subtle blend' of freedom and support as one of the conditions that was necessary for the changes in British primary education. He says (7):

> "One set of pre-conditions for the British reforms has been the development of a particular ethos in British primary schools; independence for headteachers and teachers, together with a great deal of active support and the encouragement of a healthy professionalism."

It is now necessary to consider these two elements, freedom and support.

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A. Freedom

Headteachers in England have for many years enjoyed a measure of freedom that is the envy of their counterparts in many other countries. They have had the freedom to decide what to teach in their schools, how to teach it and by whom it is to be taught. Curriculum, method, recruitment and appointment of teachers all fall within the compass of their authority.

H.C. Dent (8) maintains that according to Section 1 of the Education Act of 1944 the Secretary of State for Education and Science has almost dictatorial powers over the local education authorities. In practice, power and control are vested in and exercised by bodies and individuals at all levels in the educational system. Consequently the primary school headteacher's power within his school is both substantial and also recognised to be so. Yet this is not sanctioned by law, which does not define his duties, powers, or responsibilities. Dent (9) offers two possible explanations why the English headteacher is given more power and freedom than the heads of schools elsewhere. First, there is the belief that once a person has been given the responsibility for a task, he must be allowed to do it without any interference. Secondly, that a school is not only a place for learning but it is also a society free to conduct its affairs in its own way provided this conforms to social convention and national policy for education. It is because of this freedom that English primary schools have found it possible to experiment on a wide front.

The new trends in primary education have been possible

96./...

because the headteachers have been free to discard traditional ways of organising their schools. They have been able to do away with the rigid time-tabling which saw the school day divided into a certain number of periods of equal time. They have had the discretion to group pupils in ways other than just by age. As ability grouping or streaming was considered the correct thing a decade ago, so unstreaming and vertical or family grouping is becoming acceptable at present. The school building is now seen as one of the most important resources and not only is every available bit of space utilised, but also for a far wider range of activities than previously. The headteacher is free to choose books, readers, equipment, furnishings and teaching aids. He is frequently consulted in the design of a new school or additions to existing ones. But most important of all he is free to formulate the policy of his school, to set his own objectives and adopt methods to achieve them. Kogan (10) says that this freedom is evident at:

> "... the heart of the school's activities - in the provision of facilities for learning and teaching."

While this freedom is considerable there are certain constraints. Headteachers may find that some equipment is purchased for them by their local authorities. They might find that the ethos prevailing in a certain area has been created by the Chief Educational Officer and his staff (11) and that they must adapt to these circumstances. Obviously restrictions and limitations are emposed by law and regulation. The law (12) stipulates that each day must commence with an

97./...

act of worship and religious education shall be provided. Local regulations govern minimum hours of school attendance.

Cook and Mack (13) say that while the headteacher's autonomy has made possible developments which in other countries are hampered by external interference, the notion of complete independence is "not entirely correct." They contend that

> "... this issue of autonomy, though important, has been overstressed."

Stuart Maclure (14) in discussing the teacher as a curriculum innovator is more critical of the autonomy of the teacher. He says:

> "This is a myth in the sense that it expresses great truths in a form which corresponds more to an idea than to a reality."

While it is true that the English headteacher is not completely free it is significant that these constraints place no significant restrictions or limitations on the real educational issues. Kogan (15) contends they say nothing about

> "... the freedom of teachers to determine relations with pupils and parents, or the ways in which time and space are used."

Furthermore they give no indication as to

> "... what concepts of the teaching and learning processes should govern the work of the school."

These issues remain the prerogative of the headteacher.

While this element of freedom has many advantages there are

98./...

certain equally obvious disadvantages. Schools will vary in their response to the headteacher's preferences and abilities and may in many instances result in inferior work. Headteachers may be too powerful. Unwise reconciling of power and authority may leave parents, pupils and teachers at the mercy of inconsiderate headteachers. This freedom has deprived the authorities of ways of assessing what is going on in the schools. The influence of H.M.I.s does, however, assist in maintaining some sort of standards, but there is no national assessment of schools. Kogan (16) says;

> "... this freedom, this inability of the centre to measure what is going on, undoubtedly has disadvantages."

One need not go into the question of whether such a measurement is of use of not, but it is increasingly obvious that this freedom has;

a) released the schools from the confines of formal instruction;
b) resulted in new concepts of building design which facilitate a greater flexibility in school organisation necessary for the provision of the wider range of activities pursued;
c) enabled the pupils and the teacher to work to their fullest capacities (17).

Kogan (18) says:

> "By choosing freedom rather than predictability and standardisation, the British primary schools, and those who govern them, have created hope that imagination and new ways of dealing with old problems may yet emerge in the educational system."

99./...

Yet this freedom in itself was insufficient as headteachers have enjoyed this for many years without them being the catalyst for change.

> "For many years, British heads enjoyed freedom without making significant changes." (19)

The element of support mentioned in the quotation on page 94 was missing. It is this subtle blend of freedom and support from which the prevailing ethos has evolved.

Having examined the concept of freedom in broad outline it is appropriate to consider the second element, support, which was necessary for the developments in English primary education.

B. Support

This great deal of active support is derived from a number of sources. Advisory services such as the child guidance clinics and psychological services are available to headteachers and teachers. Although they fulfil an important function it is the supportive role of the advisers appointed for their knowledge of and expertise in primary education, the teachers' centres and the in-service education available to teachers that constitute this element of support.

i) Primary Advisers

The appointment of advisers, whose sole function is to advise primary headteachers and their staff, is to a great extent a post-Plowden development. There were certainly advisers before then. Featherstone (20) mentions that as early as the 1930s there were, in addition

100./...

to H.M. Inspectors and local inspectors, advisers in some of the local authorities in England. It is interesting to note that the H.M.I.s and local inspectors were appointed as early as the 19th century when their function was to supervise the spending of public money (21).

A study of the role of the inspector in the English primary school lies outside the scope of this thesis, but it is important to note that for many years their sole function was to inspect. Gradually they became advisers as well. The true supporting role of the present day primary adviser lies in the fact that he is there to advise and not to inspect and he is accepted by the teachers as an adviser and a friend. There is a clear-cut division between his advisory function and the inspectorial or controlling function frequently ascribed to an inspector. There is a school of thought that believes it is impossible to separate the two functions. The National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers maintain (22):

"... that there must be an element of inspection in all advisory work if it is to be soundly based."

The advisers' exact functions varies from one education authority to another. Some have their duties defined either specifically or in general terms in their letters of appointment. Frequently no official duties are allocated to them, but the division of work is arranged in such a way as to meet the requirements of the area. This division of labour is, however, very much a local

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arrangement. In some education authorities the primary schools are shared out amongst the team of advisers and generally each team covers some 30 schools. The National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers feel that a reasonable allocation is one adviser for each 20 000 population. The advisers are then responsible for all the needs of the schools alloted to them. In other education authorities specific areas of the curriculum or aspects of the administrative organisation become the responsibility of an adviser. The National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers mention the following three basic patterns that are to be found in the organising of advisory teams.

"1. An inspector or group of inspectors is responsible for primary schools, another inspector or group of inspectors is responsible for secondary schools and possible further education, and a team of specialists is responsible for work in subjects. Work is co-ordinated by the primary and secondary schools inspectors, or by a chief or senior inspector.

2. A group of general inspectors is responsible for primary and secondary schools within a district of the authority and a team of specialist inspectors is responsible for work in subjects. Work is co-ordinated by district inspectors or by a chief or senior inspector.

3. A group of inspectors is responsible for primary and

102./...

secondary schools within a district and also for specialism throughout the area of the authority. Work is co-ordinated by a senior or chief inspector." (23)

The functions of the primary advisers may be summarised as follows:-

1. Probably their most important function is to liaise between the schools and the directorate where frequently the directorate has little experience of primary education.
2. Advice to the directorate is on a wide front and covers all aspects of primary education, but in particular the following:
   a) curriculum development
   b) in-service training
   c) provision of resources
   d) planning of buildings
   e) staffing
3. They give advice to headteachers who seek their help - sometimes referred to as the "hand-holding" function. What is significant in this supporting function is that the primary advisers have no real power. Consequently they are unable to bring about vast changes immediately. They have to get to know the headteachers and win their confidence. The success of their work is dependent upon the personal relationship they form with the headteachers.
4. They play a very important part in curriculum develop-

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ment by organising in-service cources, by arranging working parties or workshop groups, by actively participating in these groups and especially by establishing what the needs are of the schools. They liaise with the colleges of education regarding the in-service courses organised by the colleges.

5. They render valuable service by supporting, through advice and assistance, probationery and newly appointed teachers.

6. They are frequently actively concerned in drawing up architects' briefs for new schools. This is an important aspect of their work, particularly where open plan schools are concerned. The National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers believes that inspectors play an important role in this respect. According to this Association the following is involved:-

"a) The briefing of architects for new and remodelled school buildings.

b) Dealing with the development of plans through their various stages.

c) Advising architects on the detailing of various areas within a school.

d) Detailing the furnishing of the building in consultation with the head and staff when they are appointed.

e) Advising the administration on the spending of money available for major and minor building works.

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f) Advising the authority on future developments in building and equipping schools." (24)

7. They assist schools in matters of supplies, requisitions and all types of resources. They even help in designing new types of furniture.

8. In certain education authorities they participate in what is called 'the annual inspection'. Here the sole purpose is to look at the facilities at the schools.

9. Because of their intimate knowledge of the schools, headteachers and teachers, they are sometimes consulted in the appointment of teachers or headteachers. Their advice may be sought by the directorate in the promotion of staff.

10. Mention has been made (No. 4) that they organise in-service courses. While this aspect of in-service training will be discussed fully, it is important to know that the primary adviser, because of his knowledge of the schools and their particular needs and requirements is able to plan and provide courses that will satisfy these needs. The initiative comes from him and he involves the colleges of education, the members of the inspectorate and other agencies in these courses.

In 1971 the Scottish Education Department issued a progress report titled, Primary Education: Organisation for Development. It said (25), referring to primary advisers:

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"Advisers have made significant contributions to primary education in their areas. They have provided a professional service both for the directorate and for teachers."

It is within this context that the role of the primary adviser has been examined. Consideration will now be given to part played by the teachers' centres

ii) Teachers' Centres

Having examined the element of freedom enjoyed by English headteachers and the supportive role of the primary advisers it is also necessary to take into account the part played by the teachers' centres in bringing about the changes in the primary schools of England.

When the Russians launched their first Sputnik in 1957 the Western World viewed these developments with grave concern. A reassessment of the study of science and mathematics at all levels soon followed. In England and Nuffield Foundation played an important role and it was in part due to the interest the Foundation showed in these two disciplines that there was a quickening in the pace of curriculum development in the early sixties. The needs of the humanities and social studies were less pressing and consequently the changes that came about in primary education were first concentrated on mathematics and science and then on other aspects of the curriculum. These changes made it increasingly apparent that education

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authorities would have to give special attention to the further training, and in many instances the re-training of their teachers. New approaches to the subjects of the curriculum resulted in new content and methods. New teaching materials, apparatus and books became essential. A variety of teacher groups was formed to initiate and expand curriculum development. Conveniently situated centres to house displays and exhibitions, to hold meetings and to conduct courses became imperative. Certain education authorities provided premises to cater for these demands and hence focal points within their areas were established for developmental activities. It is these premises that became known as teachers' centres.

Before these centres were established many teachers' groups carried out their activities at schools. Secondary schools frequently had the facilities to provide audio-visual or reprographic aids, but the majority of primary schools lacked the necessary equipment. With the establishment of the centres the work done in the schools were transferred to the centres. The majority of the education authorities established one or more centre in localities where they were accessible to the majority of the teachers. Their value as places where local work in curriculum development could progress was increasingly recognised. The number of centres grew from 140 in 1967 to over 500 by the end of 1971 (26). Robert Thornbury (27) says there are thirteen factors that contributed to the

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establishment of teachers' centres. These are:

1. The mood of confident professionalism sparked off by the middle of the 1960s by the successful teacher-controlled local examinations in the secondary schools.
2. The emergence of new large comprehensive schools which, because of their size and resources, were able to pursue school-based curriculum development. "They were their own teachers' centres." In the later 1960s government policy regarding reorganisation of comprehensive education resulted in endless consultation with teachers. Teachers' centres away from the schools were provided as neutral settings for these meetings.
3. Reorganisation of local government saw the creation of numerous new education authorities and here too teachers' centres were set up as neutral meeting places where administrators and teachers met.
4. In some 'decaying' urban areas it was necessary to attract teachers to the schools and teachers' centres were set up for this purpose.
5. In certain 'run-down' urban areas there were exceptional high staff turn-over and teachers' centres offered supporting programmes for new teachers each year.
6. Surveys had shown that the colleges of education were not providing adequate training and many young teachers needed immediate courses. The existing in-service education for serving teachers was inadequate. The universities were not catering

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for the real needs of teachers because of their preoccupation "with making education a respectable academic subject". The teachers' centres were offering courses which met the real needs.

7. Many teachers were becoming skilled in the expert use of overhead projectors, the phonics approach to reading or an understanding of the new mathematics because they "were worried by an increasing sense of 'diffuseness' in their role." (28)

8. Parents and teachers felt that a revival of some traditional skills and discipline was necessary because of a deteriorating attainment in reading, writing and spelling.

9. There was a national awareness of the need to revitalise the curriculum, especially in the teaching of mathematics and science because of the advances in Russian space technology.

10. Political decisions such as the raising of the school leaving age and the introduction of metrication prior to the joining of the European Common Market necessitated curriculum reform.

11. Teachers were in need of in-service support in order to cope with the ever increasing supply of technological aids and books.

12. The improving teacher supply made it possible to plan schemes "which would use these spare teachers to cover release for in-service education".

13. Influential educational reports had praised the idea

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of local teachers' centres. This was particularly true of the Plowden report.

The formation of The Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations in 1964 aimed at establishing ways of reviewing and reforming the school curriculum in England and Wales (29). Its main concern is with curriculum development and while it has initiated a limited number of development projects on national scale and has been associated with others, it sees the cornerstone of developmental work the part played by the teachers themselves. The Schools Council working paper No. 10, Curriculum Development : Teachers' Groups and Centres summarises this as follows (30):

> "The essence of curriculum review and development is new thinking by the teachers themselves, as well as their appraisal of the thinking of others."

The function of teachers' centres can be seen as the provision of the facilities which will enable teachers to carry out the numerous activities associated with developmental work. Cave says (31):

> "The main purpose of the centres is to provide a setting within which new ideas and relevant research on curriculum content and method can be examined and where established subjects and approaches can be reassessed and possibly revalidated."

As the centres expanded because of the greater use by teachers they gradually adopted a multipurpose character. To-day their function is mainly four-fold:

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1. Provision of facilities for in-service training and curriculum developmental activities.
2. To provide service.
3. To provide information
4. To provide a setting where teachers would meet socially.

These four functions will now be examined in order to show the important role played by the centres.

In-service training and curriculum development

Initially teachers' centres came into being because of new developments in primary education which made it necessary to re-equip teachers for their tasks. They were seen as essentially in-service training centres. The important part the centres could play in this respect is reflected in an address by Mrs Margaret Thatcher in March 1973 to the Governing Council of the Schools Council when, as Secretary of State for Education and Science, she said:

> "... the Schools Council has been prominently associated with the developments in recent years of one of the most powerful instruments of in-service training, namely the teachers' centres"

In-service training will be dealt with in detail at a later stage (32).

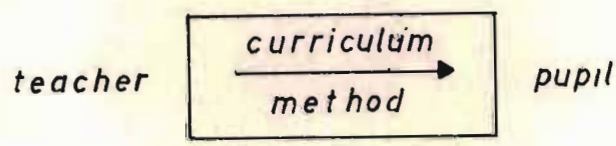
Curriculum development is not a clearly defined concept. In England it is mostly used to describe any activity that is associated with the curriculum. This is not strange as the term curriculum has over the years

meant different things to different people. In the past curriculum and content have been synonymous but at present it means more than just the content of the subjects that are taught. Lawton (33) says:

> "... in the past definitions of curriculum tended to emphasise the content of the teaching programme, now writers on curriculum are much more likely to define it in terms of the whole learning situation."

Lawton (34) illustrates this change of emphasis with the following diagrams:

old approach



new approach

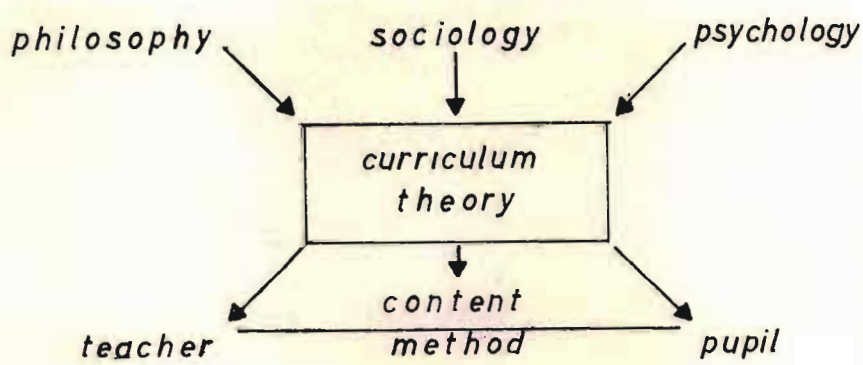


fig.4

Lawton is saying that where previously the emphasis was mainly on the content of the curriculum the new approach takes into consideration the whole teaching context. Philosophical, sociological and psychological factors that shape the content of the curriculum are important

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Professor Deardon (35) believes that the term curriculum development reflects two main ideas. First, it is a general term which embraces many things and it is concerned with any new idea on teaching and the curriculum. Second, it is a more disciplined concept possibly originating from the American secondary school and sets forth the idea of stating the aims and objectives of a teaching programme, selecting the content and methods to achieve the aims and objectives, and to evaluate if these have been achieved.

Curriculum development is essentially concerned with two main aspects. It is first and foremost concerned with the work that is actually taking place in the school. The content, methods and teaching materials in use are assessed, developed and reshaped to facilitate the most effective learning. The second aspect concerns the introduction of new subjects content and teaching methods. Cave (36) says:

> "... curriculum development is concerned both with the revalidation of present subjects and methods and the introduction of new subjects and methods."

It is possible that teachers' centres could more accurately be described as curriculum development centres.

Service

The teachers' centres aim at helping teachers in their professional development. It is at the centres where the needs and concerns of the teachers who are developing new syllabuses, methods or teaching material are met. Not only are courses and discussion groups organised

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where teachers are able to exchange ideas, but the centres provide facilities where development work is undertaken. The facilities available to teachers vary from centre to centre. It is common to find a lecture room or rooms that can seat any number from 10 to 100 or more, a resources room which house the audiovisual and reprographic equipment and a multipurpose workroom which can be used for lecture-demonstrations, seminars or workshop groups engaged upon practical activities. Frequently lounges are available with kitchens and tea-bars where refreshments are provided. In them teachers can meet in an informal and relaxed atmosphere. Matthews (37) says:

"In the British manner, no two teachers' centres have looked alike or been organised in the same way. All the same each of the centres contains three main elements:

1. A working room

   Here teachers can try out materials and make their own.

2. A discussion room.

   This probably includes the library and is comfortably furnished so that teachers can exchange problems and ideas in a relaxed atmosphere.

3. A refreshment area.

   This varies from a pantry to a cafeteria, but in any case the focal point of every centre is the tea urn."

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The equipment at the centres also vary but usually stencil cutters, photo-copiers and duplicating machines, recording facilities, and equipment for photography and the copying of photographic slides and a dark room are available. Teachers can be instructed in the use of these facilities and detailed instruction lists on the use of the equipment are also at their disposal.

Information

At the centres information about curriculum projects, teaching materials and equipment are collected and made available to teachers for use in their own schools. The centres' libraries house collections of primary mathematics and science equipment, fiction and non-fiction books and other non-book material such as charts, pictures, slides, loop-film, records and tapes. Books and magazines on curriculum development and current issues in education are also available. Usually the equipment and books are for reference purposes and may only be used at the centre. From time to time exhibitions are held where commercially produced equipment, book displays, apparatus made by teachers and work done by pupils are on view.

It is one of the functions of teachers' centres to collect and spread information about developmental work being done locally, in other areas or in national projects. The Schools Council (38) in its 1969-70 report says:

> "A continual flow of information to teachers' centres on curriculum developments in national projects and in other local areas, and the establishment of

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closer liaison with colleges of education are particularly important."

Social

Very few teachers' centres occupy buildings specifically built as teachers' centres. Most strive to adapt the buildings they occupy and to furnish the rooms so as to provide pleasant surroundings as unlike the conventional idea of a school as possible. The centres are, in addition to being meeting places where work is done, places where teachers meet socially. Comfortably furnished lounges and facilities for the provision of refreshments are at the disposal of all visitors.

Frequently special measures are adopted at centres to cater for the particular needs of the teachers they serve. In the bigger cities many teachers' centres have special programmes designed to assist new or probationary teachers. So, for example, the Rachel Macmillan Teachers' Centre in London (39) sends a guide, street maps and addresses of places that offer accommodation to these teachers shortly before a new academic year commences. Once the schools have opened, meetings are arranged for new teachers who are allocated to probationary groups under tutor leaders who are usually deputy headteachers or headteachers. At the initial meeting some illustrated talk is given on the local area, its education authority and other aspects which enable the teachers to familarise themselves with

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local practices. The tutor groups then draw up their own programmes and visits to places of interest, both educational and recreational, are arranged. These measures are looked upon as part of the social service these centres offer to the teachers.

The composition of the staff of the teachers' centres varies from one education authority to another. The person in charge is usually called the warden and more often than not he is a qualified teacher. Some education authorities regard this position important enough to appoint one of its depute directors or advisors as wardens. The size of the staff varies greatly and it usually contains secretarial and technical assistants.

The role of the warden is of cardinal importance and it has been the subject of some controversy in the past (40). Two points of view have enjoyed prominence. The one is that he is solely an adminstrator who attends to the day to day organisation of the centre. The other view is that while he is an adminstrator he is also responsible for much of the initial motivation of the developmental work done at the centre, for its continuity and the intelligent use of the centres resources. This second view is at present the majority view.

The warden is also increasingly being looked upon as an adviser or consultant. Cave (41) quotes the following statement that was made at a conference on teachers' centres:

"Briefly, we have to establish ourselves in the role

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of a consultant in local curriculum development. This means that teachers must ask for our help and not have it forced on them by various forms of blackmail. In order to achieve this we must be seen to be offering something of value. This 'something of value' has to be more than an interesting discussion and a cup to tea. If the centre leader is to be more than a warden he must offer skills which go beyond a statement to the effect that curriculum development is a matter of stating objectives, selecting content and evaluating the outcome. If we cannot offer a system which enables a teacher to take his own educational aims through the complexities of this process and emerge with a piece of curriculum that has some chance of working in his school - then we have no role, and the centre has no function."

This is an adequate description of the part the warden can play as consultant.

A survey of teachers' centres published by the National Union of Teachers in 1972 (42) revealed that wardens considered their two most important responsibilities to be the administration of courses and the organisation of curriculum development. They listed, in order of importance their main responsibilities as:

1. Administration of courses.
2. Organisation of curriculum development.
3. Arranging exhibitions.

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4. Development of resourses
5. Visiting schools.
6. Servicing study groups.
7. Arranging conferences.
8. Administration of teacher-groups
9. Liaison with higher education centres.
10. Co-operation with the country authority.
11. Schools Council projects.
12. Social activities.

iii) <u>In-Service Education of Teachers</u>

In the process of examining the support that head-teachers receive, attention was focused on the parts by primary advisers and the teachers' centres. It is now necessary to consider the education of teachers and especially the in-service education. First, a brief historical review of teacher education in England is given in broad outline and then the salient features of the James Report are analysed. Next in-service education is defined and its purpose established, then the need to co-ordinate in-service education on local, regional and national levels is highlighted. This is followed by a discussion of the various forms that in-service courses can assume and finally the follow-up activities or training are emphasised.

<u>Historical Review</u>

The education of teachers in England has developed along two traditions which have gradually drawn closer

together (43). The older tradition, dating back to mediaeval times, believed that all that was necessary was for the teacher to possess the knowledge he was to impart to the pupils. The degrees conferred by the mediaeval universities were in fact 'licenses to teach'. The tradition continued until 1972. Tibble (44) says:

> "Anyone graduating before the end of 1972 may, after the successful completion of a probationary year, still become a qualified teacher in a maintained secondary school without further training."

The other tradition dates from the nineteenth century and aimed at disciplining and passing on the rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic to the expanding number of proletarian children. The organised training of teachers in Britain was started by Joseph Lancaster at the turn of the nineteenth century (45). From the humble beginnings, in 1805, of his 'monitorial' system, where he had in training 'eight lads and several men', grew an apprenticeship system for training teachers. From 1840 onwards this was supplemented by training colleges provided by the churches. The emphasis was on training and not education and the attention was focused on how to organise the class and school, how to control large groups of pupils and how to teach these groups. Towards the end of the nineteenth century the idea of training, superficial as it was, began to influence the older tradition. After 1890, Day Training Colleges, the forerunners of the university departments of education,

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came into being at most of the newer universities and university colleges (46).

Various attempts had been made to bring the two traditions together. As early as 1925 the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for Public Elementary Schools recommended measures which laid down the basis for closer association and co-operation between the universities and the colleges. In 1944 the McNair Committee investigated the problems of teacher recruitment and training. But it failed to "unify the teaching body and its two avenues of professional training" (47).

The Robbins Committee reviewed British higher education in 1963 and strongly reaffirmed the need for closer ties between universities and colleges.

> "We ask indeed that there should be co-ordination, some principles of policy commonly accepted, some organisation providing for rational allocation of scarce resources" (48)

However, the reluctance of both the central and local government authorities to relinquish their control of the colleges led to the rejection of these proposals. In 1965 the government formally endorsed a binary policy which clearly separated the university sector from the public or non-university sector. Colleges of education were placed in the public sector. Universities came under their own control whereas colleges of education came under L.E.A. control.

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James Report

This brief historical review sketches the background to the conditions that existed when in 1971 the James Committee was formed to consider the education and training of teachers. The Committee recommended fundamental changes in the training and education of teachers as it was convinced that the system in operation was no longer adequate. It felt strongly about the overdependence on the initial training of the teacher and the distinction between the training of graduates and non-graduates. Its thinking was governed by two principles. First, that their proposals should be capable of speedy implementation. Second, that the status and independence of both the teaching profession and colleges of education should be enhanced. The first of these principles was severly criticised (49) on the grounds that an over-hasty implementation was not in the best interest of teacher education.

While the Committee made 133 recommendations in all, the main issue was that the education and training of teachers should fall into three cycles. The first concerned the personal education of the student, the second the pre-service education and the third the in-service education. The existing concurrent training and education was to be abolished and the highest priority was to be given to the expansion of the in-service cycle. Teacher education was to last a minimum of four years. The first cycle would consist of a two year course

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culminating in a Diploma in Higher Education. The second cycle would also last two years, the first of which would provide an introduction to the teaching profession and would be related to the work likely to be undertaken by the teacher at the start of his career. The successful completion of this year would enable the teacher to be licenced and to take up a teaching post. In the second year of this cycle, the induction year, the student would, as licenced teacher, take up employment in a school and be paid a salary. Only four-fifths of the teaching load would be allocated to him. The remaining time would be spent at a specific professional centre where the training and education would be continued. The successful completion of the second cycle would lead to registered status and full membership of the teaching profession. The third cycle concerned the in-service training and education of the teacher. Every seven years all teachers would have 12 weeks paid leave for in-service education and a national network of professional centres would be set up for this purpose.

The James report has come in for a great deal of criticism. Parry (50) sums this up as follows:

> "Implemented as it stands the James Report could have a catastrophic effect on the profession and the institutions it seeks to support and thus disadvantage the nation's children."

The Times Educational Supplement of 25th June 1976 carried a report of the comments made by the members of

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the Committee when they were brought together five years after the publication of their report. From this article the following matters emerge:

1. There has been a delay in carrying out the Report's central recommendations on in-service education although they have been accepted in principle.
2. The recommendations regarding the introduction of the three cycle system and the abolition of the three year concurrent teacher training have not been implemented.
3. The D.E.S. through its non-implementation of the Committee's recommendations must carry the blame for the present position where impending unemployment faces a surplus of teachers.
4. The Committee has second thoughts about its recommendations regarding the B.A. (Ed.) degree.
5. The financial crises of the past two years has played a major role in the non-implementation of the Committee's recommendations.

Lord James closed the meeting by stressing what he called the 'eternal verities'. These are:-

"1. In-service training was their first priority and must be a contractual right.
2. Provision must be made for the induction of new teachers.
3. The Dip. H.E. should be more fully recognised as one of the essential qualifications for entry to the second phase of teacher training.

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4. Rational administration should be established on a regional basis wider than individual local authorities." (51)

In-service education is certainly no new idea. It was in fact the basis of the apprenticeship system of the mid-nineteenth century. (52) It has, however, in more recent times become an essential feature of the educational scene in England and elsewhere. Not only does it rest on the present and continuing explosion of knowledge, but with the greater emphasis on the importance of education, efforts are continually being made to raise the status and quality of the teaching profession (53).

Radical educational changes such as the introduction of comprehensive education, the establishment of middle schools, and the raising of the school leaving age together with the introduction of new methods and content, the use of an ever expanding range of technological aids and revised theories of learning and child development have made it imperative that the training and child education of teachers be extended.

> "It comes as no surprise to recall that only in the past decade has it become accepted that a teacher's formal training does not end with his departure from a college of education." (54)

Where at one stage in-service education was looked upon as essential in re-equipping the teacher for his task it is now being seen as an integral component of teacher education. Johnston (55) says in-service education is:-

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"... an essential condition for all teaching."

According to Morgan (56) the importance of in-service training rests on three major assumptions. The first is that the initial training of teachers is only the beginning. Second, the balance between tradition and innovation in education is in favour of innovation and whereas in the traditional system the young teacher could learn by imitating his experienced colleagues this is no longer possible. The reasons are that, because of the 'information explosion', first qualifications are soon out-of-date, and because of the profound changes in curriculum, assumptions, methods and materials. Third, many teachers who studied certain main subjects in their initial course find that they make restricted use of these subjects in the schools where they teach.

The belief is now commonly held that initial teacher training and education is but one facet of teacher education. The corollary to this point of view is that initial or pre-service education is by itself incomplete. Brian Cane (57) says:

"... pre-service teacher education cannot provide more than an introduction to professional work."

Johnston (58) is in agreement when he states:

"The one thing that all courses of pre-service education have in common in all countries, east and west, rich and poor, is their incompleteness."

<u>What is meant by in-service education</u>

It is necessary at this juncture to establish exactly what is meant by in-service education. Brian Cane (59)

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defines it as follows:

> "In-service training is taken to include all those courses and activities in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill. Preparation for a degree, diploma or other qualification subsequent to initial training is included within this definition."

Johnston (60) sees it as taking place:

> "... at any time - either as full-time or as part-time study - during the potentially continuous professional life of the teacher. In-service education may consist of carefully planned, sustained work over a lengthy period leading to a further qualification in the form of an advanced certificate, diploma, or higher degree; it may equally well be casual study, pursued irregularly in the evenings or during the vacations, and in no sense leading to measurable recognition for purposes of salary or of promotion."

The salient features of in-service education can, therefore, be said to be the following:

1. It is training and education that serving teachers undergo.
2. All courses are for the explicit purpose of extending the knowledge, interest or skill of the teacher
3. The courses may or may not be designed to lead to improved qualifications and hence may or may not

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be designed to lead to improved qualifications and hence may or may not facilitate salary and promotion possibilities.

4. Attendance of courses may be on a full-time or part-time basis.

The purpose of in-service education

Johnston (61) sees in-service education as being multipurpose and he feels that as more facilities are developed for in-service training so the purpose will grow in complexity. The following are some of the purposes he lists:

1. Extension of knowledge
2. Consolidation and reaffirmation of knowledge
3. Regular acquisition of new knowledge
4. Acquaintance with:-
   a) curricular developments
   b) psychological developments
   c) sociological basis of education
   d) principles of organisation and administration
   e) new aids
5. Repetition or extension of original pre-service education after intervals.
6. Conversion courses
7. Introduction to new methods.

Morgan (62) in writing on the need for in-service training mentioned in the Gittins Report says that in-service training enables the teacher:

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"a) to add to personal knowledge or skills already acquired

b) to adopt to curricular change, in organisation, methods, and materials;

c) to develop special knowledge of a given subject area (for example, art, mathematics) following initial training, as he realises that he wishes to study furhter;

d) to find out more about the ways in which children learn or about the aims and approaches of modern primary or secondary education;

e) to change and develop new skills and knowledge, as he realises that he now needs these, for reasons of personal or professional development;

f) in particular, to enter new fields, such as special education, and to 'convert' from one aspect or field of training to another, for example, youth work, guidance, change of age-level of pupils taught;

g) to return to teaching more effectively (for example, as a married woman teacher) or to be prepared for new responsibilities, such as becoming a headteacher."

A National Foundation for Educational Research survey (63) established that primary and secondary teachers considered that the following nine topics should form the content of future in-service training programmes:

"1. Learning difficulties that any child might have, and the methods of dealing with them.

2. Pros and cons of new methods of school or class

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organisation

3. Operation and application of new apparatus and equipment, with practical opportunities.
4. Short courses on most recent findings of educational research in teacher's area of teaching.
5. Planning and developing syllabuses in detail so that content relevant to modern child, and arranged in teachable units.
6. Description and demonstration of methods of teaching 'academic' subjects to 'non-academic' children.
7. Methods of dealing with large classes of varied abilities with little equipment or space.
8. Practical details and aims of recently introduced schemes of work, and discussion of teaching results and demonstrations,
9. Construction, marking, and interpretation of schools exams and assessment tests."

There is a great deal of agreement between the views of Johnston and Morgan. Both include in their lists an extremely wide spectrum of teaching practice. The N.F.E.R. survey on the content of in-service courses supports this evidence and it is safe to conclude that in-service education serves many purposes and can only enhance the professional development of the teacher.

Co-ordination of in-service education

Brian Cane (64) proposes that if a future pattern is to be established for in-service education certain principles should be followed. The first of these, "... an

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objective assessment of the needs of each locality", is of particular importance. It is essential that in-service education be geared to meet the needs and demands of the schools and teachers. The priorities will vary from locality to locality, school to school, and from one level of schooling to another. It is not only necessary to cater for the immediate needs but it is essential that long term needs are also established so that provision can be made for both present and future educational aims and developments. Once the needs have been established then courses can be designed to meet them.

Methods of assessing the demands tend to be uncoordinated and somewhat haphazard although in recent times greater efforts have been made to establish what they are. The requirements for courses tend to be defined separately by the staff of colleges or universities, Local Authority advisers and D.E.S. inspectors. Consultation with teachers' centres, headteachers and teachers provide the most valuable information on the needs of a particular area.

One of the present problems is the need to coordinate in-service activities on local, regional and possibly national basis. At present courses are presented at all three levels and duplication is inevitable. Courses are presented locally through the L.E.A.s and are most frequently held at teachers' centres. These courses are mostly planned and organised by Local

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Authority Advisers. The primary adviser has an important role to fulfil in establishing the needs of teachers in his area. The staffs of institutes of education at universities and colleges arrange regional courses while D.E.S. inspectors who sometimes work on a regional basis, are mostly responsible for national courses. For any sort of co-ordination to come about the initiative will have to go out from one of the bodies being co-ordinated. Obviously this can lead to conflict and suspicion. Johnston feels the universities are possibly in the best position to bring about co-ordination. He says (65):

> "In the best interests of the profession and because of their essential disinterestedness universities should have the responsibility of co-ordinating the many kinds of in-service opportunities."

He, however, sets up an alternative to this when he visualises a co-ordinating committee consisting of "representatives of the university, the university department of education, the colleges of education, the local authorities, the serving teachers, wardens of teachers' centres, and a number of specially experienced collegues co-opted to serve, and including assessors from D.E.S." (66)

It is interesting to note that in 1967 the Gittins Report (67) proposed that a council for Wales be established to co-ordinate, plan and if necessary initiate in-service education. In Scotland there is such a body, the National

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Committee for In-service Training, with ide representation from all sorts of interested bodies. This committee has four regional subcommittees. A co-ordinating committee in England will facilitate in-service education and eliminate some, if not all, duplication of courses.

Forms that in-service courses can take

In-service courses can take any one of a number of forms that vary from correspondence courses and conferences to television or radio programmes. The duration of the courses vary considerably and may be as short as a single session or longer than a full-time one-year course. The most effective in-service education is likely to occur where the participants are most highly motivated. Whatever the reason for attendance the effectiveness of the course may be increased by the teaching methods adopted. Some of the most commonly used methods are the following:

(a) Formal lectures

There are possibly two main types, one where the lecture is followed by questions from the participants and the other, where group discussion follows the lecture. The number of participants is limited only by the size of the lecture hall although smaller numbers are desirable where group discussion is to follow.

(b) Group discussions or seminars

It is usual to find these discussions led by a specialist or expert in the field under discussion. Frequently a series of discussions are arranged.

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It is desirable that the group numbers no more than thirty as discussion and the exchange of ideas are inhibited when the group becomes too large.

(c) Radio and television

Increasingly more use is being made of open and closed-circuit television as a medium of instruction. The Open University concept and its allied television programmes have become increasingly popular. Certain L.E.A.s have developed the use of C.C.T.V. for educational purposes. Johnston (68) says:

> "A potentially powerful agent for in-service education is awaiting development in the L.E.A. systems of closed-circuit television."

(d) Working Groups

The groups usually consist of between fifteen and twenty members and meet with the specific purpose of exploring topics related to classroom practice. The participants are involved in practical work and the experimentation of methods and materials. The word 'workshop' is commonly used to describe the activities of these working groups.

(e) Demonstration lessons

Teachers are given the opportunity of observing and discussing demonstrations of lessons or teaching activities by other teachers. Lessons are sometimes recorded on videotape and then discussed at in-service courses.

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(f) Informal discussion meetings

This is not used extensively. The aim is to arrange informal meetings between teachers from various schools where professional discussions are held.

(g) Tutorial instruction

Individual teachers are visited in their own schools by visiting tutors. While this is the ideal one-to-one teaching situation extensive use cannot be made of this time consuming and expensive method. It is, however, used in follow-up work where teachers, who attended courses, are visited in their own schools by the course leaders.

The working party approach is particularly popular with the primary school teacher. The N.F.E.R. survey (69) of teachers' views and preferences regarding course teaching methods support this statement. The teachers in the survey were required to select the one method they felt most relevant to their own teaching. The highest percentage selected the working group method. It was in fact all course teaching methods that involved a large element of participation that appealed to most teachers. (70)

Follow-up activities or training

An important aspect of in-service education which is frequently ignored is the follow-up activities or training. Cane says (71):

"The provision for in-service training may be excellent

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and the arrangements beyond reproach, but it can still be ineffective if the opportunities for teachers to apply the training in their school work are very limited or non-existent."

One of the most common follow-up activities is the discussion that takes place between teachers after in-service courses. Apart from these free discussions, staff meetings are frequently held where teachers give accounts of the courses attended. The work done by these teachers is shown to and discussed with others.

A very effective kind of follow-up activity takes place where a working group meets for a series of short sessions and then numbers return to their schools to put into practice what was discussed and to try out aids. While at their schools the course leader, frequently a primary adviser, visits them to assist with the implementation of the ideas and to evaluate how they work in practice. After about four weeks the in-service course is resumed.

Teachers who have attended a course may return after about two terms for a further session to iron out any problems they might have experienced.

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1. Refer to page 188
2. Blackie, John; Changing the Primary School, Macmillan, 1974 (pp.26-34)

136./...

3. Ibid.; (p.33)

4. Ibid.; (p.12)

5. Ibid.; (p.12)

6. Walton, Jack (Ed.) The Integrated Day in Theory and Practice, Ward Lock Educational, 1971 (p.10)

7. Featherstone, Joseph; op. cit., (p.42)

8. Dent, H.C.; The Educational System of England and Wales, University of London Press, 1969 (p.65)

9. Ibid.; (p.89)

10. Kogan, Maurice; British Primary Schools Today: The Government of Education, Macmillan, 1971 (p.27)

11. Ibid.; (p.27)

12. Education Act of 1944, Part II, Section 23

13. Cook, Ann & Mack, Herb.; British Primary Schools Today: The Headteacher's Role, Macmillan, 1971 (p.8)

14. Goodlad, John L (Ed.), Curriculum Innovators in Practice, (p.10)

15. Kogan, Maurice; op. cit., (p.29)

16. Ibid.; (p.39)

17. Ibid.; (p.40)

18. Ibid.; (p.40)

19. Featherstone, Joseph; op. cit., (p.43)

20. Ibid.; (p.44)

21. Plowden Report; H.M.S.O., 1967 (para. 943)

137./...

22. Pamphlet issued by the National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers: The Advisory Service in the Local Authority

23. Ibid.;

24. Ibid.;

25. Scottish Education Department; Primary Education. Organisation for Development, H.M.S.O., 1971 (p.6)

26. Cave, Ronald G.; An Introduction to Curriculum Development, Ward Lock Educational, 1971 (p.7)

27. Thornbury, R.E. (Ed.); Teachers' Centres, Darton, Longman and Todd, 1973 (pp.3-6)

28. Ibid.; (p.4)

29. Cave, Ronald G; op. cit., (p.7)

30. Schools Council; Work Paper No. 10 Curriculum Development : Teachers' Groups and Centres, H.M.S.O., 1967 (p.5)

31. Cave, Ronald G; op. cit., (p.7)

32. Refer to page 118

33. Lawton, Dennis; Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, University of London Press, 1973 (p.11)

34. Ibid.; (p.12)

35. Professor Dearden in an interview with the author - 21st May, 1974

36. Cave, Ronald G; op. cit., (p.99)

37. Thornbury, R.E. (Ed.); op. cit., (p.55)

138./...

38. Schools Council Report 1969-70, H.M.S.O., 1970

39. Mr. R.G. Gough, Warden of Rachel McMillan Teachers' Centre in an interview with the author on 20th May, 1974. Also see Teachers' Centres, edited by R.E. Thornbury (pp.112-113)

40. Cave, Ronald G; op. cit., (p.27)

41. Ibid.; (pp.27-28)

42. Teachers' Centres; A Survey of Centre Resources and Conditions of Service of Leaders, N.U.T., 1972

43. Hewett, Stanley (Ed.); The Training of Teachers, University of London Press, 1971 (p.56)

44. Ibid.; (p.56)

45. Ibid.; (p.12)

46. Tibble, J.W. (Ed.) The Future of Teacher Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971 (p.8)

47. Ibid.; (p.5)

48. Committee on Higher Education: Higher Education, H.M.S.O., 1963 (para.39)

49. Parry, J.P.; The Lord James Tricycle, George Allen and Unwin, 1972 (p.17)

50. Ibid.; (p.110)

51. Times Educational Supplement; 25th June 1976

52. Hewett, Stanley (Ed.); op. cit., (p.110)

53. Johnston, D.J.; Teachers' In-Service Education Pergamon Press, 1971 (p.9)

54. Kemble, Bruce (Ed.) Fit to Teach, Hutchinson Education, 1971 (p.184)

55. Johnston, D.J.; op. cit., (p.9)

139./...

56. Schools Council; Aspects of Primary Education : The Challenge of Gittins, Evans/Methuen Educational, 1970 (pp.12-13)

57. Tibble, J.W. (Ed.); op. cit., (p.134)

58. Johnston, D.J.; op. cit., (p.10)

59. Cane, Brian; In-service Training, N.F.E.R., 1969 (p.x)

60. Johnston, D.J.; op. cit., (p.9)

61. Ibid.; (chapter 2)

62. Schools Council; Aspects of Primary Education : The Challenge of Gittins, Evans/Methuen Educational, 1970 (p.14)

63. Cane, Brian; op. cit., (p.25)

64. Tibble, J.W.(Ed.) op. cit., (p.136)

65. Johnston, D.J.; op. cit., (p.94)

66. Hewett, Stanley (Ed.) op. cit., (p.116)

67. Schools Council; Aspects of Primary Education : The Callenge of Gittins, Evans/Methuen Educational, 1970 (p.21)

68. Johnston, D.J. op. cit., (p.62)

69. Cane, Brian; op. cit., (p.45)

70. Ibid.; (p.63)

71. Ibid.; (p.53)

3. INFORMAL EDUCATION IN THEORY

Having discussed the freedom and support that headteachers receive, and which blend together to characterise the good English primary school it would now seem appropriate to examine the theory of English informal education (1). This section of the thesis divides into four parts. First, the problems that confront the philosopher of education when he studies informal education are stated. Second, some of the basic beliefs of informal education are analysed. Third, common characteristics of the informal classroom are described and fourth, a definition of the term informal education is formulated.

A. Problems

It is common to find that educational practice outstrips educational theory. This is certainly true in the English primary school where there are few teachers who are over-concerned with the theory of what they are doing in their classroom. In their practical teaching they are led by the experience they have gained in the classroom over a period of time. Featherstone (2) says that the theory is not unimportant, "but that it can only be of practical use when it has a living relationship to teacher and children." What has evolved in the good English primary school is the result of the teaching practice in the classroom. This is a commendable state of affairs. Stephens (3) states:

> "An educational theory must be forged in practice - tested and refined in different schools and adapted

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to meet the needs of different constituencies."

Cave (4) believes that theory does not tell a person how to act and that by its very nature it is impractical. He says that theory has never been strong in the British educational system and that this has had a number of detrimental effects, resulting in inefficient and haphazard growth.

The theory of informal education is in the process of evolution and presents the educational theorist with a number of problems. He will find that the literature on informal education is both emotional and vague. It frequently presents the maxims of child-centred education as exclusive choices in education: "children not subjects", "child versus teacher", "freedom versus discipline", "subjects or the integrated curriculum". (5)

Vague phrases and cliché's are elevated to the status of educational aims (6). Educationists have dispensed with having views about aims by basing their theoretical postulations on the needs, interests and growth of the child, all variations of the theme of 'starting from the child'. (7) The educational theorist experiences difficulties in finding clearly defined guidelines and "search as he will, he is not likely to find concepts of teaching and learning that are - by his standards - clearly articulated." (8) His first problem then is the emotionality and vagueness of much of the literature on informal education.

Matters are made no easier for him as much of the literature on informal education must be seen as a reaction against traditional education, which Egan (9) describes as "heavily academic, pre-packaged, sterile, the purveyors of a hallowed and ossified

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body of content being concerned with drip-feeding it to resisting children ...". Informal education is seen as being concerned with the removal of the obstacles laid in the way of the children by the traditional forms of schooling. Gowin (10) says:

"Open education is a response to oppressive schooling." He continues to say that if one thinks of authority, control and leadership in political terms, then the formal classroom, where learning is enforced and the teacher the enforcer, the situation is undermocratic in the extreme. Much of the literature on informal education is concerned with how these obstancles can be removed.

Further problems confronting the educational theorist are that frequently difinitions of informal education are either partial or overlapping. They do not describe in sufficient depth the elusive phenomenon that informal education can be taken to be. This is then overcome by describing what it is not. Tunnell(11) says it thereby avoids confusion with other educational approaches. In answering the question; "What is open education?", Simmons (12) says:

> "It is an approach to education that defines itself negatively by opposing the rigid, adult dominated, prescribed and enforced overly verbal and abstract lock-step curriculum that is said to characterise public school education."

He is describing informal education in terms of what it is not.

Brian Hill (13) in his article, "Whats 'open' about open education?", gives a review of the 'pathology of a slogan'

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and concludes that open education is frequently a label given to different kinds of educational developments.

> "The present healthy ferment in educational theory can only suffer from attempts to lump diverse trends together under the rubric 'open education'." (14)

Tunnell (15) is saying much the same thing when he states:

> "... it is being used as a slogan, that is, as a concept which is applied to every favoured educational notion which makes its appearance."

While these are some of the problems confronting philosophers of education in the study of informal education, which at this stage is not yet a completely evolved theory of education (16), it must not be assumed that it has no governing principles. Stephens (17) says:

> "It is necessary, however, to recognise that there are certain basic beliefs upon which open education is based and certain common characteristics of the classrooms in which it is practised."

In trying to find a theoretical basis for informal education it is necessary to examine some of these 'basic beliefs'.

There now follows a discussion of the belief in the autonomy and freedom of the individual, the accent that falls on the process of education, and the belief that the child is worthy of respect and trust.

B. Basic beliefs of informal education.

i) Autonomy and freedom

The first of these 'basic beliefs', personal autonomy

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and freedom, have already been discussed in a somewhat different context. Personal autonomy (18) was discussed as one of two principles on which the philosophy of primary education rested. The freedom of the individual (19) was seen as a value that English society expects its schools to foster. Freedom (20) was also seen as a necessary component in the development of a particular ethos that characterises the English primary school. Kathryn Morgan (21) says that in stressing uniqueness and individual expression;

> "open educators are committed to placing primary emphasis on the development of personal autonomy."

Featherstone (22) puts it differently when he says that the aim of "this primary school movement" is to enable pupils to become "thinking, autonomous, sensitive people."

Strike's views (23) on autonomy are important. He defines the 'legitimate means of teaching' as the ways in which a

> "teacher may permissibly influence the child's attitudes, values, beliefs or behaviour." (24)

This he then calls a 'legitimate influence'. He says that a legitimate influence enhances or is compatible with autonomy and an illegitimate influence detracts from and is incompatible with autonomy (25). He sees an autonomous person as one who:

"1. tends to base his decisions on available evidence;
2. tends to alter his behaviour when the available evidence on which the behaviour was based changes;

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3. tends to have his needs, especially his psychological needs, function more as evidence for what his decisions ought to be than as 'direct' determinants of his decisions.
4. is not easily manipulated or deceived;
5. is psychologically capable of accurate perception of external events;
6. tends not to distort reality to conform to neurotic needs;
7. tends not to be easily led by appeals to an unrecognised self concept;
8. tends not to be defensive;
9. tends to have an accurate perception of his needs and abilities;
10. tends to have an accurate self concept."

The first three traits form the centre of the concept of autonomy where the autonomous person is one who tends to "respond to the world including his inner psychological world, especially his needs, as evidence for what he should do." (26) The remaining traits suggest the kind of things which indicate that a person is not responding to their environment "as evidence for their decisions or actions." (27) Furthermore these traits suggest that there are two general kinds of properties that can be ascribed to an autonomous person, one is a positive kind and the other a negative. The positive kind will make a person autonomous by equipping him with 'evaluative skills and attitudes' which enables him to come to decisions and behave according to the evidence available.

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On the negative side the autonomous person is not indoctrinated and does not possess what Strike calls "obstructive traits" (28). These are characteristics which result in the inability to apply the 'evaluative skills and attitudes'. The legitimate influences referred to earlier, will develop these skills and attitudes. The environment plays an important part in this development particularly if it conforms to the following requirements:

1. It provides the means whereby standards and criteria for sound judgement can be internalised.
2. It presents alternatives from which the individual can choose when coming to decisions. This as with any other skill requires practice.
3. To develop a capacity for judgement then an open exchange of ideas is necessary. This implies free speech and a free press.
4. It ought to supply reasons for doing things and make learning through discovery possible.
5. It should show a respect for the worth of each person without attaching conditions.

The environment can also retard autonomy if it attempts to bring about changes in values or beliefs without providing valid evidence for the changes. It will hinder autonomy if it promotes anti-intellectual activities, exercises excessive control, violates intellectual liberty or if it lacks respect for the worth of the individual.

Informal education, which stresses the importance of the freedom of the individual, is sometimes confused with

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the more extreme innovations in education such as the free-school movement in America (29). This movement has as basic tenets a "generally laissez-faire attitude towards curriculum, unlimited choices for children, the secondary role of teachers, and the absence of attention to cognitive skills" (30). A.S. Neill remains a source of inspiration to these schools. It was he who said, although not necessarily believing it himself: (31)

> "Why history and not botany? Geography and not geology? Maths and not civics? I think the answer may lie in the words of the old public school headmaster ... It doesn't matter what you teach a boy so long as he dislikes it."

ii) Process of education

The one belief that characterises all informal education is the accent it places on the educative process. The value of how anything is learnt is considered greater than what is learnt. Morgan (32) states:

> "The accent seems to be, almost exclusively, on the educative process rather than on any specific educational content."

In the so-called 'content approach' the subject matter is of prime importance. Here the focus is frequently on the acquisition of facts rather than in their use. Criticism ranges from the point of view that the neat compartmentalisation of knowledge into subject areas does not take into consideration the fact that topics frequently overlap, or that the 'knowledge explosion' continually renders

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obsolete much of the subject content taught in the schools. Furthermore, the choice of content or curricula is frequently arbitrary and different curricula or content could serve equally well.

The 'process approach' seeks to assist children in their own learning where they are encouraged to solve problems by the so-called 'scientific method' of formulating hypotheses, gathering and arranging data which are then interpreted allowing inferences and conclusions to be made. To facilitate this, a flexible approach to the curriculum is necessary. The barriers between subjects are avoided. Children are encouraged to learn how to learn. They are taught when and how to use their knowledge. Stevens (33) believes that because of the objections levelled at the 'content approach' the 'process approach'

> "de-emphasises the specific material learnt in favour of teaching children how to learn."

A further maxim of the 'process approach' is that content is not unimportant. It must lead to increased knowledge, but knowledge that has meaning and which will be readily available for the pupil to draw on.

> "Process cannot exist in a vacuum." (34)

It is incorrect to believe that there is no curriculum in the informal school or that it varies so tremendously from school to school that it is impossible to make any generalisations. Morgan (35) draws a distinction between what she calls the 'surface curriculum' and the 'deep

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curriculum'. In the deep curriculum the process of informal education is in fact the real content of the curriculum and not the various subjects or topics studied.

> "In short, I will argue that it is the process of open education, as curriculum constituting, which is the defining feature of such education." (36)

The Achilles heel of the theory of informal education is likely to remain the question of content. The tendency to avoid deciding what to teach possibly rests on the surmise that it is unwise to be prescriptive about knowledge because of the rapid rate of change. Egan (37) says:

> "If open education claims to be movement of any educational significance it will have to face the question of content in a way that it has so far shirked in favour of easy ideologising."

iii) Respect and trust

A further 'basic belief' of informal education is that the child is worthy of respect and trust (38). This might seem strange as most educators would accept this axiomatically. This statement, however, reflects informal education's views of the nature of the child. Dearden (39) would question the statement that the child has a nature as being "a dubious metaphysical assertion". Informal educators reject the theological doctrine of original sin. This postulates that the child is born with an evil disposition which must be chastised out of

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him so that he can be taught to defy the self and be submissive. The views are also rejected that childhood has little value in itself as it is a preparation for adulthood, which is the most important stage in life, and that the child's affairs are unimportant and of little moment. Stevens (40) says:

> "The highest compliment that could be paid to a child was to suggest that he was behaving as an adult."

The consequence of these views are that the school life of a child must be one of strict discipline if, as an adult, he is to be self-disciplined. The curriculum shows less concern with those things that interest a child and emphasises aspects that are of value to adults. It may well be asked, as Entwistle (41) does:

> "In what sense, if any, can preparation for the future be reconciled with the requirements that schooling should have meaning for the child as and when it happens?"

Informal educators do not use childhood in moralistic terms where the child is inherently good or bad. They accept that the child and the man reason differently. They believe that the child is entitled to a happy childhood as childhood has intrinsic value and not only as a stage in the path to adulthood. It follows that the child is equally entitled to a happy school-life as so much of his time is spent at school. A satisfying childhood is a pre-requisite in the preparation for adulthood. Further-

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more, the child is seen as being capable of making decisions and, if given the opportunity, of accepting responsibility.

Tunnell (42) maintains that the 'respect rule', which he says characterises 'open' education, exhibits "trust and respect" for the student in the following ways:

a) by granting him considerable freedom

b) by considering his interests and views important

c) by the great deal of interaction between student and teacher where "they are considered to be equal in some sense"

d) by minimising the teachers authority over the student

e) by taking the student's feelings seriously.

In summary, the basic beliefs of informal education centre around three issues, the autonomy and freedom of the individual, the emphasis that is placed on the process of education as opposed to the content, and the respect and trust that is due to the pupil. Much of the literature on informal education seems confusing and one can only agree with Ann Berlak when she says:

> "... the literature, although compelling because it implies that there is a form of mass schooling virtually free of conflict and coercion, raises many questions." (43)

Some of these questions have also been highlighted.

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C. Common characteristics of informal education

In the process of examining the 'basic beliefs' of informal education the 'common characteristics' mentioned in the quotation on page 143 come to the fore.

In the first place, the doctrines of child-centred theory are distinguishing features of the informal classroom and schcol. Pupils are the agents of their own learning which essentially takes place through discovery. The pupils' experience is regarded as the starting point. Blackie (44) says:

> "Learning by experience and discovery is interwoven at every point ..."

Pupils are usually engaged upon self-tasks, and frequently the choice of what they learn and how they learn it is left to their discretion. Pupils are actively involved in the learning process and are no longer passive recipients. More responsibility and independence is delegated to them and greater co-operation and less competition exists between pupil and pupil.

> "The underlying conviction is that children should be more and more required to control their own personal learning processes". (45)

Secondly, few restrictions in the use of space, time or materials are imposed upon the pupils. They move about freely, both within and without the classroom. Limitations on the use of time are frequently absent and the school day does not consist of prescribed periods of fixed times. Razzell (46) describes the break from weekly time-table of lessons as the "breakdown of time-table tyranny." Hill (47)

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maintains that the classroom may be termed 'open' because:

> "... children move in, around and out of the classroom at will, or because there is little use of bells to prescribe lesson segments..."

A third characteristic feature is the changed role of the teacher, who is looked upon as a manipulator of environment and facilitator of resources, and whose main task is to provide the opportunities for learning. The teacher has the responsibility to create a learning environment that will facilitate and enhance the pupils' own learning. Featherstone (48) says:

> "The teacher's role is to provide experiences and the means of expression."

A feature of the new role of the teacher is the relaxation of the kind of discipline and control that induces and maintains the type of passivity that is associated with the traditional classroom. A key concept is trust which implies that children are not resistant to learning and if they are given the opportunity they will develop self-control and discipline. Sadler (49) identifies two models of teaching. In the first the teacher is the imparter of knowledge. This he represents schematically as:

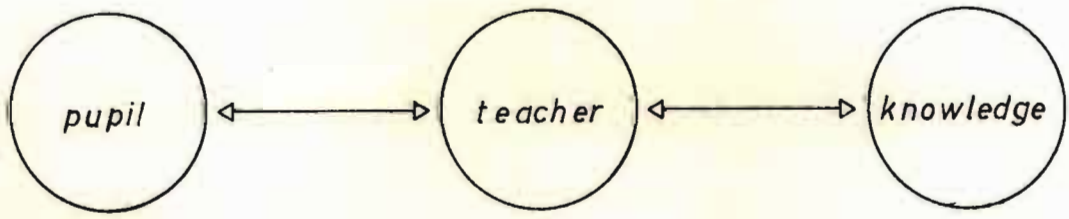

fig.5

In the second model the pupil gains knowledge partly through his own initiative and partly with the guidance of the teacher. This is represented thus:

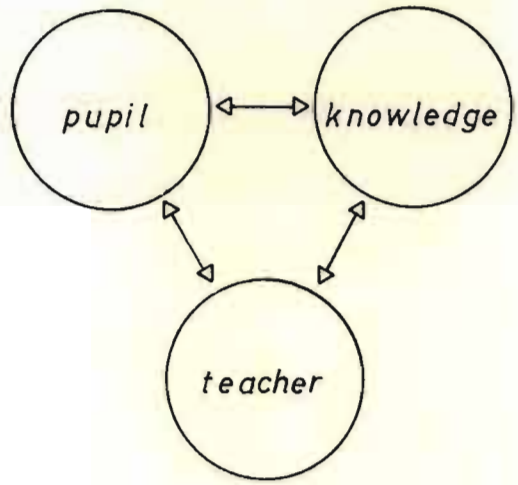

fig.6

He goes on to say:

> "In both models there is the need for mutual trust and respect, but this is particularly necessary where the teacher deliberately 'stands aside' and adopts a consultative rather than directive role."

Where the teacher 'stands aside' his role is sometimes described in terms such as:

> "diagnostician, resource specialist, learning manager, consultant, facilitator, interactor, and catalyst." (50)

Descriptions such as these are criticised because the teacher is seen as having abdicated his responsibilities and relinquished control.

A fourth characteristic is that much of Piaget's work on child development is identified with this approach (51) and that it is evident in the classroom practice. The first report from the Schools Council Middle Years of Schooling Project states (52):

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"Child-centred education with its methodological concomitants of discovery learning, 'creativity', and active problem-solving has drawn heavily and usually justifiably upon Pieaget's formulations for support."

An important aspect of Piaget's work is his description of stages of mental development through which all children pass at more or less the same age. An important practical consideration is that a child can only learn what is appropriate to his particular stage of development. Not only is the curriculum therefore planned carefully, but as each child does not reach the same stage at the same chronological age, allowance is made for the pupil's individual differences. Group and individual instruction characterise informal education. Brown and Precious (53) say:

"Each child develops at his own rate and the stages of development do not coincide with a particular age ... The best thing that a school can provide is a wealth of the experiences necessary to help each child in his development."

Piaget maintained that it was only in the final developmental stage, the period of formal operations, that a child was able to master abstract relations. Ruth Beard (54) quotes experimental evidence to show that only when children reach a mental age of about thirteen do they show a capacity for 'thinking in formal operations'. In the informal classroom verbal and abstract terms are discarded in favour of practical activities and concrete objects in the presentation and solving of problems. Blackie (55) underlines this when

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he says:

> "... the conventional skills and elementary knowledge of language and number will best be learnt, not be a direct formal didactic approach but through a variety of experience and activity of a more general kind ..."

Pupils in the informal classroom are given the opportunity to explore their environment and to learn through practical and concrete experiences.

Blackie (56) mentions that Piaget and Inhelder's work have also indicated that for learning to be successful it must be enjoyable. Blackie (57) is of the opinion that the 'progressive' approach in contrast to the traditional one, treats teachers and pupils as persons and is therefore in "harmony with the vision of human happiness." Peters (58) criticises much of English schooling on this score, when he says:

> "What appals me is the sheer boredom engendered by much of our schooling. On going into classrooms I am so often struck by the looks on the children's faces."

In the emphasis it places on the child, informal education strives to make learning more enjoyable. Egan (59) says that the lives of children must not be sacrificed to some final product and because education takes place in the present, the 'here and now' must be made better. Open education, therefore, aims at 'humanising and civilising' the schools.

A further characteristic feature of informal education is the role the learning environment plays in the education of the child. Both the psychological climate and the physical

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environment are important if the child is to feel at ease and secure. The classroom must, therefore, be bright and attractive. The furniture and its arrangement, heating, lighting and ventilation facilities are all important in the provision of a stimulating environment that encourages learning. The physical environment consists of the classroom, the school building or grounds, or the area surrounding the school. It is in fact any place where learning takes place. The learning environment is planned in such a way that the child will want to be involved with the aids and materials that are freely at his disposal. At times materials and equipment are provided that create situations which lead to specific learning experiences. Brown and Precious (60) state that the environment is 'all-important'.

> "It must be so well planned, challenging, interesting and attractive that the child wants to become involved with the materials, wants to satisfy his curiosity and to learn."

Egan (61) maintains that the characteristics of 'open education' ought to include, what he refers to as "a family of variously related elements". These are: "individualisation; freedom for children to explore; provision of rich environments for learning; children encouraged to plan their own activities; interdisciplinary inquiry; flexible scheduling; open areas; co-operative work; talking and play; children's interests determinging activities; flexible grouping; non-didactic teaching - rather, a facilitator of learning; children encouraged to learn by experience."

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D. Defining informal education.

It is now possible to define informal education. It can be done as Tunnell does, in what he calls a programme for action defined in terms of a set of rules. He (62) says open education:

"is that form of educational practice which is characteristically regulated by the following rules:

1. Students are to pursue educational activities of their own choosing.
2. Teachers are to create an environment rich in educational possibilities.
3. Teachers are to give a student individualised instruction based on what he/she is interested in, but they are also to guide the student along educationally worthwhile lines.
4. Teachers are to respect students."

Stephens (63) places the emphasis on the concept open. She says:

"Open education is an approach to education that is open to change, to new ideas, to curriculum, to scheduling, to the use of space, to honest expressions of feeling between teacher and pupil and between pupil and pupil, and open to children's participation in significant decision-making in the classroom."

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McKenzie and Kernig say that the term 'informal education' is used in a loose and imprecise way and they attempt to avoid this by offering the following definition (64):

> "Informal learning and teaching are activities which take place in a planned environment so arranged that each child is free to use time, space, materials and skilled adult help in order to advance in learning along the path indicated by his own interests and learning-style. The teacher's task is to ascertain each child's individual concerns and style of learning, so that the school environment is planned and maintained in response to these known needs. Her function then, is actively to assist the child to achieve educational objectives, initiated by his own interests and inquiries."

According to this definition learning limits have been removed, but the learning in which each child is involved is not predetermined or prescribed yet it is controlled and does not take place haphazardly. The teacher has a positive role to play by watching the pupils carefully and participating in their learning when the need arises.

In seeking a theoretical basis for informal education certain misconceptions should be clarified. First, informal education shares certain common goals with formal education. It remains essential that children should be able to read and write and that they understand and can apply basic mathematical concepts and processes, including knowing the multiplication tables and arithmetical bonds when it is necessary to know them. Secondly, it is commonly believed that informal

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education is without structure. It certainly lacks what McKenzie and Kernig (65) refer to as "restricting structures". An understanding of the role of the teacher and the use of the logically organised informal classroom is essential. If the learning environment, the classroom or school with all its aids and apparatus, is merely used as a way of occupying the pupils while the teacher is teaching an individual child or group of children, then it is unstructured. But it is structured if the teacher understands how children learn at different developmental stages and makes allowance for this; if the teacher has a knowledge of the concepts and content of what children are taught; and if the teacher is aware of how material and equipment in the classroom can facilitate learning. The English informal primary school is probably more structured than reflected in much of the literature. A study of several English informal primary schools by Ann and Harold Berlack and others (66) support this contention. In their study the attention is focussed on three related issues (67):

"1. what role does the child play in making educational decisions?

2. to what extent does the impetus to learn originate in child and to what extent is it extrinsic?

3. who sets and maintains educational performance standards?"

With regard to the first issue they concluded that children do not have a free choice in what or how they learn; and that the teacher made most decisions. Regarding the second

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issue, the data collected indicate that teachers made use of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and that they motivated differently "for different tasks and students". The findings relating to the third issue suggest that teachers set standards in academic areas, but for individual pupils or groups of pupils; and that teachers differentiate between pupils who are able to evaluate "themselves against the teacher's standards and those who cannot and the teachers intervene primarily with the latter group" (68). Further misconceptions are listed by McKenzie and Kernig (69):

> "Let the child play, and he will discover. Learning is nothing more than experience and discovery. Never tell the child anything; let him discover for himself. As long as a child is happy in an activity, he is learning. 'They love doing this, so they must be learning.' Do not teach reading, writing or maths; give children freedom and these skills will grow."

Informal education in itself is not a fault, only some of its misinterpretations and imitations.

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1. In England the term 'informal education' is commonly used for the American term "open education". It is also referred to as 'modern', 'progressive', 'child-centred', and 'integrated'.
2. Featherstone, Joseph; <u>An Introduction</u>, Macmillan, 1971 (p.22)

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3. Stephens, Lillian S; The Teacher's Guide to Open Education, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974 (p.2)

4. Cave, Ronald G; An Introduction to Curriculum Development, Ward Lock Educational, 1971 (p.12)

5. Entwistle, Harold; Child-Centred Education, Methuen and Co., 1970 (p.12)
and
Dearden, R.F.; The Philosophy of Primary Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1968 (p.22)

6. Ibid.; (p.51)

7. Ibid.; (p.13)

8. Nyberg, David (Ed.) The Philosophy of Open Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975 (p.35)

9. Ibid.; (p.24)

10. Ibid.; (p.79)

11. Ibid.; (p.14)

12. Ibid.; (p.151)

13. Ibid.; (chapter 1)

14. Ibid.; (p.11)

15. Ibid.; (p.15)

16. Stephens, Lillian S; The Teacher's Guide to Open Education, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974 (p.12)

17. Ibid.; (p.13)

18. Refer to pages 75 - 77

19. Refer to page 74

20. Refer to pages 95 - 99

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21. Nyberg, David (Ed.) The Philosophy of Open Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975 (p.138)

22. Featherstone, Joseph; An Introduction, Macmillan, 1971 (p.23)

23. Nyberg, David (Ed.) op. cit., (chapter 11)

24. Ibid.; (p.177)

25. Ibid.; (p.182)

26. Ibid.; (p.189)

27. Ibid.; (p.189)

28. Ibid.; (p.189)

29. The free-school movement in America exists outside the mainstream of public education and generally charge high tuition fees. The schools are looked upon as more radical institutions where all restraints on the pupils have been removed. Pupils choose what they want to study and attendance is generally voluntary.

30. Stephens, Lillian S; op. cit., (p.11)

31. Neill, A.S.; Talking of Summerhill, Victor Gollancy, London, 1967 (p.63)

32. Nyberg, David (Ed.) op. cit., (p.111)

33. Stephens, Lillian S.; op. cit., (p.15)

34. Ibid.; (p.15)

35. Nyberg, David (Ed.); op. cit., (p.111)

36. Ibid.; (p.111)

37. Ibid.; (p.33)

38. Stephens, Lillian S; op. cit., (p.14)

39. Dearden, R.F. The Philosophy of Primary Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1968 (p.52)

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40. Stephens, Lillian S; op. cit., (p.13)

41. Entwistle, Harold; Child-centred Education,
Methuen and Co., 1970 (p.16)

42. Nyberg, David (Ed.) op. cit., (pp.17)

43. University of Chicago School Review: Volume lxxxiii
February 1975
A.C. Berlak; Teaching and Learning in English Primary Schools.

44. Blackie, John; Changing the Primary School,
Macmillan, 1974 (p.33)

45. Probert, H. and Jarman C; A Junior School,
Macmillan, 1971 (p.10)

46. Razzell, Arthur; Juniors,
Penguin Books, 1968 (p.24)

47. Nyberg, David (Ed.) The Philosophy of Open Education,
Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975 (p.6)

48. Featherstone, Joseph; An Introduction,
Macmillan, 1971 (p.27)

49. Sadler, John E.; Concepts in Primary Education,
George Allen and Unwin, 1974 (pp.14-15)

50. Stephens, Lillian S; The Teacher's Guide to Open Education,
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974 (p.34)

51. Ibid.; (p.17)

52. Schools Council Working Paper 42 : Education in the Middle
Years,
Evans/Methuen Educational, 1972 (p.32)

53. Brown, M and Precious N.; The Integrated Day in the Primary
School,
Ward Lock Educational, 1968 (p.38)

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54. Beard, Ruth M.; An Outline of Piaget's Developmental Psychology, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969 (p.114)

55. Blackie, John; op. cit., (p.16)

56. Ibid.; (p.17)

57. Ibid.; (p.19)

58. Nyberg, David (Ed.); op. cit., (p.91)

59. Ibid.; (p.25)

60. Brown M, and Precious N.; op. cit., (p.13)

61. Nyberg, David (Ed.); op. cit., (p.24)

62. Ibid.; (p.17)

63. Stephens, Lillian S.; op. cit., (p.26)

64. McKenzie, M and Kernig W.; The Challenge of Informal Education, Darton, Longman and Todd, 1975 (p.xi)

65. ILEA Contact Vol. 5 Issue 5 28 May 1976 : An article by Moira McKenzie and Wendla Kernig: Informal Education? The Very Idea.

66. University of Chicago School Review : Vol lxxxiii February, 1975
A.C. Berlak; Teaching and Learning in English Primary Schools

67. Ibid.; (p.215)

68. Ibid.; (p.239)

69. McKenzie, M and Kernig W.; op. cit., (p.1)

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4. INFORMAL EDUCATION IN PRACTICE

Schools in England where informal education is practised, have some or all of the "basic beliefs" and "characteristics" just described as common features and it can be stated, as Kogan (1) does, that:

> "British education is characterised by the freedom of the schools to create their own curriculum, models of internal grouping and organisation, and styles and attitudes in their relationships with children".

It is this freedom, attitudes, and modes of grouping and organisation which have found expression in what is known as the intergrated day.

A. The Integrated Day

Brown and Precious (2) describe the integrated day as:

> "a school day which is combined into a whole and has the minimum of time-tabling".

They continue to say that within this day in a planned educative environment and at the child's own rate of development, the social, intellectual, emotional, physical and aesthetic growth of the child takes place.

Sadler (3) sees the integrated day as a form of organisation that provides a

> "controlled environment which will be thought of by the child as a whole and in which he can choose what to do and how long to spend doing it."

Robert Dearden (4), in a paper read at a conference on The Integrated Day in the Primary School, draws a "conceptual

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map" on which he attempts to locate the integrated day in relation to other concepts. He proposes that to obtain a clear picture of the learning and teaching activities of a school, queries must centre around aims, curriculum, methods and organisation. These he investigates and then concludes that (5):

> "integration is clearly applicable under the heading of organisation."

The following examples are quoted:

> "... when children are undifferentiated by age, then there is vertical or family grouping".
>
> "When children are undifferentiated by ability, then there is nonstreaming".
>
> "Again, team teaching integrates separate classes into a single teaching unit".

Vertical grouping, nonstreaming and team teaching are all forms or organisational integration.

Furthermore, Dearden concludes that the integrated day must also be an organisational concept. He states that although there are various forms that the integrated day can assume, it has "the common and unifying thread that set time-tables, or other formalised ways of changing from one activity to another, are abandoned." (6) He also says that there are a large number of different activities that are pursued in the same room at the same time. This he designates a "minimum concept" of the integrated day and is preferred because in practice it is inevitable that some degree of formal time-tabling occurs. He defines (7) this minimum concept of the integrated day as:

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> "... a school day so organised that there are no, or at least very few, uniform and formalised breaks in the activities going on simultaneously and changing very much at the choice of the individual child or perhaps of the group".

To this minimum concept Dearden adds what he calls "optional extras"; the integrated curriculum and team teaching.

Ieuan Lloyd (8) names various aspects of integration, such as "the absence of a timetable, team teaching, open plan arrangements, relating the school to the environment, grouping of children", which schools working on an integrated day system may use, but which need not necessarily be connected to one another. Stephens (9) sees the integrated day as:

> "... a day in which there are minimum fixed periods and no barriers between subjects; he (the child) is free to follow any activity as long as his interest in it continues".

Stephens then says that these barriers are not the only boundaries that become less clearly difined. Those between work and play, cognitive and affective and between different ages in the same class "are also blurred during an integrated day" (10)

The descriptions that have been given of the integrated day have certain common features and highlight the following aspects:

1. the "wholeness" of time and environment and the consequent abandonment of barriers between subjects and time-tabling;
2. pupils have a large measure of freedom in their choice and use of content and time;

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3. the integrated day is an organisational outcome of informal teaching and learning methods;
4. there are certain organisational features which, depending upon the circumstances, may or may not be considered as extras to the integrated day.

Where the present trend in England is towards a more informal approach to the educational needs of the children (11) more and more schools are adopting a variety of practices which are all known by the common term, integrated day. These practices vary considerable from school to school and many are like and unlike each other in a variety of ways. At one extreme is the school where all subject barriers are removed, where no time-tabling exists, where pupils choose their own activities and are not grouped according to age or ability and where they are free to move about at will. At the other extreme is the school that is organised along traditional lines and which, on occasion, allows its pupils to disregard subject barriers and time-tabling to work on projects or assignments. Between these extremes are ranged the majority of schools some of which integrate all subjects and others only certain subjects. Some adopt horizontal grouping where pupils of the same age are placed together and others vertical or family grouping where pupils of different ages are together. Team teaching is found in some and not in others. A few stream their pupils according to ability but the majority have mixed-ability groups.

Dearden (12) classifies the integrated day into four broad types on the basis of observed practice in school. In

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the first category are those schools with an integrated day where a subject curriculum predominates. While the curriculum is "divided up into the more or less traditional subject areas" (13) pupils are set individual or group assignment, but they have wide scope to decide when and how they will do the work. In the second category the differentiated curriculum still predominates. There the pupils' activities are indirectly channelled by arranging the resources in areas or corners which are each exclusively devoted to a particular subject. The third category groups together the schools where pupils have the freedom to choose activities according to their interests. Resources are varied and rearranged to suit the activities chosen. These are mainly infant schools. In category four are the schools that practice an integrated half day. It is usually the first part of the day that is devoted to differentiated activities which aim at developing the basic skills. These four types of integrated days are characterised by the varying degrees to which an integrated curriculum features in each. It is possible to conclude, as Dearden (14) does, that the integrated day does not necessarily require an integrated curriculum - it is an optional extra.

It is also pertinent to ask if the integrated day requires team teaching. While team teaching will be discussed more fully at a later stage, in the primary school it can be seen as the sharing of the teaching of all the children in a school. It presupposes that more than one teacher will teach the children in the same open space or interconnected space.

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Teachers move about from individual to individual and from group to group, and at times withdraw individuals or groups. Pupils have home bases where the day's activities usually begin and end. They also have their own teachers to whom they report at these times. The mother-image is retained and the pupils have their havens of safety. These schools, without exception, follow an integrated day. On the other hand there are numerous schools where an integrated day is practised but where team teaching is absent. While team teaching in the primary school cannot exist apart from the integrated day, the integrated day does not require team teaching. Team teaching is an optional extra.

In the 28th May 1976 edition of the ILEA Contact, Moira McKenzie and Wendla Kernig write that where progressive primary education is under attack, the issues involved are not simple. They are frequently oversimplified and the extremes are held to be the norms. They say (15);

> "The argument is still reduced to a simplistic either - or notion: either you go for traditional, formal teaching, and teach the good old skills and values, or you are "progressive" or "informal" and set up an interesting environment in which self-directed children will miraculously learn something"

Gerald Haigh (16) expresses a similar view when he quotes Richard Pring as saying:

> "... we fall too easily into thinking that Integration = Good, subject-based study = Bad".

It frequently happens that informal education and its

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practical application in the classroom are seen only as a good and wholesome innovation. Possible shortcomings are disregarded. The converse is also unfortunately true and the tendency to generalise on the basis of extreme forms of teaching must be condemned. An objective look at the integrated day will reveal some real advantages and some serious disadvantages.

i) Alleged Advantages

1. The integrated day not only allows but also encourages children to spend lengthy periods of time pursuing various aspects of a particular subject which interests them. Individualised learning progresses at the pupils' own level and pace and thereby readily arouses and sustains interest. The pupils are more fully involved and become interested in deeper and wider learning. Success in the learning situation comes easier and positive attitudes are reinforced. Pupils are less competition conscious and the integrated day environment is conductive to good social and emotional development. Brown and Precious (17) say:

> "In such a classroom children can work out their relationships with each other and come to terms with their own impulses"

2. In part II of this thesis it was pointed out that the citizen of the future would have to be able to adjust to new situations. Where in the past it was considered necessary that education brings about a

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certain conformity and obedience, and where the tendency was to subdue the personalities of the pupils, the integrated day strives to bring about an awareness in the pupils of their influence on others, and that of others on them. They are afforded the opportunities of seeing themselves in their interaction with other people. This makes them more conscious and considerate of the needs of others. They have the opportunity of developing the characteristics that Brown and Precious (18) consider necessary for the citizen of the future:

> "He may have a colourful and lively character whilst also possessing integrity, a consciousness of the group and its needs, and a strong feeling of responsibility to society".

3. Sound learning habits and positive attitudes are more readily acquired in the integrated day than in a more formal school. In the integrated day much learning is unsupervised by the teacher, who is frequently occupied with other individuals and groups. Successful unsupervised learning is only possible if the pupils have learnt how to learn. This is something that they must be taught because much time is spent using reference books, libraries and other resources. Learning in this way involves the acquisition of habits of initiative and persistence.

4. The integrated day creates opportunities for inculcating a sence of responsibility, a social

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awareness and a spirit of co-operation, but its greatest asset is that it develops the autonomy of the individual. The integrated day places a pupil in the situation where through his own actions, decisions, choices, planning and learning he is responsible to himself in what he thinks and does. This responsibility becomes individualised when it is developed from within the pupils and not as a result of pressures from without. Dearden (19) says that

> "... the more individualised learning, and developing the skills of learning for oneself, are closely connected with developing what I regard as a prime virtue to be aimed at: that of personal autonomy or self-direction".

In part II of this thesis where the purpose of primary education in England was discussed, respect for autonomy was seen as one of the two principles on which a particular philosophy of education, relevant to the English primary school, was based. The development of this respect is one of the more advantageous outcomes of the integrated day.

ii) <u>Alleged Disadvantages</u>

1. While Dearden (20) says that is is extremely difficult to obtain balance and progression in the curriculum when the choices open to the individual are enlarged, proponents of informal education and

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the integrated day place much value on the enlarged scope of individual choice. They see prescribed content and working within the framework of a differentiated curriculum as being restrictive. But it passes unnoticed that such frameworks may also offer protection from unenlightened choices and unwise personal bias. So for example Jack Walton (21) mentions the fear that there might be too much emphasis on the choice of arts and craft in the integrated day. There is also the valid argument put forward by Lloyd (22) that:

> "No curriculum can ensure knowledge comes solely from the child".

The choice of what is to be learnt cannot be left exclusively to the child. Some children will need much guidance before they are capable of making their own choice and it will not be in the child's best interest to let him always make his own choice. If one agrees with Peters that education is "an initiation into worthwhile activities" (23) it is conceivable that a pupil might seldom if ever choose to study an activity that is considered worthwhile. Haigh says (24) there is a belief:

> "that traditional academic subjects have not risen up by accident, and that therefore any attempt to replace them cannot just start from the assumption that they simply have no right to exist".

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Haigh also says (25) that there is "an externally-determined body of worthwhile knowledge" and that it is the duty of the educator to introduce children to it. Once again a child might never elect to study this body of knowledge and it is imperative that he be led to include this knowledge in his choice in order to provide him with autonomy.

2. In much the same way that unrestricted pupil choice must be rejected so too much the point of view be rejected that pupils need, or can, only learn through the discoveries they make for themselves. Every single item of knowledge that a child learns cannot be acquired through discovery methods alone, if by discovery methods is understood an absence of guidance and a dependence on any outside assistance. Not only is this far too time consuming, but it rests on the false assumption that a child at any age is able to follow a particular line of inquiry without a certain amount of guidance. This is essential if discovery is to take place. Sadler (26) says:

> "We cannot overlook the fact that children's discovery is dependent upon both positive guidance and a given framework."

The danger is, therefore, very real that the integrated day will be meaningless because it fails to set guide lines and frameworks for the pupils.

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3. Possibly the greatest shortcoming of the integrated day is its apparent lack of concern with what the pupils are learning. There seems to be a reluctance to consider the things that are important for the child to know. At the same time there seems to be a preoccupation with the ways in which the children can be organised and how the environment should be manipulated. Razzell says (27):

> "We became too concerned about the organisational features and too little concerned about the nature and quality of the learning which was taking place".

A decided disadvantage of the integrated day is the overemphasis of process at the cost of suitable content.

4. Some schools which practise an integrated day are so committed to the ideal of integration that subjects are rejected only because they are against the spirit of integration rather than on their own merits or demerits. At other schools teachers have become so conscious of the informal approach to teaching that other forms of teaching are rejected even when they are the most appropriate form of teaching. The teaching of handwriting is an example. There are also reservations about integrating mathematics with other subjects. Where it is done it frequently results in artificial situations which do not facilitate a better under-

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standing of the subject. Walton (28) says:

> "Mathematics could only rarely be properly integrated and contrived situations (for integration) were hardly likely to lead to a logical development of understanding of this subject by the child".

These last so-called disadvantages could possible be seen more as excesses practiced in certain schools rather than criticisms of the integrated day itself. It would now seem appropriate to return to the quotation of McKenzie and Kernig (page 171) where they say that the argument regarding progressive primary education is "still reduced to a simplistic either- or notion". The integrated day that does not ensure that the basic skills and the three Rs are not overlooked in the abundance of activities available to the pupils, or that does not allow its teachers to maintain control over the curriculum, or that does not provide the external discipline that is necessary for pupils to acquire self-discipline, or that does not inculcate freedom with responsibility, is no better than the strict formal British primary school of the 19th century. It could in fact be worse.

B. Team Teaching

In the process of examining the practical side of informal education it is now necessary to consider a second aspect, team teaching.

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The concept of team teaching has its origin in the U.S.A. in the mid 1950s (29). Freeman in his book Team Teaching in Britain (30) says that various American authors are of the opinion that team teaching "had its forerunners in the Gary Experiments of 1907, the Platoon School, the Winnetka Plan, the Pueblo Plan, Hosic's Co-operative Group Plan and the Dalton Plan". He also says that the system of education advocated by Froebel was closer to team teaching than other type of teaching organisation found in the U.S.A. The team teaching system gained momentum and popularity in the U.S.A. as a result of the work of Dr. J. Lloyd Trump who, on behalf of the National Association of Secondary Schools Principals (N.A.S.S.P.), considered the problem of how best to utilise the staff of the secondary school. That study, while being associated with ways and means of overcoming the teacher shortage (31), also offered suggestions regarding better learning possibilities than those found in the traditional school. Trump suggested that the school of the future would centre round three kinds of activities - large group instruction, small group instruction and individual instruction. More than one teacher would be involved in the large group instruction which would occupy about 40 per cent of the pupil's time. The small group instruction would occupy 20 per cent of the pupil's time and would involve one teacher. Individual instruction would involve minimum teacher supervision and centre round individual study by one pupil or in small groups of two or three. This would occupy 20 per cent of the pupil's time.

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The term team teaching appeared to come into use in 1957 (32) and it was immediately associated with modern teaching and learning equipment. Freeman (33) says:

"It was seen to be taking advantage of technological development ..."

Ten years after its initial appearance it was well established in the American schools and it was looked upon as the start of one of the greatest changes in classroom organisation (34).

Team teaching made its appearance in England in the early 1960s (35) and its initial introduction was largely uncoordinated and unscientific. Where the Americans were prepared to define team teaching in fairly precise terms and then applied it within the confines of their definition, its application in England was different. The schools where it was adopted were pragmatic in their approach and adapted it to meet with their specific needs. It thus developed along lines of its own, peculiar to the particular institute where it was used. Warwick (36) says:

"Hence the origins of the technique over here are diverse and variegated."

With the formation of the Schools Council for the Curriculum and Examinations in 1964, a national body was established which aimed at co-ordinating and promoting ventures such as team teaching. Various research projects were set up investigating team teaching and all its implications.

In England there are many variations of team teaching and the term, both in England and elsewhere, still lacks precise definition. By looking at the following definitions

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it is possible to identify certain aspects which are common to most forms of team teaching.

1. Hillson's (37) definition is:

> "Basically, team teaching involves the association of two or more teachers who have joint responsibility for the education of a fairly large group of students."

2. Lovell (38) says:

> "A form of teaching organisation in which two or more teachers have the responsibility, working together, for all the teaching of a group of pupils in some specified area of the curriculum."

3. Primary Education in Scotland (39) describes team teaching in the U.S.A. as:

> "... a system which has been evolved in order to make the most effective use of the skills of individual teachers and to achieve forms of groupings in keeping with the abilities and interests of the pupils. In these schools a group of teachers, balanced for age, experience and knowedge and assisted by an auxiliary, plans and carries through the programme of work under the leadership of a senior teacher."

4. Plowden (40) described team teaching as:

> "The broad principle of team teaching is that, instead of each teacher working mainly on his own, teams are organised within a school so that the experienced are able to carry responsibility, the newly trained receive guidance, and students and teaching aids are integrated into the work of the school."

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Common aspects which are stressed in these definitions are the following:-

1. Team teaching is a form of organisation. This does not imply that is is the only form but that it merely is one among several.
2. Team teaching involves the joint responsibility of a number of teachers for a number of pupils.
3. It involves a pooling of resources - resources which include personal factors of the teachers such as their skills, experience, interests, knowledge and specialisations. It also includes resources such as equipment, teaching aids, buildings and any other physical or tangible resources available to the teacher. Important too, is that the pooling of resources and joint responsibility are interdependent in so far as it is the combined resources available that is put to harmonous use for the benefit of the pupil or group of pupils being taught.
4. Some team teaching systems make use of a leader. This is a contentious matter and not all teams have an acknowledged leader. It is common, however, to find someone who is the elected or appointed leader and who is known by any one of the following titles: team chairman, master teacher, teacher leader, team leader, co-ordinator or teacher-presenter (41). Some teams operate without an acknowledged leader. What is of prime importance is that, with or without a leader, a team must pool its resources, be unified in its purpose and be a workable whole.

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5. Mention is also made of assistants or aides. In much the same way that a leader is not necessarily an essential feature of a team so too it is not imperative that there be assistants or aides. Used wisely and with tact they have much to offer and can be very useful members of the team.

6. It is desirable that the abilities and interests of the pupils are also considered, particularly when grouping them.

7. The best possible use of a variety of aids to teaching and learning is also a characteristic of team teaching. It is one type of organisation that lends itself to the use of technological teaching aids.

Warwick (42) offers the following definition of team teaching in what he refers to as practical terms and which covers many of the aspects summarised above:

"A form of organisation in which individual teachers decide to pool resources, interests, and expertise in order to devise and implement a scheme of work suitable to the needs of their pupils and the facilities of their school."

W.K. Richmond (43) concludes that there is little point in looking for a meaningful definition of team teaching, but that it is more useful "to ask what happens in team teaching". He then quotes the definition of Beggs (4b) and from this deduces what he calls the "guiding principles in team teaching". These he then lists as:

"1. The size and composition of the group must be appropriate

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to its purpose.

2. The time allocated to any group must be appropriate to its purpose.
3. The learning environment must be appropriate to the activities of the group.
4. The nature and extent of the supervision of the groups' activities depends upon the purpose of the group.
5. The duties assigned to the teachers must be appropriate to their special qualifications and interests.
6. The level and style of instruction must be appropriate to each learner in the group."

Warwick (44), after considering a number of definitions of team teaching, arrives at what he calls "the theoretical basis of team teaching". Three closely interrelated sets of factors are involved - pupils needs, staff contribution and school factors. These Warwick presents diagramatically as:

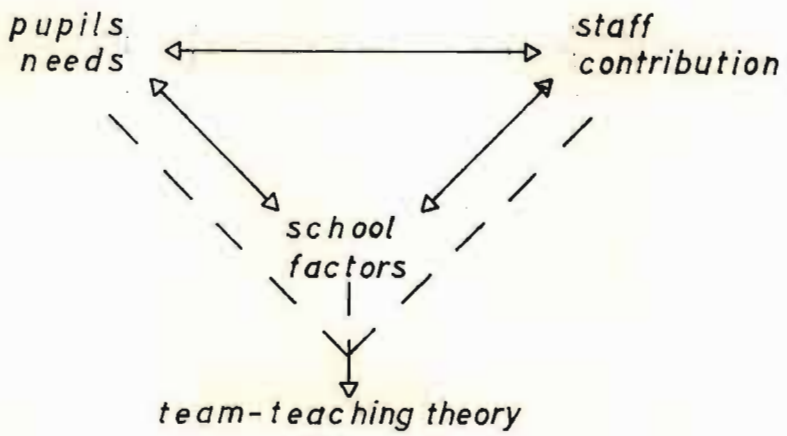

fig.7

It becomes increasingly obvious that a key concept in team teaching is adaptability. In team teaching there can be no uniformly correct size for a group as the numbers will vary

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according to the activity. The group may consist of all the pupils, any number of them or a single one. Similarly the time allocated to any particular activity will be determined by the activity and a flexible time-table is a prerequisite. Some lessons will be conducted in the classrooms, others in laboratories, in fact in any place that is the most suitable for the activity engaged upon. Teachers and pupils will participate in formal lessons, in group discussions and in individual study.

Another key concept in team teaching is that of the uniqueness of each pupil. Particular attention needs to be paid to individual differences. A new concept of educability will be necessary. The traditional school organisation will have to make way for a type of organisation which allows a more flexible use of teaching staff, teaching time, teaching equipment and teaching premises (45). Many advantages are claimed for team teaching and counter-claims reiterating the disadvantages, are also frequent. Freeman (46) lists 20 so-called advantages and 18 disadvantages. These he then summarises in 10 categories saying:

> "... we can more easily remember the general areas of great importance which must be considered when setting up team teaching."

The 10 categories are:

1. The role and status of the teacher
2. The role and status of the pupil
3. The learning possibilities for children
4. Relations between staff and pupils

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5. The amount of extra work entailed
6. Methods of teaching
7. Complicated organisation
8. Flexibility of time-tables
9. Use of resources including space
10. Expenses.

Hillson (47) says that there is little empirical evidence on team teaching and any claimed advantages or disadvantages are rather hypothetical than proven statements of fact (48). Fourteen so-called advantages and 11 disadvantages are listed - many identical to those supplied by Freeman. What is of significance is that many claims are made both for and against team teaching, but that there is very little experimental evidence to support these claims. It lies beyond the scope of this thesis to attempt a detailed study of team teaching and certain characterist features have not been mentioned. So for example the important part that the 'key lesson' and 'follow-up lesson' play has been omitted. Similarly the demands that team teaching make on the adequate use of teaching space, the system of pupil evaluation and the keeping of records of the pupils' work and progress, the use of the resources centre and the intricacies of pupil grouping have not been discussed.

It is also unnecessary to study the methods described and advocated by Adams (49), Freeman (50), Douglass (51) and others in setting up team teaching for the first time. It will, however, be useful to take cognisance of four basic rules (52) in the initial introduction of the scheme

in a school.

"1. Team teaching cannot be introduced overnight. Time is required for it to take root.

2. Sophisticated forms of team teaching cannot be developed immediately.

3. Team teaching cannot be foisted on to a staff who do not want it.

4. There is no one method of organising team teaching."

Warwick (53) says there are basically two concepts of team teaching which are at present in existence. On the one hand it is looked upon as an "adminstratively and economic way of running a school" and on the other hand it is an "educational technique in its own right having its own objectives and lines of development."

In many respects the gap between these two concepts have been bridged and team teaching must be seen as a development with one or more or all of the following features:

1. Materials are used in new or revised ways.

2. Pupil grouping is dependent upon pupil activity.

3. Teacher - pupil relationships are more informal

4. An integrated approach to the curriculum is common.

5. Both vertical and horizontal grouping of pupils are common features.

6. Greater emphasis is placed on the needs, interests and abilities of the pupils.

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C. Open Plan Schools

Having discussed the integrated day and team teaching it is now necessary to focus the attention on a third aspect of English informal education - the open plan school.

The purpose of this section is to investigate the manner in which the school building and its furnishings have to be designed in order to meet the requirements set by the trend towards informal education.

Where the process of change in primary education in England was for decades so slow as to be almost imperceptible it has since 1960 accelerated at an unprecedented rate. With few exceptions, the teaching methods employed, the administrative arrangements within the schools and the increasing use of teaching aids influence the space used for teaching. Open plan schools are a natural development in building design as a result of the changes in educational thought. For reasons that will become apparent the conventional box classroom - corridor building is inadequate to cope effectively with what G. Long (54) terms:

> "... a philosophy which recognises that all children are individuals who learn and mature at different rates and in different ways and who must learn to live as members of a community and that the whole school building and the immediate surroundings are the learning environment."

Before considering the demands made by these educational developments and the concomitant trends in building design it is necessary to establish that the term open plan, in much

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the same way as the term integrated day, is an imprecise one. There are open plan schools of many different designs all providing for a large range of activities and pupils' needs and interests. The educational objectives they aim at achieving are similar yet different. Some open plan schools have as few as 80 pupils others more than 500. Some are in old but remodelled buildings and others in new specially designed ones. The Educational Survey 16: 'Open-Plan' Primary Schools (55) says:

> "A glance at the plans of the schools shows that the term covers a wide range of designs which, at the extremes, represent considerable differences of educational principles; the term "open-plan", though widely used, is therefore imprecise."

In very general terms an open plan school is a building where attempts are made to reduce circulation space and it consists of a number of large open areas with few fixed partitions. Where partitions are utilized these are movable and are used to create temporary rooms or areas. Floors are usually carpeted and furniture and equipment are movable. Internal space is organised in such a way that the large areas are used by all pupils and the rest of the space is divided into smaller areas for specific purposes and used by smaller groups and individual pupils. Sometimes specific areas are partitioned off for either noisy activities like music and dance or quiet activities like reading and individual work.

It is interesting to note that in the 1960s the Development

Group of the Department of Education and Science in collaboration with a number of L.E.A.s designed a number of primary schools after careful observation of the work done in certain primary schools where teachers were attempting to adapt their buildings to new teaching methods. One of the schools that was built was the Eveline Lowe School in London. The guiding principles in the designing of this school are stated by Seaborne (56):

> "The basic idea adopted in the Eveline Lowe School as actually built was to create different spaces for different activities and to give them architectural expression either by providing movable furniture or by forming bays and other spaces of varying sizes, shapes and floor-finish."

School design in England, as elsewhere, is influenced by a large number of factors which can be grouped under three headings: economic, social and educational. Economic factors obviously play a part as the amount of money available at any given time will influence not only the design of school buildings but also the type and number of schools that can be built. A social problem which is making increasing demands on the building design of schools is the integration of public and educational services for the benefit of the whole community. School buildings are being used more and more as community centres. While the economic and social factors are important attention will be focused mainly on the educational issues. These are in turn the same ones raised by informal education.

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Education is increasingly stressing the personal and individual nature of learning, frequently buildings have to be designed to extend the opportunities and facilities available for individual study. Learning is dominated by discovery methods and the pupils play an active part in this process, and is not only confined to the pupils' classroom bases. The broadening of the curriculum has increased the range of activities that pupils engage in. The distinctions between subjects in the curriculum are of less importance and the integration of subjects is seen as being more meaningful and relevant to the child's needs and interests. The tremendous material resources available must be effectively deployed and adequate storage accommodation provided so that they are readily accessible to teacher and pupil. The ancillary services available to primary schools are increasing and provision must be made for doctors, nurses, psychologists, therapists, caterers providing school meals, child-care workers and laboratory helpers to all operate efficiently. In commenting upon these development G. Long (57) says:

> "The problem then was to design a school which could cater for these changing patterns in education and to maintain an orderly structure in organisation of activity and space."

The outcome of these educational issues in terms of school design will now be considered. Two features that come to the fore are the flexibility in design and the utilisation of the whole school building for teaching and learning activities.

A recurring theme in the literature on open plan schools

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is that flexibility in design is a prerequisite. Stephens agrees when she says (58):

"Flexible design is stressed so that spaces can be reorganised to meet changing needs."

Flexibility in design is achieved in essentially two ways. First, large open spaces are provided that can be divided into a number of smaller areas by adjusting movable furniture. These areas are varied according to the activities being pursued by the pupils. The reason is that learning activities could be inhibited by inadequate space provision. The pupils' needs, as determined by the large variety of activities, is continually changing and consequently the spaces must change at the same time. Stephens, in describing the many possible combinations of space that can be achieved this way, highlights this important aspect when she says (59):

"... the space can be readily adjusted to the needs of children."

The second way in which flexibility in design is achieved is by providing a number of permanent spaces of various sizes. The larger ones are used by large groups of children and the smaller and interconnecting ones by smaller groups and individuals. Learning and teaching are then carried out in the areas most appropriate to the task at hand.

The school building is increasingly being recognised as one of the most important resources available to the teacher. David Medd, the Principal Architect of the Department of Education and Science in England, says (60):

"The whole school must be a teaching instrument. Good

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teachers will have their children working everywhere." The kind of teaching spaces provided are important because of the increasing number of activities that take place at the same time. Provision will be made for all or some of the following spaces.

1. One or more large general work areas is provided. It serves a multitude of purposes also frequently doubling as a dining area.
2. Home bases are provided and belong to specific groups of children for registration purposes and as places where they can go, safe in the knowledge that there is an adult who will guide and assist them. The bases also serve as work areas and are used by individuals or groups of pupils.
3. There are specific work areas designed for art, craft, science and home economics. These are often called the messy areas and the floor covering is easy to keep clean.
4. Small enclosed spaces are provided where work, undisturbed by outside noise or interference, can take place. Conversely, noisy activities can take place within these spaces without disturbing others.
5. Sometimes a hall is provided and is used for assemblies, physical education, movement, dance or drama. It is frequently available for use by the community outside school hours.
6. In some schools special provision is made for language laboratories and audio-visual aids while outdoor teaching spaces, open or under cover, are not uncommon. These open spaces are seen as designed to:

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"... encourage learning and teaching in a wide a variety of ways as possible. Minimum requirements are likely to be lightly constructed enclosures, landscaped surfaces, grassed and asphalted areas for games, an adventure playground and a school garden." (61)

Within these spaces, that the children use for their learning, a wide range of amenities must be provided.

1. Water must be available at the sinks in the spaces for art, craft or science.
2. A carpenter's bench, timber and tools are essential for the construction of models and creative activities.
3. Both natural and artificial lighting must be good and a generous provision of power points is essential in all spaces.
4. Ventilation is important and spaces must be draught-free and controlled for heat-loss and moisture-content.
5. Generous provision must be made for the housing of the pupils' learning resources. As a rule pupils do not have their own desks or lockers and they usually have to rely on cupboard space to store their books and completed work. As much low-level storage space as possible must be provided. Small cupboards with adjustable shelves serve this purpose and they are fitted with castors and can be moved at will.
6. Teachers must have similar resource areas which are easily accessible from the learning-teaching spaces and where audio-visual aids, books, pictures, paper, clay

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and paint can be stores.

7. An outstanding feature of the open plan school is the mass of pupils' work that is on display. Generous quantities of adjustable wall shelving and bulletin boarding are essential prerequisites.

8. It is highly desirable that each teaching unit (consisting of a cluster of spaces) should have its own cloakroom and toilets. These facilities must have easy access from both the teaching space and the playground. The provision of adequate cloakroom space creates a problem. Where frequently up to 200 children are found in a teaching unit there must be sufficient room in the cloakroom for each pupil to hang up his overcoat and store his 'outdoor' shoes.

9. Possibly the most important amenity is the furniture. Mention has already been made that the furniture is constructed in such a way that it can be easily moved about. Much thought goes into the designing of the furniture which is both functional and attractive. A variety of working surfaces, different in shape, size and type, are required for the many activities that take place at the same time:

> "shaping and joining wood, plastics, paper, metal, clay; drawing pictures, maps and diagrams; painting and collage on a large and small scale; printing on paper, cloth; as well as writing." (62)

Often desk and table tops are painted different colours and each colour indicates the type of activity to be

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pursued at the particular desk. Cupboards not only provide storage space, but they are also used as room dividers - easy to move but they must stay where they are put. The furniture frequently just enclose a particular space but more often it is arranged and decorated to create places of interest and group together objects and apparatus for specific purposes. The importance of the furniture in relation to the building is expressed by Medd when he says (63) that the building and its furniture must be seen as:

> "... a single design operation, rather than the building as being a repository for fu niture designed in unrelated circumstances."

H.A.T. Stevenson in an article, Educational Change - Architectural Consequence, gives the following diagrammatic representation (64) of the requirements for an effective learning environment.

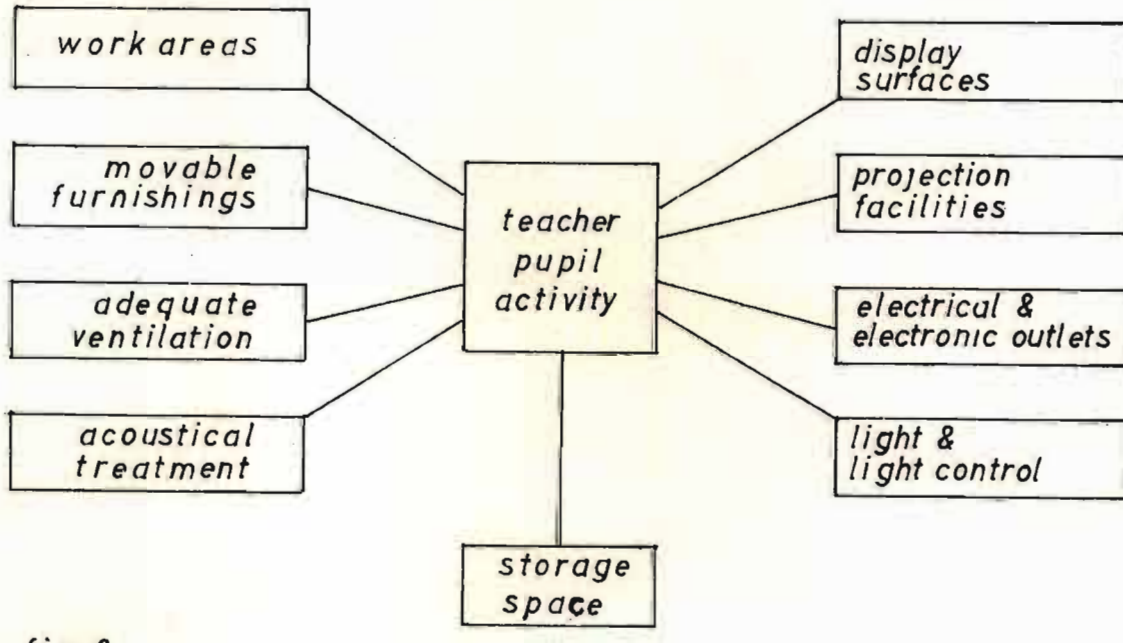

fig.8

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These requirements are satisfied by the physical environment provided by the open plan school.

No attempt has been made to describe the teaching methods or internal organisation of the pupils in the open plan school. These schools are designed in such a manner that a more flexible internal organisation is possible. The building facilitates the integrated day and the abandonment of fixed time-tabling. It makes easier the vertical grouping of pupils and the disuse of ability streaming. Group and individual work, where pupils from the same class work at different activities at the same time, becomes possible. A greater sharing of teacher resources and team teaching are natural consequences. But, most important of all, teachers are able to adopt patterns of organisation and teaching of their own without being inhibited by the physical limitations of the building.

There are certain features of the open plan school which are criticised and said to be disadvantageous to the education of the pupils. Criticism usually centres around two aspects, the noise and the confusion that results from having so many pupils together in an open space. Stephens says (65):

> "Criticism of open plan schools has been directed at the noise and possible confusion that can result from placing so many children in one undivided area."

There are essentially two ways in which the architect combats the noise in his design of the building. He makes liberal use of acoustic tiling and sound absorbing furnishings such as curtaining and carpets. The noise and confusion

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that can result from having so many pupils together in an open space are obviously also problems of organisation and discipline, and no degree of ingenuity on the part of the designer of the building alone can overcome them. The fact that the noise disrupts or that a pupil can become 'lost' indicates that special measures must be taken to ensure that it does not happen. Pupils must be taught self-discipline and adequate record keeping procedures must ensure that a thorough check is kept of the work done by the pupils.

In conclusion it may be said that it does not necessarily follow that the flexible arrangement of space in the open plan school by itself creates informal education. The term open plan refers to the physical design of a school, and teachers can continue to teach there in a formal manner. It does, however, provide an environment which facilitates informal education.

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PART FOUR

ASPECTS OF ENGLISH PRIMARY EDUCATION THAT COULD BE ADAPTED AND USED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF NATAL.

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the primary aims of this thesis is to study developments in primary education in England and to consider the possibilities of adapting and utilising them in Natal. This section concerns those aspects of English primary education that could, with success, be used here. Consideration will be given to the introduction of a more child-centred approach in Natal, the appointment of experts in primary education to decision- and policy-making positions, the in-service education of primary school teachers, the utilization of teachers' centres and the building design of primary schools.

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2. THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A MORE CHILD-CENTRED APPROACH IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF NATAL.

The Position in Natal

According to the Natal Ordinance No. 46 of 1969, as amended, the education of each white child commences at the start of the year in which he turns six provided this age is attained on or before the last day of June. If he turns six after that day his schooling will commence at the start of the next year.

The twelve years of compulsory schooling are divided into four equal phases (1). These are the junior primary phase, the senior primary phase, the junior secondary phase and the senior secondary phase, each lasting three years. In practice there are five types of primary schools in Natal.

1. Junior Primary Schools. These are first-phase schools with the pupils' ages ranging from 6 to 8/9 years.
2. Senior Primary Schools. These are second-phase schools with the pupils' ages ranging from 8/9 to 11/12 years.
3. Primary Schools. These are first- and second-phase schools with the pupils' ages ranging from 6 to 11/12 years.
4. Primary Schools. These are first- and second-phase schools and the first year of the third-phase with the pupils' ages ranging from 6 to 12/13 years.
5. Primary Schools. These are second-phase schools and the first year of the third-phase with the pupils' ages ranging from 8/9 to 12/13 years.

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There is little doubt that first phase education in Natal is on a sound footing as it is under the guidance of competent subject inspectors who are experts in the field of infant and nursery education. A system of group and individual teaching has evolved which stresses the value of self-activity and pupil participation in the learning process. Pupils are seldom streamed according to ability and are usually placed in classes on the basis of age. Ability grouping exists within the classes for activities such as reading and number work.

It is in the second phase where the greatest need exists for a more child-centred approach that is in keeping with what is known today about child development and learning. On the basis of discussions with teachers and principals and on personal observation of a number of primary schools in Natal, the writer of this thesis believes that at present the education of pupils in the second-phase follows formal methods of instruction where not enough allowance is made for pupils participation. There is little integration of subject matter; subject barriers, fixed timetabling, examinations and streaming of pupils are common. The emphasis is on subject content; little provision is made for methods that facilitate individual learning. The teaching is usually directed at the class as a whole.

Traditionally subjects such as art, music, woodwork, domestic science and physical education have been taught by specialist teachers, while class teachers were responsible for the remaining subjects. Where staff rationing permits this is still

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the case. There are, however, second-phase primary schools where all subjects are taught by specialists. The effect of this is that frequently the psychological needs of the pupils tend of be neglected.

In schools having more than one class of a particular year group or standard, grouping of pupils is commonly done on the basis of ability. Grouping of pupils within each class is invariably done according to ability.

The curriculum and syllabuses are prescribed by the Education Department. A core syllabus for each subject is drawn up on national level by interprovincial subject committees. These syllabuses are approved by the Committee of Educational Heads. The provincial subject committees are then responsible for the issue, within their provinces, of syllabuses based on the core syllabuses. These are then obligatory and form the basis of the curriculum in the schools. Apart from the few teachers who serve on the subject committees and the teacher society representatives, the teacher, who is in the front line of the educative process, has no say in decisions regarding subject content. Occasionally draft syllabuses are sent to schools and teachers are invited to comment on them. This practice is, however, unusual.

At present each subject committee issues its own set of aims for the syllabuses for which it is responsible. In the majority of cases the aims are educationally sound and praise-worthy. The following examples bear this out.

The general aims to the syllabus for English First Language for standards 2, 3 and 4 start as follows:

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"1. To promote the pupil's ability to communicate in English confidently and effectively;

2. to promote the pupil's intellectual, emotional and social development,

3. to extend his ability to observe, to discriminate and to order his thoughts coherently, ..."

The Geography syllabus committee summarises its aims as:

"Our aim in teaching primary school geography should be to develop skills, implant a love for the subject and equip the children with a basic minimum of knowledge about their immediate environment and the world of which it forms a part."

While these aims make it clear that the emphasis should not only be on the acquisition of knowledge, the teaching methods and forms of organisation within the schools seriously hamper the realisation of these aims. In many schools the only evaluation of the successful outcome of the teaching is by an examination which frequently assesses only the subject matter of the syllabuses, particularly in science, history and geography.

The school day is divided into a number of fixed periods and the teachers have to adhere to a timetable which fragments the day and the pupils' learning.

Furthermore, teachers are in the invidious position, on the one hand, of not having a say in the formulation of their teaching aims or choice of content of the syllabuses and, on the other hand, of having to cope with teaching methods and organisational patterns that are incompatible with the stated aims.

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In the opinion of the writer there seems to be an over-emphasis on the content of the subjects included in the curriculum, on the examination of this content, and on the promotion or retardation of pupils on the basis of this content.

The position in England

In English primary schools it is becoming more and more an accepted fact that passive pupil-learning, based on the traditions of the past where the subject content was considered as being of prime importance, should be supplanted by the need for the pupil to be involved in his own learning. Informal education with its emphasis on the child is now considered to be more important than the traditional primary school of the past. The Director and Deputy Director of Education in Natal acknowledge this in their 1971 Report on Education in the Seventies (2), when they say:

> "Hence the current emphasis on teaching techniques which promote learning by discovery and guided - discovery rather than on deductive processes; on discussion and activity rather than on situations in which teachers "teach" passive audiences of pupils."

The basic beliefs of informal education, which were discussed in Part Three, indicate the necessity for greater emphasis on methods of teaching and organisational patterns within the schools. These methods facilitate individual learning, place the focus more on how to learn and think and less on what to know and remember, and accept the child as being worthy of respect and trust (page 149). The child is

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seen as an active learner and learning as growing out of first-hand experience. Cognizance is taken of the fact that concrete experiences ought to procede abstract thinking (page 156) and that the learning environment should not only evoke a desire to become involved in learning, but should place few restrictions on the use of space, time and materials (page 152). This thesis has also indicated that children do not learn only through discovery methods (page 91) and that the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic remain important (page 159). The changed role of the teacher has also been emphasised (page 153). The teacher is more than just one who manipulates both child and environment in some mysterious way so that learning takes place of its own accord. This study has indicated that proponents of informal education do not see knowledge as existing in neatly bundled compartments labelled history, geography or anything else. In the informal school pupils are allowed to ignore subject boundaries in their studies (page 168).

The English primary school headteacher, in consultation with his staff, sets the aims and objectives that he wishes to achieve for his own school. Usually he is in the position to select the content and methods by which this is to be done. This study has indicated that this is made possible by the degree of freedom accorded to headteachers and by the active support they receive from a number of ancillary services. This study has also indicated certain shortcomings in the informal approach and while these will not be summarised here it is well to recognise that there is no one "best" way that

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will supply the answers to all problems. One can but agree with Bennett (3) when he states:

> "The notion that there is a single best way of teaching, across the universe of intellectual differences, of histories of preparation, of age, of teachers, is highly implausible."

Conclusions and Recommendations

Teaching practice in the senior primary schools of Natal is subject-orientated with the emphasis on the content of the curriculum and the examination of this content. Teaching methods and organisational patterns within the schools are frequently inconsistent with the stated syllabus aims. Too little provision is made for a unified or integrated approach to learning and the teaching of children as individuals.

It is recommended that a standing committee be appointed to advise the Director of Education in Natal on all matters pertaining to primary education. The committee should consist of an equal number of primary principals, officials appointed by the Director and primary school teachers, some of whom should represent the teachers' societies as demanded by law (4). The immediate task of the committee should be to investigate the present position in the primary schools of Natal, to consider the purpose of primary education in Natal, and to recommend improved ways and means of achieving this purpose.

Having discussed the implementation of a more child-centred approach it is necessary to take into account the need to appoint experts in primary education to decision- and policy making positions.

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3. APPOINTMENT OF EXPERTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION TO DECISION- AND POLICY-MAKING POSITIONS.

The position in Natal

Mention has been made that subject inspectors, appointed for their intimate knowledge of infant and nursery education, give the lead to the first-phase of education in Natal. In second-phase education the anomolous position exists that with some exceptions, the decision- and policy-making positions are occupied by persons who are not experts in primary education. The majority of subject and district inspectors, who give the lead to principals and teachers in the primary schools were appointed for their knowledge and expertise in particular subjects or because of their success as secondary principals, irrespective of whether they have first-hand experience of primary education. Many promotion posts within the primary schools are filled by teachers from secondary schools who have little or no experience in primary education. The majority of lecturers at colleges of education, where primary school teachers are trained, have no first-hand experience of the primary school.

Not only does it seem as if a less important position is ascribed to the second phase, which is frequently still considered the stage where the basic skills are acquired and a preparation for the education that is to follow, instead it seems as if experience in and knowledge of primary education are not criteria in the appointment of persons to these positions.

A dilemma arises because these positions have university degrees as pre-requisite academic qualifications and the people

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with the academic qualifications do not have the experience in primary education and those with the experience do not have the degrees.

This dilemma can be resolved in a number of ways. Firstly, be removing as pre-requisites the academic qualifications presently demanded and secondly, by changing the format of pre-service education of primary school teachers so that when they complete their training they possess these qualifications. The first possibility would be a retrograde step and would have a detrimental effect on the status of the teaching profession. The second possibility would result in teaching becoming an all-degree profession. Serious practical problems would seem to rule this out.

A third possibility would be to add as a pre-requisite for appointment to any of these decision- and policy-making positions, recent experience in primary education. At present the requisite minimum requirements for these positions are:

1. An approved university professional degree;
2. a recognised professional teachers' qualification; and
3. ten years' actual teaching experience.

(In the case of college lectureships the minimum period of teaching experience is reduced to five years while a university degree is not a requirement for a primary headship.) A way could be found out of this dilemma by changing the third of these requirements to be ten years actual teaching experience, the last three in primary education.

There is, however, the danger that not enough suitable

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applicants could be found who would have the requisite three years' experience. The salary structure of primary promotion posts needs to be reviewed to overcome this problem. At present promotion posts in secondary schools carry higher salaries than those in primary schools. If these were the same more teachers with degrees might be inclined to make primary education their careers.

The position in England

One of the outstanding features of English primary education is the role played by its educational leaders, the headteachers and advisers. They are appointed to their positions because of their experience in and knowledge of primary education. The headteachers usually have had successful careers as teachers and the advisers as headteachers. It is essential for headteachers to have first-hand experience of primary education because, unlike their counterparts in Natal, where curricula and syllabuses are drawn up by the authorities, they have to determine a policy for their schools and put it into practice. They are responsible for their own curricula and syllabuses. Cook and Mack conclude from a survey they conducted in England that it is necessary for headteachers to create a clearly defined philosophy of education. They say (5):

> "Perhaps the most striking characteristic shared by the heads interviewed was their ability to articulate a thoughtful philosophy of education."

In addition to being responsible for their own curricula and syllabuses the headteachers in the English primary schools are more deeply involved in the in-service education of their

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staffs than the principals in Natal. Much of this they undertake themselves, frequently by going into the classrooms and working alongside the teachers.

In English primary education it is not only the headteacher who gives the lead. The primary advisers play an important supportive role. This was highlighted in Part Three of this thesis and it was apparent that a thorough knowledge of primary education was a pre-requisite for these advisers.

Conclusions and recommendations

For a variety of reasons few people with first-hand experience of primary education are appointed to decision- and policy-making positions in the Natal Education Department. Possible remedies are now suggested.

1. Ways and means should be sought to make a career in the primary school more attractive to graduate teachers.
2. Discrepancies in salary between primary school and secondary school promotion posts should be eliminated. Teachers in the secondary schools would then be more inclined to make a career in the primary school.
3. The University of Natal should be requested to offer a B.A. degree in primary education and selected students should be enrolled there instead of at the colleges of education.
4. Advisers with experience of primary education should be appointed to assist and guide primary school teachers and principals. They ought to play a leading role in

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in-service education of primary school teachers.

5. Satisfactory experience in primary education should be made a pre-requisite for all appointments to promotion posts in the primary school and in the appointment of lecturers to the colleges of education where primary school teachers are educated.

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4. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The position in Natal

At present provision is made for the in-service education of teachers in two ways. First, selected teachers can return to colleges of education or universities for periods varying from a few months to a full year and further their education in subjects referred to as the "scarce subjects", mathematics and science particularly, and also educational guidance or special class education. The courses may or may not lead to further qualifications. Very favourable leave privileges are granted to these teachers.

It is interesting to note that the Natal Education Department is to open a college for in-service and further training in Pietermaritzburg in 1977. The first rector has already been appointed and lecturers' posts have been advertised.

Second, there are in-service courses of one or two days duration. These are organised by members of the inspectorate and educational planners. The courses of a more academic nature involving areas of the curriculum fall under the control of members of the inspectorate who, in consultation with subject committees, establish what the needs are. In-service courses for principals and those involving aspects of school administration are usually undertaken by the educational planners or the administrative staff of the Education Department. In many instances these courses serve very useful purposes and satisfy pressing needs. Some of them, however, have been disappointing for a number of reasons. The writer has attended many of these courses and found the following aspects to be

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unsatisfactory:

1. the excessive use of lectures;
2. the large number of participants, at times as many as 300;
3. the poor presentation of courses;
4. the use of large uncomfortable halls with poor seating facilities;
5. the complete absence of any follow-up activity at the conclusion of a course;
6. inadequate provision and use of audio-visual aids;
7. the passive part played by the teachers attending; and
8. the lack of motivation on the part of many teachers attending the courses because they have been instructed to attend and because they know from experience that they will not gain much from the course.

The position in England

In-service education was dealt with in detail in Part Three of this thesis. Six aspects were emphasised.

1. Pre-service education is seen merely as the start of teacher education (page 125).
2. In-service education is recognised as an integral component of teacher education (page 124).
3. It is essential to establish what the needs of the teachers are and then to design courses that will satisfy these needs (page 130).
4. The most successful courses are those where teachers are highly motivated to attend and where they are actively involved in the course (page 134).

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5. Follow-up activities are an important aspect of in-service education (page 134).
6. Workshop facilities should be available for practical work (page 133).

Conclusions and Recommendations

The in-service education of teachers in Natal, where the courses of longer duration are concerned, seems to be adaquate. The new college for in-service and further training will have a positive role to fulfil and holds much promise.

The organisation of shorter courses needs to be reviewed and improved. This can be done in a number of ways.

1. Adequate facilities for in-service courses should be provided. Pre-requisites are lecture theatres with proper audio-visual equipment and loud-speaker systems, and workshop facilities for practical work.
2. These facilities should be made available at the teachers' centre in Durban and at the new college in Pietermaritzburg.
3. Courses should be designed to allow maximum participation by the teachers attending.
4. Formal lecturers should be limited.
5. More courses for small groups of teachers should be offered. The need for such courses should be established through consultation with teachers and principals and then consideration should be given to the most suitable time to hold the course.
6. Follow-up activities should be instituted at the conclusion of courses.

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7. The form that a course takes should be the one most likely to achieve the best result.

For a number of years the colleges where students are prepared for teaching careers in the primary school have been referred to as 'colleges of education'. Previously they were known as 'training colleges'. It should be recognised that teachers are educated and the word 'training' should no longer be used in this context.

Where in-service courses are at present conducted by officials of the Education Department an inbreeding of ideas can result. Outside bodies such as the university, teachers societies, manufacturers of equipment, and commerce and industry should be encouraged to hold courses. This would result in the introduction of new ideas.

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5. UTILISATION OF TEACHERS' CENTRES

The position in Natal

There are at present two teachers' centres in Natal, one in Durban and the other in Pietermaritzburg. These centres are under the supervision and direction of a "teacher-in-charge" who is responsible for planning and co-ordinating the development of teachers' activities within a certain region. The post of "teacher-in-charge" is a promotion post, equal to that of senior assistant in a secondary school. This is the lowest ranking promotion post open to secondary school teachers and carries a salary slightly in access of the same post in the primary school. The functions of the "teacher-in-charge" are set out in a document drawn up by the Senior Adviser School Library Services. These are (6):

"1. The teacher-in-charge will principally act as consultant and initiator of activities, who should be able to provide leadership, being a good teacher with qualifications and experience in the work being fostered at the centre. Teachers must feel that they are being offered, something of value. The teacher-in-charge must have knowledge of:-

a) Work being done at local schools

b) Group discussion work

c) Syllabuses, current curriculum trends and planning

d) Available resources

e) Sources of information

2. All administrative duties. These will include:

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i. a. Staff control
   b. Care of buildings
   c. Stores
   d. Stock records
   e. Physical amenities, i.e. Audio-visual equipment, Workshop furniture, etc.

ii. All arrangements for:
   a. Meetings
   b. Courses
   c. Work or study groups
   d. Group activities."

Each of the centres in Durban and Pietermaritzburg has a secretary as the only assistant to the teacher-in-charge. In addition to teachers' centres there are three model resource centres in Natal, sited in Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Dundee. The two in Durban and Pietermaritzburg are housed in the same buildings as the teachers' centres and are extensions of the centres although they do not fall under the control of the teacher-in-charge. They have their own teacher librarians who advise teachers on the selection of "multi-media" materials and assist the teacher-in-charge in the discharge of his duties.

In 1973 when the first teacher-in-charge was appointed to the Durban centre the emphasis was on the holding of meetings, courses and displays. The meetings and courses were mainly organised by subject associations of the Natal Teachers' Society and the Inspectorate. Booksellers and suppliers of educational aids, individual schools and subject associations

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held displays. Teachers at schools were informed of these activities by means of regular newsletters. In the subsequent years, although the centres continued to cater for meetings, courses and displays, more emphasis was placed on individual work by teachers and assistance to small groups of teachers.

The centres have facilities for photography, magnetic tape recordings, reprographic work, photo-copying and spirit and ink duplicating.

The model resource centres house multi-media materials such as reference books, fiction books, readers, maps, charts, and photographic slides. These model resource centres are regarded as "shop windows" where material is on show. They also serve as models for the libraries or resource centres of individual schools.

The position in England

Teachers' centres in England have been fully described in Part Three of this thesis. The following aspects need be highlighted here. First, there is a great variety of teachers' centres in England, like and unlike each other in many respects. Second, it is important to note that in many local educational authorities **the post** of warden of a centre is considered important enough to warrant a senior rank such as adviser or even deputy director of education. The functions of the warden were described in detail (pages 116 - 118). Third, the role played by the centres in supporting teachers and headteachers in their personal development as educators was shown to be one of the main functions of the centres.

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Conclusions and recommendations

The two teachers' centres in Natal are well established and are increasingly offering more support to teachers in curriculum development matters. The position of teacher-in-charge is a relatively low ranking promotion post. Five recommendations are made.

1. The status and salary of the teacher-in-charge should be elevated to at least that of a subject adviser or inspector.
2. The centres should be granted a larger annual monetary allocation from the Natal Education Department so that more sophisticated apparatus can be provided and the activities of the centres be expanded.
3. A campaign should be undertaken in the schools to bring to the notice of principals and teachers the services provided at the centres. The principals should be involved in the initial stages of such a campaign. The teacher-in-charge of the centre should visit schools and inform the principals of the function and activities of the centre. Displays and exhibitions should then be held at the centre to which principals are specially invited. The aim of this part of the campaign should be to gain the interest and support of the principals of the schools. The next stage of the campaign should involve the teachers and follow similar lines as the first stage. Regular newsletters, probably monthly, should be sent to the schools informing them of the current activities of the centre. At no later than

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the start of the year, all in-service courses that are to be presented at the centre during the year should be circularised to the schools.

4. The social facilities at the centres should be extended and special provision should be made to assist probationary teachers in both their personal adaptation to their careers and in the preparation and presentation of their lessons.

5. Ideally the affairs of the centre should be managed by a committee which has both the power to innovate and the authority to see that the innovations are put into practice. A centre where such a committee functions was visited by the author in Crawley, Sussex. This centre is managed by a steering committee elected from the schools served by the centre. The constitution of this committee is given in Appendix C.

Under the existing educational system in Natal it might be difficult to appoint a committee with these powers. It might, therefore, be more practical if a steering committee was appointed by the Education Department. The function of this committee would be to assist the teacher-in-charge in the planning and running of the activities of the centre and to liaise with the schools in order to establish and provide for their needs. The committee should consist of secondary and primary principals, secondary and primary teachers, representatives from the colleges of education and the Department of Education, and the teacher-in-charge. Where the primary schools generally make more use of the centres primary principals and teachers should be in the majority.

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6. THE BUILDING DESIGN OF SCHOOLS

The Position in Natal

The building of schools in Natal is governed by rules which apply to all four provinces. A formula, which expresses the cost in rands per square metre per unit, must be adhered to. The unit referred to is the pupil. The education planners (physical amenities) of the Natal Education Department together with the provincial architect form a building research committee which is responsible for the planning and specifications of new schools. The purchase of land for new schools, the detail of requirements and accommodation specifications all lie within the compass of this committee's authority. Use is made of standard plans which are modified and adapted to meet with site requirements. These standard plans are characterised by what is referred to as the 'finger design'. Here the classrooms are built in a row all having access to a corridor on the one side. It is also common to have one row of classrooms situated on top of the other.

Flexibility in the use of space is extremely difficult to achieve in the buildings that house the primary schools of Natal and can only be attempted within the confines of individual classrooms. The corridors on to which the classrooms open have one purpose only and that is to give access to the classrooms. It is not possible to use these spaces for display purposes.

In many primary schools, because of more stringent staff rationing, few specialist teachers of art, music, domestic

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science and physical education are appointed. Therefore, it is becoming increasingly necessary for the class teacher to be responsible for the whole curriculum. Resource centres in schools are ceasing to function under the control of a resource centre teacher. The reason is that the resource centre teacher has now to be found from the staff in the school and is no longer an extra appointee. This has resulted in the books and equipment from the resource centres being shared out among the teachers and housed in the classrooms. Not only will a wider range of activities be pursued in the classrooms because of the new approach, but additional space will have to be found for the extra books and equipment previously kept in the resource centres.

It will soon be expected of the primary school teacher in Natal to make provision for a more child-centred approach, to adopt new methods of teaching and to follow an approach for which the existing buildings are inadequate. The school building will have to be recognised as one of the more important resources available to the teacher and provision should be made for these changes in the design of future schools. Existing schools will have to be modified. One aspect that should receive particular attention is how to incorporate in the design of buildings a better utilisation of outside spaces. Inadequate provision is made at present for the use of enclosed, covered and tiled areas adjacent, but outside the classroom. With the ideal weather conditions prevalent in large areas of Natal these spaces ought to be put to better use.

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Position in England

The central government, the local authorities and the churches are the three bodies concerned with school building activities in England (7). The minimum standards for new buildings are set by the central government who is also responsible for the major part of the financing of building operations. However, it is the local authorities and the churches who design and build the schools and, provided the minimum standards are met and the cost norm per place not exceeded, they are free to follow their own ideas. Although practice varies from one local authority to another, it is usual to find a committee or planning group responsible for the planning and building of schools. Frequently head-teachers and primary advisers serve on these committees. Use is made of standard briefs which are constantly changed as a result of feed-back and experience from buildings completed and in use. This applies particularly to open plan schools.

Open plan schools were discussed in detail in Part Three of this thesis and certain characteristic features were mentioned. Some of these are now summarised.

1. A variety of learning and teaching spaces is provided.
2. A large number of activities can take place at the same time within these spaces.
3. The pupils look upon the spaces where they meet regularly every day for instructions and registration purposes as their home bases.
4. An extremely wide range of amenities are provided within the teaching and learning spaces.

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Furthermore, it was pointed out that these schools were characterised by a flexibility in design where spaces could be re-organised to meet changing needs and the utilisation of the whole school building for teaching and learning activities. The importance of the section on the open plan school is that it suggests a way in which the school building can facilitate and enhance the teaching and learning of the pupils. This is all the more necessary because of the changes that have come about in primary education.

Conclusions and recommendations

The buildings that house the primary schools of Natal are designed in such a way that the teaching and learning activities are confined to the classrooms. Very little flexibility, which allows for space to be used in a variety of ways, is possible. The building itself is not looked upon as being one of the teaching resources.

The Natal Education Department should investigate the possibility of changing existing buildings and erecting new ones that facilitate individual learning, child activity and an integrated approach to the curriculum. The provision of larger learning and teaching areas that can be subdivided into spaces of varying size ought to be considered. Buildings ought to be designed in such a way that better use can be made of outdoor spaces, some of which should be enclosed, covered and tiled. More display areas for the children's work outside the classrooms should be provided.

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The Education Department should take cognizance of the slow but widespread change towards more informal methods which have resulted from new thinking about how children learn. They should recognise that these changes influence the use of teaching and learning space and affect the housing of education. It is essential that new schools are built and old ones modified not according to the requirements of 20 years ago, but to satisfy immediate and future needs. The establishment of these future needs can present difficulties, but one can agree with Pearson when he says (8):

> "... designing for the future is not a matter of seeking educational gimmicks, or of guesswork about fashions, but that design begins with a society of children and teachers, the life they want to lead and the way in which they wish to work."

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APPENDIX A.

EXTRACT FROM THE LOGBOOK OF THE GREENWOOD PARK GOVERNMENT SCHOOL

Monday, 18th June 1934

Miss Helen Parkhurst, founder of the Dalton Plan, visited my school to-day in company with Insp. Mr Banks and Mrs Archibald. She discussed the plan with the teachers concerned and addressed the senior pupils.

Her recommendations were:

(a) double parallel lines on record cards showing progresses in each subject, first line to be the pupils, the second the teachers' record of work corrected.

(b) the weaker pupils to be encouraged in their good subjects; the marking of the weaker subjects not be overdone for it may have a very depressing influence. Encouragement must be the key note.

(c) Individual work rhythm.
Record say every 15 minutes to be made for a stated period.

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APPENDIX B

SCHOOLS COUNCIL RESEARCH STUDIES: PURPOSE, POWER AND CONSTRAINT IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

SECTION II OF THE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE USED TO IDENTIFY INFLUENCES AND CONSTRAINTS

1. The purpose of primary education is to assist the child's spiritual development by deepening his religious experience and by fostering such qualities as wonder and reverence so that in time he will be prepared to make a clear decision for or against a religious commitment.
2. The purpose of primary education is to assist the child to develop aesthetic awareness, discernment and taste so that he enjoys and increasingly appreciates beauty in whatever form it occurs, and to develop in him a desire to make his own contribution in art, music, drama or through another form of aesthetic expression.
3. The purpose of primary education is to help the child develop his intellectual capabilities so that he will learn how to learn, will come to value learning for its own sake, will acquire a body of knowledge and ideas which he can communicate readily and skilfully and will exercise his intellectual powers with discrimination and imagination.
4. The purpose of primary education is to help the child develop attitudes, practical skills and capabilities

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which will enable him to undertake the work he wants to do and which will prove useful and productive in eventually fitting him to make a choice of an occupational role in society.

5. The purpose of primary education is to help encourage the physical and emotional development of the child so that he has every opportunity of personal satisfaction and every chance of becoming physically and emotionally a mature adult.

6. The purpose of primary education is to discover the potential of the child and to nurture skills and attitudes in order that each child may find his proper level of secondary education; thereby making it possible for him to make his fullest contribution to society in adult life.

7. The purpose of primary education is to help the child develop an awareness of right and wrong so that his behaviour will be acceptable to those with whom he mixes, and to promote his awareness of ethical principles which will serve as a basis for his future rational moral conduct.

8. The purpose of primary education is to help the child develop that kind of social awareness and those social skills which will enable him to establish good personal relationships with other children and adults, so that he plays an effective part in the social groups of which he is a member and is prepared for his future role as a citizen.

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APPENDIX C

CRAWLEY TEACHERS' CENTRE

CONSTITUTION

The WARDEN

1. To provide, together with the Steering Committee and local teachers, the initiative in starting up courses, curriculum development, discussions, and any other desirable activities.
2. To be responsible for ensuring that the activities decided on are arranged.
3. To be responsible for publicising the activities of the Centre.
4. To be responsible for the overall running of the Centre.

The STEERING COMMITTEE - composition

Secondary Head	1
Middle/Primary Heads	4
Secondary Assistants	5
Middle/Primary Assistants	8
Colleges of Education	3
Colleges of F.E.	1
Heads of School on which Centre is based	1
Representatives of the Director of Education	2
Warden	1
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The STEERING COMMITTEE - functions

1. To assist the Warden to plan the Centre's programme and activities.
2. To assist the Warden as fully as possible in the running and efficient functioning of the Centre
3. To keep closely in touch with the teachers in the area, and to meet as far as possible their views and needs.
4. To negotiate with the L.E.A., for the size of an adequate annual budget for the running of the Centre.

The STEERING COMMITTEE - Elections and Procedure

1. The teacher members of the Steering Committee shall be chosen annually as follows:
   i) Secondary Heads and Middle/Primary Heads shall be nominated and elected by Secondary Heads and Middle/Primary Heads respectively.
   ii) Secondary Assistants shall be elected by each Secondary School at a meeting of Assistant Teachers.
   iii) First and Middle (Infant and Junior) School Assistants shall be elected by the Assistant Teachers in each area.
   iv) All nominations and elections shall normally be completed before the annual General Meeting which shall be held in the Spring Term each year.
2. Co-option shall be at the discretion of the Committee.

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The Chairman and Warden may invite representatives of the specialist groups to attend meetings when their interests are under discussion.

3. The Committee shall appoint its own officers.

4. At any business meeting of the Committee, a quorum shall be eight and teacher members shall never be in a minority.

5. The committee shall meet as required but at least once per term.

SCHOOL CORRESPONDENTS

1. Each Infant and Junior (First/Middle) School shall appoint a correspondent for liaison with the warden and the area representative to the Steering Committee.

2. The correspondents in each area shall arrange for the annual election of the area representative to the Steering Committee.

AMENDMENTS

Notice of motion to amend this Constitution shall be given in writing to the Chairman or Secretary, not less than 14 days prior to the A.G.M. Amendments shall be agreed by a simple majority vote.

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